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Bases of Power and Subordinates’ Satisfaction with Supervision

- The Contingent Effect of Educational Orientation

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Abstract
The study seeks to find out the impact of the supervisory power bases on subordinates’ satisfaction with supervision in industrial settings. The influence of educational orientations of superiors and subordinates was also examined. The results indicated that referent power, expert power and reward power showed positive relationship with satisfaction with supervision. In terms of rank ordering of bases of power, referent power ranked the highest among other power exercises. This was followed by expert and reward power. The expert power base was also found to be positively related to the superiors’ educational orientations rather than the subordinates’. The results also showed that superiors’ evaluation of subordinates’ competency and ability were based on their education orientations.

Keywords: Supervisory Power Bases, Satisfaction with Supervision, Educational Orientation

1. Introduction
This research investigates the consequences of supervisory power in relation to subordinates’ satisfaction with supervision. Power is said to be a “part of the larger study of the determinant of human behaviour” (Cartwright, 1965, p.3). We are likely to consider the reality of power at some point in the analysis of organizational phenomena. Organizational change and control may be viewed from a power perspective. Differences in the perceptions of power possess implications in its own right because superiors’ use of power may be reinforced by subordinates’ response or the superiors may anticipate subordinates’ reaction to the use of power. It would be helpful for the superiors to be aware of the existence of multiple sources of power in work situations and how they affect employees’ satisfaction (Churchill, Ford and Walker, 1976; Rahim and Buntzman, 1989). Knowing how power affects satisfaction will allow superiors to change or maintain their power bases to achieve desirable outcomes. On the other hand, understanding of the role of educational orientation in the organizational study may be as important as the knowledge of the relationship between the main variables of interest and will obviously increase the usefulness of the research findings.

1.1 Objectives of the Study
The framework for this study is shown in Figure 1 (Note 1). The study also analyzed the influence of educational orientation on power bases, and subordinates’ satisfaction with supervision. Another objective of this study is to compare the outcomes of social power relationship in Malaysian work setting with those reported happening in the West. In this region, the educational level specialized work experience and expertise of superiors are often more limited as compared to advance country? The culture is characterised by strong traditional values according to which deep commitment to friends, superiors and relatives is the locus of social relations among individuals. These cultural and environmental factors are likely to influence the outcomes of the different bases of superior power and also in the manner in which other contingent factors affect the acquisition and use of these powers.

The key research questions are:
• What are the consequences of power relationships upon subordinates’ satisfaction with supervision?
• Are there any correlations between power bases, and superiors-subordinates’ educational orientation?

2. Literature Review
Many power theoreticians (Dahl 1957; Emerson, 1962; Kornberg and Perry, 1966; Nagel, 1968; Wrong, 1968) emphasized that power should be conceptualized as a relationship between or among persons and not an attribute or
possession of a person or group. Within organizational context, theorists largely agree that individual power in organization is the ability to control others, to exercise discretion, to get one’s own way.

Differences among definitions given by many researchers (Kanter, 1977; Scott, 1981; House, 1984) appear to be a function of differences on three basic issues about power. First of all, definitions given by researchers often reflect individual orientation and arena of interest (e.g. sociological, political, organizational, etc.). Secondly, theorists tend to focus their definitions on different systemic levels which include the individualistic, the dyadic and systemic. A third divisive element among power theorists has to do with which variables are most central to a conception of power. Despite the irregularities in the conception of power, certain cumulative character appeared from this large body of research in terms of the description of power relations.

From this description of power relation, it is obvious that the notion of influence is particularly important to the concept of power. In short, leadership and influence are a function of power. Power is the potential to influence. In order to analyze the power dependence relations adequately, we need to separate the holding of power because its dependence on one’s person, one’s office, the willingness to exercise it, and the tendency to do so can change the nature of influence.

2.1 The Bases of Power

Several categorizations have been used in differentiating bases of social power in organizations (Peabody, 1961; Etzioni 1964; Patchen, 1974; Twomey, 1978; Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson, 1980; Shukla, 1982; Rahim, 1989). However, French and Raven (1959) typology of power is still the most famous in research work (Cobb, 1980; Frost & Stahelski, 1988; Rahim, 1989; Rahim, Antonioni, Krumov, & Illieva, 2000). French and Raven defined bases of power as below:

2.1.1 Coercive Power
Coercive power involves the concept of influence based upon “the expectation of punishment for failure to conform to an influence attempt”. The strength of coercive power depends on the magnitude of the “negative valence of the threatened punishment multiplied by the perceived probability that a power recipient can avoid the punishment by conformity”. One of the key elements is that people subject to coercive power are either indifferent to, or opposed to, the wielder of authority.

2.1.2 Expert Power
This power usually manifests in information, knowledge and wisdom, in good decision, in sound judgment and in accurate perception of reality. Expert power is restricted to particular areas as the “expert” tends to be specialised. The extent of expert power is not clearly a function of the face-to-face interaction or the personal quality of that interaction between role partners; it may be a function of the knowledge possessed by the power wielder, not of his presence.

2.1.3 Reward Power
Reward power is derived from the ability to facilitate the attainment of desired outcomes by others. In a sense, this form of social power is closely related to coercive power. If one conforms to gain acceptance, reward power is a work. However, if conformity takes place to forestall rejection, coercive power has to be exercised. In accordance to French and Raven, reward power depends on the power wielder (individual or group) administering “positive valences and reducing or removing negative valences”.

2.1.4 Referent Power
This involves the concept of “identification”, which French and Raven (1959) define as “a feeling of oneness or a desire for such an identity”. If referring to a group, then an individual seeks membership in such group or has a desire to remain in an association already established.

2.1.5 Legitimate Power
Closely tied to the Weberian concept of “legitimate authority”, legitimate power is induced by norms or values of a group that individuals accept by virtue of their socialisation in the group. By the French-Raven, definition, this power “stems from internalised values which dictate that there is a legitimate right to influence and an obligation to accept this influence”.

2.2 Satisfaction with Supervision
Job satisfaction is a collection of feelings or affective responses of the organizational members which are associated with the job situation within the organization. Smith, Kendal and Hulin (1969), in their well documented measure, the Cornell JDI (Cornell Job Descriptive Index) described five areas of satisfaction: the work itself, the supervision, the co-workers, the pay, and the opportunities for promotion on the job. Since the present study is on the superior-subordinate relationships, the job-facet satisfaction is most relevant to satisfaction with supervision.
Obviously, from human relations perspectives, supervisory satisfaction is related to the personality traits of the superior which as his/her temperament, openness, industriousness, pleasantness etc. The positive side of all of these traits can enhance satisfaction. Related to the personal resourcefulness, supervisory satisfaction is also dependent on the superior’s distinguishing qualities and abilities such as intelligence and knowledge.

2.3 Educational Orientation

The educational orientation that shapes one’s knowledge, problem solving skills, inductive reasoning, syntactic evaluation etc. will affect ability on how a person evaluates and interprets various cues and stimuli in the working environment and also on how a person acts as a consequence of these interpretations. Research has showed that subordinates with low levels of education are likely to be more susceptible to influence if their superiors use legitimate, reward and coercive sources of power (Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Shetty, 1978; Sussman and Vecchio, 1982). On the contrary, subordinates with higher levels of education have been found to be more receptive if their superiors use expert and referent sources of power. There was no reported research known to the authors which specifically examines superiors’ educational orientations with regard to the bases of social power and satisfaction with supervision. The present research hopes to bridge this gap.

3. Hypotheses to be tested

The hypotheses derived for this study are:

H1a: Superiors’ non-coercive bases of social power (expert, referent, reward and legitimate) are positively associated with the subordinates’ satisfaction with supervision

H1b: Superiors’ coercive base of social power is negatively associated with the subordinates’ satisfaction with supervision.

H2a: There are no differences in the subordinates’ perceptions of power bases and satisfaction with supervision in relation to the superiors’ educational orientation.

H2b: There are no differences in the subordinates’ perceptions of power bases and satisfaction with supervision in relation to their own educational orientation.

4. Research Methodology

4.1 Sampling Design

Stratified random sampling technique was used to select companies with a number of employees more than 25. This number was arbitrarily chosen but the intention here was to include only establishments where a more formal organizational structure and system of supervision more likely to exist and function. The factories that met the above criteria were selected from the master list of factories registered with the Federation of Malaysian Manufacturers. Data was obtained through survey questionnaires.

4.2 Research Instruments

All data used in the study consist of responses to questionnaire items. Measures of relevant constructs were discussed here.

4.2.1 Bases of Supervisory Power

The five French-Raven bases of supervisory power were measured by using the Rahim Leader Power Inventory (RLPI) (Rahim, 1988). This multi-item instrument uses a 5-point Likert scale to measure perceptions of subordinates regarding their superiors’ bases of power. The instrument comprises of 29 items.

4.2.2 Satisfaction with Supervision

The instrument used to measure satisfaction with supervision is the updated version of the original Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith et al., 1969) which was later revised by Roznowski (1989). The revised scale was shown to be more internally consistent than the original scale with the alpha coefficient of .912. The unweighted sum of the individual item score was used as a measure of satisfaction with supervision. The instrument is made up of 18 items.

4.3 Data Analysis Techniques

Reliability and factor analysis was used to check the consistency and dimensionality of the scale items. Multiple regression analysis is performed to check the criterion-related validity of the scale items. Pearson Intercorrelation was used to measure the associations among the social power bases and satisfaction with supervision. Additional analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to test the different in power bases and satisfaction with supervision with superiors’ educational orientation and subordinates’ educational orientation.

5. Research Results and Discussions

5.1 Sample Characteristics
Data from 230 respondents were received out of total 1432 questionnaires sent. Only 210 data were usable. Sample characteristic is described in Table 1 (Note 2). The highest number of respondents is from Chinese ethnic group. A mere 7% female respondent reflects the male domination in the industrial sector. More than 60% of the respondents were from factories located in the Klang Valley. The highest proportion of respondents fell into the 31-40 years age group.

On the whole, the education level of the respondents was high. Nearly 61% of the respondents had education up to university in technical field while 15% received university education in non-technical field. Only 24% of the respondents had no tertiary education. The high educational level was also strikingly high, with 70% of them having had tertiary education in technical fields.

The survey also revealed the information about the respondent’s superiors. Almost all of the superiors reported in the survey were males. A majority of them were holding medium to high management positions. On average, the superiors had worked in the organization for 11 years – far longer than the subordinates’ average. Most of the superiors were holding high positions in the company with 36% of them in the first hierarchical level. Their educational level was also strikingly high, with 70% of them having had tertiary education in technical fields.

5.2 Validating the Scales

The data on the 29 power items from the sample of 210 respondents were factor-analyzed. The selection of a factor and an item was guided by the criteria: eigenvalue > 1.0 and Scree Plot and factor loading > 0.4, respectively (Ford, MacCallum & Tait, 1986). Based on these criteria, the first five factors were selected (result not shown).

Considering that the result as a whole supported the a priori grouping of items, it can be concluded that the power scale developed by Rahim (1988) was suitable for application to the present data although some purification was necessary to improve its accuracy. The indices of the five power bases were computed by averaging the samples responses to the items in each factor. This resulted in the creation of five continuous subscales.

The mean, standard deviation and standardized Cronbach Alpha and the corrected item-total correlation for each subscale is provided in Table 2 (Note 3). The internal consistency reliability coefficients for all the scales were satisfactory (Nunnally, 1978). All the scales had coefficient Cronbach Alpha greater than .70. A corrected item-total correlation is a correlation between an item’s score and subscale score computed from the remaining items in the set. The item-total correlations for the five scales ranged between .29 and .76.

A multiple regression analysis was run to test the relationship between the five bases of leader power and the subordinates’ satisfaction with supervision. The results are presented in Table 3 (Note 4). The results showed that the referent, expert, and reward power bases positively influenced satisfaction with supervision. The five power bases together explained about 45% of the variance in satisfaction. The relations between the five power bases and the “theoretically-related” dependent variable supported the criterion related validity of the power scale.

5.3 Testing of Hypotheses

H1a & H1b: Power Bases and Supervisory Satisfaction

The correlational results in Table 4 (Note 5) provided good support for H1a. The non-coercive bases of social power (expert, referent, reward and legitimate) showed positive relationships with satisfaction with supervision. Referent power ranked highest among other power exercises (coefficient .64). This was followed by expert power and reward power which both had coefficients of correlation of 0.47. The ranking of intercorrelation was somewhat similar to the study of Rahim and Buntzman (1989) conducted on respondents with post graduate working experiences. It was expected that referent and expert power represent a high level of internalisation or inner acceptance. In the exercise of referent power, internalisation derived from the identification of power recipient with the wielder of referent power – a personalised commitment to the group or its representative. As Raven (1974) found out, the exercise of referent power tends to encourage a more satisfied, cooperative and prolonged relationships between superiors and subordinates.

Expert power benefits from an umbrella of authority which may go beyond superiors’ specialised skills. Among technical staff, expertise emerges as a very important cue for acceptance and recognition of the superiors’ direction as reflected in the present result. It most likely gains their compliance and least likely to provoke their resistance (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985). Similarly, greater satisfaction with supervision among subordinates may lead to greater cooperation and heightened dependence.

Both referent and expert power were labelled by Yukl (1981) as “personal” form of power. The present results supported the general view that “personal” power has a positive effect on the leader-subordinate relationship. The high degree of intercorrelations among the referent, expert and reward power bases served to temper the previous
discussions and tended to suggest that while referent power emerged as the dominant explanatory power base, its effective utilisation might be tied, to some extend, to the superiors’ exercise of a combination of other power bases i.e. in this case, expert and reward power bases.

Although earlier findings (Warren, 1968) acknowledged that reward power shows less inner acceptance, the present correlational results indicated a high level of satisfaction with supervision. This power derives from control over positive or rewarding outcomes for subordinates is expected to be an effective means of influence to increase productivity in the organisation. Schopler and Layton (1974) held that the use of reward power is likely to increase the attraction between the manager and subordinate while coercive power is likely to decrease it. Too much emphasis of this power base, however, should be guarded against, since the withdrawal of positive sanctions is apt to result in the subordinates’ reversion to their previous behaviour. Further, the effect of the inducement, even if continued, is subject to diminishing utility.

The legitimate power showed relatively lower correlation with the satisfaction with supervision. In the exercise of legitimate power, subordinates’ responses tended to be dependent on the normative acceptance of the position and prerogatives of the organization at large including its leadership. The present result concurred with the conclusion made by Yukl (1981) that “position” power such as legitimate and coercive are less effective means of influence attempt.

The result for coercive power was not exactly consistent with hypotheses H1b. The study indicated that the amount of coercive power perceived to be held by a superior was not associated with supervisory satisfaction when it was earlier hypothesized to have negative association. However, the result failed to reach statistical significance. Past researchers also had mixed results with regard to this correlation. For example, Rahim and Buntzman (1988) – weak positive; Busch (1980), Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) – negative. The coercive power which is derived from control over negative or punishing outcomes for other does not appear to be a suitable power base for dealing with subordinates. The traditionalists believed that punishment is ineffective and can lead to discontinuation of social interaction. The present results however, neither confirmed nor disproved the effectiveness of punitive treatments to get things done but it was obvious that this power exercise should not lead to subordinates’ satisfaction. Moreover, people could not be coerced into a deep-seated acceptance of organizational requirements.

H2a & H2b: Power Bases, Supervisory Satisfaction and Educational Orientation

The results of testing H2a are shown in Table 5 (Note 6). The data provided general support for the hypothesis of no differences between superiors with different educational orientations in terms of subordinates’ perception of power bases and satisfaction with supervision. Only two of the seven contrasts were significant at the traditionally acceptable levels, i.e. expert power base (F = 3.00, p < .05) and reward power base (F = 6.15; p < 0.005). These contrasts deserve some explanations. Subordinates’ perception of superiors with technical and engineering background as having more expertise than any other group is an important signal to the management of highly qualified technical personnel. It was apparent that the perception of expertise is often related to the educational level and the relevancy in the field of study seems to play a part in reinforcing this perception. Thus, if expert power is to be used effectively, it is preferable that the superior has the relevant expertise required by his/her department. In addition, the expertise evokes a sense of dependency of the superior’s direction in the organization which has the positive impact on team productivity (Fiorelli, 1988). In the case of reward power, the distinction between the mean scores on the three groups was clear. The superiors with non-technical tertiary education were highest in the reward power score whereas superior without any tertiary education scored the lowest.

Strong relationships between qualification, position and power to reward might have profound influence on the present results. In general, the superiors with a lower level of education will take on a lower position job than those with a higher level of education. They are then often less resourceful than the other managers which limit their capacity to sanction or influence rewards, leading to the lower perception of reward power. It must be remembered that the perception of power embraces not only the willingness but also the capacity to reward. On the other hand, the large proportion of the lower educated subordinates who reported to the superiors of the same educational category as evidenced in the cross tabulation results in Table 6 (Note 7) could have contributed to this observed variation in reward power base perception. Due to the inherent limitations of this study, admissibility of the above explanations can only be evaluated from other research findings dealing with the same variables conducted in similar work and social setting.

H2b test results, as earlier shown in Table 5, supported the general contention of no differences in the subordinates’ perceptions of power bases and satisfaction with supervision between subordinates with different educational orientation.

6. Conclusion

In general, the results of this study in relation to the administration of industrial people were quite consistent with our hypotheses based upon other organizational studies involving qualified and professional people. The instruments used in the study were tested and found to be applicable to our work environment. The results provided some tentative, but
hopefully useful guidance for industrial administrators.

Intercorrelations among the five power bases showed that French and Raven (1959) power bases are not mutually exclusive. Reward and referent power bases were the most closely related followed by expert and referent power bases. The results revealed that referent power, expert power and to some degree reward power and legitimate power are found to be in association with each form of power. On the other hand, coercive power was the least correlated with all other power bases and most often stands alone. Among all of the power bases, coercive power was most related to reward power. It indicates that reward and coercive power tend to be used interchangeably. Though not considered as a serious disadvantage, notable intercorrelations among the five power bases denote the difficulty of finding power typology which is both exhaustive and conceptually distinct.

In assessing the effectiveness of the various influence attempts, the results suggested that referent, expert and reward power should be emphasized to ensure subordinate acceptance. Coercive power should be minimised in any influence attempt except in situation that call for such approach (e.g. time of crisis, low performance etc). The position of legitimate power was the lowest among the non-coercive power bases in influencing subordinates’ behaviour for the case of management of technical and professional staff. Comparative studies revealed an interesting difference in the rank ordering of bases of the superiors’ influence attempts. The present study and Rahim and Buntzman (1989) study ranked referent and expert power as the most favourable and legitimate power the lowest among the non-coercive power bases in eliciting subordinates’ acceptance.

Perception of expertise was related to the superiors’ educational orientation and this perception was reinforced when the field of study was relevant to the expertise requirement of the department. Perception of reward power also tended to correspond with the education orientations of the superior in which the superior with non-technical tertiary education was perceived to give greater reward than the rest.

References


Notes

Note 1. Supervisory Power Bases and Satisfaction with Supervision

Note 2. Respondents’ Characteristics

Note 3. Reliability of Scales: Power Bases and Satisfaction with Supervision

Note 4. Multiple Regression Analysis: Power Bases and Satisfaction with Supervision

Note 5. Pearson Correlations among Key Variables

Note 6. ANOVA: Perception of Power Bases and Satisfaction with Supervision

Note 7. Cross Tabulation: Superiors’ Educational Orientation by Subordinates’ Educational Orientation
Figure 1. Supervisory Power Bases and Satisfaction with Supervision

Table 1. Respondents' Characteristic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents Characteristics</th>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Group</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Malay</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>India</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factories Location</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Perak, Penang, Kedah, Perlis</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Johore, Negeri Sembilan, Malacca and Pahang.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>41 and above</td>
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<td>20 - 30</td>
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<td>Engineers and Assistants</td>
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<td>Supervisors</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Plant Operators</td>
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<td></td>
<td>System Analysts, Draughtsmen, Quality Control Inspectors</td>
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<tr>
<td>Income per month</td>
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<td>RM4001 - RM5000</td>
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<td>Below RM2000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
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<td>More than 12 years</td>
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<td>8 - 12 years</td>
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<td>2 - 4 years</td>
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<td>1 year or less</td>
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<td>Non metal, Basic metal, Textile, Wood and Paper.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Respondents’ Superior</td>
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<td>Female</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Field</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Technical Field</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Tertiary Education</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directors</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Manager</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divisional Manager</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Manager, Engineers, Supervisors</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 20 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 - 20 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 15 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - 10 years</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1- 5 years</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Level</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Level</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Level</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Level</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Reliability of Scales: Power Bases and Satisfaction with Supervision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expert</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.46 to .71</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.57 to .76</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.57 to .72</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coercive</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.40 to .60</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legitimate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.37 to .54</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13.10</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>.29 to .64</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDS</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.26</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows the mean, standard deviation and standardized Cronbach Alpha and the corrected item-total correlation for each subscale.

Table 3. Multiple Regression Analysis: Power Bases and Satisfaction with Supervision

Dependent variable: Satisfaction with supervision

F = 34.749  Significance F < 0.0001
R (adjusted) = .447
Intercept: a = - 1.738
*  p < .0001
**  p < .05

Multiple regression analysis was performed to test the criterion related validity of the power scales in relation to its predictive relationship with satisfaction with supervision.

Table 4. Pearson Intercorrelations of Main Variables of Interest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Expert Power</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Reward Power</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Referent Power</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Coercive Power</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Legitimate Power</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Satisfaction</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * r’s > .11 is significant at p < .05
** r’s > .21 is significant at p < .001

This table shows the intercorrelations among key variables.
### Table 5. ANOVA: Perception of Power Bases and Satisfaction with Supervision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group Means Educational Orientation</th>
<th>F-ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary to Secondary</td>
<td>Tertiary Technical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Superiors’</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expert</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referent</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coercive</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legitimate</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Supervision</td>
<td>12.62</td>
<td>13.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subordinates’</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expert</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referent</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coercive</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legitimate</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Supervision</td>
<td>13.52</td>
<td>13.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:  
* Significant at the .05 level  
** Significant at the .005 level  
Degree of freedom between groups 2  
Degree of freedom within groups 207

### Table 6. Cross Tabulation: Superiors’ Educational Orientation by Subordinates’ Educational Orientation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Superior Educational Orientation</th>
<th>Subordinate Educational Orientation</th>
<th>Primary to Secondary</th>
<th>Tertiary Technical</th>
<th>Tertiary Non-Technical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary to Secondary</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary Technical</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary Non-Technical</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square: 32.81  
Degree of freedom: 4  
Significant level < 0.0001
On Improvement of Physical Education Curriculum Setting in Higher Education

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Abstract
As the last stage of students’ physical training at school as well as the critical part in the formation of lifelong physical exercise, physical education in universities is an important part in the cultivation of student’s overall qualities. Curriculum setting is the starting point as well as the axis of the whole physical education field hence having significance for it. Based on the survey over the actual situation of the present physical education curriculum in higher education, this article tries to reveal and analyze the defects in it and to further put forward some measures and suggestions to perfect it for relevant departments and colleagues’ consideration.

Keywords: Survey, Analyze, Perfect, Distinctive pattern

1. Survey of Present Physical Education in Higher Education

1.1 Physical Education Curriculum Setting
Generally speaking, there are altogether 60 to 70 periods every semester with two per week. In most cases, freshmen and sophomores as well as those first-grade students in junior college have physical classes while, in some universities, juniors and seniors also have access to physical education as optional courses. To be more specific, most universities have their physical education classes for freshmen set by the department of physical education and have their arrangement adjusted slightly after giving students several sport to choose first. There are also some universities who divide students into different sports from the very beginning and give students opportunities to apply for shifting when they are bored with their present sports. However, there is no universal standard for the setting of physical education content. Most universities arrange their classes according to their facilities, teaching faculty and fund. For example, in Southwest University of Political Science, a variety of sports including basketball, volleyball, football, table tennis, badminton, combat, martial art and swimming are provided for students to choose freely.

1.2 Sports Culture in Social Communities
In addition to the arrangement of physical education classes according to relevant education laws and regulations, variable sports activities can be achieved in social communities, such as the annual sports meet and other small-scale competitions in diverse forms. Accordingly, different universities have different distinctive sports culture based on their actual situation.

1.3 Physical Education Test
All universities have annual physical education tests in varied forms with some conducted by teachers themselves while others done by special testing groups.

1.4 The Establishment of Various Sports Teams or Distinctive Teams
Some universities organize sports teams according to the requirements of the Ministry of Education as well as their individual provinces and cities, while some just decide to organize teams after taking that year’s enrollment into consideration, which is quite popular now because it saves lots of money as well as makes it easy to achieve fame and gain.

2. An Analysis on Present Physical Education in Higher Education

2.1 Unreasonable Arrangement of Physical Education Periods
The two-period physical education class seems insufficient compared with the law of sports demanding at least three one-hour periods every week with enough exercise. Since only one period can be spared every week for physical education in universities, other sources are called for to complement, support and serve physical education in order to create desirable atmosphere for its development in higher education.
2.2 Reduced Group Sports (Community Sports)

Here group sports include morning exercise, the exercise during the break, extracurricular activities, all kinds of activities organized by sports associations as well as some small-scale inside-school games. It is shown in present surveys that morning exercise, although conducted well in freshmen, declines in sophomores and then will be discarded by juniors and seniors. The exercise during the break is even worse due to the tight schedule of most freshmen and sophomores as well as students’ rushing among different classrooms during the break. In addition, in order to increase their class hours for specialized courses, most universities arrange additional classes even after the seventh and eighth periods every day, hence occupying the time for extracurricular activities.

2.3 Problems in “Health Standard”

It is critical for the fulfillment of the last physical education stage at school to ensure the authenticity of the “Health Standard” test as well as the reasonable “Health Standard” instruction system. There are two key problems appearing here, one of which is the testing method of “Health Standard”. For example, in 1000-meter running test, with a student giving orders and a teacher counting the time at the finishing line, some errors may be caused by some students failing to finish the complete rounds or taking a shorter route. Second comes the positioning of our present “Health Standard”. Can it reach the ultimate goal of our physical education course to encourage students to own standard physical qualities or does it only aim at formalism in which every student will be given a passing grade? This critical problem calls for every worker in university physical education to reflect on and study carefully. Then we must think over this question whether the present “Health Standard” can test students’ real physical qualities and encourage students to exercise spontaneously. Next let’s clarify it by taking a look at the trial project of “Health Standard” and its actual implementation.

Since the trial implementation of “Health Standard”, most physical education teachers think it hard to achieve its original purpose. It should even be responsible for the overall decline of students’ physical qualities. A rough analysis on the grading standard in the original “Health Standard” will reveal that only finishing the whole test of certain sports students will achieve certain scores, such as 10 points for 1000-meter running, 7 points for height and weight, 10 points for vital capacity, 15 points for standing long jump, 10 points for sit-ups. Only by adding all these lowest scores will a student have 52 points, only 8 points lower than the passing grade. Obviously, such standard fails to reveal whether a student has done exercise hard and whether he has really reached the passing grade, hence discouraging students from doing regular exercise and leading to the decline of their physical qualities.

3. Reflection and Improvement

3.1 Finding the Supporting Point of Group Activities

In view of the reduced group sports (community sports), we should try to find out the supporting point of these activities, which employs quantitative targets to encourage students to spare as much time as possible to do sports. In addition, due to the great significance of physical qualities in students’ overall qualities, universities should make efforts to guarantee students’ time for sports. In spite of the importance of specialized courses, the setting of group sports activities seems more necessary. Even if its influence cannot be shown in a short term, its long-term significance and influence should be put importance on by universities.

3.2 Amending the Former “Health Standard”

With some problems found in the former “Health Standard”, the present “Health Standard” makes some amendments in those unreasonable parts, which give the key points and neglected points clearly and enrich the content of the standard greatly. Here, let’s take long-distance running as an example:

3.2.1 Emphasis on Speed and Endurance

The Interpretation of National Health Standard for Students points out the importance to measure speed and endurance—endurance is one of the basic elements to measure a person’s health condition and labor ability as well as an indispensable basic quality for all kinds of sports (p 95, The Interpretation of National Health Standard for Students). Long-distance running will promote the decomposition of fat inside the body, improve the body’s ability to decompose and employ fat and hence make us healthier. In addition, long-distance running test, with its incomparably simple method, will reveal the testee’s muscle endurance as well as the condition of his respiration system and circulation system. What’s more important, this kind of sports can be employed as an exercise method to encourage students to pay more attention to their own endurance and cardio-pulmonary function and develop their endurance and improve their health condition by taking part in physical exercise more actively.

3.2.2 Test Targets

According to the test targets given in “Health Standard”, if a testee fails in 400-meter running (50 *4 return running), 1000-meter running (male) and 800-meter running (female), his highest score only can be 59 points finally.
3.2.3 Minimum Scores
By fixing the minimum scores for physical education tests, the former disadvantages in this aspect will be avoided. For example, for 1000-meter running, the poorest performance, 5’08”, will be given 10 points.

3.2.4 More Humanized Setting
In order to enhance the adaptability of the present “Health Standard”, not only compulsory tests, but also optional ones, organized by different cities and regions in a reasonable way, have been set. There are also some alternatives for those items which have quite high requirements for sports sites. In this way, regions and universities with different economic conditions, sites and facilities will conduct the given standard more successfully, hence improving the feasibility and adaptability of “Health Standard”.

To sum up, our present “Health Standard”, starting from the reality of China and its high education, has greatly encouraged students to take part in sports activities actively. It is believed that this standard can improve students’ enthusiasm for physical exercise and therefore contribute to the development of group activities at school. Now, it’s up to us to conduct this standard strictly and try to achieve our ultimate goal by taking a down-to-earth attitude, effective methods and active thinking.

3.3 Establishing Physical Education Pattern with Characteristics
With the above two aspects aiming at solving present problems and improving physical education curriculum setting in higher education, innovation seems to be quite important for the establishment of a distinctive pattern for physical education. Three parts should be centered on in the physical education of our higher education, including focusing on teaching, having group competitions as the basic point and having sports teams as the leading part. Guided by the idea of “health comes first”, we are expected to establish the physical education system with our own characteristics based on the present “Health Standard” and the spirit of Juvenile Physical Education Conference with the goal of developing physical sports and strengthening people’s physical qualities.

First, the following principles should be followed when establishing such a pattern:
1. this pattern is relative instead of absolute;
2. this pattern must be established on the basis of the relevant regulations set by education departments;
3. this pattern must reflect special characteristics of different universities;
4. this pattern should have its reference value;
5. this pattern should have atmosphere for adjustment;
6. this pattern should have unchangeable framework;
7. this pattern should be established on the basis of “health come first”.

Second, the idea about the setting of physical education pattern in higher education is as follows:

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 1**
Third, this pattern is interpreted as follows:

1. centering on physical education class

Physical education class, the key point in the formation of students’ overall qualities, helps to cultivate students’ psychological qualities, moral consciousness, fighting spirits as well as determination and character internally, and teaches students some basic skills in sports and how to use them to instruct their future physical exercise externally. Accordingly, the idea of “health comes first”, the actual situation of universities, including teaching faculty, students, sites, facilities, and even some relevant laws and regulations should be based on when designing the pattern of physical education classes. For example, in Southwest University of Political Science, freshmen’s physical education class is set by the department of physical education, while sophomores will be given some sports to choose from, such as basketball, volleyball, football, table tennis, badminton, artistic gymnastics, martial art (fighting) as well as a compulsory one, swimming. About 20 minutes is spared in each period for physical quality exercise. The total physical education grade will be got by adding scores in the following aspects: attitudes (including 10 points for attendance), skills (50 points), physical qualities (30 points) and the knowledge of physical education (10 points).

2. centering on group sports (community sports)

Due to the importance of group sports in encouraging students to exercise regularly and spontaneously and cultivating students’ organizing and managing abilities, the successful design of these activities seems to be the important point of physical education in higher education. It can be conducted as follows: on the basis of the present “Health Standard”, tests are organized every year with special testing groups, which arrange the test timetable for different grades in different colleges and calculate the excellence rate, the rate of good performers as well as the passing rate. In addition, the rankings in different grades and different colleges as well as those in different sports should be given to stimulate students’ enthusiasm for sports in order to earn honor for their units. Besides putting honors into students’ documents, reasonable mental and material prizes can also be given to students.

In addition, some other measures can be taken to enhance students’ enthusiasm for group activities such as some games organized by universities, colleges and grades including sports meet, basketball game, volleyball game, football game and so on. Different grades can select excellent players by organizing trails in the unit of class. These activities, coupled with some inviting games held by sports communities, have provided students with more opportunities to take part in games and more time for physical exercise, hence achieving the goal to enhance their physical qualities, to improve their organizing and coordinating abilities, to establish interpersonal friendship, to enlarge their knowledge and to develop their overall qualities.

3. being driven by sports teams and centering on the development of physical education of universities

Sports teams can be employed as a point to encourage the development of a larger range. Internally, sports teams will promote the development of sports in a university; externally, they are high lights to affect a university’s image, which will promote the contact among universities and learning from each other to update their physical education.

All in all, the above three centers should be stuck to when establishing a physical education pattern with own characteristics.

4. Conclusion

In view of the importance of physical education in higher education, I, devoted to physical education teaching for a long time, have analyzed some defects in present physical education starting from its curriculum setting. I believe, for the time being, in order to promote the development of physical education in higher education, we need to establish a special pattern of physical education for higher education on the basis of relevant educational laws and regulations as well as the reality of different universities.

References


What ‘Crazy English’ can tell us?

Inspiration and Motivation from Li Yang

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Abstract

Issues regarding English language learning such as pronunciation, motivation and learning strategies are raised. Li Yang, an example of successful learner is cited for learners who are less successful in China. Fundamental issues that need to be dealt with include pronunciation. Phonetics is an area where there has been little emphasis in foreign language learning in Chinese schools but good learners of English commonly exhibit good pronunciation.

Keywords: English learning, pronunciation, motivation.

1. Background information on English learning in China

According to Liu and Teng (2006) there are about 300 million people (professional and non-professional) learning English in China. This number equates to a quarter of the total population, of which learners in primary schools, secondary schools and university comprise up to 100 million. A similar estimate was made by Bolton (2003) who claimed that “the total number of English speakers in China has been estimated at over 200 millions, and rising fast” (p. 48).

Zhang (2003) claimed that “in the early 1980s, English became a compulsory subject throughout the secondary school and university level” (p.3). However, learning English as a foreign language has not been a success in China and it has been regarded as ‘high investment but low efficiency.’ Yang & Liu (2002) noted that “foreign language is the only course that covers from primary school to doctoral level in China” (p.37), which is consistent with its significance in the current Chinese educational system.

The cause of ‘high investment and low inefficiency’ in learning English varies and there are several possible explanations. For example: students are not interested in learning; there may be too many students in one classroom; some teachers are not qualified to teach English; and textbooks are either out-of-date for city students or too modern and too foreign for country students. A general understanding is that students are not interested in learning English and it would be appropriate to determine why this is so. Reasons might include: students are not interested in the course; learning strategies; lack of motivation; low ability; low language aptitude; age; attitudes; learning experiences; etc.

A close look may clarify the reasons. First, learning strategy is unlikely to help a learner if he/she is not motivated to learn and the learner needs to understand that effective learning strategies are derived from motivation. Secondly, language aptitude may be low; many less successful learners complain they do not have aptitude, so are not able to learn English, but this begs the questions as to how the mother language is learnt without any difficulties. Gardner and Lambert (1959) suggested that ‘aptitude’ did not explain why some learn well while others do not; instead they explored motivation for clues. Thirdly, ‘age’ might be a factor to consider but not necessarily in a setting like China where English is not a daily communication instrument. There is still hardly any concrete evidence showing ‘age’ is a significant factor influencing learning results in the context of English as a foreign language. Finally, there is ‘motivation.’ Learners should be motivated in one way or another to put action into practice and be determined to learn. This is the key factor that needs to be considered for the majority of English learners. All of the above factors may contribute to learning inefficiency or failure and therefore these issues are discussed widely in the literature.
Generally, most students in China are not interested in learning English and English is the least favoured course. Therefore, it is not surprising that English becomes a decisive course to distinguish between students when their scores are relevantly equal for other courses in Chinese and mathematics.

The low efficiency is probably connected with the lack of a language environment but environment could be created by individuals if learners themselves were to be motivated. Besides, the nature of English learning is tested by examination in China rather than in a real language setting. Jiang (1996, p.6) stated “considering the age of the middle school students and insufficient experience, students usually don’t have clear purpose to learn English. They merely regard English as a subject required to be tested in higher school enrolment, they always find difficulties as well as boring in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.” A communication approach in learning is often out of the question. Therefore, Chinese students are supposed to have their own strength in learning because most language learners are instrumentally motivated and instrumental learners are more successful in learning English as a foreign language (Yuan 2005, Yang, 2004).

2. Status of English in China

Over the past 20 years, the emphasis on the importance of English has never been greater and there is priority for English in the school curriculum. For example, students at university learn it for a Band 4 or Band 6 Certificate in order to obtain a better job because “most good jobs in China demand knowledge of English” (Wampold, 1993, p.11). English is a compulsory course from junior secondary school to the second year of university. On an individual basis, students learn for instrumental purposes; learning to gain a reward and practical return. The understanding of the instrumentality of learning English is nation-wide. English is used as a tool to gain technology and for the individual to obtain material benefits. This, in fact, should encourage language learners to learn better.

According to Ross (1992), English is the key to wealth, prosperity and scientific developments and been chosen to assist China in its modernization programs. Learning of foreign language is an inseparable part of the Chinese modernization. “English nowadays assumes an important position in the school curriculum as well as in people's daily lives in the People's Republic of China” (Yang, 2004, p.73). As a required subject from primary to postgraduate school, it has a special position in Chinese education (Cheng, 2002). “English is the preferred language of world trade and commerce, science and technology and international relations” (Ford, 1988, p.4) and “foreign language is seen as an essential tool in developing and changing the core of the country’s economic system” (Burnaby & Sun, 1979, p.221).

3. Inspiration and motivation from Li Yang

It is argued that most good English learners have good pronunciation and this is especially true in the Chinese context. This is because Chinese people emphasise the expression and ‘mute’ English has been criticised. It has been thought that if a student is not able to pronounce a word correctly, it is difficult to read a sentence and to communicate with others. They use the language in a context where some teachers are not perfect and dare not speak in English. Therefore, pronunciation teaching and learning has been a focus at the initial stage in learning and teachers of English generally agree that good pronunciation helps students learn.

Geographically speaking, China is isolated from English speaking communities. Therefore, English learners are more influenced either intrinsically or via the successful learners around them. As a successful language learner, Li Yang, a well-known celebrity has inspired millions of English learners coming from different walks of life, but the majority of them were students. The Li Yang phenomenon is eye-catching and his success sheds some light on the current ‘high investment but low efficiency’ situation in English learning by students in China. Using variety of learning strategies to tackle difficulties and problems in the course of learning English, Li provides a good example. He transformed himself from a low achieving student to an example for millions of students in China.

Key features of the successful learning strategies promoted by Li Yang are as follow:

1) learning should occur for a purpose;
2) learners should be confident that they can achieve their learning goals;
3) English is a language, not a course, and the language should be used; and
4) there should be a belief that ‘everybody can do it’ thereby breaking the perceived nexus between ‘intelligence and ability to speak English.’

In promoting the learning of English, Li Yang encourages groups of learners to develop confidence by chanting that they wish to learn to speak perfect English.

4. Pronunciation, confidence and learning strategies

According to Li Yang ‘Cracking Pronunciation’ brings benefits to oral English and listening and it often is the source of chain reactions. It is not surprising to see so many English learners stuck in phonetics and often this part is overlooked. Students do not understand its importance if language teachers do not give a full explanation why this part should be
mastered. Li Yang through ‘Cracking Pronunciation’ suggested a person with pronunciation difficulties, would face difficulty in proceeding because if it is hard to pronounce new words and expressions, it will be even more difficult to memorise them.

A similar understanding also was expressed by Liang (1996). He considered “if students haven’t laid a concrete foundation for phonetics, this will directly affect learning words, drills and grammar; if students have problems with words, then they can not organize proper sentences; if they can not construct a simple sentence, then they can’t construct a compound sentence; if their listening is poor, then they can not speak good English and this causes insufficient reading then writing difficulties” (p.8). Hu (1996, p.5) noted that “from Zhang Sizhong (Note 1) 16-words teaching methodology, it first tackles with the basis areas such as phonetics, grammar and vocabulary;” probably providing an explanation as to how the methodology helped so many learners. Apparently, Zhang Sizhong understood the significance of the areas and regarded them as priorities on the agenda of English learning.

These researchers emphasized the importance of phonetics and apparently in the current Chinese context it is significant for learning success even though some English textbooks and teachers try to use the communicative approach to teach and lead students to their ways. The communicative approach has not been successful over the past 20 years because Chinese students have their own characteristics and learning by using the language is probably restricted in limited language-access contexts. For the majority of learners, it is critical to start from phonetics where they learn how to pronounce words and how they are constructed before they can take other concrete steps.

In considering the correlation between academic performance and phonetics, Wang and Li (1996, p.6) noted that “English phonetics training and developing interest in the course should be the prime target.” Good pronunciation helps students develop confidence. Once students have made some progress in pronunciation, and are able to pronounce words by themselves. There is a good start for both teachers and students. This is because without teachers, students could not begin serious learning. In learning, Hou (1997, p.11) stressed that “teachers should encourage students, do not use ‘your pronunciation is no good, you do not speak well’ as a tool to discourage students’ incentives.” This suggests a role for the teacher in phonetics learning.

Wang (2004) conducted a study in which he interviewed groups of ‘good pronunciation students’ and ‘poor pronunciation students.’ He found that those students who were interested in learning English were also high-achieving students with good pronunciation. Consequently, he noted that “in year 8, success in learning of English and good pronunciation is apparently obvious, good learners were those with good pronunciation and good self-concept” (p.62). He further emphasized that “pronunciation is only a small portion in foreign language learning, but it affects our assessment on how well our overall ability, it further affects students’ academic performance in learning” (p.56). Therefore, Hu (2002) claimed that “teachers need to emphasize the phonetics training for students.”

Zhang (2000) also agreed with the characteristics of good English learners. He stated that “today, we still regard ‘good pronunciation’ as criteria of good English learners” (p.77). Good pronunciation generally is regarded as a trait of high achieving students and this suggests good pronunciation facilitates the English learning process, such as words/texts reading, and it is unrealistic for students to make progress if they are unable to pronounce what they have learned correctly. Therefore, good pronunciation has been regarded as an indicator for high achieving English learners and it is not surprising that students who are interested in English also have good pronunciation.

Xu (1999, p.109) stated “Chinese students can not learn a foreign language well if they don’t learn phonetics. Phonetics should be the priority if one wants to learn English, like pinyin [phonetics for Chinese characters] when we first learn Chinese.” This understanding is consistent with Li Yang’s ‘Crazy English’ which highlights the inner side of ‘mute English’ because Chinese learners generally are learning ‘deaf and mute English.’ Namely, learners do not use the language to communicate with others. Often they take it for granted that they understand their meaning of words by themselves, but when others talk in English, Chinese learners of English often are confused, not knowing what others are talking about. Then there is a gap between what an individual pronounces and what others say. Students may have no problems understanding their Chinese English teacher but do not know how native English speakers sound when they talk.

In the process of learning phonetics and pronunciation, the teacher’s role is particularly important if students are to achieve a better outcome. Rivers (1964, p.92) noted “foreign language learning classrooms are a fertile ground for frustration, anxiety, embarrassment and humiliation.” This is consistent with the language teacher making a difference for students’ learning. A smile, a nod and a word of encouragement helps students build confidence and develop an interest in the course.

Ironically, good pronunciation is probably not a component for many good language learners in other cultures where communication is more imperative or an area which has been overlooked. Chinese learners of English may have encountered people from Singapore, Malaysia, India and many other parts of the world who speak hardly-recognisable English by Chinese standards due to pronunciation.
Conclusion
In the context of learning English in China, pronunciation and phonetics have been weak and these issues are raised to gain the attention of language learners and researchers.

Good English learners often have good pronunciation and low achieving students are always weak in this area. Having good pronunciation helps develop interest while chain reactions occur for low achieving students because they often fail the threshold of pronunciation which is a requirement in the curriculum in the Chinese school. In other words, pronunciation and phonetics are the areas which need to be stressed to avoid the ‘high investment and low efficiency’ situation in English learning. Effort invested in phonetics and pronunciation will improve the devastating learning situation in China and it also will rescue those who start-then-fail in phonetics learning.

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Notes
Note 1. Zhang Sizhong is an English teacher at a middle school in China whose ‘16 words’ on learning English strategy help many students to tackle problems and finally achieve high outcomes.
Research on Russian National Character

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Abstract
The special geographical location Russia lies in creates the unique character of the Russian nation. Based on the dual nature of the Russian national character, the Russian geographical environment and the analysis of its social structure, this text tries to explore the reasons of the dual nature of Russian national character.

Keywords: Russian national character, Geological location, Social structure

When we talked about a person’s character, we virtually mean the total behavior of the person in a given environment or in the interpersonal communication. The reason why we feel this person is different from that one is that he has his own character. This character is actually a symbol or an identifier that an individual is different from another one. A nation, like a person, has its own character. Russian national character derives from its environment, which has been formed for thousands of years. Russia is a very special nation. It has a vast territory across the Eurasian continent and a history of ups and downs and civilization between East and West. This unique geographical environment and social and cultural background have determined the Russian national character, created the dual character of the Russian nation. A Russian famous philosopher once said that Russia could bewitch the people but it could also disappoint them. It could evoke warm love as well as strong hate for it.

When we are with the Russian people, we always feel their rolling emotion. We can not understand how the Russian people would suddenly scream, why they would be changeable when a thing has been determined, why they always have feelings of superiority when working with Asians while they become mannered dealing with the Westerns. I believe that the other nations, except Russia, do not have the character of such a big swing. Therefore, the dual nature of the Russian character has been demonstrated.

1. The dual Russian character has been displayed
It is all known that Russians drink a lot. Many people even a lot of women are addicted to alcohol. They drink in order to be drunk. Therefore, it is needless for you to try to persuade a Russian to drink when you treat him because he thinks it is good to drink and he enjoy himself in it. However, after he finishes wine he will become very sad and talk about the sorrowful story of his own. Sometimes he will burst into tears. In the drink, the greatehearted and fragile character has been fully displayed.

There is another phenomenon of contradiction. Russians will display their extraordinary passion of patriotism, courage, patience, perseverance and spirit of sacrifice when they are in the critical moment of life and death. The defensive war in 1812 is a good case in point. Facing the powerful forces of Napoleon, the Russian army fought bravely and finally drove the aggressors out of their homeland. So it is easy to find that this nation has a powerful cohesiveness and patriotism in defending their homeland when suffering from external aggression. However, in a peaceful daily life, some people are reluctant to do more for their own unit and country. They’d like to obey heir routine work to rest, go home after work on time and have a timely vacation.

There is something split in Russian national character, that is, the opposite of generosity and stinginess. In dealing with the relationship between the countries the nation is comparatively generous, but a little stingy. Sino-Soviet relation in 1950s and 1960s is a good example in case. The People's Republic of China, after her foundation, implemented a foreign policy lopsided to the former Soviet Union. They established a foreign relation of “comrade and brother”. In 1950 Mao Zedong visited the former Soviet Union and signed the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship, Alliance and Mutual Assistance with Stalin. In accordance with the Treaty, the Soviet Union offered a large-scale assistance to China. In the friendly period, the former Soviet government sent more than 3,000 experts to help China. In less than 10 years, more than 150 projects had been set to help China built a comparatively complete industrial base and industrial system of national defense. To China, a country just walking out of a 100-year history of humiliation, with almost no modern industry this assistance is very valuable. However, when ideological differences appeared, Russia quickly withdrew all the experts and tore up all the project contracts. China had suffered a tremendous loss. It is difficult to understand that a country could give you a selfish help but treated you in a very different way just a few years later.
The dualistic contradiction of Russian national character is its dual nature I mean. Russian people are very emotional and often go to extremes. And the national character is vacillating and instable. They have national pride and aspirations of the freedom. Their souls are soaked with individualism, a strong sense of personal awareness. And they are also full of selfless collective consciousness. They sometimes are very lazy but hard working, sometimes very high-handed but obedient, sometimes very overbearing but devout.

2. The reasons why the Russian national character forms

I think that I should analyze the dual nature of the Russian national character from the following two aspects.

2.1 The impact of geographical environment

The unique features of a local environment always give special characteristics to its inhabitants. The words are suitable to describe the Russian people. Russia covers the largest territory in the world. It is across the Eurasian continent. It has large forest, endless plains, and numerous rivers. The vast land gives many virtues to the Russian nation, and some disadvantages at the same time. Kluchevsky, a famous Russian historian once said, “the living conditions let the Russian people know that they should cherish the workdays when the weather is fine in the summer days because the summer days get shorter due to the unusual and unexpected bad weather. Russian people have to race with the time in order to complete the work in a shorter time. However, they will have to stay at home with nothing to do in the autumn and winter. Thus the Russian people have formed a habit that it seems they are eruptible. They do things fast and deftly. Nature has cultivated the Russian people to work very industriously in the shortest time. But they cannot be accustomed to persevering and laboring orderly. It is true that they have energy of outburst but they are still lack of endurance.”

Russia is a Eurasian country. Its territory includes the east part of Europe and the north of Asia. It is divided into two parts by the Ural Mountains, a dividing line of Europe and Asia. Russia is believed to be a European country and an Asian country as well. It belongs to both the East and the West. For the geographical reasons, Russia has close relations with both the East and the West. The unique geographical location has played an important part in forming the national character. The unique geopolitical factor leads to a problem. Should it on earth belong to the East or the West? Russia stresses their characteristics of the West. But Europe has never treated them as a real member of the European families. Russia is like a pendulum, swinging between the East and the West. Russia's unique geographical location makes it hold the East with one hand and grasp the West with the other hand. The two factors have always wrestled in the character of the Russian people. In other words, the Russian nation has no home. Are Russians the Easterners or the Westerners? Does its culture on earth belong to the East or the West? Facing the embarrassment for so long time, the national character inevitably certainly broke up.

Geographical environment has given a long and stable influence on the Russian character. A famous person said that there was a fact that outstrips our history and runs through all our history like a distinct red thread… It is at the same time a very important factor of our great politics and the real reason of our spiritual weakness. Here the fact means the geographical location. The influence is still on. Therefore, the geographic location and the environmental impact always make Russia choose. Thus there is inevitably a split in its national character, which is one of the reasons of its dual nature of the Russian national character.

2.2 The impact of the social structure

There are contradictions in the social structure of Russian nation. Throughout Russian history, people know that it was almost of feudal society. From the 9th century to 1980s, there are about 1200 years. About 1000 years Russia was in feudal society. 50 years (1861-1917) was in capitalist society and 70 years was in a socialist society. In the feudal society, farmers suffered very cruel oppression and exploitation. They had no life freedom. They were sold, robbed and killed. Actually they were serfs, the private property of the landlords. There was a serious social polarization. When the west Europe had entered the era of industrialization, Russia still maintained a serf system. Such an unreasonable social system had baffled the development of the society. The serfs, as a class layer, were relatively illiterate and short of opportunities of education and development. In a contrast, there appeared a noble class after the Peter Reform. The empire Peter demanded all the noblemen speak French, wear clothes of European style and live a westernized life. Otherwise they would have no right to get married. Russia produced a very wealthy and well-educated aristocratic class. In terms of wealth and education, they were not inferior to their counterparts in the other countries of the world. In a word, there existed in the Russian nation a big gap between the upper and lower class. That is to say, the entire society had developed lopsidedly. In addition, I want to say more about its feudal system.

The long-term control by feudal autarchy and the serf system had left deep brand in the Russian national character. Russian people have a glorious tradition of fighting against feudal autocratic oppression and struggling for democracy and freedom. Of course to some extent, the nation is submissive and obedient. Russian history is full of troubles and disasters. It had been invaded and ravaged repeatedly by the alien nations. The Russian people will never forget the harassment of the grassland nation, the Mongol invasion and rule, the occupancy of Napoleon, the armed intervention of the imperialists after the October Revolution, the German seizure and looting during World War II. However, no matter how powerful the enemies were, they never yielded. Russian people are brave and valorous. Leiluoe·Baurieux, a French historian of 19th century said, “the Russian soldiers were the most hard-bitten in all the Europe. Their capacity of toughness was rare, which was hard to find in the Western countries. They crossed the southern grassland and got
exhausted. Millions of people died in the way. But they had no resistance, no complaints and no lament. And the Russian people, in essence, are the worst warlike in the world.” Their victory over the foreign invaders greatly fostered and aroused the love for the nation, their feelings of national pride and the national cohesion. In other hand, the Russian people forced by their governments had invaded some other countries, launched series of wars of expansion. They occupied vast territories of China and other countries. The wars also brought tears and death to the Russian people. Meanwhile these aggressive wars on the other side produced chauvinism of big Russia. All the above have played a big impact on the formation of the Russian national character. They are the factors that make the dual characters of the nation.

Wales, the noted author of the United Kingdom gave a vivid description of Russia when he visited it in 1920. He said, “The Russian people, with Slavs as the mainstay, have built today's Russia. The richness and abundance in natural resources had produced the wildness, laziness, inefficiency and her pride. The country won the enviable success in the aerospace and other high-tech areas because its people are of great intelligence. National character has two sides and its own reasons. It is no necessary for people to employ a magnifying glass to find the shortcomings and weakness of the others. What we should do is to respect our neighboring countries, and to seek complementary points and establish a strategic alliance in order to find an appropriate stand for us own in the future multi-polar world”.

References
An Exploration of Creative Talents Training

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Abstract
The ways to train creative talents are put forward by an analysis of talents-training mode, individual development, creative thinking and the optimization of teaching process.

Keywords: creative talents, creative thinking, individuality

Innovation is the source of a nation’s progress and the ever-lasting motive of a country’s prosperity. Early in 1982, the Japanese government put forward that the development of creative ability should be acquired to train global, progressive and creative talents for the 21st century. Nathan Marsh Pusey, the president of Harvard University, believes that what matters to a person is whether he is a creative one. In the UK and Germany, great attention is also paid to creativity: Training creative teachers and students in creative environment.

What is creativity? There are mainly three aspects to it: First, it refers to an activity to “create totally new things” with such results as new concept, new design, new theory as well as new technology, new craftsmanship and new product; secondly, creative thinking is an activity of human beings in the process of creation; thirdly, creative talents refer to those who are of strong creativity and accustomed to creative thinking. Creative talents are confident, open-minded and more diligent, i.e. creative talents = creative thinking + creative personality. Or, creative talents are closely related to one’s thinking and personality.

Then, what quality should creative talents possess? First of all, they should possess creative spirit, advocate creativity, seek for creativity and be proud of creativity, and they should also be able to find the problems and raise them, i.e. “problem consciousness”. Secondly, they should learn to think creatively, not being tied up to conventions and traditional concepts; they should have sharp insight and rich imagination, i.e. “preceding thinking”. Thirdly, they should possess creative ability with strong and wide knowledge, broad vision, and they should also be able to open new fields by their comprehensive knowledge, and to master methodology of creating new knowledge. Fourthly, they should possess sound personality, preparing to delicate to science and human causes at any time. They should be brave to venture, to doubt and to criticize. They should also have a good balance of mental status and psychological quality.

In fact, how to train creative talents has been a common issue among world’s families and schools and all walks of life. Then, how to correctly train creative talents?

1. To train creative talents, educational thoughts must be updated and ways of training talents must be reformed.
Human civilization is a historical development process, and it is the motive of human’s creative spirit. The creative spirit is characterized by criticism, independent thinking and creative ability. Only by regarding creative spirit as a necessity of life and regarding creative ability as human existence can creative talents be trained. We must update our viewpoints on values, talents, teachers and students, transform our educational thoughts from training specialized talents to training comprehensive talents, and change our educational system from passive absorption to creative education, from knowledge-mastery students to knowledge-exploration ones, and from adaptive learning to creative learning, so that comprehensive talents will be trained with strong basis, wide knowledge and great creativity.

2. To train creative talents, the student’s individuality must be developed.
In the whole process of education and teaching, attention should be paid to both students’ knowledge acquisition and their individuality development, but they should not be confined to a fixed, dull framework. Individual education should focus on students’ individual difference, in which their individual advantage should be fully played, so that they may form their own independent individuality. There are four objectives for the individuality development: the full development of personality and temperament; the good development of personal interest; the full unfolding of
individual potential; and the effective development of individual initiatives and creativity. The individual teaching centers around classroom teaching so as to stimulate individual learning motive based on his/her knowledge structure, focuses on his/her thinking training, and makes use of message transmission and interactive activities of all senses as the guideline of teaching reform. The ultimate purpose of individual education is to train and develop students’ creativity to make them become creative talents. The individuality education and teaching include the recognition of the main body, the training of independent personality and the development of individual talents. For the educators, they should teach students according to their individual situation, and for the students, they should be encouraged to display their own talents, esp. to develop their creative consciousness and creative spirit which is one of the most precious human qualities.

3. To train creative talents, the creative thinking ability must be strengthened.

3.1 Independent thinking ability

It is a must to train independent thinking ability. To train independent thinking ability, three things should be considered: bold and reasonable doubt, balance before readily accepted things, and a sound mind in self-refusal.

3.2 The training of divergent ability

Divergent thinking is also called difference-seeking thinking, in which answers are sought through different ways and angels. There are three levels to this kind of thinking: The first level is the smoothness in thinking—to train students’ thinking speed so that they may propose more concepts and more answers in the possible shortest time. The second level is accommodation to changes—to train students’ ability to accommodate themselves to different changes. The third level is novelty—the highest level in divergent thinking, i.e. to train students’ ability to boldly break away from conventions and to bravely develop their creative spirit.

3.3 The training of imagination

Creation is a conscious imagination based on one’s knowledge and experience. Hence, imagination is the starting point and necessary process for creativity. In fact, most creativity is finished by the “imagination—hypothesis—practice” process. The training of imagination should be concentrated on: (1) Hold students’ curiosity to stimulate their knowledge-seeking desire; (2) Broaden their knowledge scope; (3) Make a light-hearted learning environment.

4. To train creative talents, educational and teaching process must be optimized.

4.1 Reform Educational and teaching methods

The training of creative talents depends on the creative education in school, where the educational activities are realized by teaching. So, it has been an important thing to reform educational and teaching methods. We should review the past educational and teaching methods in accordance with current social development. First, “stuffing” style of methods should be abolished in favor of enlightenment, discussion and direction style of teaching methods, in which a combination of deduction and induction should be applied to teach the students and to arouse their abilities to think, raise questions and to solve them, and students should be encouraged to create and to feel brave to have different ideas from others’. Second, practice should be emphasized to enhance the cooperation between school and all walks of life in society so as to train students’ abilities to analyze the solve questions by means their comprehensive knowledge. It is necessary for students’ practical abilities and foe their creative abilities and creative spirit. Third, classroom activity and after-class activity should be stressed. For one thing, classroom discussion should be promoted, which helps to stimulate students’ initiatives, creativity and participation, to learn, think and explore; for another thing, after-class activity can make up for the shortage in classroom activity to encourage students to use their other abilities to the full play. Fourth, scientific research should be introduced into schooling to make teaching combined with research. For example, some research-related class may be introduced to teaching of such courses as experiment class, internship class, term paper, curriculum design, and graduation design. Of course, the students may directly participate in research activities, which is more effective in helping them to develop their creative activity.

4.2 Reform the content of teaching and standardize the system of courses

New development is required for the theory of curriculum and the system of courses under current situation, and the most important thing is to train students’ ability to master and apply knowledge on the basis of concept building, principle mastery and course organization. First of all, the old-fashioned, redundant and valueless content of teaching should be deleted, and modern knowledge should be added in to enlarge students’ vision. Secondly, the status of activity class should be improved in all the courses in school, which should focus on activities as the main teaching module centering on students with teachers playing the main role. The purpose of curricula is to teach knowledge to students, while activity class is to train their ability and to improve their quality. This is a class aimed at broadening their vision and fields to promote their initiatives and creativity. Thirdly, various selective courses should be added in to satisfy students’ need in interest and ideals.

4.3 Change viewpoint on examinations

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As an important device, examination plays a very important role in educational appraisal and human quality test. The function and aim of education is to basically improve students’ ability to confront challenges and to conduct self-development. So, the content of examination should be in agreement with the above-mentioned, including the transformation from the memory of knowledge, specific comprehension and application to their ability to creatively handle with examinations. Thus, the original examination module will be changed to a fully modernized examination system.

4.4 Build a creative team of teachers

To train creative talents, the primary requirement for teachers is that they should be theoretical and creative type of teachers. Teachers should not be satisfied with imparting knowledge, but should participate in producing educational knowledge and creativity. They should have strong creative thinking and ability, be brave to discover new problems, participate in producing new knowledge, combine education with research, cultivate their own responsibility and scientific innovation consciousness, so that they may be theoretical and creative teachers with good influence upon their students, who learn to behave well and to create.

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A New Perspective of the Concept and Development Trend of Business English in Higher Education Institutions

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Abstract
In recent years, researchers have made an ongoing research into the concept and definition of business English in higher education institutions. There have been quite a number of different ideas, but so far some disagreement still exists. The paper, through review and reflection into these researchers and their ideas, has concluded that the concept and implication of business English in China has been broadened, and business English, as a comprehensive inter-discipline developed from the EGBP in ESP, is now faced with some new development trends such as specialty regulation and degree-awarding flexibility.

Keywords: Business English, Concept, Development Trend, Reflection

1. Development Route and Current Situation of Business English

Based on the theory of Economics of Language proposed by American Marschak (1965), language also possesses the nature of economics, namely language, as an unavoidable tool for economic activities, does have the common feature of economics: such as reduction of costs to optimize value and effect. The macro economic value of language application chiefly lies in its position, frequency, linguistic change and people’s evaluation of language and linguistic policies used in the economic and social life of different era whereas the micro economic value of language study mainly relies on the relationship of percentage between the investment of language education and the economic return of it. The higher the economic return is expected to be, the bigger the investment cost is needed.

On the basis of this theory, the development route of business can be summarized as in Figure 1. It can be seen from the figure that business English is a necessary result brought by the demand of modern development, the increase of social needs and the expected high economic benefit. Business English, as a part of applied linguistics, has been more and more important in academic study and has been very popular in the mind of learners. It can be said that business English is a necessary selection of language study to minimize investment costs and to maximize economic benefits under the driving force of higher and higher social demand.

Figure 1. Route Selection of Business English development

Therefore, it is argued that the study of a second language can be deemed as a phenomenon of economics, and at least it can be said that learners studying a second language are partly impacted by the so-called social and economic factors, namely the consideration of the investment costs and expected returns of language study. Just because the study of business English is expected by the learner to have higher returns, such as the realization of double targets for learning multi-skills including English language and knowledge of particular discipline, there has been an emerging trend of business English study around the whole world.

In the West, in the middle 1990s, linguistics changed silently in the wave of economic and social changes, during which researchers stated to concentrate their research focus on the application of languages in various contexts rather than on
the regulation of language usages. At this period, ESP, namely English for Special Purpose, came into being. Contemporary business English originates from the Western countries in this era as a sub-branch of the so-called ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Ellis & Johnson, 1994). It is also a special branch of learning appearing in the background of economic globalization and trade internationalization. Currently, business English is becoming more and more important in academic position and has become the sub-branch of ESP with the fastest development. For example, in the UK, many series of business English books such as BEC and Market Leader, have been widely published and applied in countries like China today.

In China, business English can be traced back to the earliest era of 1950s, when high education institutions started to set the course of Foreign Trade English which mainly included such core courses as English electronic communication, selected readings of the Western paper, and oral English of foreign trade, etc. In 1990s, going along with the globalization of Chinese economy and the rapid increase of foreign trade volume, talents of business English had become increasingly welcome by the society. As a result, business English began to replace foreign trade English. For example, in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, a new school called the School of English for Business specializing in teaching business English undergraduate and postgraduate programs was established with the integration of teachers from Faculty of English Language and Culture, School of Law, and School of International Trade and Economics.

Just as what Mo Zhaishu (2006) argued in his paper that business English development in China could be investigated from the basic principle of language economics. On the one hand, China’s quick integration into the world economy required the multi-skilled talents educated with business English programs, which had been declared in the 2000 Chinese Higher Education Guideline that the English major of universities should educate multi-skilled talents with good English language and proficient cultural, economic, and research skills. On the other, it had been the expected higher returns from education investment that had promoted the quick development of business English in China in that the study of business English could benefit learners in learning some specialized knowledge at the same time of making their language more applicable.

At present, business English is highly recognized in the society as one of the most popular disciplines. Statistics shows that the number of universities that have opened business English major courses exceeds 800, and the schooling levels, majors and degrees are more and more diversified. For example, in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, there are already five undergraduate programs and four postgraduate programs. Graduates of business English are very popular in MNCs and other international business enterprises.

2. Concept and Scope of business English

In recent years, there have a variety of ideas concerning the definition and conception of business English, among which three major types include: business English belongs to pure linguistics, business English belongs to ESP, and business English belongs to cross-discipline.

2.1 Business English belongs to pure linguistics:

The scholars holding such a point of view argues that business English and common English are not at all different theoretically because both of them belongs to the range of linguistics, and the former not a special form of language differing from others. For example:

2.1.1 Business English is neither a creation of basic English nor a special type of language, but no more than a unique attitude and view of English language (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

2.1.2 Business English is not an independent special language but a form of English language added with a number of business terms. Business English shares the same words and expressions with common English, but they do have some differences in the interpretation and usage of words and terms (Tan Hui-juan, 1999).

2.1.3 Business English is a language used by people working in business fields, who selects words and expressions and grammatical structures to communicate in oral and written forms in order to fulfill their purpose of business operation and comply with internal customs and practices (Zhang Zuocheng, 2000; Yang Ling-li, 2003).

2.1.4 Business English is a not a special form of language with no clear rules of grammar, but an application of common English in business context (Zhou Yi, 2006).

2.2 Business is a sub-branch of ESP:

This concept is fundamentally the same as the above one. ESP itself is regarded as a form of applied linguistics. There are quite a lot of supporters for this idea such as:

2.2.1 Business English should be included in the range of ESP as a sub-branch because it shares similar features with ESP, such as the analysis of demand and the selection of language materials. Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Ellis & Johnson, 1994.
2.2.2 Business English should be considered to be a forth-level of learning branch following English linguistics, applied English linguistics, and ESP (Lin Tainhu, 2004).

2.2.3 In 2005, Li Hong argued that in China business English chiefly belonged to EGBP (English for General Business Purpose) in that it aimed to add some common business knowledge in the skills of English language.

2.2.4 Similarly, in 2006, Jin Jinghua believed that business English should classified into ESP, which could also be divided into two types such as: EGBP and ESBP (English for Specific Business Purpose), among which EGBP targeted to those learners who were lack of working experience while ESBP was designed to train those professional people who had business working experience. Currently in China, academic research focuses on the field of EGBP.

2.3 Business English belongs to cross-discipline:

There are more and more scholars in China who tend to believe that business English belongs to a cross-discipline combining linguistics and business management, for example:

2.3.1 Zhang Xinhong and Li Ming (2002), professors of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, argue in their article that business English is a functional transformation of English which possesses unique features with business knowledge and English language mixed.

2.3.2 Mo Zhaishu, et al (2006), professor of Hunan University, argues that business English, based on the foundation of linguistics and applied linguistics, has become a comprehensive cross-discipline absorbing other branches of learning in theory and practice.

2.3.3 Zhou Huahao (2006) has expressed a similar point of view concerning business English, who believes that business English formerly belonging to ESP has been enlarged in contents into a cross-discipline concept including international trade, finance, commercial law, e-commerce, and cross-culture communication, etc.

It is concluded from the above discussions that business English is a mixture of English language and business knowledge. In current China, it is more realistic to define business English as a comprehensive cross-discipline.

3. Development Trends of business English

In China, business English has its own characteristics in discipline. It has a double target of education, namely to provide students or learners with not only English language skills but also with business management know-how. Nowadays, as a result of its practical applicability and social recognition, it is developing very quickly, and there are some important developing trends which will generate in-depth influence over its future development:

3.1 Business English tends to be regulated or standardized in relevant majors. In 2006 and 2007, The National Education Department had approved the setting of the undergraduate program for business English by two universities as a second-level independent discipline. And it is expected to be months time to be able to see the setting of a business English postgraduate program in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. The deregulation in business English symbolizes a new page for its development in China.

3.2 Business English tends to be flexible in degree-awarding. Because business English in China can provide learners with both language and business skills, they should be entitled to be awarded with BA in Foreign language or BA in business management, or even BSc in economics if they have passed all the related courses required by a particular major. In Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, School of English for International Business now has both undergraduate programs and can award both degrees.

3.3 Business English tends to emphasize the importance of cultivating cross-cultural communication skills. Facing economic globalization, the cultivation of cross-culture communication skills in the teaching of business English is becoming more and more important. Thus, more and more universities have set the course of cross-culture communication as core subject for learners to study.

3.4 Business English tends to be enlarged in concept and content. The narrow sense of business English in the past used to refer to English for business negotiation, import and export trade, etc. However, its current concept has been greatly enlarged in a very wide sense to cover the total of wording, grammatical structure, style and others used in all business contexts such as trade, finance, investment, transportation, economic law, event management, trade fair, international cooperation, cultural exchanges, etc.

4. Conclusion

Based on the principle of language economics, it is concluded that the repaid development of business English does have its in-depth underlying reasons for existence, which means the maximization of expected benefits for learners and the increasing objective demand of the society. Business English, as a sub-branch of ESP, should be classified as a field of languages. However, in today’s China, it has been gradually enlarged in concept, content, and connotative meaning, and its style of schooling has been more and more diversified, so it is more realistic for China to classify it as an
independent cross-discipline evolved on the foundation of EGBP. In addition, it is less essential for people to continue focusing on the discussion of its definition, and more importantly, it is suggested to accept the fact of its rapid development, its important social position, to take some active measures to face the challenges and opportunities that the trends of its standardized discipline, flexible degree-awarding, and enlarged implication, etc. may bring to us.

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The End of Academia? :
From Cogito Ergo Sum to Consumo Ergo Sum
Germany and Malaysia in Comparison

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Abstract
The lack of academic and thinking culture is getting more worried and becomes a major challenge to our academia society this 21st century. Few directions that move academia from cogito ergo sum to consumo ergo sum are actually leading us to “the end of academia”. Those directions are: (1) the death of dialectic; (2) the surrender of culture to technology; (3) the slavery of market-driven education; (4) administrators’ hegemony and the syndrome of pseudo-professors; and (5) the bandwagon culture and wholesale purchase of ISO in education.

Keywords: Academia, education quality, commercialization of education and education industry.

1. Introduction
As Europe’s largest economy and most populous nation, Germany is well regards as the centre of excellent not only in economic but in education. German invented the concept of “kindergarten”, which is a German word literally means “children’s garden”. They offer university students the best possible deal – a free education or Bildung zum Nulltariff. Many people not only in Germany but also around the world still uphold Wilhelm von-Humboldt’s idea on education. He is the founder of Humboldt Universität in Berlin while his published On the Limits of State Action in 1810 is considered as the boldest defence of liberties of the Enlightenment (Wikipedia 2005). Habilitation is the icon of highest level in education and the proud of German academicians. However, for many reason and development, Germany’s system of education has been in crisis for some time. Its education system has been criticized with the introduction of the post of Juniorprofessor. Flippo (2005a) highlighted the titles of two books that said it all: “Rotten to the Core?” (Im Kern verrottet?), and “Can the University Still Be Saved? (Ist die Uni noch zu retten?). Students’ protest and education reforms make education issues, especially higher education in Germany as an unexpectedly hot debate topic.

Education scenario in Malaysia shares the same spotlight as in Germany but is deemed much more “rotten” than its German counterpart. In the 1970s and 1980s, enrolment to university is bias to the elite group. After that, when local universities become more open, the elite group has become not interested and prefer overseas education, especially in the United States, Britain and Australia. As per Dr. Jomo Kwame Sundram (2005), a renowned academician locally and globally, when the number of local universities not enough to fulfil the need of education of the Malaysian society during the 1970s and 1980s, “who get the chance to go to university” is the question of debate. However, come the 1990s and new millennium, there are more than enough universities for the Malaysian. Thus, now, the question has
changed to “who get which university”, which included the issues of preferring foreign education institutions in Malaysia and overseas studies. These clearly illustrated the quality problems and prestige of Malaysian higher education. To sum it all, Jomo mentioned, “My hope for the students now has decline a lot”. Therefore, there are many challenges ahead for our academicians and educationists in this 21st century, be it in Germany, Malaysia or other countries and the biggest challenge that we are facing now as we foresee does not so much embed in the problems of infrastructures as some might have claimed. It is the lack of academic and thinking culture that we should worry. In this article, we would like to highlight a few directions or trends that will indeed lead us to “the end of academia.” Those directions, in which is moving academia from cogito ergo sum to consumo ergo sum are: (1) the death of dialectic; (2) the surrender of culture to technology; (3) the slavery of market-driven education; (4) administrators’ hegemony and the syndrome of pseudo-professors; and (5) the bandwagon culture and wholesale purchase of ISO in education.

2. Death of Academia: Its Reasons

Now, let’s go into the very basic etymological sense of the word “academia.” The words “academy”, “academic”, “academician” and the like have come into being through Plato (c.427-347 B.C.). Those words derived from the name of the school that Plato has founded, which he called “Academy,” the school where Aristotle studied. In Plato’s Academy, it is known that “Socratic questioning” was a teaching method, which was proposed by his teacher Socrates (469-399 B.C.) as the method of inquiry, method of seeking the truth by a series of questions and answers. However, this method of inquiry has been phased-out in today’s university, and there is hardly an environment of “Socratic questioning” which involved our university students and their mentors or teachers. Why the situation changes? What has happened? Here, we try to answer both the questions within the scope of those five directions mentioned earlier, starting from the death of dialectic.

2.1 The death of dialectic

Despite loud calls for lifelong learning in Malaysia, capitalist wave have transformed the fundamental of education from empowering the minds (thinking) for continues learning to manufacturing employees for contemporary labour usage. Therefore, Malaysian present education system has changed from the argumentative culture to indoctrination culture. Fortunately, this has yet seen in German education, most likely due to four reasons that are found in Malaysia but may be less in Germany. Those reasons are exam-oriented education system, suppression from government, parroting attitude and academic ignorance.

In Malaysia, exams act as a ‘quality control’ check on the potential employees, starting from seven year old primary students to the early twenties fresh graduates. Students’ academic achievement is continuously and constantly measured. In six year of primary education, students must went through a total of 13 examinations that are two internal school examinations per year, which are called the mid-term and final examination plus a public examination in the sixth year. Another 14 internal school examination plus 3 public examinations needed to pass if students wish to advance their education into the secondary level until end of “Form Upper 6th” level, which is the common entry level to public university. That figure already excluded the commonly practice of up to six monthly examinations per year from primary to secondary education. If included, another 78 examinations added bringing the total figure to an amazing 108 exams, which may scare the German students to death!

At university level (usually three years of two main semester per year), there are mid-semester and final semester examinations plus quizzes and grading assignments. Ignore the assignments and assume an average of three quizzes per semester per subject and just two semesters per year (sometimes, students take the optional 3rd semester), what will be the grand total of examinations a Malaysian graduate has to go through? Perhaps let leave this as a mathematical question for the readers to calculate but no reward for the correct answer. In Germany, primary education begins at age six and lasts four years. Secondary level generally starts at age 11 (grade 5) and it is divided into a less academic Hauptschule (to grade 10) leading to vocational education, an intermediate Realschule leading to a technical or business school and the academically oriented Gymnasium that leads to the Abitur or Matura diploma and a university education (Flippo 2005b). German university students can take a lot of time between required tests. Indeed, exams generally come at the end of the student’s career rather than at the end of courses or semesters (Flippo 2005a). However, recent effort to require students in many fields to demonstrate that they are making adequate progress by passing an exam midway through their study indicates that German education may sooner or later evolve into a heavily exam-oriented education system like in the Malaysian education scenario. As a result of heavy emphasis on examinations, the argumentative culture, which is needed for empowering thinking was being suppressed. Burniske (1998) claimed that, it was due to “the death of dialectics.” To Burniske, without dialectics, we will only produce students with sterile information or pernicious propaganda. Nonetheless, Burniske urged us, especially the critics not to blame the schools completely as the critics must also evaluate and judge the society, which preserves the system. In this case, the three other reasons are responsible. First, government suppresses the freedom of academic through policies and controlled media. Second, parroting attitude of students makes them passive and lack of critical mind and third, academic ignorance of both students and academician complete the key to unlock the death of dialectic for Malaysian education.
According to Burniske (1998) further, the cause of the death of dialectics in schools was due to the government suppression reason. Burniske elaborated, “In Malaysia, where I taught at an international school from 1992 to 1996, government censorship thwarted debate; in America, corporate brainwashing achieves much the same result.” In general, the Malaysian state kept a tight rein on news and information through specific laws and broader rules relating to perceived sedition, internal security and official secrets. Some 47 pieces of legislation and ordinances effected mass media operations in the country. Some dated to the colonial era, such as the Printing Presses and Periodicals Act (1948) (Atkins 2002: 22). Specifically to education sector, there are various restrictions imposed on members of the academia through laws such as the Universities and Universities Colleges Act (UUCA) and Statutory Bodies Act (Manan 2005). Through the Malaysian Constitution, Article 10(1), the government controls the scope of freedom of speech and expression beyond oral speech or academic aspect. Shad Saleem Faruqi (1992) wrote that in Malaysia and Singapore, a wealth of prior restraints in the form of licence and permit requirements exist which enable the executive to determine whether, and where the constitution freedom of speech, assembly and association are to be exercised. Therefore, do you think Malaysian education – institutions, teachers and lecturers – who need licence and permit to operate or teach dare to speak up their critical thought? Subsequent punitive measures could elicit comment that there is freedom of speech but often no freedom after speech. On the 2nd December 2007, Lisa Goh (2007) reported for The Star local Malaysian newspaper that about 100 young people made up mostly of undergraduates and post-graduate students gathered at the Preliminary National Youth Consultation Conference to seek certain paradigms included equal access to education and freedom from political interference in the universities. They also called for the abolishment of the UUCA and academic freedom. In the first Global Higher Education forum in Kuala Lumpur from 6th to 7th November, Fellow of the National Science Academy and National Physics Institute and former vice-chancellor of a local university, Professor Emeritus Dr. Zawawi Ismail urged Malaysia to be willing to make significant changes in university governance, policies, rules and regulations, as well as the UUCA. He believed that the freedom of professors in teaching, research, publication and classroom discussion must be assured while curtailing academic freedom and student activities can have serious implications on the creativity and dynamism of a learning institution (Chok 2007). In another aspect, political economy of electronic media in early 1990s causes equity ownership of media entities by political related companies and the growth of those companies. For example, Fleet Holdings grew to ‘astronomical proportions’ during the years of United Malays National Organization (UMNO, the most dominant political party in Malaysia) rule, having been initially set up in the 1970s to ‘wrest control of the print media’ from Malaysian-Chinese and foreign ownership (Atkins 2002: 22 – 23). At that time, Fleet controlled the Malaysian biggest private television channel, TV3, daily newspapers New Straits Times, Malay Mail, Berita Harian, Shin Min and three Sunday newspaper as well as extensive book publishing and industrial, transport and banking enterprises. Currently, the (political) investment arm of the government enlarged to including its agencies and government related fund. Among the government related organizations, agencies or funds are Ministry of Finance, Employees Provident Fund (EPF), Lembaga Tabung Haji, Khazanah Nasional, Valuecap Private Limited and Huaren Holdings Private Limited (MCA’s investment arm; MCA is acronym for “Malaysian Chinese Association”, the dominant Chinese political party that is part of the Malaysian ruling government lead by UMNO). With all these suppression, academic freedom is restricted in Malaysia. Thus, in this deem critical situation, Burniske’s ideas should be pondered fairly and seriously not only by the government and the local media but the whole society as well. Meanwhile, the experience of John McPeck, a professor of education in Canada can be quoted from his article “What is Learned in Informal Logic Course?” (1991) to elaborate this uncritical mind of our current generation, which illustrated the parroting attitude reason responsible for the death of dialectics. Let us quote him in length: Most people have a tendency to believe what they read simply because it is “in print.” I was reminded of this tendency recently while advising my daughter, a sophomore at the University of Michigan, on a possible term paper topic. I suggested that she might challenge the alleged “findings” in a paper on the heritability (sic) of IQ. She said to me: “Daddy, are you crazy? I can’t do that. Can’t you read? It says that they prove their point right here on page 40.” As she pushed page 40 in front of my face, I thought to myself, “Boy, does she have a long way to go!” (McPeck 1991: 25)

The same parroting attitude reason is well elaborated by M. Bakri Musa (1999) in referring to the Malay society in his book The Malay Dilemma Revisited. He even quoted the teaching of Munshi Abdullah (a respected classic Malay scholar) regarding parroting attitude in his dedication page: “Between those who are thought and those who parrot is a vast difference” (ibid: v). According to him (1999: 129): “Learning in Malay society involved memorization and recitation of the holy Koran, and perfecting the prayers and rituals of Islam…. Everything was laid out and there was no room for discussion or questioning. It was not so much education as indoctrination.” M. Bakri Musa’s opinion was not only right in referring to the Malay society, but it is generally true for the wider Malaysian society.

In Malaysia, many professors seem to worry about our university students, whom they think are passive and having no critical mind. Prof. Khoo Kay Kim, a professor of history in University of Malaya then, as reported in the Far Eastern Economic Review (Silverman 1996: 24) feels sorry for the quietness of our students during their tutorials. According to him, students in the universities in Malaysia have become so quiet that not many lecturers have the interest to conduct
discussion session. The students do not want to ask. All of his students will only ask him to speak slowly so that they can copy them word by word and spew out the same phrases during the final examination and they are of course so allegiance towards authority. Prof. Osman Bakar also reported to have the same comment: “The students are extending their spoon-fed learning through university. They depend too much on lecture notes” (Silverman 1996). Their ideas are true in their own ways. However, do all of our teachers, lecturers and especially professors are prepared to be questioned with an open-mind? Quoting M Bakri Musa’s experience when he invited his fellow colleague to give a seminar to his students and medical officers, his colleague commented on Bakri Musa’s active participating students and junior doctors: “No respect for professors and elders!” (Bakri Musa 2003: 87). As for Bakri Musa, he viewed that comments as common in Asia, a reflection of the culture of reverence towards elders. For him, reverence and respect is a “yes” but blind obedience and uncritically accepting what is being uttered is “no” (ibid). The parroting attitude in student is made worst by academic ignorance culture. According to Lennard J. Davis (2005), we choose ignorance when we conclude that a thinker's work is a "must read" if he or she is famous, and not worth reading if the scholar is obscure. A genuinely inquiring mind can have thoughtful opinions about a thinker only after reading his or her work. When one actively ignores a thinker, trend, or way of thinking, one is engaging in academic ignorance. Very unfortunately, the “we” as mentioned include not only students but academicians and the society too, thus signalling that we all are actually not far from the end of academia. In Malaysia, Bakri Musa (2003: 87) wrote that his opinions often get rebuttal but through reasons such as he is not an ulama (Islamic religious teacher), thus cannot comment on religious matters or he is living aboard, thus his view on Malaysian affairs is not valid. These seem show that Malaysian society often suspend their critical judgement and spend more time evaluating the credentials of the writer/thinker than on the merit of the arguments.

Karl Sherlock’s view of human intelligence as among the most fragile things in nature offered complement reasons to explain the death of dialectic and the lack of argumentative space phenomena in the German education previously in the 1930s. Based on Neil Postman’s 1988 book entitle Conscientious Objections: Stirring Up Trouble About Language, Technology, and Education and Germany education as example, Sherlock (nd) stated that intelligence can be easily and quickly defeated by one of its several nemesis: ignorance, superstition, moral fervour, cruelty, cowardice and neglect. For example, the cathedral of human reason in Germany had been transformed into a cesspool of barbaric irrationality in the space of less than 10 years from most literate, cultured nation in the world in the late 1920s. By mid-1930, many of the most intelligent products of German culture were forced to flee. Examples are Einstein, Freud, Karl Jaspers, Thomas Mann, and Stefan Zweig. Even worse, those who remained were either forced to submit their minds to the sovereignty of primitive superstition, or worse still, willingly did so like Konrad Lorenze, Werner Heisenberg, Martin Heidegger, Gerhardt Hauptmann. On May 10, 1933, a huge bonfire was kindled in Berlin and the books of Marcel Proust, Andre Gide, Emile Zola, Jack London, Upton Sinclair, and a hundred others were committed to the flames, amid shouts of idiot delight. By 1936, Joseph Paul Goebbels, Germany’s Minister of Propaganda, was issuing a proclamation which began with the following words: “Because this year has not brought an improvement in art criticism, I forbid once and for all the continuance of art criticism in its past form, effective as of today.” By 1936, there was no one left in Germany who had the brains or courage to object (ibid). Beware! Those histories are capable of repeating themselves. Perhaps, in the contemporary capitalist era, intellectual might be more possibly burn in the flame of profit maximization intention and political colonization of the mind rather than brutal military-type of forces.

2.2 The surrender of culture to technology

The late renowned social critic and education analyst, Neil Postman in many of his works viz. The End of Education: Redefining the Value of School; Technopoly: The Surrender of Culture to Technology alarmed us with the problem of our education today that lay within a few dimensions, with the over-dependency on the technology being one of the most important. Technology has now got its momentum in almost all kinds of human affairs included education. Two most alarming phenomena are technology has begun to change the human thinking culture from being an active thinker to passive reception of information and transforming the role of computer as our tool to as our objective. We briefly refer those as “technology worshipping” that explained the surrender of our culture to technology. According to Morrisett (1996), society can be credited for creating technology, but technology is simultaneously creating society. People have become "compulsive information consumers," who favour the passive reception of information as a form of entertainment over the more challenging act of thinking. In the twenties century, the dominant communications technologies have been the printing press, radio, television and telephone. Thus, if students’ education rely only those communication technologies, namely through the medium of a book, newspaper, television or radio program, they will received the communication via a one-way street and described as “readers”, “listeners” or “viewers.” Although reading, listening and viewing all can involve thought and learning, because no conscious thought, response or action may be required, they can also be highly passive activities (ibid). In today capitalist world, the case didn’t stop here until money came into play and blends technology worshipping with kulturindustrie phenomena to enslave our culture to technology.

In what Theodor Adorno described as a kulturindustrie phenomenon, information is packaged as an entertainment
commodity for making money. Perhaps, that explained the situation why books and television programs in Malaysia and Germany focus bias toward entertainment purposes rather than thinking simulating contents. Nowadays, even documentary programs are watched as a form of entertainment while books are read for memorizing-oriented examination purpose only. However, the worst-case scenario is that the society, which included students and academicians tend to view intellectual information as entertainment while reversibly taking entertainment as factual information. For example, after the tsunami tragedy in East Asia on 26 December 2004, information on that tragedy was packaged with wild theories related to religion and fiction in various “documentary” films. Malaysian also snap up the Hollywood films The Day After Tomorrow for the purpose to find out any facts or clues that can explain that tsunami tragedy. The second phenomena of technology worshiping is regarding that our society does not bother whether one have the true knowledge. What they really bother is whether one knows how to use the computers! Computer, the key symbol of technopoly, is only the tool but we tend to treat computer as our objective. The dimension of humanities and cultures has become the rubric of the past. Computers "undermine the old idea of school" and defeats attempts at group learning, cooperation and social responsibility, thus substituting technical solutions for human ones. In this case, technology has evolved from being a support system for a culture’s traditions to competing with them and, finally, to creating a totalitarian orders with no use for tradition at all. In Malaysia, the main concept of “Smart School” is based on knowing computer skills. Likely, the “thinkers” behind this concept are the slave of technopoly. As a result, the academic and non-academic achievement of normal (so-called “traditional”) schools out-smart the Smart School. Likewise in Malaysia, German education also gives emphasise on the computer. As stated by Flippo (2005b), computer science courses are increasingly available. The German also have begun linking many of their schools via internet, which is what Malaysia wish to have in near future. Furthermore, while in the overwhelming mood on computers, Malaysia face the dilemma of lacking of teachers who know how to teach (or even use) the computer. Besides, most presentation in seminars might give more priority to the colourful Powerpoint than the content of a working paper. Powerpoint, therefore may have superseded the oratory skills. Access to computers and other technology in Germany is still often quite limited. Both that situations clearly highlighted what Neil Postman (1993) described as “technopoly: the surrender of culture to technology”. Why technology becomes so over-important? Simply, in this capitalist world, technology sells better than anything branded as “traditional”. This brings us to the next discussion point: the slavery of market-driven education.

2.3 Education as Industry: The slavery of market-driven education

The recent trend in the demand for a market-driven education has reached an alarming state. In this case, we may blame it on the capitalist economics factor, which uphold capitalists’ desires (sales and profit), thus academia as “slave” to serve this capitalists’ desires. Lee Harvey (2000) stated that in many countries since 1980s, there has been increasing pressure on higher education to contribute directly to national economic regeneration and growth. Increasingly, national and international assessments of the role and purposes of education indicate the need for higher education to contribute significantly to ‘meeting the needs of the economy’, not least to ensure future competitiveness. From here, we can see education has evolved into what Theodor Adorno called as Kulturindustrie (Cultural Industry, refer Adorno & Horkheimer 1993). Kulturindustrie is a term used to describe a culture (including education) that has been turned into an industry commodity, producing and selling worldwide according to the rules of the capitalist market, which are profit maximization is a rational behaviour and to maximize profit, the best way is to treat consumer as the king. Thus, the following five directions of education are heavily influenced by those capitalist market rules: (a) undermining of the importance of non-pragmatic and non-market-driven subjects; (b) rapid increases of sub-standard educations; (c) immortalizes the students as “King Consumer”; (d) preferring ‘Teacher’ academician than ‘Thinker’ academician (e) from free public education system towards paid private education.

Specifically, three first trends are seen as potential forces driving the academic world from cogito ergo sum to consumo ergo sum. Firstly, the market-driven education undermined the importance of other so-called non-pragmatic and non-market-driven subjects, especially humanities. Those subjects like philosophy, critical thinking, rhetoric and literature seem to have no-role in our universities’ curricular (especially in the private universities and colleges), except to serve the academic ornamentation and are in the process of being phasing-out. This tendency was basically evolving from our own very basic social construct that gave prominence to material values. Everywhere we go, people tends to talk about what kinds of house they have, what kinds of new car that they have just bought, what kinds of branded product that they have consumed or possessed. If we look at the emergence of all those private colleges and institutions, then it takes no expert to conclude that we have no place for knowledge of “knowing that” (i.e. Do you know that there’s God, that you are now reading this article) but only knowledge of “knowing how” (i.e. Do you know how to use a computer, how to ride a horse). By knowledge of “knowing that”, we are generally referring to wisdom, knowledge (episteme) stands in contrast to opinion (doxa); whereas knowledge of “knowing how” is vocational skills. Some might have claimed that Malaysian public universities had failed in competing with those private institutions in securing the students intakes. This is perhaps true in one sense when we try to equate knowledge with vocational skills per se. But skills alone don’t make a university. We can have all kinds of training colleges in order to cater for the need of labour
force in the market. If we want to have more skills workers in computer and multi-media, then we should have more computer schools or computer training colleges, if we need more teachers, then we should have more teacher training colleges etc. We should not keep on changing our educational duration of study just to fulfil the need of our labour-force, i.e. from four years to three years when we need more skill labours and subsequently shifting from three years to four years when there are no demand. Training colleges are skills-based whereas universities are knowledge-based. University education should teach students to appreciate knowledge, inculcate creative and critical thinking skills so that they know how to decide for themselves what is right and what is wrong in their decision-making processes in life. Besides that working skills should be part of it but should not form the totality of education objectives. Throwing away knowledge and replacing it with skills alone will be a long-term catastrophe. Job opportunities should not become the sole and only priority of education, but unfortunately, due to the lucrative incomes that we can generate in this sector, education has been denigrated into a factory and nothing else. And it seems that we are now heading to a direction that give priority to the knowledge of “knowing how” instead of knowledge of “knowing that.” Thus an institution that thought the knowledge of “knowing how” alone does not qualify to be called as a university but a factory.

If you think the mentioned situation is bad, the second trend of rapid increases of sub-standard educations make it worst. Over emphasize on profitability and Adam Smith’s doctrine of the invisible hand of market demand and supply have results in universities and colleges taking students whom are not qualify into public universities. It is a noble move to give more education opportunity to everyone but the market-driven motive that steadfastly bends to higher enrolments over the quality of teaching and learning should not be tolerated at all cost. In Malaysia, private universities and colleges especially, offer relaxed entry requirements and temptation of foreign university certification through locally study twinning programs flood up the labour market with sub-standard graduates. Prof Khoo Kay Kim has contrasted the situation in the millenium era with that of University Malaya’s earlier days, when a mere 25 percent of its students who had come in as freshies would walk up the stage to receive their degree on convocation day, four or five years later. But now, the passing rate in the university is so high, exceeding 90 percent and that is even more apparent in the private universities because failing the students means shying away potential customers (Yusof Ghani, n.d). Sub-standard education and maximizing the enrolment (and graduation) of students may have causes serious unemployment problem among fresh graduates despite the fact that the courses these graduates studied are market-driven courses. That included business, management, economics and information technology courses. These sub-standard educations has prompt comments from employers that Malaysian graduates commonly lack of language proficiency (especially in English), lack of personality, textbook and exam oriented and unable to match the knowledge learned into working reality. Germany unemployment did not fare any better either, registering a scary 5.037 million in January 2005, the highest since the 1930s (BBC News 2005). This has prompt the government to have reforms in various sectors seen as contributing to that high figure and education is one of them.

Furthermore, technology advances has dramatically introduced new educational nomenclature: "virtual education," "virtual universities," “electronic learning,” “electronic universities" and "cyberspace institutions". Many educational institutions seem driven to use newly found access to global data communication that will increase enrolments and will award a vast range of degrees through massive investments in distance education programs. Again, this fit into the one of the characteristic of kulturindustrie that is big scale of commercialization and marketing of education for profit (not knowledge). Therefore, we can often find lurid jargon that enticed students to pursue "alternative fast track diplomas" and "non-traditional paths", thriving marketing schemes and a less demanding academic requirement. When compared in-depth to the curricula of bona fide academic institutions, however, these ventures appeared to be little more than money-making plots managed by capitalistic-minded individuals who held verily the slightest regard for academic values. Their academic services lack academic authenticity and educational quality (Hamza & Alhalabi 1999).

The third trend is education immortalsizes the students in education with an attitude of "the customer is always right". Taking students as “customer” and “king” is of utmost important for sub-standard education providers’ survival and act as to “blind” students and their parents from questioning the quality of their education programs. Furthermore, students’ evaluation is an utmost important factor in lecturers’ performance evaluation, promotion consideration and salary incensement or bonus schemes. As a result, the students are overly proud of themselves while the academic institution’s prestige and respect gone downwards. Quoting the Economist (2005) special report on higher education, most student, like customers everywhere, are looking for the best deal: how much time and money gain them what benefit? Thus, to attract students, an academic institution needs to market its strong point which unfortunately included awesomely beautiful buildings, almost guarantee passing exams and its popular branding. An Asian popular advice stating “you cannot fill up your glass with knowledge if you come with a glass full of water” seems to have another version for the academic institutions: “you cannot fill up your bank accounts with money if you didn’t satisfy your customer-students”. The forth phenomena in a market-driven education system is that education institutions prefer ‘Teacher’ academician than ‘Thinker’ academician than ‘Student’ academician if the education institutions were to choose either one. Why? Simply, lecturer's productivity is measured by number of teaching hours. Therefore, ‘teacher’ academicians who are more willing to teach rather than to do research contribute more toward the institution’s (especially private college) profit. This causes
teaching alone to become the utmost important criteria in a lecturer’s key performance index in private education institutions. That is a fault in the education institution aspect. Complement to that is the society view on academic job that we may call this as “careerist versus academician” phenomenon. “Careerist” minded school teachers to lecturers and professors view their academic post as careers, who assumed academic activities as “teaching only”, the worst is assuming academic jobs as an easy job for stable income. They will not bother or might even discourage others to do research and publication. Worst, flexible working hours given by the education institutes for research purposes are utilized by careerists for non-academia but personal extra income generating activities like teaching part-time, giving paid tuitions or doing direct selling. In contrast, lets us take lessons from the centenary appraisal of Kurt Wais by Chetana Nagavajaran (2006). Kurt Wais, an example of conscientious academician, was a renowned German Professor of Romance Philology and Comparative Literature at Tubingen University until his retirement in 1975. Professor Wais engaged in fresh research all the time and his teaching was based on research (ibid: 5). Not neglecting the responsible to students, Kurt Wais also expended his time daily on advising students included consultations on the phone often until shortly before midnight (ibid: 7).

Perhaps, one of the shocking effects from this market-driven education is the recent issue of “thesis outsourcing” in Malaysia, made the front page headline of New Straits Times (NST), a major local newspaper on 22nd December 2007. Reporting for the mentioned newspaper, Azura Abas & Minderjeet Kuar (2007: 6) wrote that hundreds of master’s and PhD students are getting “professional thesis writers” to pen their thesis. The Higher Education Ministry of Malaysia acknowledged that it was aware of this, but as educational institutions were not complaining about it, little could be done to put a stop to this shameful practice. Among case study conducted and highlighted by NST included confession of a 38-year-old human resource manager, signing up for a master’s degree program as a gateway to promotion and better pay. However, his work commitment made it difficult for him to finish his thesis, thus paying RM8000 to outsource his thesis after seeing an advertisement on the wall of his college toilet, which read: “100 per cent guaranteed pass. For more information call Ben at XXX”. Other cases highlighted are a non-degree person helping a master’s student with his project paper for RM2000 and confession of a “phantom thesis and assignments” writer that the outsourcing of academic works is an open secret among academic fraternity. Hence, all are back to the supply and demand market mechanism, the willingness to pay fees for outsourcing matching the willingness of phantom writers to accept the job.

Trends of slavery of market-driven education have also causes changes or demand of changes in the German education, most noticeably being the demand to end its free education system. A free education (Bildung zum Nulltariff) has become a popular tradition in Germany and Austria (Flippo 2005b). Thus, recent proposals to introduce tuition fees as “high” as 1000 DM (US$650) per semester have produced intense debate in Germany despite that amount is considered as a bargain for American students. University overcrowding and under-funding sparked student protests in several German university towns in November and December 1997. The source of their discontent is, in a word, money, and many university and government officials agree they are right to be angry. Students complained that budget cutting at the state and federal level has left Germany’s colleges and universities with too few faculty members, overcrowded classrooms, antiquated research facilities and inadequate libraries. Students requested for an explicit prohibition on the introduction of tuition fees (studiengebühren) and protested on the Higher Education Framework Law in which requires students in many fields to demonstrate that they are making adequate progress by passing an exam midway through their studies (rather than at the end of the student’s career as currently).

Do all these mean that the market-driven education is fast becoming the undisputed winner? If you have not been convinced, Kaplan, a big education company even owned the Washington Post newspaper, Charted Financial Analyst (CFA) qualification is being seek all over the world and twinning programs with overseas education institution is everywhere in Malaysia and many others developing countries. In sum, the high level of education quality per se is not the main priority as compare to maximizing profit intention or unless maintaining education quality can bring in business and profit. Thus, the major concern is whether the high quality of education can survive along with profit maximization intention? In this case, the American education could still give a “yes” answer but certainly not in Malaysian education. The German education could still, at least at the moment reject the temptation to be turned into a kulturindustrie. Nagavajaran (2006: 11 – 12) still believed that it is in consonance with the German tradition of linking teaching and research together, and the primary assumption is that research is part of one’s daily life and that every academician must be engaged in some form of research at all the time. He also believed that a “research university” not necessarily a richly endowed institution whose members manage to publish in “peer-reviewed” journals with high “impact factors”, but a community of scholars whose daily life is propelled by a thirst for knowledge under the guidance of an erudite, perspicacious and dynamic leader (ibid: 6). However, if government support in term of funding and others mean continue to decline while growing trends of education commercialization intensified, kulturindustrie destiny for German education is inevitable.

2.4 Politics and Education: Administrators’ hegemony and the syndrome of pseudo-professors
Academic freedom with responsibility is the root-word for academic performance and excellence. Do we really have that basic freedom? In Malaysia, various restrictions imposed on members of the academia through laws such as the Universities and Universities Colleges Act (UUCA) and Statutory Bodies Act (Manan 2005). In our current education, academic achievement has been so much bureaucratized. Even within the same institution, one has to apply in order to be promoted when indeed the institutions have already had the records of their staff in place. How if one is talented, and was recognized academically worldwide but has refused to go through all those application hurdles, as it is too tedious? Where should we put this kind of academicians? Does it mean that he or she is not a good academician? This administrative process creates a hegemonic culture for the administrators and the so-called pseudo-professors to have their say, for example if one candidate has filled in their forms, registered their research etc. Lately they even have to sit for the exam. This is the relationship of power that retards our academic excellence. The more examinations that we have created will sink our academic culture further and it gives the administrators the right to determine or upper hand. The opposition culture will be labelled, as rebellion and eventually nobody will challenge for the sake of gaining favour or promotion. Furthermore, in this marketing oriented world, the academician performance is at the hand of students. Students’ evaluation is the yardstick for measuring academician’s performance. Those are widely practice in Malaysia especially in the private education institutions.

Let us go back to the very basic. Just let our academicians do their research, write and publish freely i.e. focus on their core-business. Give them less non-academic stuffs, less non-productive meetings and less politicking. Anyway, at the end of the day, it is the number of good quality works that count internationally and not the number of committees that they represented, not how many non-publishable reports that they have produced and not how many meetings that they have already attended. It is the quality of work that moulds the academician. It is the quality publications that make the university, not the reports and meeting attendance. The attendance of an academician alone in the university does not bring any result if they don’t publish. As an academician, one do not have, as the Germans called it, Praesenzpflicht, the duty to come to the university, out of his teaching hours and appointment time. Our academicians too should be encouraged to pursue their post-graduates studies and applying for grants and/or fellowships from internationally recognized body or foundation for their research. They should be encouraged to go global. We should not only go for local resources if we want to be a global player in the era of globalization. However, Malaysia education seems practicing the reverse situation, widely believed due to political reasons. Two highly publicized cases of “force” resignation by two top academicians clearly illustrated the shame of Malaysian higher education to the world. First, it was Prof KS Jomo, an internationally renowned economist. Jomo left University Malaya (the top and longest established public university in Malaysia) for the United Nation early this year to take up appointment of assistant secretary-general under Kofi Annan after “decades of frustration, discrimination and non-recognition of his academic and intellectual talents and qualities”(Malaysiakini.com 2005). Jomo was never given any senior appointment, whether as dean of faculty or head of department, although many of his students have occupied these positions. His application to be senior professor was supported by three Nobel laureates as reference, which included economist Amartya Sen, and Joseph Stiglitz. Nevertheless, it was rejected. The second case is still a hot issue currently and the academician victim is Associate Prof Dr Edmund Terence Gomez, also from University Malaya (UM). Despite given strong verbal assurance by the university’s vice-chancellor, Gomez was denied a two-year leave of secondment to take up the prestigious research appointment as Project Manager at the Geneva-based United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD) to pioneer global research on racial conflict. The university claimed it turn down the application because it needed the service of the lecturer (Puah 2005). To make the case worst, her head of department has told Gomez’s wife that any application for unpaid leave will not be entertained. This has prompt Gomez (2005) to state that his and his wife cases “suggests a serious case of victimisation and abuse of power by the university authorities.” According to one of the letter posted in malaysiakini.com website by “Mr. Fed Up” in 26 May 2005, the writer stated: “The Dr. Terence Edmund Gomez saga reeks of discrimination of the worst kind. Would things have turned out differently if he wasn’t a non-bumiputera?” (bumiputra literally means “son-of-the-soil” that used to refer the Malay and various aboriginal groups as “early settlers of the country”). The University Malaya Academic Staff Association (PKAUM) President, Rosli Mahat claimed that e-mails sent out to the university in-house e-mail list were vetted and filtered. Discussing on those censorship issues and Gomez’s case were never uploaded, thus shutting down their means of open communication (Manan2005). Thus, in the two cases, the international recognition for Jomo and Gomez should be seen as an honour to the universities and their outstanding achievements should be encouraged. Politic or racial discrimination should not interfere and control the academic freedom.

4.5 The bandwagon culture and wholesale purchase of ISO in education.

ISO has been generally accepted in most of the countries as a symbol of quality especially in measuring products. Some criticize the use of ISO as a kind of Americanization but even with that, Americans themselves might not thrust their education business in the hands of ISO alone. No doubt ISO might have its worth in ‘commoditized’ industry but we should not worship ISO like God or as a creation of God. However, in our current society, it is unfortunate to say that the term “ISO” has become a fashionable word to be used to hypnotize the consumers and sometimes even being
manipulated as an ornamental or packaging label. The fear for not being granted the label of ISO is increasing. ISO alone doesn’t equate with value of quality. It can no doubt produce a product with certain relative level/norm of standardization. But our students shouldn’t be treated as products. What good does (is so great of) standardization in education do anyway? Standardization alone will kill creativity and different types of intelligences; standardization will push away those talented, creative and critical thinkers. Hence, we should apply ISO with caution in the field of education. For a university to become a renowned institution, it is not ISO that matters but it is the number of thinkers that we produce, the qualities of researchers that we generate, the facilities for graduates and undergraduates (i.e. labs, computers, reading materials, academic-friendly environments and academic-friendly academicians and supporting staffs) that we provide that matters. Therefore, if that is the direction/pathway we take, we should give more priority in producing great thinkers. With those pools of thinkers, the universities will surely flourish as centres of learning and innovation. Let us get back to the core business of a university, and give a better academic environment to our academicians and not engaged in the peripheral bureaucratic battles. University should not only talk about technology transfer, university should talk about indigenous development. Let us produce people like Immanuel Kant, Edward Said, Albert Einstein etc. If we believe in Malaysia Boleh (literally means “Malaysia Can” or “Malaysia Capable”), then this is the right direction that we should pursue. Malaysia Boleh in producing our own thinkers who can shape the epistemology and who can shape the academia! We will then harvest the results when there are more thinkers around. People will go to the experts and thinkers for knowledge and the rest will be secondary in the process. With more thinkers around, we will surely be able to impress/attract more talented foreign students. With the introduction of ISO, there are more documentation and procedures, more papers than publications. In order to have the records, we want everything to be documented, which at last sacrifice the number of publications and more prospective/potential papers have been wasted in the process. And it is of course not environmental-friendly! But can ISO help us to produce thinkers?

The above signs, which this article has mentioned are something that we should ponder. If we are not serious in rectifying this dilemma, then perhaps we will later throw away the academia replacing it with an Academy Oscar for the future generation promulgating or contributing toward “the end of academia.” The end of academia will mean the death of university. Or maybe we would like to celebrate this funeral!

References


Study on the Actuality and the Countermeasures of the Employment of College Students

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Abstract
The employment of college students has become an issue that draws common concern from the whole society. This paper explores the employment of college students from various angles, finds out the material reasons thereto and puts forwards countermeasures for resolving these problems and development ways.

Keywords: College students, Employment, Countermeasure

With the continuous enlargement of the enrollment of colleges, the number of college students becomes larger and larger, with which problems in the employment of graduates come along. The employment of college students has become an issue that draws common attention from colleges and society. How to resolve the present hardship for college students to get jobs arises common concern from various social fields.

According to the statistics of departments of education, in 2001, the number of graduates of the year amounted to 1,150,000; in 2002, the number of national college graduates reached 1,451,100, 232,600 more than that in 2001 with the increase rate being 23.1%; in 2003, the number of graduates of the year amounted to 2,122,000, 670,000 more than that in 2002 with the increase rate being 46.2%; in 2004, the number of graduates of the year reached 2,800,000, 678,000 more than that in 2003; in 2005, the number of graduates of the year was 3,380,000, 580,000 more than that in 2004; in 2006, the number of graduates soared to 4,130,000, 750,000 more than that in 2005; in 2007, the total number of graduates reached 4,950,000; in 2008, the number of graduates of the year will amount to 5,320,000, bringing more problems in the employment of college students. According to the statistics of the Ministry of Education, the number of unemployed graduates increases year by year; in 2001, the number was 340,000, in 2002, 370,000; in 2003, 520,000; in 2004, 690,000; in 2005, 790,000; and in 2006, 910,000. In 2007, the total number of national graduates of college amounted to 4,960,000 and the number of college students unemployed was 1,450,000, which should draw people’s earnest attention. Graduates of 2008 and 2009 will continue to enlarge this unemployment group and will form “rolling” expansion, which will bring along austere social problems.

In this connection, we can use the word “austere” to describe the employment situation of college students of this year. People generally will attribute the reasons for this austere situation to the enlargement of the enrollment and assume that the enlargement of the enrollment is the chief reason in bringing along hardship for college students to find jobs. However, the author of this paper holds that although the employment of college students is to some extent connected to the enlargement of the enrollment, we cannot simply attribute the austere employment situation to the enlargement of the enrollment. In discussing and exploring the issues on the employment of college students, we shall start from various angles and dig the material reasons so as to find out countermeasures to resolve those problems.

1. Reasons for the hardship in the employment of college students
1.1 The employment concept of college students is obsolete

Before, the higher education of China is talent education. Those who enter the universities would have good jobs after graduation. The thoughts under planned economy system, “those who study well become officials”, and “official awareness” and the “white collar complex” in the new economy era exert influence on the employment expectation and the orientation of college students and their parents. However, with the development of times, higher education of China has been transferred to common education. College students are not universally lucky persons any more. On the contrary, the obsolete employment concepts still exert great influence on the employment thoughts of college students, blocking the change of the employment concepts of college students.

We can say that the employment of college students is actually not hard. What is hard for college students is that they
cannot find good jobs as they expect. Therefore, basically speaking, the obsolete employment concept is the fundamental root that results in the hardship in the employment of college students. College students are all eager to get jobs in hot areas and hot specialties, while neglect other job chances.

1.2 The specialty set-up of colleges strays from the market demands

Although most of colleges of China have conducted reforms according to the principles of market economy, the old systems are still in possession of the main status. The specialty set-up of colleges and the talent cultivation modes stray from the demands of the market.

1.3 There exist flaws in local household registration system

The household registration system becomes the obstacle in the employment of college students. The planned distribution system still exerts functions in many aspects of the present employment administration. For example, there are distribution planning administration, household registration administration, register certificate administration and human resource index examination and approval administration.

1.4 The graduate administration of colleges is still under the influence of the planned economy

For example, colleges attempt to use employment agreement as an administration method to restrict the insincere actions of graduates, to guarantee certain legitimate rights and interests of graduates, and at the same time, to get to know the employment and household registration conditions of graduates. However, the employment agreement is too simple in contents, does not closely follow the Labor Contract Law, and lacks restriction force. Therefore, the application of employment agreement dose not realize the primary aim of this administration method, but restricts the employment choices of the graduates.

1.5 Education quality cannot meet social demands

For example, the practice classes of most colleges exist only in name. The practice classes are just cultivation plan for enriching education, while students trained by this way are just good at getting high scores and poor at practice, so they cannot meet the demands of employers. Also, the employment guidance for college students is not sufficient. Occupation planning strategy shall be incorporated into the lifetime planning of students. Colleges shall provide students with large amount of employment service, such as occupation consultation, alumni consultation network, alumni job fair, symposium and occupation group, and occupation resources. However, many colleges in China lack long term and systematic planning thereto and colleges just offer precipitant education when students’ graduation draws upon. The efforts made at the last moment cannot change college students’ employment concepts and cannot help them master employment skills either. Hence, it is hard for college students to form correct and lasting occupation, sincerity and entrepreneurship view.

2. The development ways for the employment of college students

2.1 From the aspect of college students

2.1.1 College students shall liberate their thoughts, change their employment concepts, and realize long-term occupation.

In the employment of college students, it is very common and severe that the personal elements of college students result in the hardship in getting jobs. Therefore, college graduates shall first set up independent awareness, keep active and optimistic attitude, try to arm themselves with knowledge and skills that can meet market demands, discard the unrealistic employment vanity and dependent thoughts, and establish popular and long term occupation view.

At this stage, with the popularization of higher education, the employment view of college students shall not stay at the talent education stage. We shall change the traditional employment concepts where graduates just pursue high salary and high treatment. College graduates shall focus more on the long-term development, enhance competition awareness, buildup the go-aheadism of employment, and set up life time study concept.

2.1.2 College students shall correctly fix their positions, plan well their occupation career and master skills in getting jobs.

During the time at campus, college students shall plan well their occupation career, set up correct aim and ambition, set a direction, explore feasible measures, exert their specialties, develop their potentials, overcome difficulties and obstacles, preserve and make constant efforts so as to succeed.

After the study and cultivation at colleges, college students have advantages in knowledge accumulation and can become the outstanding ones in the employment army. However, under the existing education system, long-term education in schools will usually make students lack social practice experience and poor at practice capacity. In this connection, college students shall correctly appraise and evaluate themselves and comprehensively, objectively and correctly judge their own knowledge, hobbies, specialties, and interests. In the process of applying for jobs, college students shall take initiative to meet the society’s demands, exert their specialties, avoid disadvantages, and carefully
prepares all-round recommendation materials, including resume, reference letter and copies of award certificates which shall be comprehensive, novel, tasteful but not brilliant.

2.2 From the aspect of colleges

2.2.1 Further improve the system for the employment of college students

Campus recruitment, as the most important channel for college students to find jobs, is a must choice for many enterprises when recruiting college students. However, practice has proved that its actual effect is not so ideal, while special job fairs with sufficient information are well welcomed by graduates because of the strong pertinence of the fairs. The guidance teachers for employment in colleges shall emphasize and endeavor to change the phenomenon that campus recruitment fair suffers from too many students and is low in efficiency, duly renew employment concepts, and follow the steps of employment development. The employment fair must be divided in detail according to the market and be innovative in methods and modes.

2.2.2 Improve education mode of colleges and enhance the connection of colleges with recruitment enterprises

The adjustment of specialty structure of colleges shall be accelerated. This kind of adjustment is especially necessary under the strategic adjustment of China’s economy structure, the development of science and technology and the constant improvement of market economy system. At the same time, the adjustment of specialty structures of colleges will influence and force the reconstruction of labor and talent structure and will also advance and direct the optimization of economy structure and the rational allocation of educational resources. To improve the operation system of higher education, the urgent issues are that an effective feedback system shall be set up between colleges and society, the specialty set-up shall be closely connected to the market, and the demands of talent market shall be the guidance for the set-up and adjustment of specialties of colleges.

2.2.3 Provide comprehensive information service

Colleges shall speed up the construction of employment information network for graduates so as to realize the modernization of the administration for the employment information. For example, the integrative and overall conditions of colleges and the detailed personal information of graduates can be open through network to enterprises so that enterprises can timely and fully get to know the detailed information of graduates. At the same time, the comprehensive information of enterprises shall be open to college students too. By this say, the information asymmetry between the two parties can be reduced. To improve employment efficiency, the governments shall also take a series of measures to reduce the information asymmetry, endeavor to improve the effective allocation of resources, perfect and regulate the employment market, and strictly punish enterprises that use recruitment as a disguise for illegal purposes.

2.2.4 Enhance employment guidance

When providing guidance to college students, colleges need to do as follows. Firstly, colleges shall have special organs and personnel, set up special organs and system, and equip with personnel with specialty knowledge in employment so as to provide professional employment guidance to college students. Secondly, the employment guidance shall be incorporated throughout the whole education process. The special employment guidance work shall be closely connected to students so as to master the trend of the employment thoughts of college students. Then, colleges can conduct work with certain pertinence. Through special lectures and other forms, colleges should help college students to objectively understand contemporary employment situation, objectively understand themselves, and find out reasonable employment channels. Employment guides shall enhance their connection with employers, obtain information on talent demands, and offer students with the making demands of employers on graduates. The making demands of employers on graduates shall be the ground for colleges to conduct teaching reform and the direction that college students make efforts towards.

2.3. From the aspect of country and society

2.3.1 Improve employment system and enrich employment service

The employment of college students is a systematic and complex project, towards which the country, the society and families shall bear liabilities and obligations. For the aspect of law, the legislation on employment shall be accelerated and various matching regulations shall be promulgated so as to form perfect regulation system on employment. For the aspect of policy, governments at various levels, departments of human resources and education administration departments shall cooperate with each other in harmonious way to set up perfect rules and systems for the employment work of graduates to follow so that the employment work of graduates can be standardized and systemized, the employment market for graduates can be perfected, the just competition among talents can be guaranteed, and the legitimate rights and interests of the employers and employees can be maintained. The administrative departments shall also strictly rectify the malicious actions in the employment of college students.

2.3.2 Insist on the principle of preferentially developing education, enhance policy direction, and encourage self-entrepreneurship
The severe hardship in getting jobs requires that we must change traditional employment concepts. Therefore, the restriction of human resource administration, such as household registration system, belonging system, and various indexes and file administration, shall be reformed so as to reduce employment costs and talent flowing costs and advance the rational flowing of talents. Meanwhile, for college students who pursue self-entrepreneurship and who go to work at the grassroots, government departments shall provide preferential policies thereto, reinforce policy direction, enlarge influence, and enlarge influence on college students, which can guarantee the demands of the development of society on talents and can also realize rational allocation of graduates.

2.3.3 Create culture atmosphere encouraging and supportive to the employment of college students and avoid erroneous talent consumption.

The employment of college students affects the harmony of each family and the stability of society. Hence, the nation, the society, the media and families shall cooperate to create healthy and encouraging employment culture atmosphere, help graduates to set up the employment view of “taking pride in independence and shameful for dependence”, and supervise employers in liberating thoughts, renewing concepts, setting up correct view in utilizing talents, optimizing the structure of human recourses, and stopping the waste of talents so as to offer graduates with good employment environment and extensive stage for college students to exert their intelligence and to contribute to the society.

In general, the hardship in the employment of college students is not simple resulting from one single aspect. It is a problem that covers the entire organic component of the nation, the society, graduates, and colleges. Therefore, to resolve the hardship in the employment of college students, we must search to apply various methods together. Any single method cannot along resolve the severe hardship in the employment of college students. If the college graduates, colleges, the nation and the society jointly and cooperatively participate, the hardship in the employment of college students will certainly be resolved.

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School Based Assessment: Will it Really Change the Education Scenario in Bangladesh?

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Abstract

In Bangladesh, the system of assessment has always been guided by curriculum though the system only covered learners’ ability of memorization and comprehension skills. Other categories of skills in the knowledge like application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation are hardly included in the assessment. Besides, some of the essential qualities such as oral presentation, leadership, tolerance, co-operative attitude, school behavior, co-curricular activities, and social values are not included in the assessment system. As a result, learners’ trend to rely heavily on their memorization skill leads them to become crippled lacking required excellence to contribute fruitfully to the society. The government of Bangladesh has timely envisaged the reservation of its education system and has justly adjudicated the School Based Assessment (SBA) aspiring learners’ holistic development. SBA has been implemented in junior secondary levels of general education in June, 2007. This paper reveals the current situation of the recently applied assessment system through a study of a group of teachers of secondary level and SBA trainers. It will discuss the issues that emerge from the arguments of the scholars that they hold regarding SBA and its potentiality in the context of Bangladesh.

Keywords: School based assessment, Secondary school, Evaluation, Language policy, Policy implementation, Teaching language

1. Introduction

Education is a vehicle of social progress and socio economic transformation. It is the process by which people acquire knowledge, skills, habits, values or attitudes. The word ‘education’ is also used to describe the results of educational process. It is conceived to be an on going process. During this process it is often required to measure the progress of the learners, how far the educational changes occurred among them or how these changes have been organized.

In Bangladesh, secondary education is one of the most important and biggest sub-sectors in education having huge number of institutions and teachers. The rate of enrolment in secondary sub-sector increased significantly in last decade but in terms of quality, it is not up to the mark. As mentioned by National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB)

Too many of our young people are dropping out of school each year. Too many are not going on to the next year. Too many are failing. These must be changed. The Community is concerned about the standards of behaviour and the values of our young people. The school has an important role to play in relation to these aspects of students’ development. (NCTB, 2006, p. ii)

To reform and bring positive changes in the secondary curriculum, the Government, Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) and other educational organizations have been putting efforts since 1990s. The government has recently taken a lot of initiatives to ensure the quality of education. The recent innovations in teaching and learning at the secondary level in Bangladesh have received considerable attention. Generally, in Bangladesh secondary schools, the examinations focus on assessing students’ ability to memorize what they have been taught. But to ensure a quality education, proper
assessment is needed along with an effective syllabus. In June, 2007, the government asked the schools across the country to carry out School Based Assessment (SBA) of students of grade VI-IX, instead of the existing evaluation system that depends solely on examination. With the introduction of the new assessment system, students’ promotion to the next class level will depend not only on examination results but also on their performance throughout the year and on their personal development. The purpose of this study is to find out the current situation of SBA, teacher trainers’ and teachers’ attitude towards it and the possibility of its success in bringing change in education in Bangladesh.

This paper begins with an introduction to the current assessment system in Bangladesh. The introduction is followed by a brief description of SBA. Then it reports on a study where issues of different aspects of SBA were raised through interview survey (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005) and semi-structured interviews with secondary school teachers. Data have also been collected through document analysis. The paper ends with a discussion and some recommendations for successful implementation of this new assessment system.

2. Background

2.1. Secondary education in Bangladesh

There are three stages in the structure of institutional education in Bangladesh i.e. primary, secondary and higher education. Primary education is a five-year cycle from grade I-V. This study will focus on secondary education which comprises three year junior secondary from grade VI-VIII, two year secondary from grade IX and X, and two year higher secondary from grade XI-XII. Higher secondary is followed by higher education in general, technical, technology and medical education streams with four/five year graduation. The secondary education sub-sector in Bangladesh is quite large. According to the Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics (BANBEIS), the number of secondary school is 18500 having 238158 teacher and 7398552 students in the year 2006 (BANBEIS, 2007). Students sit for Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSC) at the end of year 10. They sit for Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) examination at the end of year 12. SSC reflects 10 years of education starting from year 1 to 10. HSC plays a vital role in students’ life since it prepares the learners for higher education. Till present, both these high stake examinations emphasize students’ memorization skill and the power to reproduce them in examination hall.

According to the language of instruction, the schooling system of Bangladesh can be divided into two systems -Bangla medium schools and English medium schools. English language courses are mandatory for students studying in schools of both systems. Proficiency in English has become mandatory for success in both studying and working since English is currently the undisputed language of science and technology. In business and industry, workers are increasingly expected to develop proficiency in English. English proficiency is now required for most professional employment. “Being nationally competent in English is one necessary condition if Bangladesh is to move up the long curve of economic growth from its low starting point” (Imam, 2005, p.474).

The Government of Bangladesh started making changes in ELT policies to improve English language teaching in the country since it was clearly evident that students’ English language skill could not be improved with the existing ELT policies. The Government and the international agencies have invested increasingly large amounts in last decade for the expansion and improvement of English language teaching and learning provisions. The English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP) was among the initial projects that aimed to improve the quality of English Language teaching in secondary and higher secondary education in Bangladesh. It was co-funded by the Bangladesh government and Department for International Development (DFID) of United Kingdom and was run by the British Council and NCTB. ELTIP introduced communicative textbooks in the year 2000 up to the higher secondary level in Bangladesh. The new curriculum stressed the need for students to learn to communicate in English rather than to just master the structure of the language. Although the policy and the textbooks changed to a communicative method in the year 2000, the pictures of English language classrooms still reflects the traditional teaching style. Teachers still stress the development of reading and writing skills for the purpose of getting good results in examinations (Hasan, 2004). Rahman (1999) states “Notebooks and guidebooks are a lifeline to most learners and the negative backwash effect of the examination on teaching and learning strategies complete the cycle of monolithic pattern of knowledge and education” (p. 109)

2.2 School Based Assessment (SBA)

Secondary Education Sector Improvement Project (SESIP) is one of the various improvement projects that have recently started running at the national level with donor assistance. It is a Tk 490 crore project which is jointly funded by Asian Development Bank (ADB) and the Government of Bangladesh. It recommended introducing a uni-track curriculum and the SBA system from 2006. SBA is the assessment of students’ progress which occurs, on an ongoing basis during the year, as an important part of the students’ learning. With SBA, teachers give regular feedback to their students to help them learn better. It has been implemented with the intention of developing students’ thought process, their ability to solve problems. It will also focus on students’ personal development and communicative ability.

In Bangladesh, students’ assessment system is based on year final examination. Their reports and decisions about their
promotion to the next class level are based only on their performance on the school examinations conducted at the end of each year. These examinations test the students’ ability to answer written questions in a given time, remembering what they have learned. This can not assess many of the very important objectives of secondary education i.e. solving problems, orally expressing thoughts clearly, learning to behave appropriately and developing sound personal and social values. The new assessment system has been introduced to Bangladeshi schools so that these broader objectives are assessed. NCTB (2006) published a Teachers’ Guide for SBA (2006) which says “SBA VI-IX is being introduced to raise the standards of secondary education to international standards and to ensure overall assessment in respect of the school behavior and personal and social values of students” (p.ii).

With SBA, student assessment at classes will include the following three areas

- Students’ coursework-the school work they do in the classroom and at home during the year. Six different areas of student course work have been identified. The areas are class tests, class work, home work, assignments, oral presentations and group work. Each of these areas will contribute to the students’ overall course work mark.
- Students’ personal development-their behaviour within the school, their development of personal and social values and their participation in co-curricular activities of the school.
- Students’ performance in end-of-year examinations.

(A sample of teachers’ mark book for coursework has been given in Appendix A)

Based on the following criteria, a student will be assessed through the year in each subject

a. Attendance in class and interest in learning
b. Assessment (class wise)
c. Assignments (individual/in group)
d. Behaviour, values and honesty
e. Presentation of speech/individual and group discussions
f. Leadership qualities
g. Discipline
h. Participation in cultural activities
i. Performance in sports and games
j. Practical classes in science subjects

(NCTB, 2006, p. VI)

Each class teacher is expected to arrange, each term, a meeting of all subject teachers of his/her class to discuss and agree upon a mark for school behaviour for each student. It is considered important that teachers keep good record of students’ performance on SBA. The Head teacher must make sure that teachers keep good records. Teachers can help one another in planning their assessment and in planning their record keeping.

3. Literature Review

Assessment plays a central role in teaching and learning. In many countries, where teaching has become more communicative, testing remains same within the traditional pattern consisting of discrete items, lower order thinking and a focus on form rather than meaning (Brown, 2004). Even with an effectively communicatively oriented teaching program, the tests given to assess performance tend to emphasize the learners’ knowledge of separate grammatical points because these are the kinds of tests and test items that exist (Eckes et al. 2005). If students are given such tests, then they will want to be taught in a way that ensures them a ‘pass’ which defects both the teachers’ and the students’ goal of enabling the students to actually express themselves in everyday communicative events. In Bangladesh, the term-final or the year final examination and the SSC, HSC examinations are all traditional tests. Critics of such traditional tests argue that the test preparation requires drilling students on a narrow set of skills covered on the test which may turn to be harmful to their educational development and thinking (Crocker, 2005; Hillocks, 2002; Kohn, 2000). The prime objective of language assessment reform is to build communicative skills that are important for performing real-life like tasks rather than to train the students on grammar rules and make them skillful in translating written texts (Eckes et al., 2005). The new SBA system emphasizes on regular attendance in the classroom, developing students’ oral communicative skill in English, developing other characteristics like working in a group, doing field work and so forth. Torrance (1995a) states that if higher order skills and competencies such as problem-solution, investigation, analysis are included in the assessment system, the quality of teaching will be improved with respect to both curriculum coverage and teaching method (p.44).

In many cases, like Bangladesh, new assessment system is implemented to achieve the objective of new educational
curriculum. Petrie (1987, in Cheng 1999) says that “It would not be too much of an exaggeration to say that evaluation and testing have become the engine for implementing educational policy” (p. 254). These days, language test is taking the turn from mere examination room based test to a form that no longer involves the ordeal of a single test performance in a specific period of time. But improving assessment method in order to improve teaching-learning method is a major step. According to Torrace (1995b), such a reform concentrates on how, and by whom, new educational goals are to be identified, how they are to be encapsulated in the design of new assessment, how those designs are to be operationalized, whether or not teachers are sufficiently aware of and skilled in the pursuit of new goals, and, if not, what sort of training and material support might be provided for them (and, once again, by whom) (p. 150).

Torrace (1995a) conducted a comprehensive study on General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) which was introduced in secondary schools in England and Wales in 1986. He shows that all secondary school teachers involved with examination class had to engage to some degree in school based assessment. It was introduced to improve the secondary school curriculum and the classroom teaching. The study shows that teachers have engaged most effectively with new assessment system when the changes have derived from clearly understood changes in the curriculum. Chapman & Snyder (2000) also argue that the new assessment systems are implemented since it can be effective for improving instructional practice but such a mechanism can fail to understand the conditions that need to be met in order to have the desired impact on teachers’ classroom practice. They also argue that teachers can not adjust to the changes in assessment all the time. They further say that “Even if they understood the examination requirements at a cognitive level, they were often unable to make the necessary changes in the classroom to improve their students’ performance” (p. 462). Együd, Gál, & Glover (2001) also suggest that the language teachers need to be involved in different stages of the design and validation of a language examination or other assessment system through an ongoing support system. Torrace (1995a) concludes his study by saying:

New approaches to assessment are certainly a necessary, but not a sufficient mechanism for change within educational systems. Implementation must proceed in tandem extensive school-based exploration of the problems and possibilities of new approaches to assessment if our ambitions for them to be realized (p. 56)

An assessment system not only affects the learning and teaching but it also affects the society as a whole. According to McNamara (2000), the impact of assessment can be complex and unpredictable. While talking about the impact of assessment, he also points out “part of the impact of the reform was to open the door to abuses of the assessment process by wealthy families, who could afford to hire private tutors to coach their children through the projects they had to complete in order to gain the scores they needed to enter the university of their choice” (p. 75)

These studies reveal that the success of these changes greatly depends on whether or not the teachers feel they have the time, knowledge, material to achieve the goals and whether they received the training and encouragement to bring the change. A good number of researches and publications have focused on change in language assessment system, its impact and possibilities in developed countries. Rarely there is any research that focuses on the impact of such assessment system in developing countries.

Research Questions

The study had the following research questions

1. What is the existing situation of the new assessment system?
2. What are the attitudes of the teachers toward SBA?
3. Are the teachers well equipped to accomplish the task efficiently?
4. What are the existing challenges the teachers face while implementing the SBA?

4. Research Methodology

In this research, data were collected from four SBA trainers and 18 secondary teachers- seven from sub urban and 11 from urban areas. The participants were selected following ‘Typical Case Sampling’ which is a type of purposive sampling strategy (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005). The teaching experience of the teachers varied from 6-22 years and their age ranged from 34 to 52 years. All the teachers were selected purposively from urban and semi urban areas. Dhaka, the capital city and Savar, a semi urban area were selected with the idea that whatever changes take place in the field of education should start with the capital city and its sub urban areas. The trainers of SBA were just starters as trainers and they were selected from urban training centers.

Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected through interview survey, semi-structured interviews and document analysis in this research. Two separate questionnaires of open ended questions were made for the teachers and the trainers (see the Appendix B and C). The questionnaires were distributed among 18 teachers and four teacher trainers. Following the survey, semi-structured interviews were taken with eight of the teachers. The interview served the purpose of exploring further the teachers’ opinion and the current situation of SBA. Most of the questions focused on participants’ understanding of SBA and their attitude towards it. There were a number of questions that asked
participants’ idea and recommendation for its successful implementation. The trainers were also asked about their view about the potentiality and steps taken for successful implementation of the new assessment system in Bangladesh. The profile of the participants chosen for the interview is provided in Appendix D. These participants have been given pseudonyms to maintain their anonymity. Their names are used when their views are noted below. The interviews were conducted in the native language ‘Bangla’ since teachers’ imperfect English might limit the information they provided. These were transcribed and translated later. One of the authors personally derived the opinions in a very congenial atmosphere so that the situation may not seem to be artificial or threatening one. In both the cases opportunities were created in favor of their speaking freely. In a very informal setting they were asked to answer the questions on various aspects of SBA. The opinions are interpreted without changing their original theme and some others are quoted as they are. Information were also collected from recent articles, syllabus, curriculum documents and government reports. The documents provided a backdrop for more detailed data collection through interview survey and semi-structured interviews with informants.

The themes emerged from an examination of the data. All the sources of information i.e. the answers to interview survey, the transcripts of the semi-structured interview and the documents were repeatedly read through. Categories were developed using the Constant Comparative Method (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Recurrent themes regarding the SBA system were identified and the information have proved to be very valuable in understanding the issues under study.

5. Findings

The findings have been summarized under two main categories i.e. present situation of SBA and attitudes towards the implementation of the new assessment system.

5.1 Present situation of SBA

SBA has been started in the respective schools of all the participants but out of the 18 teachers of secondary level, only 10 have got training on SBA. Their head teachers got training and informed them about the marking scheme of SBA. Head teachers have also been provided training for three days to get an idea about SBA so that they can assist the subject teachers to conduct the activities of assessment and to prepare the report. These Head teachers are bestowed with the responsibility to check every subject teacher’s record keeping.

Trainers mentioned that assurance of implementation process can be understood through a chain of activities conferred upon the officials of different ranks. In addition to that, occasional visits to schools will be organized by NCTB to monitor the assessment activities. But all of the participants said that no District Education Officer (DEO) ever visits their schools. None of them could give any satisfactory answer on the issue of justice. Regarding ethical issues, trainers expressed their view that every precaution has been taken but nevertheless they were uncertain whether any case of injustice can be resisted.

Regarding the regular attendance, they informed that only the class teacher can ensure that because ‘we do not take their attendance in every period, so we copy it from the class teacher’ (Amir). Most striking information gathered from these two teachers was that for their convenience they have changed the marks scheme and later on distributed the marks according to the chart provided for keeping records.

5.2 Attitude towards the implementation of the new assessment system.

Eight participants engage their students in group work and assess their students’ oral skill and they do not deem this an extra load. They presume that if they properly practice the activities prescribed in SBA, this will undeniably help our students to improve their overall skill progression. One of the participants quickly points out:

Since the term final examination test students’ reading and writing skills in English, neither the teachers nor the students feel the urge to do speaking and listening activities in English language classes. If implemented properly, SBA will help to develop students’ listening and speaking skills. It won’t be any obstruction. (Rahima)

All of the participant teachers are engaged in providing private tuition to the students though they confirmed the idea that there is no possibility of students becoming victims to their teachers. The junior teachers were more positive in the use of SBA than the senior ones. If the teachers can plan their activities accordingly, SBA will be able to improve the quality of education of Bangladesh.

Most of the participants mentioned that teachers for the first time may not be able to accept the change positively and easily because in Bangladeshi context, teachers rarely practice oral presentation or do group works with the students. It will impose on them extra load of work. It seems to them very difficult to maintain after taking 6—7 periods everyday. Classes usually being large, it has become an extra load for them to maintain all the categories of activities. They are in the opinion that if they try to do all those activities in the class, they will not be able to complete the syllabus for the 70% marks which they consider more important than the 30% marks. All of them check their students’ home work and assignments during their off periods nevertheless they do not have enough off periods. Throughout the year,
scheduled/unscheduled interruptions of classes take place. Political disruption, natural disasters, closures for board examinations and a range of scheduled holidays often disrupt the academic calendar. In this process it is very difficult to teach the students, as class time does not permit to do all the activities mentioned in SBA. It is very difficult to manage in a large class. In short, this is definitely an extra burden for the teachers.

Six of the participants believe that the current assessment system may make way for widespread corruption by fuelling the profiteering trend of private tuition. As most teachers of city area are engaged in private tuition, the issue of students being victimized can not be denied. It depends on individual teacher’s sense of justice. As Fatema says:

I am engaged in private tuition, most of the teachers are; so there is every possibility that any student may fall prey to any teacher’s whim. I don’t agree with the theme that SBA will help students’ overall development. Sometimes teachers try to do some group work or oral exercises but they will not be successful in developing English language skills.

Another negative aspect of SBA has been pointed out by many of the participants. As Nirmal points out “If we do not give high marks to the children of locally influential people, they may come down on us. We may come under their attack”

6. Discussion and Recommendations

The findings show that trainers are very optimistic about changing the assessment system successfully. The teachers are divided into their opinions regarding the positive impact of SBA system on current education system. The findings show that although the government has already implemented the new assessment system, most of the teachers have not got the training necessary for implementing such a project. Untrained teachers will have a poor understanding of the ideas which will lead them to their inability to distribute the marks effectively. If these teachers try to implement such a new system, the system will collapse. If the SBA is implemented without providing adequate training to the teachers, a huge gap will be created between ministerial style and classroom reality.

Although teachers and trainers are quite optimistic about bringing a positive change in education through SBA, there is a widespread apprehension that teachers will misuse this to give high numbers to the students who take private tuition. It is important to implement policies that suit the local culture.

To ensure proper evaluation of a student, recommendations have been provided below

a) academic supervisors should be given this responsibility of monitoring
b) head teachers should call meeting and check all teachers’ record keeping in each term
c) a committee can be formed in each school to check the records
d) guardians should be aware of the fact that their children may not fall victim to any teacher, if suspected, guardians should place immediate complain to the head teacher
e) Head teachers should sit for a guardian’s meeting after each term and try to solve the complaints placed by the guardians.
f) An element of guidance and counseling may be introduced. It will provide opportunity to know teachers’ problems while implementing the new assessment system.

These are some of our reflections conceived through this survey, it is our assumption that if the suggestions can be maintained properly only then we can foresee desirable outcome from SBA.

7. Conclusion

Educational change is a complex phenomenon. The success of the new assessment system will depend on proper management of resources and manpower. The study reveals some significant facts about teachers’ knowledge and integrity of implementing this new system of assessment. The number of participants was small but most of them provided similar type of information. As a developing country, Bangladesh has to depend on donor agencies. Since the government of Bangladesh and the donor countries have been pouring huge amount of money to bring changes in secondary education, we hope that the government and the ministry of education will frame policies and implement practices after adequately considering the contextual factors so that they can succeed to achieve the targets of implementing the new assessment system. Our previous experiences of various foreign aided projects make us absolutely dubious about the credibility of SBA as we can be unquestionably irrefutable that not all the foreign prescriptions act favorably in the socio-cultural as well as political reality of our society. According to Rahman, Kabir and Afroze (2006), a program needs to work within the social and contextual realities of their environment. If the Bangladesh Government commits to bring change in the assessment system and can find ways to overcome the local constraints, the step towards changing the assessment will definitely be successful. It is our whole hearted expectation that SBA will bring about noteworthy changes among the students making them more capable to suit to the rapidly changing contemporary society.
References


Appendixes

Appendix A

Recording Student Performance Within SBA VI-IX Teacher’s Mark Book for (Subject Name) Course Work, Team 1

Table A1. Teacher’s Mark book

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Appendix B
Questionnaire for Trainers
1. When did you start training the teachers for SBA?
2. So far how many teachers did you train?
3. Did you take training for SBA before providing training to the teachers? If yes, for how many days? Who were your trainers?
4. Do you think that SBA will be able to improve the quality of secondary education in Bangladesh?
5. Don’t you think that this will be an extra load for the teachers?
6. How do you ensure that teachers are doing all those activities in the class when they get back to school?
7. Do you provide training for the head teachers also? If yes, for how many days?
8. In your opinion would it be possible to train all the secondary education teachers before 2009? If not, how are you going to cover this large number?
9. Do you think that SBA will bring about a positive impact on the students’ achievement? If yes, how?
10. Don’t you think that teachers can victimize any student? If no, how do you ensure that?
20. Do you agree with the idea that SBA will help students’ overall development?
21. In your opinion, is there any possibility of students being victimized?
22. Is it possible to implement SBA in your school?
23. Do you consider this an extra work? If yes, why?
24. How can we ensure the ethical issues?

Appendix C
Questionnaire for Teachers
1. When did you start SBA in your school?
2. Have you got any training on SBA? If yes, for how many days?
3. What idea do you possess about the course work?
4. What type of activities do you engage your students in?
5. How do you evaluate your students’ oral skill?
6. Do you engage your students in group work in class? If yes, how do you assess each student’s activity in a group?
7. Do you assign them any home work? If yes, what kind of home work do you assign them?
8. When do you check your students’ home work?
9. Could you please give one example of assignment that you used for your students?
10. Do you keep a regular record of your students? If yes, when do you prepare it?
11. So you use any other material instead of the textbook? If yes, please name them.
12. How do you keep record of your students’ behavior?
13. How often do you take class test in a term?
14. Does your school organize cultural activities? If yes, how often?
15. Do you have ideas about all the 6 areas on which you have to mark your students? If yes, please mention them.
16. Do you discuss with your colleagues before putting marks for your students? If yes, how often?
17. Do you get help from your head teacher while preparing the report? If no, where from do you get support?
18. Are you engaged in private tuition?
Appendix D

Table D1. Background of Survey Participants (Teachers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Type of School</th>
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Critically Evaluate the Understanding of Gender as Discourse

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Abstract
In this paper, the author explores the different views on gender and the nature of gender as discourse. Furthermore, the author argues that discursive psychology’s views on gender are convincing and explain more than other perspectives of gender.

Keywords: Gender, Essentialism, Constructionism

Since the 1950s, an increasing use of the term gender has been seen in the academic literature and the public discourse for distinguishing gender identity from biological sex. Money and Hampson (1955) defined the term gender as what a person says or does to reveal that he or she has the status of being boy or girl, man or woman (masculinity or femininity of a person). Gender is a complex issue, constituents of which encompass styles of dressing, patterns of moving as well as ways of talking rather than just being limited to biological sex. Over the years, the perception of the issue ‘gender’ has been changing and developing from essentialism to social constructionism. Essentialism suggests that gender is a biological sex, by contrast, social constructionism suggests that gender is constructed within a social and cultural discourse. Due to its complex nature, gender intrigues numerous debates over the extent to which gender is a biological construct or a social construct.

Social constructionists employ discourse analysis as a method for research on gender identity. Discursive psychology is one of most important approaches within discourse analysis in the field of social psychology. In contrast to traditional cognitive psychology which treats language as a resource, providing clues as to what is going on inside people’s minds or brains, discursive psychology sees language as its topics, examining the ways in which people talk about or construct things like attitudes, memories and emotions (Potter and Wetherell, 1987, cited in Edley, 2001). In this paper, the author explores the different views on gender and the nature of gender as discourse. Furthermore, the author argues that discursive psychology’s views on gender are convincing and explain more than other perspectives of gender.

1. Different Views on Gender

There are different perspectives of gender with respect to its complexity. One of them is very typical of many people (ordinary people and some academicians). They believe that gender is tied to biology and is binary with categories of male and female. In this sense, gender is natural, stable and like something given by God, which means gender cannot be changed. That is to say, gender is biological sex, and it is an oversimplified and stereotypical vision of differentiating between genders. This view is problematic when it is used to interpret the real world around us because there are many cases that don’t neatly fit into the two socially accepted categories. For example, in Indian culture, a hijra is considered a ‘third gender’ person, who is neither a woman nor a man. Most of them are male biologically or intersex, and they usually disclose themselves as women at the language level and dressing pattern. Hijras existed in India from the earliest records. And this ‘third gender’ was acknowledged in Indian culture throughout the Hindu history. Moreover, Lorber & Farrell (1991, p.1) also note that “What stays constant is that women and men have to be distinguishable. Biology does not distinguish them-in the gender category “woman” you find male-to-female transsexuals, who have changed their genitals and hormonal output but not their chromosomes, and berdaches, who are biologically intact males living out their lives as social women.”

Contrary to the biological view of gender, others, including sociologists, ethnographers and psychologists (Halford. & Leonard. 2000) have argued that people are not born with behaviors and characteristics of being masculine or feminine, but gender identity is developed within a culture and society and is nurtured, and perpetuated by the culture. People are expected to comply with the norms within that culture, and are socialized and gendered in a way in which presupposed and ready-made behaviors and beliefs are constantly and repeatedly reinforced. Gender socialization is “like the making of a jelly or blancmange, the characters of new-born infants are initially quite fluid such that they can take on the shape or form of whatever ‘mould’ they are poured into. Socialization theories imply that it is only gradually that people begin
to solidify into particular sorts of personalities. Once formed, we might ‘wobble’ a bit if pushed but, generally speaking, it is assumed that we will resist attempts to alter.” (Edley, 2001, p.192) the Sociocultural view of gender is supported by the fact that hijras’ (male-to-female transsexuals) social status is legitimatized because it is acknowledged throughout Vedic culture and by Islam rulers as well. They would undertake the cultural role of their chosen gender. However, there are still problems with this view. It denies that gender identity is dynamic and changing. A good example of this is that in many cultures, women are supposed to be nurturing, gentle, submissive and to be good homemakers. But in today’s society, women hold important positions of power such as presidents and premiers or take on careers involving bravery and intelligence like pilots and scientists. This ‘gender bending’ doesn’t create a new gender category. People have to fit into the two socially accepted categories (Lorber & Farrell, 1991). Thus, socialization theory ignores changes of gender role and cannot explain explicitly what is happening to the ‘other’ roles that women or men take on.

However, the first two theories cannot explain the following examples: There is a famous Chinese historical story about A girl called Hua Mulan. Hua Mulan’s father was very old but was enrolled in the army. She had no brothers, but she was successfully passing as a man to fight in a war instead of her father. Sometimes, women politicians have to be thought as ‘men’, showing their masculinity to the public, to sit and work with other men politicians. Biological view sees gender as being fixed when people were born and by socialization theory, identity is once shaped in a social context and it is difficult to change. Hopefully, discursive psychology can explain such phenomena as the mentioned at the beginning of the paragraph. The discursive psychologists state that “gender is neither something into which we are born nor something that we eventually become. In terms of the same metaphor, we would argue that the jelly never sets. We claim that people’s gender identities remain relatively fluid, capable of adapting to the particular social settings or contexts in which people find themselves.”(Edley, 2001, p.192). Discursive psychology’s view of gender as a powerful challenge to the essentialism and reductionism has developed biological and sociocultural theory of gender. In addition, discursive psychology gives better explanations to the complex gender. Discursive psychologists see gender as being fluid and dynamic and gender is constructed jointly and collectively through the interaction involving the operation of power because some ways of understanding the world become culturally dominant or hegemonic (Gramsci, 1971, cited in Edley, 2001). In addition, gender identity has to be negotiated and accomplished in the process of social interaction. What’s more, there is no singular or unitary construction of a self, a multiplicity of different, even contradictory gender identities is produced. (Edley, 2001). We can see that gender identity is not fixed and not unalterable, but is realized through interaction within social, cultural context. Thus, in my view, discursive psychology’s perspective on gender identity is more preferable than biological and sociocultural views on gender. More details about gender as discourse and discursive psychology and its correlation to gender are illustrated in the following parts.

2. Gender as discourse

Discursive psychologists insist that gender is constructed in and through discourse.

Gender is “the activity of managing situated conduct in light of normative conceptions of attitudes and activities appropriate for one’s sex category. Gender activities emerge from and bolster claims to membership in a sex category” (Lorber & Farrell, 1991, p.7). Discourse in terms of gender refers to “a whole range of different symbolic activities, including style of dress, patterns of consumption, ways of moving, as well as talking” (Edley, 2001, p.191). Gender identity is constructed and reproduced through these symbolic activities in a very broad sense. For example, within modern Chinese culture, masculinity is considered as something like being tough, drinking alcohol, smoking, having good sense of direction, having power and money. All these things are accepted and naturalized characteristics of male within the culture. In Goffman’s (1976) terminology, ‘gender display’ focuses on behavioral aspects of being men or woman. Gender is expressed or exhibited through interaction and become normalized and recognized as a social organized achievement. Butler (1990) uses the concept of performativity to reveal gender as norms that require continual maintenance. Butler (1990) argues that performativity is the discursive mode (like vehicle) by which ontological effects are installed. Discourse is productive and performativity is considered as that aspect of discourse that has the capacity to produce what it specifies. According to Butler’s (1990) theory of performativity, gender is not inscribed onto a biological body. On the contrary, gender is discursively constructed and sustained. Gender is performed by individuals on a daily basis and the everyday performance constructs gender within social and cultural discourse. In other words, she insists that gender identity is constructed within regulative discourses. Though Goffman and Butler adopt different terms of ‘gender display’ and ‘performativity’ respectively from gender as discourse by discursive psychologists, they actually provide support for discursive psychologists who maintain that gender is constructed in and through discourse with symbolic interaction within social and cultural norms.

According to discursive psychology, gender identity is not permanent, but in the course of being remade and reconstructed. However, reconstructing identities is not a simple matter of voluntary action (Eagleton, 1991, cited in Edley, 2001). Transforming the gender identity is a matter of challenging discourse. Reconsidering Garfinkel’s (1967) case study of Agnes discloses a complex process of chosen gender identity reconstruction. Agnes, a transsexual, was brought up as boy and took female identity at the age of 17 and several years later, she had a sex reassignment operation.
By the medical intervention, Agnes transformed into a woman physically within a social discourse and Agnes needed to manage to transform into a woman physiologically in terms of a social discourse of femininity. Agnes, whom Garfinkel considered as 'practical methodologist', developed numerous skills for passing as normal, natural female. She had to analyze and figure out how to act within cultural and social norms. She needed to perform herself as a woman and she had to learn to do what most women do without thinking. She had to face practical tasks such as managing the fact that she had male genitalia and she had no girl’s biography which might be social sources in daily interaction. She employed the strategy of 'secret apprenticeship', through which she learned feminine manners by taking notice of her boyfriend’s criticism of other women. According to Garfinkel (1967, p137), passing refers to the work of achieving and making secure their rights to live in the elected sex status while providing for the possibility of detection and ruin carried out within the socially structured conditions. In spite of Agnes’ explicit management of performance of femininity, we cannot say Agnes had passed from a male to female completely though she had the operation and successful performance for years. She was still passing and facing an ongoing task of being a woman. Agnes’s example shows that discursive reconstruction of new identity is complex and enduring process and it is restricted to social and cultural norms. To be successful, marking or displaying gender must be finely fitted to situations and modified or transformed as the occasion demands. Gender is something does, and does recurrently, in interaction with others (West and Zimmerman, 1991). Gender is embedded in cultural history and practices easily become routinized (habits). In addition, transformation and accomplishment of gender identity involves negotiation.

3. Discursive Psychology and Discursive Psychology’s View on Gender Identity

Since discursive psychology provides us with richer thoughts for looking at the gender identity, we need to explain and illustrate explicitly what it is and how it works to help understand discursive construction of gender. Discursive psychology highlights the way people construct the world in everyday practice. The major assumption of discursive psychology is that the phenomena are constituted in and through discourse (Edwards & Potter, 1992). Discursive psychology takes language as social practice and a way of doing things. Edwards and Potter (1992) also states that the world runs on talk and on writing. There are three basic constituents of discursive psychology and they are action, construction, and rhetoric. Discursive psychologists argue that in speaking and writing, people are performing actions and a detailed study of the discourse can disclose the essence of these actions. Their research has been based on naturalistic materials such as recordings of conversations in everyday and institutional settings, and documents such as newspaper articles and television programs. (Edwards & Potter, 1992). Like social representation theory, discursive psychology is a social constructionist approach, but it is again different type of constructionism. Social representations theory is concerned with the way people make sense of the world through representations, whereas discursive psychology is concerned with how people construct versions of the world in the course of their everyday interactions, and the way these versions are established as real and independent of the speaker (Edwards & Potter, 1992). Discursive psychologists have also argued that an analysis of rhetoric emphasizes the point that people interpret actions, their own mental life and the world and these interpretations are part of ongoing arguments, debates and dialogues (Billig, 1992).

Discursive psychology, based on the social constructionism, refutes the idea that the individual self consists of single, stable identity, and takes the self as being made up of multiple, discursively constructed identities, instead. For example, traditionally, Chinese men are in dominant, controlling position in family life. Accordingly, they are not supposed to do any housework which signifies the characteristics of femininity. Yet, society is changing and women work and earn as much as or even more than men. Nowadays, to see men cook at home. is not unusual Chinese men are enjoying acknowledgement of excellent cooking expertise. They are not called henpecked husband. The connotation of masculinity is changing as men interact with social conditions through the constant negotiation within the culture and this transformation is accepted and become part of the culture.

In Edley’s (2001) view, there are three key concepts, namely, interpretative repertoires, ideological dilemmas and subject positions, in discursive psychology for describing and understanding construction of gender identity. Potter and Wetherell (1987, p.138, cited in Edley, 2001) defined interpretative repertoires as “basically a lexicon or register of terms and metaphors drawn upon to characterize and evaluate actions and events”. Interpretative repertoires, in other words, are linguistic resources that can be drawn on, shared and understood in everyday social interaction and practices. Here is an example that was given by West and Zimmerman (1983, cited in Tannen, 1991) to show a man interrupting a woman. According to Tannen (1991), one of the most widely cited findings from research on gender and language is that men interrupt women.

Female: So uh you really can’t bitch when you’ve got all those on the same day but I uh asked my physics professor if I couldn’t change that.

Male: Don’t touch that.

Female: What?

Male: I’ve got everything jus’how I want it in that notebook, you’ll screw it up leafin’ through it like that.
This is an interruption because the man began while the woman was in the middle of a word ‘change’. Here, the man’s interruption is an interpretative repertoire, showing cultural history of masculinity. The interruption is justified in terms of interactional rights. There is the assumption that an interruption is a hostile and buling act. The interrupter is seen as aggressor, the interrupted an innocent victim. These assumptions are founded on the premise that interruption is an intrusion, an attempt to dominate and control. In this case, it signifies masculinity of men in social practice. There are different interpretative repertoires, some are more available than others and this case reveal that man’s position (masculinity) is dominant or hegemonic.

Ideological dilemmas means there is no unitary meaning to common sense. Common sense are full of contradictory/dilemmatic ideas. It implies that the different ways of talking about an object or event develop as opposing positions in an unfolding, historical, argumentative exchange (Edley, 2001). As for gender identity, it is widely accepted gender fall into two categories (male and female) in many cultures. However, there are still some cultures present different gender roles, so we are in dilemma when use polarized conception to interpret more complex phenomena. For example, Native Americans, if they have preferences to other sex, they are allowed to transform to the other sex and take on the role of their chosen gender. Their gender identity is quite complex and competing to fit into the binary gender identity in term of biological theory, but the transsexual does exist in the course of people’s interaction with the world. Discursive psychology provides a constructionist framework for such phenomenon.

Subject position refers to “the way that ideology creates or constructs ‘subjects’ by drawing people into particular positions or identities” (Althusser, 1971, cited in Edley, 2001, p.209). Gender identity construction is a process of constructing intelligible subject positions. In terms of gender identity, it may refer to a person’s preference and performance of gender roles through the interaction and this person becomes gendered in the process of subjectification which means “people are being both produced by and subjected to ideology”(Edley, 2001, p.209) For example, Nakhi, an ethnic group inhabit in Yunnan province in China. Nakhi Women are the main work-force in family. They do labour such as ploughing and reaping fields while Nakhi men stay at home cooking, looking after children. Women are highly respected in the Nakhi society. Behaviors and characteristics of Masculinity and femininity in Nakhi are quite different from other societies. Nakhi women’s as subject are positioned in term of gender as being dominant, superior to Nakhi men. In this case, identity is formed by meeting the discourse of a culture. Construction of particular selves subjects to the ideology.

4. Conclusion

To conclude, biological and socialcultural perspectives of gender have their limitations and can’t explain some phenomena which does exist within a culture. In contrast, discursive psychology has developed the theory of gender identity by drawing upon the social constructionism. Discursive psychology highlights the way people construct the world, the selves through interaction. Discursive psychologists claim that gender is constructed in and through discourse. Discursive psychologists see gender identity as something that is fluid, multiple, fragmentated, discursively constructed through interaction within the structures of a culture. In a word, discursive psychology’s views on gender are convincing and explain more than other perspectives of gender.

References


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Abstract
At least historically, undergraduate research supervision has predominantly been seen as part of the basic research function of academic staff. In many fields of study, success in research requires not only sophisticated experimental and analytical skills, but good mentoring and managerial skills as well. This paper presents an observational case study and perception based on the author’s true experiences exploring the most effective supervision of undergraduate students in the Faculty of Forestry, Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM). Due to the need of a highly calibre first class honours undergraduates for the future pool of postgraduates and top notch academia in the Faculty and in UPM, the aim of this paper is therefore to provide a good practice guideline for supervision of undergraduates final year project reports/theses to ensure consistency of approach for staff and students across the faculty and university. Key topics covered include building an effective undergraduate final year project/theses supervisory relationship, negotiating expectations, providing good communication and feedback and providing motivation and guidance to them. Personal interviews of undergraduates' perceptions of their supervision as they undertake their final year research projects were presented. Students reported that only a select few of their supervisors were supportive and sympathetic to their needs. Only a few of the Faculty supervisors adopted the role of resource person, directing undergraduates to references and contacts, discussing ideas and work undertaken. Only a few students had considerable freedom in the conduct of their final year project work. They were not able to choose their own research topic and supervisor but most determined the pace at which they worked. Some appeared to cope well with the autonomous role of a junior researcher while some commented on difficulties. Though the majority of students were given considerable freedom in their research the results of the observation indicated some differences amongst supervisors.

Keywords: supervision, forestry science, undergraduate, research, theses

1. Introduction
Knowing what an undergraduate student can expect from an effective supervision in terms of support is vital when a student starts the research project/theses module. It may not be particularly easy for an undergraduate student to forge a relationship with a member of staff in a particular faculty or department, for example if the supervisor has never taught the student or is very busy. Crucially, all faculties in UPM are different; this applies to their expectations, their deadlines, and their staff. In this paper, undergraduate research project/theses will find the basics of what it should be able to expect from an effective supervisor.

How to supervise undergraduate research/theses effectively is a central concern for all research supervisors. Much effort has gone into trying to identify and distil what makes a good supervisor and hence what is good, best or even excellent supervision practice (http://www.edgehill.ac.uk/Research/Degree/ProspStu2.htm). Supervisors in universities have particular concerns about how best to motivate students effectively to take responsibility for their own research learning.
There is consensus that effective university supervisors are self-reflective and strive always to improve their supervising practice to promote student learning research. To ensure positive research experiences for undergraduate students, supervisors must be effective in their supervising techniques, disciplinary knowledge and expertise. There is no single, definitive answer as to what precisely comprises effective supervision of undergraduate research/theses; rather it is a concept and set of practices constantly under review within a scholarship of supervision and by individual supervisors as reflexive practitioners (http://www.lass.soton.ac.uk/students/researchskills/Research_Topic/crt_05.htm). There is always scope to improve ways of effective supervising, not just by individuals in their own practice, but by communicating these steps to greater effectiveness in ways which mean they can be shared with and adopted by other supervisors. Given the agenda of widening participation in Malaysian higher education, students increasingly do not arrive at university with the skills needed to be effective junior researchers. They may not always take full advantage of the research opportunities presented for many reasons. While it is tempting to label students as lazy, unmotivated, or irresponsible they may in fact be daunted and overwhelmed by the demands of what is expected of them as students at a higher level so they fail or do not fulfill their potential. For most students, this represents the biggest single piece of academic or little scientific work they have had to undertake and is considered the pinnacle of their undergraduate studies. This paper therefore details a piece of research to identify and implement better and more effective ways for supervisors to help students take responsibility for carrying out independent “mini” scientific research project/theses.

2. Definition of Undergraduate Research

Across UPM alone, there are many differing definitions and conceptions relating to the undergraduate student research project or theses/dissertation (these terms are used interchangeably although distinctions may be drawn between them, particularly as they will mean different things in different disciplines/courses). It can be a piece of work seen as the culmination of the student's experience; the main integrating activity of the various taught and learned aspects of the course; allows the student to develop initiative and specialist interests; involves the student in investigative tasks and requires the student to draw upon knowledge and experience gained in the preceding years of the course; tests a student's ability to plan and carry out a sustained piece of work by integrating and extending previous studies; gives the student an opportunity to develop and demonstrate skill in identifying, carrying out and writing up a discrete piece of research using academic concepts, theoretical insights and practical abilities acquired on the course; provides a training system and e-mail contacts need to be equally agreed with the students that the supervisor intends to supervise. A timetable must be set with the student for the stages of the project with agreed milestones and deadlines including a feedback process to keep the student informed about the progress. It is important that the supervisor discuss with the student any requirements for generic skills or additional training like electronic bibliographic databases, statistical methods, and specific laboratory techniques. During the supervision process, the supervisor needs to maintain an agreed time commitment to the student and the project by organizing regular meetings with the student, keeping a record of meetings and of progress of the project and the development of the student in the log book. Reading and responding to the student’s written work in an agreed manner and within reasonable time (less than two days after student’s submission) by the supervisor must be done in addition to providing regular feedback through e-mails to the student as to their progress. Supervisors must encourage the students to have ownership of their projects/thesis and take responsibility for its execution. Where necessary, an effective supervisor must respond to changes in the need for
supervision as the student develops by providing effective and appropriate referral to support services, while maintaining confidentiality. The supervisor must be also familiar with the regulations for formal assessment and supporting the student in their preparations for achieving the best grade possible. It is critical that following the formal final project/theses presentation assessment, the supervisor should provide timely, accurate and constructive feedback for the student.

In general, the primary function of the supervisor is to maintain overall, general guidance of the project and to provide a critical and rational sounding board for student ideas. The exact nature and definition of supervisory responsibilities will to some extent depend on the nature of the project; the level and duration of the project; whether projects are supervisor/faculty generated and allocated or student generated and self-selected. The following is not exhaustive or prescriptive, but identifies key functions expected of the supervisor and should be adapted, as appropriate at Faculty level: (a) Assist the student to clarify the topic; to be clearly focused and not over-ambitious; advise the student on the viability of ideas; help with formulating ideas and hypotheses, (b) Direct the student to relevant areas of information, literature sources and specialized internal/external help; require students to produce drafts of sections or chapters of the academic report/theses, (c) Advise on appropriate methodologies/techniques and on consistent referencing style and the plagiarism issues; offer feedback on student’s draft which student can then revise; about the organization of student’s report/theses into sections or chapters; about matters of presentation, such as the title page, contents page, pagination, footnoting and references, (d) Maintain regular supervisory contact in accordance with faculty policy, (e) Regularly monitor the student's work where supervisors should keep a written log (required by ISO MS 9001:2000) of the opportunities for formal contact offered to students and the actual occurrences of formal contact, (e) Encourage students to keep a written record of all supervisory contact/support noting key points of discussion, (f) Assist the student in managing the timetable of the project, and identifying when problems are liable to be encountered and how they might be tackled, (g) Ensure the student is made aware of inadequate progress, standards of work below the expected level or any assessments which do not reach the required standard - consistently unsatisfactory progress should be made known to the student in writing, (h) Read and comment on drafts of the thesis, where this is requested by the student and return such work with constructive criticism in reasonable time. Supervisors should not be correcting spelling mistakes and effectively editing the thesis/dissertation. Students requiring assistance with this aspect of their work should be encouraged to seek appropriate assistance, and (i) Inform Faculty’s Undergraduate Project Coordinator/Deputy Dean (Academic & International) of any difficulties that are arising.

The theses supervisor should be frequently there in the office/lab to supervise the student work in progress. The official allocation of time for this work will vary from respective supervisors and faculty. However, it is important for the student to make a clear agreement with the supervisor about how supervision will occur. Meetings in the absence of any written work being completed are not generally an effective use of time, as students are wasting their allocated hours. If students have a question to ask or a point to check, then an e-mail will usually suffice. On the other hand, writing a good chunk of material and submitting it before a supervisory meeting means that the supervisor will have had the opportunity to read and comment upon it. It is often a useful idea to arrange to have some time as soon as possible after a supervision session so that students can follow up on the comments. Successful students have also found that it is helpful at the end of each supervision session to plan out clearly the next stage of work and the target dates. If the student works closely with the supervisor in this way, confidence can be build up and that the final work will be guaranteed of a satisfactory standard. Effective supervision may also enable the supervisor to identify where expertise in the department/faculty may be available to support the student work, beyond the supervisor themselves. It is important to remember that the academic report/theses needs to represent a body of individual study and research which is fit for its purpose but which, as a document, also demonstrates internal and intellectual congruence. Poorly conducted research is always unethical and the study must demonstrate that it conforms to the requirements of the governance. But remember - the supervisor's duty is to guide the student so that student can produce the best effort, and not to assist with continual revision until the dissertation has acquired a certain grade that the student may have as a target. Thus, the supervisor's approval of the student’s progress cannot be taken to imply any particular grade or classification. The student should not request this of the supervisor at any stage of the project/dissertation module. It should be noted and stressed that the research project/dissertation is the student’s responsibility and should represent the student’s work; not that of the supervisor. Undergraduate students are expected to work independently and to present academic report/theses at the end of the year.

In some instances, the supervisory mechanism operating at a Faculty level may require a second supervisor. For example, this may occur where a student's project /theses encompasses more than one discipline/subject where input of more than one member of staff is required in order to give sufficient coverage of the project topic. Some Faculties, as a matter of policy, operate this double supervisory mechanism, particularly for dissertations where one supervisor will provide subject expertise and the second supervisor might provide more input in relation to methodologies/techniques and supervision per se. The probable functions expected of the second supervisor which should be adapted, as appropriate, at Faculty level includes availability for periodic consultation in relation to aspects of the project, which
may be outside the expertise of the principal supervisor, provide support and encouragement to the student throughout the period of the project, an alternative view for student ideas and hypotheses, where appropriate and support for the principal supervisor in case of absence, and finally assist in assessment of the project, where applicable.

3.2 Student

The prime responsibility for the management of the project lies with the student who must maintain dialogue between him/her self and the supervisor. Before the student begins, one must undertake sufficient background reading to prepare for the project (seeking advice from supervisor if necessary). The student needs to familiarize with regulations and requirements regarding the scheme under which the project is taking place. The student must commit the necessary time required and what skills required to carry out the final year project/theses. The student needs to agree the direction and extent of the research project with the respective supervisor and the responsibilities that each of the student has towards it. The student must agree on the accessibility of the supervisor and routes of contact (e.g. scheduled weekly meetings, open-door policy, telephone and e-mail contacts etc). A timetable should be set with the supervisor for the stages of the project, with agreed milestones and deadlines. A feedback process with the supervisor to keep student informed about the progress needs to be arranged. Students have to request the supervisor for a transparent system of record-keeping relating to the project, bearing in mind any data protection issues if data from human subjects is to be collected. Where requirements for generic skills or additional training (e.g. bibliographic databases, statistical methods, specific laboratory techniques) are required, it may be discussed with the supervisor.

During the project, students are required to attend and participate in activities relating to the project as discussed in advance, and ensuring that milestones and deadlines are met on time. Students must be working effectively and seeking advice whenever necessary using the facilities and resources appropriately provided by the Faculty. It is highly commended that students are to meet with respective supervisors as agreed, and recording and reflecting on the outcomes of the meetings in the log book. It is important that the students are aware of available sources of support and how to access them. The students must be familiar with the regulations for formal assessment so that students can ensure these are met. After the project completion, it is expected that the students should be able to provide thoughtful and constructive feedback on their experiences to respective supervisors, and (while maintaining confidentiality) to the Faculty. Students should be able to reflect on their project but may also be able to identify benefits that are not easy to quantify, such as increase in confidence, degree of independence and ability for self-teaching. The students are expected to have a broader skills base especially in communication skills, IT, writing and presentation skills.

The responsibility for the work submitted is entirely that of the student. The student should manage the relationship with his/her supervisor, keeping in regular contact with him/her according to faculty’s policy. The student needs to discuss with the supervisor the type of guidance and comment that are most helpful while agree a schedule of meetings with the supervisor for reports/briefing on progress, ensuring the agreed schedule is adhered to and any deadlines met. Initiative must be taken by the student to discuss any problems with the project work and/or its supervision so that these can be resolved as soon as possible. A proper diary of work conducted related to the project has to be kept whenever the student meet or discuss with the supervisor. This would include: notes on discussions/correspondence with supervisor and any other internal/external specialists; literature read and comments; ideas/designs; results of tests/experiments; problems found and solutions; equipment details and settings; project costs; resources used; diagrams, plans, sketches, photographs; raw data; floppy disks etc. The students are to submit the research project/thesis in the specified format, on time and according to the Faculty's mechanism for handing-in project work and submit for any other assessments as required by course regulations.

3.3 The Faculty Management

The Faculty on the other hand should also provide necessary support services for staff and students to ensure adherence to equal opportunities legislation and health/safety regulations during the undertakings of final year project/theses. The Faculty, in particular the Deputy Dean (Academic & International) must record and monitor progress of students and projects involved in the scheme and provide clear rules and regulations for the formal assessment of the project, which should be reliable, defensible and transparent to all students. The Faculty Management Team should bear the following points in mind when coordinating and managing supervisory input of undergraduate projects/theses: (a) Flexibility in spread of supervision – faculty should have flexibility to determine for each project/dissertation, how best the overall time and supervisors could be allocated. As the nature of theses/projects varies considerably in different disciplines of forestry science and technology, and front and end loading in terms of supervisory input is often the norm, then it would be too prescriptive to identify the spread of timing of supervision, (b) Different thresholds for different modes of undergraduate CGPA delivery - should there be a different level of supervisory support for excellent standing (CGPA >3.5) students undertaking projects/theses? However, there may be a case for having a higher minimum threshold as students that are below 2.5 CGPA may be less likely to benefit from the "informal" supervision that students with above 3.0 CGPA probably do benefit from. Weighed against this, should be any input that below 2.5 CGPA students might be more likely to receive supervisor’s personal telephone and email contacts? This begs the question, what form of contact
should be counted as supervisory input - face-to-face, email, mobile telephone, or even house tutorials, etc?, (c) Different disciplines - do different disciplines warrant a different level of input, for example the nature of supervision for design based projects such as Forest Engineering Survey is very different from the supervision of say, Forest Management based subjects. Based on the information provided by the survey, it does not appear to be an issue but may be worthy of further debate/discussion within the Faculty or even University, (d) Whose input is included as minimum input - where there is additional input from industrialists/laboratory supervisors etc, how should this impact, if at all, on decisions relating to levels of minimum supervisory input? Are faculty members just determining the minimum level of academic supervisory input regardless of these other input sources? Similarly, what, if any, distinction between first supervisor and second supervisor level of input should be made and (e) Excessive supervision - As projects/dissertations should represent an equivalent degree of challenge, the level of supervision required by a student should reflect student ability with regard to this aspect of the course. Faculty might want to take excessive supervision into account when determining the overall performance of the student.

4. Survey Data Collection

The author has existed in various forms for some years and, as well as working together on undergraduate research projects/theses, is dedicated to delivering high quality supervising of qualitative and quantitative forest engineering and survey research methods, encompassing methods of data collection such as semi-structured interviewing, focus groups of final year undergraduates, diaries and archive data interviewing. In particular, the author has been concerned that undergraduate forestry students doing quantitative research projects in their final year feel adequately prepared for this important task. The author began to wonder how colleagues in other faculties supervised students about their projects. In brief, the author wanted to develop the Final Year BS Forestry Theses Guideline that had already been drafted in the Faculty by adopting the UPM School of Graduate Studies (SGS) mainly by listening to colleagues and identifying areas of best practice. In addition, the author wanted to hear students talk about their experiences of supervision and their recommendations for improving quality. The author’s aim was to produce a set of guidelines that could be used by colleagues across UPM with the following key questions namely, what makes a good undergraduate Bachelor of Forestry Science project/theses by giving examples of good and bad work, which research methods are most appropriate for undergraduate level forestry science and technology projects and why? How much data should students collect at this level, and what are the factors which mediate this question? What are the key ethical issues generated by undergraduate research project/thesis, and how can these is addressed?

The author has also obtained some feedback from the 2005-6 cohort of undergraduate forestry science students’ (n=15) supervision experiences in the Faculty of Forestry UPM on their experience of conducting their final year undergraduate research/thesis project as part of a larger study on undergraduate research supervision at the Faculty of Forestry, UPM. A qualitative inquiry of these students’ perceptions, employing face-to-face interviews was conducted. However, the questionnaire approach was also used where some final year students working on their research project/theses were invited to complete an open-ended questionnaire which included items on prior training in research/thesis methods, percent satisfaction with project supervision, frequency of contact, ease of access, good working relationship, support and encouragement, comparisons with quantitative/qualitative projects and costs and benefits of doing a final year research project/thesis.

5. Student Perceptions of the Supervisor’s Role

This section presents the results of a survey of undergraduates’ perceptions of their supervision as they undertake their final year research student’s project in the Faculty of Forestry, UPM. Students reported that only a selective few of their supervisors were supportive and sympathetic to their needs. The majority of supervisors did not adopt the role of resource person, directing students to references and contacts, discussing ideas and work undertaken. Most students had considerable freedom in the conduct of their work. They were given responsibility for many decisions concerning their research: most, for instance, chose their own research topic and supervisor and most determined the pace at which they worked. They appeared to cope well with the autonomous role of researcher but some commented on difficulties. The non-directive role adopted by supervisors enabled students to develop less skills of working on their own. Though the majority of students were given considerable freedom in their research, the results of the survey indicated some differences between students. Forest engineering based students had greater responsibility for decision making than their forest recreation or management counterparts.

It became apparent from the survey that, while the majority of the undergraduate students appear to have achieved such a working relationship with their supervisors, for those who have not, it becomes a major stumbling block. Some students were slightly less satisfied with the quality of supervision obtained from their supervisors in the Faculty. Majority of the students initially asked their supervisor for advice on choice of topic and reading materials. Not too many students talked to their supervisors because of less regular meetings held by the student-supervisor. Draft chapters were not showed accordingly to the supervisor as soon as the students have them. Students did not give their supervisors time to read, think and feed back. It is to be noted that the majority of the supervisors offer constructive
criticisms of the undergraduate work: that is why he/she is there. It is not a criticism of the student, or of the student’s ability. Do not be shy or embarrassed by this. The student’s personal supervisor is a resource: use that resource to the student advantage. Students must ask their supervisors questions, about methodology, theory, or anything else that may occur. Students are not expected to be an instant expert and it is a well known fact that it is the supervisor’s job to train them. Supervisors must help students, but they not do the student work for the student. Supervisors can only work with what the students bring them. In this study, a few supervisors were interviewed and talked about their experiences of supervising undergraduate academic project/theses. Many described the academic report/theses as a ‘journey’, seeing their role as facilitating that ‘journey’ and making their students’ plans achievable, rather than directing the student to take a particular route. The role of the supervisor is essentially to try and help make the student project realizable, rather than impose something on them. Remember that the student research project is theirs. The supervisor is just there to guide, not to tell the student exactly what to do. Note that only one or two supervisors normally have a timetabled allowance for theses supervision to make sure the student take advantage of it. The student is reminded to take the initiative in approaching the supervisor and do not wait to be asked. The student should make a point of contacting respective supervisor at least once a month and not let things drift. The student can be given assistance in understanding specific aspects of methodological technique and general guidance on, for instance, construction of a questionnaire. All supervisors are expected to read the first drafts of theses chapters in some detail but to comment on later and final versions only in a general sense. There is a clear disparity of resources/facilities between the faculty and undergraduate students. Majority of the undergraduates rated faculty facilities as less than acceptable. From the comments received, the chief issues are financial support, space, printing, WIFI internet and printing facilities.

6. **Good Practice and Strategic Coordination in the Supervision of Undergraduate Research Projects**

These guidelines are not regulatory and should be seen as an accompaniment to the relevant Faculty’s Undergraduate Research Handbook. The aim is to provide a good practice guideline for supervision of undergraduate academic projects and theses/dissertations to ensure consistency of approach for staff and students across the Faculty of Forestry and the other faculties in UPM. The key functions are identified which should be fulfilled in terms of the supervisory process. The Faculty should determine the most appropriate mechanisms for fulfilling these functions. The guidelines relate to undergraduate research/theses, although it is acknowledged that the supervisory function at these two levels will be different, in particular the supervisory function for theses work is likely to be of “heavier” emphasis than that for the undergraduate academic project report work. The three key elements identified for a successful and effective supervision of undergraduate student academic project/theses are (i) clarity of responsibilities for both the supervisor and the student where both parties must take responsibility for ensuring that satisfactory progress is being achieved throughout the entire duration of the project, (ii) co-ordination of the supervisory process at Faculty level, where it is important that supervisory practice is consistent within the entire duration of undergraduate research course, and (iii) record keeping of all supervisory input/support by both staff and students. This information is particularly significant where, as part of the project/theses assessment, the student's performance is evaluated in terms of their input into the research process, or in the case of a student appeal. Students should be encouraged to write up, in an agreed format, the outcomes of any supervisory contact. It is very important that every student must receive equitable qualitative standards of supervision from all Faculty members. There have been informal reports by undergraduate students in the Faculty of Forestry UPM that they have not been receiving quality and effective supervision and guidance from their respective supervisors. This has been proven over the past few years when some final year students had to repeat their final year project presentation because of major technical weaknesses in their academic reports/theses. In-house Faculty practice should then determine what quantitative/qualitative levels of supervision are used as standard. The quantity of supervision/assistance required is important in that it may be taken into account in assessing student performance.

It is important that at the faculty level, there is a mechanism for coordinating and administering supervision on a daily basis and a mechanism for maintaining a strategic overview of project/dissertation practice. The primary function of the Final Year Project Coordinator is to ensure that the project/dissertation module is efficiently and effectively coordinated on a day-to-day basis, if possible. The key activities expected within this function includes: (a) Organization and administration concerning student projects, (b) Liaising with supervisors and resolving, where possible, any individual difficulties, (c) Resolving difficulties such as major equipment breakdown, (d) Identify suitable topics for projects, (e) Approve project outline proposals/timetables prior to the start of projects, (f) Resolve any administrative problems and issues relating to the degree of difficulty/feasibility of project proposals, particularly in terms of resources available, (g) Authorize any major change in project design/topic, if any (h) Allocate students to projects and supervisors in an acceptable and fair manner, and (i) Ensure appointment of supervisors at the earliest possible opportunity, appropriate, adequate and equitable supervision and ensure appropriate external support/supervision is readily available when sufficient expertise within the faculty cannot be found.

7. **Conclusion**

Effective supervision is a key element in successfully completing the transition from undergraduate to postgraduate
cycles. Supervision can be challenging for both supervisors and students. It is useful to review practice and try new techniques. This study indicates that good communication is fundamental to supervision. It plays an important role in building trust and goodwill, and helps to prevent misunderstandings between supervisor and student. Good communication will ensure the effectiveness and enjoyment of supervision as well as the progress of the student’s research. In the early stages of supervision especially, regular meetings will help to establish effective communication. Not all Forestry Faculty students are "at risk" of course, but many seem to be exposed to unhealthy and unnecessary stress and risk working on their academic project report/theses with non-effective supervisions by some faculty members. In the author’s view, the Faculty has still a long way to go in meeting these responsibilities if genuine high quality graduates are the targets for postgraduate’s cycles. The author believes that the quality of undergraduate student supervision begins to deteriorate with the premise that UPM’s Key Performance Index (KPI) only emphasizes on postgraduate supervision. It is to the assessment of the author that at least some of the current supervision practices in the Forestry Faculty are less than effective for the students and that there are ways and means for providing more effective supervision practices for these young successful researchers of the future. However, the author is pessimistic about improvement being achieved by a well-articulated list of do’s and don'ts for students, supervisors and the faculty management. It is hoped that the lessons learnt from the Faculty of Forestry, UPM may be of interest and even use to others in UPM and elsewhere.

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L1 Use in L2 Vocabulary Learning: Facilitator or Barrier

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Abstract
Based on empirical research and qualitative analysis, this paper aims to explore the effects of L1 use on L2 vocabulary teaching. The results show that, during L2 vocabulary teaching process, the proper application of L1 can effectively facilitate the memorization of new words, and the bilingual method (both English explanation and Chinese translation) is welcomed by most subjects. Therefore, the use L1 as a means of semantization or as a tool for checking and validating L2 learners’ understanding of word meaning should not be completely rejected, especially for adult Chinese EFL learners.

Keywords: L1 use, L2 vocabulary teaching, memorization of new words

1. Introduction
During the L2 vocabulary teaching and learning process, there seems to be a preference, explicitly stated or not, for intralingual strategies, which involve the use of linguistic means of the target language such as synonyms, definitions, or linguistic contexts, over interlingual strategies, which utilize the L1 in the form of a bilingual dictionary, cognates, or L1 translation equivalents, often associated with word lists, among many teachers and researchers. As pointed out by Schmitt (1997), intralingual strategies are ‘pedagogically correct’ because they are consistent with principles of communicative language teaching or comprehensive input. Interlingual strategies, however, have easy associations with the grammar translation method or contrastive analysis. Many modern teaching methods treat L2 in isolation from L1, whether it is the communicative approach, the audio-lingual method, the mainstream EFL methods, or the older direct method, L1 is shunned in the classroom. Assumptions, nevertheless, do not necessarily dictate behavior. In fact, L1 is present in L2 learner’s mind, whether the teacher wants it to be there or not, and the L2 knowledge that is being created in their mind is connected in all sorts of ways with their L1 knowledge. Then it raises the traditional issue again: during the L2 vocabulary teaching and learning process, is L1 a facilitator or barrier? Or in another way, does the use of L1 in teaching facilitate the L2 learners understand the meanings of the new words, or semantization? The researcher proposes the following hypotheses:

(1) There are significant differences between the subjects’ recalls of the new words and expressions with different teaching approach.

(2) The bilingual vocabulary teaching method is suitable to Chinese EFL learners.

2. Methodology

2.1 Subjects
The subjects for the study were selected, according to their English results of National College Entrance Examination and Pre-test, from first-year undergraduates of non-English majors in Qingdao University of Science and Technology where the researcher worked. Chinese was their L1, and English their L2 or foreign language. And there is no obvious difference among the two selected groups (Experimental group and Control group), showing that they have roughly the same English proficiency, and we may take it for granted that the subjects roughly the same English vocabulary size.

2.2 Instruments
In this study, the instrument used to elicit and collect information was in the form of two tests. The use of language tests as tools to measure the EFL learners’ literacy has been well justified in the literature. In the current study, two vocabulary tests were carried out in the classroom within three weeks. The subjects were asked to answer the test papers made up of 60 new words at different interval during the whole experiment process. Their test results were collected and analyzed to see whether the new words retain longer in their memories.

2.3 Procedures
Two pieces of English essay about 700 words respectively were selected from New Horizon College English. The researcher picked out 60 words or expressions that may be unknown to the subjects. These words or expressions were printed and made into test papers. The first test was carried out in the classroom settings. The subjects were handed out the new words test paper and were required to write down their names and classes, and then decide which word or expression was known to them and writes down the corresponding Chinese meaning within 30 minutes. The researcher collected all the test papers after the subjects finished.

After the first test, the subjects were required to read the first essay within 10 minutes. 10 minutes later, the teacher explained its main meaning briefly in English to facilitate their comprehension, during this process, the teacher consciously explained the 60 words and expressions included in the first test (the 60 words and expressions were marked in advance in the teacher’s essays). For the experimental group, the teacher explained these words and expressions (their meanings and usage) both in English and Chinese. In order to strengthen their attention, the subjects were asked to underline each of these words and expressions and write down its corresponding Chinese meaning. By contrast, for the control group, the teacher explained these words and expressions (their meanings and usage) only in English, and the subjects were asked to underline each of these words and expressions, but not to write down its Chinese meaning. The second essay was dealt with in the same way.

Three weeks later, all the subjects participated in the second test. The test paper was made up of 60 English sentences, each sentence contained one word or expression from the above-mentioned 60 ones, and the other words in each sentence were all the frequently used ones. This test required the subjects to translate all these sentences into Chinese. The purpose of the second test was to see how many words or expressions that were acquired two weeks before could be remembered, so as to check whether there was any difference in memorizing the new words between the two groups.

2.4 Data Analysis

2.4.1 Data Preparation

In the quantitative study, a few steps were followed to prepare the data for statistical analysis. The raw data in the study was first inspected and as expected, some missing scores were found for the tests. However, to determine whether these scores should be treated as “missing” or “wrong”, the researcher established the following procedures. First, if a subject made a reasonable attempt to answer the questions in the test, the questions left unanswered were treated as wrong and scored zero. However, if a subject left an entire test paper blank or if more than half of the questions were unanswered, the data were regarded as missing, and the subject was dropped from the statistics. In accordance with these conditions, the final number, which was of statistical value, of subjects in experimental group was 55, and the control group was 57.

2.4.2 Scoring of the Tests

In the data analysis, all the three tests were objectively marked by the researcher himself and checked by another teacher of English strictly in accordance with the key.

In the first test, the subjects were required to translate the possible new words and expressions for them into Chinese, each correct translation was scored 1, showing that it was known to the subjects; while for the incorrect translation, it was considered to be unknown to the subjects. According to the score of each subject, the number of his /her unknown words and expressions was counted, and then, the mean of each group was figured out so as to check whether there was any difference in the size of unknown words and expressions between the two groups. And based on the number of the each subject’s unknown words and expressions, how many of these unknown words and expressions were used in his/her composition were counted, again, the researcher may gain the mean to test whether the teacher’s purposeful requirements play a positive role in the learners’ using of new words in their writings.

In the second test, the subjects were required to translate the 60 English sentences into Chinese. What the researcher concerned was whether the new word or expression contained in each sentence was remembered by the subjects, so, as long as the meaning of the new word or expression was correctly translated, the translation was scored 1. The total score of each subject might provide the researcher with the information that, three weeks later, how many new words or expressions could be remembered.

For every test, the raw scores were carefully typed into the SPSS data table in order to gain the desired data.

3. Results and Discussion

The results have been fed into SPSS (12.0) and analyzed using independent sample T-test analysis.

Table 3.1 shows that in Test 1, Group 1 and Group 2 are quite similar in the means (Group 1 is 48.78, while Group 2 is 48.77), this means both groups have nearly the same new words and expressions size (about 49) in the given two passages, and though control group is a little lower, it (P >0.05) has no significance at all. Therefore, the results of Test 1 proved again that both groups started at the same or similar vocabulary level before the experiment which provides an ideal reference for the following experimental test.
themselves remember this L2 word, the learners associate it with its L1 translation. In representational terms, the most
they understand the word's meaning within an existing semantic structure, which is closely linked to their L1. To help
In the first, lexical association stage, adult learners recognize an orthographic or phonological form, or both, as a word.
Based on the characterization of the unique learning conditions adult L2 learners face, Jiang (2000) proposed a
4.2 Adult L2 vocabulary acquisition model
4. Further Discussion
4.1 Difference between children and adult vocabulary learning
When small children learn vocabulary, in fact, they are simultaneously learning the world, as it is categorized and
described by the culture into which they have been born. To some extent, children seem to have built-in strategies for
filing categories to words. Nonetheless, the process involves a good deal of trial and error, and young children typically
overgeneralize or undergeneralize.
L2 learners, too, face the problem of establishing the range of reference of new words and expressions that they meet,
and a good deal of exposure may be needed before they have enough experience of the way words are used to be able to
do this accurately. For instance, by being familiar with collocations like a convenient situation and a convenient time,
but not with ones like a convenient person or a convenient cat, the students will realize, however subconsciously, that
the adjective convenient is only used with inanimate nouns (Carter and McCarthy, 1988, p.75).
However, L2 learners have one great advantage over infants: they have already learnt how one culture categorizes and
labels the world. Whatever the differences among human cultures and their perceptions, there is also massive common
ground, so we have already known a lot about the scope of much second language vocabulary before we learn it. We
can take it for granted, for example, that another language will have ways of talking about dogs, pains, sleeping, work
e.tc., so if we are told that in Chinese ‘tong’ is roughly equivalent with ‘pain’ in English, the chances are that we will
acquire the word more easily.
A second language learner is likely, then, to short-cut the process of observing a new word’ various references and
collocations, by mapping the word directly onto the mother tongue. We may assume that wherever possible the
beginning foreign learner tries to operate with simplified translation equivalences between lexical items... In the
learning of related languages, simplified equivalences work well for the development of a receptive competence, even
though these equivalences will have to be modified by later learning. (Ringbom, 1986, p.154)
Often, it is argued that the translation equivalence is made explicit at the outset, as when a learner says ‘What’s the
English for...?’, or looks up an unknown word in a bilingual dictionary. Even this does not happen, though, an
immediate association with a mother-tongue word is likely to be set up as soon as possible. At one time it was
considered essential to avoid the L1 use in L2 teaching, and teachers would go through contortions to explain or
demonstrate the meanings of words without translating. What often happened, of course, was that, after the teacher had
spent ten minutes defining, say, curtain to a class of Chinese students, most of them would break into a relieved smile
and say ‘Ah, Chuanglian’.
So, adult L2 learners often do not have as much contextualized input as children do, which makes the extraction and
integration of lexical meanings difficult. More important, adults already possess a well-established conceptual and
lexical system, and most L2 words have a correspondent concept and translation in the adult learner’s first language
(L1). Thus, there is little need for them to learn new concepts or meanings while learning L2 words, at least in the early
stages of L2 acquisition. The lack of conceptualized input and the presence of an existing conceptual and L1 system
make adult L2 vocabulary acquisition fundamentally different from vocabulary acquisition in the L1. When children
learn new words in their L1, they learn words and concepts at the same time. As a result, word form and meanings are
often inseparable. Thus, when children or adults see a word in their L1, its meaning becomes available automatically.
When people speak in their L1, the retrieval of lexical forms is usually spontaneous and effortless. In contrast, adult L2
vocabulary acquisition is accompanied by little conceptual or semantic development. Instead, the existing L1 linguistic
and conceptual systems are actively involved in the L2 learning process.
4.2 Adult L2 vocabulary acquisition model
Based on the characterization of the unique learning conditions adult L2 learners face, Jiang (2000) proposed a
three-stage psycholinguistic model of adult L2 vocabulary acquisition.
In the first, lexical association stage, adult learners recognize an orthographic or phonological form, or both, as a word.
They understand the word’s meaning within an existing semantic structure, which is closely linked to their L1. To help
themselves remember this L2 word, the learners associate it with its L1 translation. In representational terms, the most
significant event that occurs at this stage is that a lexical entry is registered in the learner’s mental lexicon. However, unlike a L1 word whose entry contains all four types of lexical knowledge, that is, meaning and syntax in the lemma structure, and morphology and phonology/orthography in the lexeme (Levelt, 1989), this L2 lexical entry contains only form knowledge, that is, phonology and orthography. Other space in the entry is empty. The entry also contains a pointer that links the word to its L1 translation.

Lexical processing and production at this stage rely on the activation and mediation of L1 translations because no direct links exist between L2 words and concepts, or such links are very weak. Because only the semantic and syntactic information, or lemma information in the L1 entry participates in and assists L2 word use, this part of the L1 entry receives the most activation. The lexeme part that contains form specifications is gradually deactivated. Continued exposure to (and productive use of) L2 word means continued co-activation of a L2 word and the lemma structure of its L1 translation. The outcome of continued exposure is that the semantic and syntactic information in the L1 translation is copied or transferred into the empty space of the L2 words.

The occurrence of this transfer process leads to significant changes in lexical representation and processing of L2 word and signals the coming of the second stage in lexical development. The L2 entry now contains a mixture of L2 form specifications and semantic and syntactic specifications transferred from its L1 translation. The presence of the semantic content in the entry means that the word is now linked directly to conceptual representations. In processing terms, one may expect a L2 word at this stage to be used with more fluency or automaticity because this direct link makes the activation of L1 translation no longer necessary. At the same time, as in the case of a word at the first stage, there is still significant influence from the L1 in L2 word use because lexical processing and production are still mediated by the lemma information of its L1 translation, which now resides in the L2 entry. Thus, from a processing perspective, this stage may be called L1 lemma mediation stage. From a representational perspective, this stage may be called the hybrid-entry stage because a L2 entry at this stage contains a combination of L2 form information and L1 meaning and syntax information.

In principle, there is a third stage in lexical development when lexical knowledge specific to a L2 word is integrated in its entry and L1 information is discarded. As a result, a L2 word can be used with not only more automaticity, but also more idiomaticity, with little influence from its L1 translation. However, it is suggested by this model (Jiang, 2000) that many words may stop short of this third stage and L1 lemma mediation may become a steady state of lexical processing in advanced L2 learners.

To sum up, both the above-analysis and the findings of the present research challenge the complete rejection of L1 in the L2 vocabulary teaching (especially for adult L2 learner). Methods of foreign language teaching and learning are often predicted on the principle that learners need to think as much as possible in the language that they wish to learn. Therefore, many modern teaching methods treat L2 in isolation from L1, whether it is the communicative approach, the audio-lingual method, the mainstream EFL methods, or the older direct method, L1 is shunned in the classroom (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Assumptions, nevertheless, do not necessarily dictate behavior. In fact, L1 is present in L2 learner’s mind, whether the teacher wants it to be there or not, and the L2 knowledge that is being created in their mind is connected in all sorts of ways with their L1 knowledge.

5. Conclusion

L1 use in L2 vocabulary learning, or providing translation equivalents have several advantages. They are an easy and efficient way of depicting the core meaning of a word. Knowing the L1 equivalent also gives the learner a sense of certainty about the meaning of a word, a certainty that is a vital first step for reinforcing the form-meaning connection and retaining the new word in long term memory. As Grabe and Stoller (1997, p. 114) put it, “Perhaps, for adults, there are times when it is important to know that a word is understood accurately”. What’s more, using L1 translation may link a L2 word with well-established semantic and linguistic structure which help the learner retain the word better, because the L1 and its semantic structures are no doubt the steadiest “cognitive hook to hang the new item on”(Fraser, 1999, p.238)

Therefore, there is no reason not to use L1 as a means of semantization or as a tool for checking and validating L2 learners’ understanding of word meaning. But the researcher is not promoting the use of L1 for semantization in place of intralingual or extralingual strategies. Rather, the researchers agree with an eclectic strategy, that is, a mixture of all three types of semantization strategies may produce the best overall effect (Fraster, 1999). But the researcher do want to emphasize, in line with the findings of the present study, that avoiding the L1 is neither practical nor desirable in adult L2 acquisition, especially for the Chinese EFL learners. And for College English teaching, instead of running the risk of confusing or misleading students whose English proficiency are neither high or too low while trying to minimize the use of Chinese, the teacher should be encouraged to use the interlingual strategies (such as the bilingual method, both English explanation and Chinese translation) as a quick and efficient means of the new word’ initial semantization.

References


Table 3.1 Means Comparison for Test 1

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A Study on the Application of STP Marketing Strategy in the MBA Education Program of Universities in China

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Abstract

The MBA education has begun in America and now it has become mature after nearly one hundred years’ development. Although China’s MBA merely has a history of 17 years, it has already gained great achievements. In 1991, 9 universities in China had MBA program and 86 students enrolled in. In 2007, the two numbers were 127 and 59,776 respectively. The law of things’ development is to progress in a wave style and to rise in a spiral way. China’s MBA education is not an exception. In 2002, the enrolling number was 67,506, being the highest ever. In 2003 and 2004, the number decreased heavily, respectively reducing 16 percent and 13 percent. From 2005 to 2007, the number increased with a rate of 9 percent, 3 percent, and 6 percent respectively. The development of MBA in China’s universities has experienced a process of taking reference, exploring, developing, and regulating. In the aspects of teaching materials and methods, it chiefly takes references from experiences of universities in developed countries, such as America. In the aspects of enrollment and popularization, it makes a series of effective explorations based on China’s practical situation and others’ experiences. The application of STP marketing strategy exerts an extremely important driving effect on the development of China’s MBA program.

Keywords: China, MBA program, STP marketing strategy, Application research

1. The development trends of international MBA education

1.1 A significant decrease of applicants

Since 2002, applicants for the school of business in North America have been reducing significantly. And in some universities, the decreasing rate has even reached 50 percent. The school of management in Europe and Australia suffers from similar situation. Accordingly, full-time students are reducing but part-time students increasing. Expense of MBA is increasing continuously. The expense in top business school has risen 55 percent during past six years. The average expense reached 33,774 dollars each year. In 2004, the expense of MBA in Harvard Business School rose to 39,000 dollars per year. And the applicants were reducing by 16 percent comparing with that in 2003.

1.2 Main reasons for the reduction of applicants

(1) Structure of population: the population of people between 25 and 34 years old decreases by 5 percent or so;
(2) Increasing opportunity cost for foreign students studying MBA in America;
(3) Visa;
(4) Reducing opportunity of finding a profession in America;
(5) Better work opportunity in China and India;
(6) Problems in management education. (Resource: Economist)

1.3 Constructive suggestions

Although MBA has developed many years and gained great achievements in the world, changing environment becomes a barrier for its further development in many aspects. Some men of insight put forward constructive suggestions. In their opinions, MBA suffers from many problems, such as teaching useful management techniques, cultivating leaders, constructing morals and regulations, guiding students to find better jobs, and increasing expenses. These suggestions and criticism become the third tide since the two reforms in 1959 and 1984. Three most important articles are from professors of business school. Bennis, the president of the leadership center in Harvard Business School, delivered “How Business Schools Lost Their Ways?” in Harvard Business Review (May, 2005). Professor Jeffery Pfeffer in Stanford Graduate School of Business published “The end of business school” in Academy of Management Learning & Education (September, 2002). Professor Mintzberg in Business School of McGill University released the Managers Not
2. Analysis on China’s MBA development

MBA has developed 17 years in China. Under the guidance of the Degree Office of State Council and the Direction Committee of National MBA Education, MBA has grown from none to existence, from small to large, from nothing to something, from crazy to ration, from luxury to simple, from fast-speed development to regression, from sharp decrease to stable increase. As one of 18 special degrees, MBA has contributed a lot to China’s degree development. According certain people, China’s MBA develops best in all kinds of high education considering its enrollment, popularization, teaching management, and students management. However, we should notice that China’s MBA still can not meet the social and economic needs completely. Comparing with developed countries, China’s MBA deserves greater improvement in many aspects.

2.1 China’s MBA has both differences and similarities with that in European countries and American countries (Table 1).

2.2 MBA has gained great achievements.

(1) Applicants number is increasing fast. In 1997, 16,507 applicants took the first national MBA entrance examination. In 2002, the number reached 67,506, increasing by four times. The average increasing rate was 33 percent during the five years (Figure 2).

(2) MBA has kept on improving the education quality and won wide social acceptance. Professional positions of learners have been significantly enhanced after their graduation four years. So do their salaries. According to data from the world top ten business schools in 2005 (except Beijing International MBA Programs at Peking University and Euro-China International Business College), the average salary of the full-time MBA learners who graduated in 2001 reaches 179,000 Yuan per year and the average salary of the part-time MBA learners who graduated in 2001 reaches 206,000 Yuan per year, being three times of their former salaries respectively (resource: Forbes (April, 2005)). (Figure 3)

(3) Universities that have MBA program have accumulated rich experiences in enrollment, curricula arrangement, student activities, international cooperation, management and services.

2.3 Some important trends of MBA education

(1) The applicants of MBA decreased in 2003 and 2004. In 2003, the applicant number was 56,964, decreasing by 16 percent comparing with that in 2002. In 2004, the applicant number was 49,545, decreasing by 13 percent comparing with that in 2003. Two levels of reasons contribute to the number decrease. One is facial, namely the education separation and the employment. The other is profound, namely the MBA itself.

(2) From 2005 to 2007, the applicants are increasing slowly. Two fundamental reasons contribute to this increase. On one hand, the society needs MBA, which leads to a rational regression of MBA. On the other hand, universities apply the STP marketing strategy to the enrollment and popularization of MBA programs.

2.4 The economic characteristics of China’s MBA education market and its effects on the market

Positive effects:

Firstly, the entrance barrier restricts vicious competition. Universities will face a difficult barrier if they plan to enter the MBA education market because of the certificate and evaluation system for the qualification of MBA education. By this way, the vicious competition that has ever appeared in China’s reform and open policy is effectively avoided.

Secondly, the border characteristics of market provide with living and developing space for new MBA programs in other universities. One is the geographic border. Many full-time applicants who come from provinces where MBA education does not develop well choose to study in universities in Beijing and Shanghai. In recent years, due to the increasing pressure from job-hunting and the improved rationality in consumption, more and more applicants choose to study in universities that locate nearly. Therefore, some provincial universities that obtain the qualification of MBA education later gain more living space. The other is the border of specialization. Many applicants take the advantage specialties as well as universities’ comprehensive order into consideration as they choose certain universities. For applicants who emphasize specialties, such as accounting and finance, they think a lot of specialties and curricula. Therefore, some provincial universities and other universities that possess advantage specialties gain certain competitive advantages.

Negative effects:

Firstly, the market need is poor and the competition is lack of order. The social demand for MBA is small and MBA applicants are less. However, many universities provide with MBA programs. The competition among universities does not follow any rule. As a result, the fame of MBA is destroyed due to the bad management. All these facts determine a fierce competition in China’s MBA market, which directly leads to such a result that many universities fail to absorb
sufficient MBA applicants. In many universities, the one-diploma MBA applicants are too less to form one class. Therefore, they have to wait till autumn and learn together with two-diploma MBA applicants.

Secondly, the state system and the management mechanism are fixed (except Euro-China International Business College and Cheung Kong Graduate School of Business), what fails to drive the development of MBA program further. Because universities in China are kind of state-owned public causes, their flexibilities in management are limited. Besides, comparing with the education of undergraduates and graduates, MBA program is merely a small part of things in universities. Universities usually pay more attentions on the formers. They put the MBA education at an inferior position. As a result, the MBA programs in universities can’t obtain necessary human resources, materials, and finance to sustain its further development.

2.5 An analysis on the five competitive forces in MBA market

In some provinces and regions, less university has the qualification of MBA education. Therefore, some second-class universities in educational developed cities, such as Beijing, Shanghai, Xi’an, and Wuhan, recruit students from these provinces and regions. And the Degree Office of National Council continues to authorize other universities to enter the MBA education market. The Ministry of Education continues to add new degrees for specialties. Students do not familiarize well with MBA knowledge and degree. Many problems exist in the cultivation of specialty degree. And the society holds bias toward the specialty degree. Therefore, the competition in China’s MBA education market is extremely severe.

Present competitors. There are five universities that are qualified by MBA education, namely Shandong University, Ocean University of China, Shandong University of Finance, Shandong Economic University, and Qingdao University (added in 2007). Besides, the well-known universities step out of their campus and popularize themselves. At present, there are at least ten famous universities that locate in Beijing and Shanghai, which have students recruiting agencies in Shandong and teach in Shandong.

Social needs. The social evaluation on MBA walks through a devious road, from not understanding, or not accepting, to overheated, then becoming cold. Until last year, the social recognition toward MBA education becomes rational. However, the first bad impression is hard to be changed. And because of the short history of MBA education in China, there are many problems in its development. Therefore, the society questions the value of MBA education, which directly leads to the sharp decrease of social needs (Figure 4).

Substitutes. Along with the continuous development of education, more and more universities apply for qualification of other specialty degree. The School of Business Management of Shandong University of Finance is not an exception. This phenomenon serves as a threat for MBA education since it usually recruits students by finance and taxation resources.

New joiners. In 2007, three universities in Shandong will obtain the qualification of MBA education. As a result, Jinan and Qingdao will possess three universities that have MBA program respectively. And Tai’an will have one university that has MBA program. Along with the development of economy and education, the state will authorize new universities to provide with MBA education, which will make the competition more severe.

Applicants. Today, applicants have higher ability of bargaining. The first reason is for more optional universities. The second is for more optional specialty degrees. The third is for greater pressure from job-hunting. And the anticipation of income is less. They become sensitive to expenses.

Therefore, present MBA education market is a battlefield. The MBA program in Shandong University of Finance confronts with great pressure from competition. We should hold an open idea, make exploration and innovation, and realize flexible operation and management. By this way, we can achieve survival and gain further development.

3. Research on the application of STP marketing strategy

3.1 Constitution of marketing strategy

(1) Market segmentation. Based on the macro situation, including national politics, economy, and culture, and the analysis on self advantages and disadvantages in teaching features, quality of teachers, hardware and facilities, we can make market segmentation toward the MBA applicants. Market segmentation may be based on industries, such as processing and manufacturing industry, communication and transportation industry, finance industry, energy industry, pharmaceutical industry, commerce industry, restaurant and service industry. In market segmentation, we should consider the situation in competitors, including both similar universities and non-similar universities. Differentiate the target market as much as possible and avoid over competition in one region. Market segmentation may be based on regions, such as this province and other provinces, the east, middle, or west of this province, large- and medium-cities, and small- and medium-cities. And the market segmentation can also be based on the management levels of applicants, such as middle- and top-mangers, middle- and lower-managers. And it may be based on the development of economy, such as developed regions, less-developed regions, and undeveloped regions. It may also be based on ages, such as
under-30 years old, between 30 and 40, between 40-50, etc.

(2) Target establishment. Find out the target customers in focus marketing and set up target products for them, namely the curricula modes. The set-up of curricula mode should completely embody the features of teaching and specialties in the university. The names and contents of courses, the uses of textbooks and cases, the teachers, the arrangement of classrooms, and many other elements should reflect the characteristics of customers’ industry and consider the situation of target industry.

(3) Position. Position the levels of target customers, what is important. In MBA program, universities and learners make choices mutually. Universities should choose target customers whose management levels meet their educational capabilities. It is not necessarily to recruit all applicants who hold top positions in management. Position the region. Universities should position the main target region according to their locations, and determine whether recruit students from other regions. Position the expense finally. Universities should establish the MBA expenses according to their own situations, customers’ financial strengths, and the MBA expenses of competitors.

3.2 The application of marketing strategy

After establishing the marketing strategy, the next step is to perform a series of marketing activities, such as constituting the recruiting and popularizing plan, programming the advertising activities and making budget, printing propagandizing manuals, making plane advertisement in proper position, advertising in relevant media, and planning to hold an introduce meeting for the recruitment. Propagandizing is a daily work in a sense. And it is better to hold an introduction meeting before the signing date.

3.3 The STP marketing strategy and MBA brand construction

An important standard used to judge whether a MBA program gains success or not is the brand. The brand construction is based on sufficient applicants. Quality and features are two main contents for brand construction. Advertising for recruitment is a chief way for customers accepting universities, what is an important part of teaching quality in universities and also a main way to report the features of universities. Resources of universities are limited. In an environment with fierce competition, target customers possess great freedom in choosing certain university. Universities must position their target customers properly, which will help them obtain sufficient applicants. Therefore, the STP marketing strategy in China exerts a vital effect on the success of MBA program in universities.

References


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Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>China</th>
<th>Europe and America</th>
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<td>Initial stage of economic development</td>
<td>Developed stage of economic development</td>
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<tr>
<td>A history of 16 years</td>
<td>A history of 99 years</td>
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<tr>
<td>Initial stage of MBA</td>
<td>Mature stage of MBA</td>
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<td>96 MBA programs</td>
<td>Thousands of MBA programs</td>
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<td>18,000 graduates per year</td>
<td>100,000 graduates per year</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lower quality and education degree of managers</td>
<td>Higher quality and education degree of managers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Weak basic management and fast development speed in enterprises</td>
<td>Strong basic management and low development speed in enterprises</td>
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Figure 1. Changes of Full-Time Management Education Applicants Number in all Business Schools of America from 2003 to 2004.

Resource: Graducate Management Admission Council, USA (Bin Yang, 2005).

Figure 2

Resource: The Secretariat of the Direction Committee of National MBA Education
Figure 3
Resource: The Secretariat of the Direction Committee of National MBA Education

Before  After graduation one year  After graduation four year

Figure 4

Acceptance of society to MBA

Bargaining ability of applicants

Threats from new joiners

Threats from other specialty degree

Competition between local universities and non-local universities
Practices of Management Development: 
A Malaysian Case Study

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Abstract
This paper deals with a case study of Management Development (MD) practices at Malaysian Assurance Alliance (MAA). The aim of this research is to investigate how a large Malaysian insurance corporation developed and integrated MD initiatives with current organizational needs and tasks. Attempts were made to map and categorize the MD initiatives according to position and course content both for the staff and agency. Analysis of historical records and semi-structured interviews were conducted to identify the organizational MD needs as a result of context and task. Findings show that a company-wide development system for staff and agency was effectively integrated to provide a direct support to competence management endeavour. The company’s MD initiatives have also resulted in managerial implications including (1) increased effectiveness of MD initiatives through emphasis on needs and participation; (2) mutually conceived and aligned development system has formed a learning culture in Malaysian Assurance Alliance; and (3) effective MD initiative audit has ensured customer-oriented competence development in the organization.

Keywords: Management development, Integrated MD initiatives, Competence management, Aligned development systems

1. Introduction
MD is a practice that includes rules, guidelines and principles for developing managers in an organization. Significant value is derived when participants of MD programmes add their intellectual capabilities, drives, wishes and preferences in their career. An MD system thus helps the managers in unleashing their potential to reap the benefits to meet both individual and organizational objectives.

According to Reitsma (2001), the aim of MD includes developing future business leaders and equipping individuals to maximize their full potential in terms of knowledge and skill acquisition. MD is regarded as a key to organizational future success and performance (Newton & Wilkinson, 1995). In Malaysia, there appears to be a gap in MD research where analysis of MD practice in individual organizations is severely lacking and seems to have been neglected. Thus this study suggests to address and fill the gap of the identified weaknesses. In other words, very little has been done and a more focused research needs to be carried out to explore MD activities within an individual organization. In order to address this, an attempt was made to explore the categories of MD initiatives that were developed and how they fit into the organizational needs and tasks within Malaysian Assurance Alliance, the selected case study organization.

According to Law (2007a) that organizations in Malaysia adopt different approaches of MD. The approaches include the university residential programs, executive MBA, short-courses and company-specific programs. The exploration of MD research in an individual organization will add to the knowledge obtained from the survey conducted by Law (2007b). This research will furnish empirical information for understanding the practice of MD themes and issues within one researched organization. This case study involves exploring MD initiatives by using semi-structured interviews to illustrate and describe MD practices. This would provide a source of qualitative information which adds to the information gathered from the studies by Law (2006; 2007a; 2007b).

This paper tries to explore MD practices developed in a large Malaysian insurance company, Malaysian Assurance Alliance and assess how MD initiatives fit into the organizational needs and tasks. A case study approach was used to describe the emergence of MD initiatives and practice with the managerial implications at MAA.

1.1 Purpose of the study
The research purposes of this study are:

- To investigate how a large Malaysian insurance organization developed and integrated MD initiatives with current organizational needs and tasks.
• To categorize MD initiatives developed within the organization based on position in the organization and course content.
• To investigate whether the MD initiatives are drivers in producing managerial implications, such as the organizational bottom-line result, cultivation of learning culture and consumer-oriented competent development.

2. Method
According to Yin (1994), a case study is a preferred research strategy when “how” or “why” questions are being posed, when the researcher has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context. As opposed to a comparative analysis of several firms, this research uses a single organization and focuses on historical records and interviews to achieve the purposes of the study. This research serves as an exploratory device in identifying issues within an organization rather than testing hypotheses. This is a case study which is embedded with several units of analysis, such as organizational units and MD initiatives and practices. The survey by Law (2007b) provides a useful insight into some of the opinions, experiences and issues of MD practices in corporations in the Kuala Lumpur Stock Exchange (KLSE) and provided invaluable data for this case study. Future research is recommended on testing of relevant hypotheses.

MAA was chosen based on three criteria. Firstly, the length of its existence which implies that MD track records could be traced to form a trend or to support the issues and hypotheses. Secondly, its relatively huge market capitalization and thirdly, it represents the service sector which practises MD initiatives rigorously in Malaysia. The existence of MD initiatives and practices make MAA an interesting subject of study.

MD initiatives were identified by the top management who were the key decision makers to MD strategies. Participants were recruited based on their recommendations. Participants were divided into three groups, namely top management, MD personnel (specializing in MD) and field agents (MD utilization group). The selection is intended to cover the whole range of MD activities and approaches at MAA. Selected participants were then interviewed based on semi-structured interview format.

Interviews were conducted based on semi-structured open-ended questions. The questions were:
• Does your company have any formal policy concerning MD?
• What does it say?
• Does top management have an understanding of key MD issues?
• Has a MD audit be done?
• Has MD initiatives been matched to the corporate strategy?
• What are the MD initiatives you are involved in?
• How does it fit into MAA’s organizational needs and tasks?
• What are the perceived obstacles?
• Have strategic MD initiatives and practices been coordinated and integrated with other interfacing functions?

In analyzing the qualitative data, interview notes were written into protocols and coded into three general issues, namely general company issues, specific program or unit issues and interaction between staff and agency.

This case study design, analysis and interpretation were used by Yin (1994), Easterby-Smith et al. (1993) and Miles and Huberman (1994). According to these researchers, case study research methods help to provide qualitative data in terms of document design, write up, coding field notes and data display. Nevertheless, a potential weakness of this research design may be atypical of the industrial sector particularly the insurance industry in Malaysia. However, given the difficulties of data accessibility, this problem is judged acceptable (Easterby et al., 1993).

3. Result and Discussions
3.1 Case study: MD at MAA-emerging needs and initiatives
3.1.1 A profile and general case background of MAA
Established in 1968 as an insurance company, MAA has since developed into Malaysian’s leading insurance organization and is a listed company on the main board of the KLSE. With shareholder fund of over RM 187 million and asset backing of over RM 1.5 billion, MAA is currently the biggest capitalized Malaysian insurance company in the country.

Over the years, MAA has recorded excellent growth in generating income and bottom line profitability. The Group’s profit before tax as at 31 December 2002 increased by 6.4 percent to RM49.9 million from RM 46.9 the preceding year. Total operating revenue recorded a strong growth of 11.4 percent, which was in line with the overall Malaysian
insurance industry’s performance. The total asset of the Group also increased by 9.3 percent to RM4.7 billion. As advocated by Lane (1994), a high level of capability in terms of qualified, technically competent and proactive staff and agents has been essential for the success of MAA’s corporate performance. Based on its founding corporate philosophy, MAA has been continuously investing in human resource development to create a strong, united and dedicated team of staff and agents who are able to respond quickly and efficiently to the needs and requirements of Malaysians.

With the strong backing from world class international reinsurers, MAA is developing further as a comprehensive insurance company for the 21st century with the best knowledge and expertise to continuously come up with high quality, competitive and innovative products and services. To continuously enhance the skills and knowledge of staff and agency force, MAA spends millions of ringgit each year in training and development programmes.

MAA has forged a well developed workforce of over 1,100 staff and over 20,000 life and general divisions contracted agents. “Customer Comes First, Always and Everytime” is the corporate philosophy that promise to deliver the best to the customers through a well developed team of youthful, dynamic and energetic staff and agency force.

MAA’s top management perceived MD initiatives within four activities, namely:

- competence management
- change management
- productivity and operational management
- talent management

Talent management is about recruiting the best workforce for continuous career promotion in management or agency expert roles alongside productivity and operational management. The synthesizing themes are competence management and change management through MD initiatives and practices to address the issue of “Moving Forward 2004” at MAA. MAA’s top management also visionalize MD as an approach for forming strategic competence potential, a means of communicating and building a strong corporate culture.

MAA now has several very ambitious MD initiatives, which are tied to perceived needs which address customer needs and preferences. Competence development and change management are thus the major concerns and seem as fundamental organizational skills.

3.2 Management Development in MAA

3.2.1 MAA's long term vision and management development

Over the years, MAA has recorded excellent growth in premium income and profit. The success can be attributed to the company’s capability in developing a strong, competent, united and dedicated team of staff and agents. As a service organization, MAA carries out customer-oriented business activities based on its corporate vision and philosophy: “Customer Comes First, Always and Everytime”. To promote future organizational growth in a competitive environment, the company set out its strategic management vision, “Moving Forward 2004” to guide business direction. The Action Plan “Moving Forward 2004” aims at continuously improving the best knowledge and expertise to consistently come up with high quality, competitive and innovative products. Conforming to Stewart and McGoldrick (1996), Garavan et al. (1995) and Iles (1993), MD initiatives at MAA emphasise both strategic and practical aspects of MD.

To help achieve the aims of the organization, the following principles have been established:

- Improvement of organizational capability
- Creation of strong corporate culture
- Development of competent workforce
- Promotion of information and communication technology
- Response to change management

This indicates that MAA acknowledges the importance of human capital through human development. Everyone from the management to the agency and from the lowest to the highest positions are given the opportunity to improve their competencies.

As the insurance industry in Malaysia is experiencing unprecedented intensified competition and there are drastic changes in the external environment as a result of Bank Negara Malaysia’s (Malaysian Central Bank) new regulations and rules of policies, the key to excel in the industry is the ability of the organization to anticipate the future and shape proactive strategies in order to sustain competitive advantage through human development. The challenge is perceived as the most important commitment to provide customers with quality service and retaining their confidence and trust in
MAA, that:

“During the year, the group continued with its effort to improve corporate governance and maintain it at the highest level. In this respect, the group has formulated and carried out plans to improve productivity and operational efficiency, practice prudent financial management and reinforce further the role of information and communication technology, best practices in its internal business process with………….. The group will also continue to invest in its human resource development to create a qualified, technically competent and proactive workforce and agency force.”

(Chairman of MAA)

From its experience, MAA has taken note of the importance of human resources in managing the business. MD in MAA is thus perceived as very important in determining the future destiny of the organization.

3.3 MAA’s structure and system of human resource development

MAA strongly believes in the value of human assets to its business performance and continuously invest in MD to create a qualified, competent and proactive workforce. MAA’s corporation-wide training and development programmes are managed and coordinated both by the human resource as well as the training and education departments at the head office. The Casa Rachado-MAA Training Resort located in Port Dickson, Negeri Sembilan was established for training activities. The center, which caters for any training activity of up to 200 participants at any one time, meets all the organizational training needs. There are two types of training, namely training according to the position and training according to content to the respective position. These training programmes are given to all workforce throughout the company all year around. MAA MD initiatives stem from the frequent review of organizational needs and tasks and is supported by the top management. Thus:

“MAA has excellent programmes. All programmes for the agency are very good and important and well supported by the top management in the organization.”

(Agency unit manager)

MAA’s MD initiatives are thematically oriented towards competency development. The emphasis on the continuous development of workforce competence is a major concern in the organization:

“The training programmes are to help and build agency competency. MAA is doing very well in terms of communicating between the agency and the programme trainers. Usually, agency is more on the practical side whereas trainers are more on theories, so, it’s better to combine the two….. ”

(Agency unit manager)

Training according to the position in the organization is designed for top management or directors down to staff or company employees, training for agency starts from agent to agency senior manager if the management path is chosen and to certified financial planner if the sales path is selected. The training programme is provided according to the content from insurance, finance, general management, ICT to leadership depending on the status or position in the organization.

3.4 MAA Training and Education- The Casa Rachado Training Resort

Strengthening competent and change management is an important theme in MAA’s action plan “Moving Forward 2004”. To further improve the competency and proactivity of workforce, opportunity is given to performing employees to accumulate deeper management expertise through MD initiatives before promotion is suggested. Given the competitive structure of the insurance industry in Malaysia, MAA realizes the importance of management capability and has established a unique training and education centre- The Casa Rachado Training Resort caters to developing the required capabilities. Participants undergo systematic and intensive training in expertise and management knowledge and skills for strengthening competency and decision making process. Upon completion of any programme, the performance management system will be applied to improve programme implementation and programme effectiveness.

A congruent and well integrated development system is a distinguishing characteristic of the MAA MD system which consists of the following criteria:

• Participants include all levels of staff from top management to general staff to agency personnel.
• Flexible training period depending on programme type.
• Course content includes change management, latest management know-how and skills, MAA policy and system, continuous improvement in expertise competency and leadership qualities.
• The course is continuously improve through performance management system, improvement in competency gained in the course and wide-ranging special request training from quality service to mentoring and yoga designed to expand the participants’ competency horizons.

3.5 MAA’s MD initiatives for staff

3.5.1 Training for departmental heads (AVP and above)

The Leadership Engine Workshop (LEW) is a mandatory management programme which is a condition for promotion
into higher position in the organization. The programme aims to develop and strengthen participants’ confidence in personal development and organizational competitiveness in order to face increasing customer demand and preferences. As the training uncovers the weaknesses of leadership by assessing the degree of confidence, participants have the opportunity for reflection of higher self awareness that is needed for improvement. This programme is highly rated by the participants.

The Four Roles of Leadership (FRL) is another compulsory development programme for the assistant vice president and above. The role of leaders can be seen in four styles, namely directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented, according to subordinate and situational contexts. Participants of this programme will gain a better understanding of effective leadership roles and action. MAA believes that developing good leadership will cultivate good and stronger corporate culture. This ambition is perceived as one of the most important agendas in MAA.

“So, we have in mind that through programme participation, we would like to build a corporate culture, we would like to build the fundamental skills of participants”(Training manager at head office)

3.5.2 Training for manager

Leadership Engine Workshop and Seven Habits of Highly Effective People are also mandatory management programmes at this level in MAA. Finance for Non Financial Manager (FFNFM) is the course that aims to equip managers with fundamental financial knowledge. Topics include business finance, financial environment, accounting and problems in financial management. As the roles of managers are not confined to managing a specific department, financial knowledge is important to every manager in MAA. The programme is designed to give participants an opportunity to understand the strategic aspects of prudent financial strategies in line with organizational goals and policy.

3.5.3 Training for executive

Overview of 7 Habits is the only mandatory development programme for MAA executives. The content is similar to Seven Habits of Highly Effective People but the course is more intensive. The purpose of this programme is to train the executives with preliminary leadership qualities.

3.5.4 Training for staff

MAA induction programme and Number One Organizer Training (NOOT) is designed to provide staff with knowledge of company policy and system. The programme is centered on communication skills, methods of improving work processes and overcoming day-to-day operational problems.

3.6 MAA’s MD initiatives for agency members

Since its inception in 1968, MAA has successfully developed thousands of successful agency members. Insurance, an integral part of financial knowledge, is designed for ambitious and dynamic agency to develop in the organization. The following programmes are designed for agents.

The Pre-Contract Examination Course (PCE) is an examinable pre-requisite course for prospective agents of MAA. It is an introduction to those who wish to embark on a successful career in the insurance field. It provides insight into how to start right in their chosen profession. In preparation for the course, participants are provided with a study guide and tutorial questions.

The Agency Discovery Program (ADP) is an incentive programme for new and contracted agents who is able to close six cases within the first three months. It aims to enhance an agent’s selling skill by providing new agents with sales ideas and skills. Agency leaders and successful agents will provide useful insights and testimonials to encourage new agents to remain in the industry and enjoy a high return.

The Agents Training Program (ATP) is a mandatory course for new MAA agents. It consists of eight modules and is conducted by qualified trainers at branch offices throughout the country. The ATP is to be completed within six months of the agent being contracted.

The Certificate Examination in Investment-linked Life Insurance Course (CEILI) is an entry requirement for those who intend to sell investment-linked life insurance policies. It ensures that all MAA agents attain a minimum level of technical competency. Topics covered are technical financial knowledge, taxation and other aspects of investment-linked life insurance.

The Senior Agent Course (SAC) is conducted over a period of four days. It is targeted at agents of less than 18 months with MAA. The course focuses on professional selling skills based on prospects needs, which is the most important consideration in upgrading selling performance.

The Agents’ Advance Course (AAC) is conducted for four days and is mandatory for agents of less than 24 months with MAA. The aim of this programme is to develop strong-willed, skillful agents for their long term and strategic success.
The Basic Agency Management Course (BAMC) is specially designed to cater to the needs of agents who aspire to become Agency Unit Managers. The BAMC teaches essential knowledge and skills of agency management which cater to the needs of new managers.

The Life Underwriter Training Course (LUTC) is a 26-week training programme conducted by the Malaysian Insurance Institute. The course covers basic sales skills from prospecting to closing in a systematic way.

7 Habits of Highly Effective People (7H) teaches habits of effective living in all facets of life. It is targeted for career agents, agency unit managers and agency senior managers. The skills learned will be invaluable for their life. MAA is the first insurance company in Malaysia to be licensed by Franklin Covey to deliver this highly-acclaimed human and corporate development course.

The Managerial Skills Program (MSP) is a comprehensive managerial skills training course to enhance the effectiveness of new managers. The course is mandatory for agency unit managers within 12 months of promotion to ensure the quality of MAA's agency management team. It focuses on case studies of actual agency management issues that agency managers regularly face.

The Professional Financial Course (PFC) allows agents flexibility and options in their sales career. It is aimed at agency members who wish to adopt a financial planning approach in their sales career. The PFC teaches the client-centered professional financial planning process.

The Agency Management Training Programme (AMTP) is a course that is mandatory for agency unit managers who aspire to become agency senior managers. The aspiring agency senior managers are exposed to essential aspects of life insurance agency management, concentrating on strategic issues.

The Associate Financial Planner of Malaysia (AFPM) is a single module programme which covers all aspects of financial planning in sufficient depth so that the financial advisors are well equipped with the necessary knowledge in their chosen fields.

The Certified Financial Planner Course (CFP) is an internationally recognized programme for financial planning. The course covers details of every aspect of the financial planning process.

3.7 Competence Management at MAA

Competence management is a main theme in MD initiatives which involves staff and agency workforce. Competence management at MAA is a system for establishing strategic and tactical competence needs. Conforming to Millett and Leppanen (1991), MAA believes that MD’s fundamental function is to assist the company to develop competencies needed for future business challenges.

Since Prahalad and Hamel’s seminar paper on competency (1990), there has been a surge of discussions in competences and competence-based training and development. Drejer (2000) defines competence from structural perspective as consisting of four elements namely; the technology, people, organizational structure and organizational culture and interaction among them. According to them, competences should be developed over time and types of competences ranged from simple to complex depend on number of technology and people within the organization.

Similarly, Assen (2000) and Sanchez et al. (1996) assert that competences are special types of assets and categories competences into strategic, organizational and individual. Thus, a competence-based training and development is a tool for managers; to use for strategy formulation (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990); to learn and evolve with change (Briscoe & Hall, 1999; Spearmann & Hopp, 1996; Woodruffe, 1991); to research on superior effective managers (Jones & Connolly, 2001).

On the other hand, Barton (1995) defines competence from the functional perspective stating that a competence ensures superior value to customers of the firm with innovativeness, high speed product development and customers likes. Holmes and Joyce (1993) see competence as involvement of identification of the key purpose or function of a task.

Competence-based management thus is the ability to learn, unlearn and relearn, on all levels within an organization (Assen, 2000). Similarly, Burgoyne and Stuart (1991) includes the competence-based management to do with learning, changing, adapting, forecasting, anticipating and creating change. As a result, competence management appears to be appropriate for the provision of directions for the creation of a performing organization.

However, the focus on competence is anti-theoretical (Doyle, 1994); neglects knowledge and understanding (Storey & Westhead, 1997); anti-learning because of assessment driven (Currie & Darby, 1995). Fuller (1994) further argues that the qualitative nature and diversity of managerial role particularly at the top management makes application of competence-based management become difficult.

The major philosophy instituted the following conceptual thinking:

- Competence requirement - needs and level of individual and organizational competency
current competence - status of present competence

competence gap - the mismatch between competence requirement and current competence

MAA's current company-wide development system and plans were established and designed to close the competence gap and are consistently updated and reviewed. The competence requirements were based on budget and environmental needs as well as scenario planning. In addressing the need to fulfill the competence requirement, one commentator pointed out that MD initiatives were linked to “top management commitment” to organized MAA activity, and that:

"As far as training is concerned, whatever courses suggested must be in line with the company’s vision and mission, top management will have their plans.” (HR manager at head office)

Current competence is a direct result of the performance management system. In other words, MAA's competence management is a total system linking three subsystems, namely: (1) technical competence, such as ICT, finance and expertise knowledge; (2) human competence, such as communication skills, time management and leadership qualities; and (3) business competence, such as understanding insurance, English, presentation skill and understanding customer needs. Workforce performance is then matched to the MAA requirement profile and programmes are then suggested to address the specific competence gap for competence development. Nevertheless, MAA's development programmes, such as LEW, FRL, 7H, ATP, AAC and MSP are perceived to be the platforms for MD, they need to be further integrated with a more personalized competence that can be applied to various departments and overall organizational.

4. Theoretical Reflections

MAA's organizational experience shows a clearly conceived belief with respect to MD initiatives. There is evidence that such an endeavour is known and is well disseminated among top management, staff and the agency. This echoed Taylor and Gordon (1984) and Kirkbride (2003) claims that MD is a process of well disseminated and coordinated developmental programmes which can be linked to organizational success and competitive advantage. Likewise, it also agrees to Dikken and Hoeksema (2001) as well as Law (2003) claims that MD is linked with strategic organizational goals. MAA's organizational philosophy of continuous investment in workforce capabilities also supports Hitt’s (1987) and Paauwe and Williams (2001) suggestions that MD is a unified process that integrates the organization’s philosophy and its human resource.

The assessment and continuous improvement of competency needs through company-wide development system agreed with McCune’s (1999) and Heraty and Morley (2003) suggestion that MD is an effort that has the energy to move at a faster rate given company-wide dissemination of knowledge and capability. MAA's current trend of MD initiatives further supported this observation. The well integrated staff and agency development system has seen effective dissemination of knowledge and capability through such integration.

By integrating staff and agency development systems and the conduct of competent management, MAA’s holistic approach on needs analysis is consistent with Doyle’s (1994) and Mumford’s (1993) views that MD needs should be strategically and holistically reviewed in response to changing environments.

As the staff programmes such as LEW, FRL and TQM as well as agency programmes such as the ADP, BAMC, LUTC, AMTP and AFPM are developed and selected to match MAA’s organizational objective and specific required content, the MD selection has shown a dynamic learning orientation (Burgoyne & Stuart, 1991; Margerison, 1991).

MAA's overall organizational performance management system which links technical competence, human competence and business competence agree with Mole’s (1996) suggestion that evaluation should adopt a holistic perspective to the extent which MD fits with the organizational needs and context.

To this extent, MAA's Management Development initiatives has provided justification to Dikken and Hoeksema’s (2001) five major aspects of effective MD found in Table 2.

The justification described above show an explicit emphasis by MAA on linking MD initiatives to business goals. It is observed that by concentrating on Dikken and Hoeksema’s (2001) five major aspects of effective MD, it reflects MAA's preference for action-based or result-oriented MD initiatives. This is congruent with the views of strategic MD suggested by Garavan et al. (1995), Iles (1993) and Stewart and McGoldrick (1996).

5. Conclusions and implications

The Quality of MD is the decisive factor for MAA's continuous prosperity. Developing a competent workforce is currently the central agenda of MAA's Master Plan and Action Plan Moving Forwards 2004. This is important to meet the future challenges and aspirations of staff and agency to provide strong leadership at work. The strong commitment from everyone in the organization to strive for excellence has given MD initiatives good support and emphasis. MAA's own experience has successfully created a culture of continuous learning through competence development. It brings out a very unique set of MAA MD initiatives and development system. A company-wide development system for staff has created a clear direction for aspiring agents. The system is categorized by position, course content, development
system for agency and professional development through either a management path or sales path.

The managerial implications of the above system on organizational excellence in MAA is as follows:

- Increase in effectiveness of MD initiatives, workforce needs and participation was emphasized to support integrated MD practices. As a result, the effectiveness of such endeavour has translated into better bottom-line performance.

- The staff and agency development system are mutually conceived and aligned to build a winning team. MD initiatives thus exist to enable the practice of competence development throughout the company. A well integrated development system has formed a coherent learning force among MAA MD practitioners. This is obvious from the existence of a strong learning culture observed in the organization.

- Effective MD initiatives which are audited through consistent reviews have instituted a more practical and consumer-oriented competence development. The continuous improvement on product and service innovativeness is evidence of such implementation of effective MD in MAA.

Finally, MAA realizes the importance of developing a proactive and competent workforce who can make the difference and serves as a stock of performance capabilities for the organization. The past MD experience has helped to support such an awareness whereas the Action Plan “Moving Forward 2004” is the direct result of long term or strategic move towards total capability and competent development in the organization.

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London.
Table 1. MAA Company-wide Development System (Staff)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Staff</th>
<th>Executive</th>
<th>Manager</th>
<th>ATP &amp; above</th>
<th>Top</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training for staff</td>
<td>Training for Executives</td>
<td>Training for middle &amp; high management</td>
<td>Training for department heads</td>
<td>Training for directors</td>
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<tr>
<td>MAA induction</td>
<td>Overview of MAA</td>
<td>Knowledge of MAA Technical</td>
<td>LEW</td>
<td>Management by position in the organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>ROOT</td>
<td>HSE</td>
<td>LEW</td>
<td>LEW</td>
<td>ICT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAA T&amp;E</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical skills</td>
<td>Fundamentals</td>
<td>Leadership qualities</td>
<td>(ad hoc) depends on request &amp; approval</td>
<td>Company-wide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Developing Internal Training</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>from top management</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>MAA T&amp;E</td>
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<td>得以依赖</td>
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<td>ISO 9001:2000 QMS</td>
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<td>External Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>Authority Service First</td>
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<tr>
<td>Training</td>
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<td>ES Training</td>
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<td>ES Training</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Note: *a* denotes a course which is mandatory for the employees at that level

LEW: Leadership Engine workshop
FRL: Four Roles of Leadership
NOOT: Number One Organizer Training
AVP: Assistant Vice President
TQM: Total Quality Management
FFNFM: Finance For Non Financial Managers
ICT: Information Communication Technology
T&E: Training and Education
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dikken and Hoeksema’s Five Major Aspects of Effective MD</th>
<th>MAA’s MD for Staff</th>
<th>MAA’s MD for Agency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **1) Opportunity of learning at job**                   | Programme participants working towards a common management standard in staff development.  
Learning to keep abreast of what is happening both inside and outside the company.  
New staff receive induction training. | Senior management produce a brief guidance for discussion with their downlines on achievement of competence in key areas such as service delivery.  
Agencies are made aware of programme opportunities within the organization. | |
| **2) Controlling and managing learning process of managers** | Programme participants work in teams to motivate and encourage each other and support the development of confidence in management competency.  
Impact of programmes on knowledge, skill, attitude and performance is assessed.  
Open system encourages links to all organizational units. | Each agent has a senior upline to facilitate and encourage sharing of knowledge and experience.  
Competence to prioritize the need to keep all essential customer records which may assist in better service delivery.  
Impact of programmes which meet business goals and targets are assessed. | |
| **Learning on the job for career success**               | Development of a competent workforce especially in areas of insurance, finance, general management, ICT and leadership. | Continuing development of a professional financial and insurance agency. | |
| **3) Conscious use of developmental instruments to influence managers’ behaviour** | Promotion of information and communication technology to strengthen communication and shape effective working behaviour.  
Performance of each programme participant over a period of time with respect to their management responsibilities and competency. | Programme participants co-operate and assist each other to improve working relationship.  
Regular review to check against a set of performance criteria.  
Preparation for individual performance review using the agency’s system of development. | |
| **4) Recommendations for managers and organizations to improve organizational performance and bottom-line results** | Committed involvement of staff in programmes and sharing of personal progress with others.  
Acceptance of responsibility to show a willingness to contribute to the implementation of recommendations of change to improve organizational result.  
Systematic analysis of documentation to facilitate efficient and effective job quality. | Production of professional service quality through high work commitment to achieve a competent standard.  
Recommending and using updated and more effective ways of dealing with customers.  
Encouragement of agencies to identify programmes that meet their job-related training needs. | |
Figure 1. MAA Company-wide Development System (Agency)

Note:
PCE: Pre-Contract Examination Course
ADP: Agents Discovery Program
ATP: Agents Training Program
CEICI: Certificate Examination in Investment-Linked Life Insurance Course
SAC: Senior Agents Course
AAC: Agents Advance Course
BAMC: Basic Agency Management Course
7H: 7 Habits of Highly Effective People Course
MSP: Managerial Skills Program
AMTP: Agency Management Training Program
LUTC: Life Underwriters Training Program
PFC: Professional Financial Course
AFPM: Associate Financial Planner of Malaysia
CFP: Certified Financial Planner Course

Earned Designations
Agency Hierarchical Positions
Constructing Humanistic Library and Harmonious Campus

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Abstract
The foundation of humanistic library in university is one of the important links of constructing harmonious campus. The paper discusses the function and importance of humanistic library in harmonious campus construction with several proposals as well.

Keywords: humanistic library, harmonious campus, humanistic spirit

1. Introduction
The Communist Party of China’s Fourth Plenary Session of The Sixteenth Central Committee first completed the concept of building a socialist harmonious society. Since then, Hu Jintao and other Chinese leaders have conducted repeated investigations and made an important elaboration on the issue of building a harmonious society. In 2006, The Communist Party of China’s Sixth Plenary Session of The Sixteenth Central Committee which became the focus of attention deliberated medium totally central concerning the decision which sets up socialism diapason some social important problems and focused on the issue of building a harmonious society. Building a socialist harmonious society is a great strategic plan proposed by the Communist Party of China Central Committee and one of the important goals of China's "11th Five-Year Plan" period of economic and social development.

Colleges and universities through training and dissemination of knowledge play a unique role in building a socialist harmonious society. On the other hand, as a part of society, colleges and universities must also build a harmonious campus as the major task of school reform and development. University library is one of the important components of higher education, whose main duty is to focus on teaching and research; meanwhile it is also a special role and account for a unique position in the construction of campus culture. University library should be student-oriented, meet the needs of the students, realize the value of the students, pursue the development of the students, reflect the humanistic spirit, and play its own advantages to promote harmonious campus building.

2. The connotation of the humanistic library
The concept, "humanities", is out of Book of Changes of Zhou Yi. "Humanities" in Book of Changes is relative to "astronomy". It is said in Book of Changes that "The rigid-flexible shifts are staggered, which is called astronomy. People's behaviors meet civilized manners, which is called humanities". So "humanities" is relative to the terms of "astronomy". A relatively great impact on the concept and significance of humanities is Humanism. Humanism is the dominant ideology in Western Renaissance period. It is also a new bourgeois ideology in the European Renaissance period, that is, people-oriented. And sometimes it is translated as "humanism".

The Chinese name of "Humanistic Library Science" is first proposed by Jiang yongfu. He points out that here, "humanities" means humanism in the thinking attitude sense, corresponding to the word "science" in scientism. He believes that the "Humanistic Library Science" is the appellation which is relative to the "Scientific Library Science", only an ideological advocate or school, rather than a branch of library science. "Scientific Library Science" is the focus of the scientific spirit in the library science while "Humanistic Library Science" emphasizes the humanistic spirit in the library science. Xiao Ximing thinks the humanistic spirit could reflect the people-oriented thinking in the practice and theoretical study of the library work, meet the needs of people, realize the value of human beings, pursue human development, reflect humanistic concern and create beauty and harmony as library activities purpose. Here, I believe that the humanistic spirit in the colleges and universities library should be: library should be student-oriented, respect the value and dignity of students, meet the needs of students, create a good humanistic atmosphere, attach importance to education, improve students’ quality and spiritual realm and make students foster lofty personality ideals to be healthy, free, all-round development.

3. The importance and urgency of building humanistic library in colleges of science and engineering
Library has a long humanistic tradition. In 1986 M. F Stegge stressed: "humanistic values are the core of library career." In 1987 E. G. Hawley said: "Our career is basically a humanistic career. Our goal is essentially people." Library as a cultural and educational institution has a long history for millennium. Its emergence and development have its own
profound basis and its inherent mechanism. This support force is the distinctive and unique library spirit, including the professionalism and the humanistic spirit reflected by the people who engage in library work in practice. Whether in traditional library or modern digital library, the humanistic construction and the humanistic spirit are indispensable. The library without scientific spirit is not vital and lags behind. The library with the lack of the humanistic spirit is less humane and cold.

However, with the rapid development of science and technology today, this humanistic spirit is increasingly ignored by people. On the one hand, networks wave are rushing toward us, the office automation in the library has been continually improved, and the advanced information storage technology has also allowed library resources to break space limitations, at the same time the humanistic awareness of library is neglected. For example, the functions of the computer books circulation system are advanced but the collections still not be opened for the reader to implement the open-shelf borrowing; the staff operate computer proficiently but they service readers without their enthusiastic attitude. On the other hand, with the development of technology, the education system blindly pursues the scientific spirit so as to nurture professionals. However, due to the single disciplines in colleges of science and engineering, the small scale, the irrational structure and a lack of library books on humanities, the students nurtured in such an environment maybe have certain knowledge or technology with the spirit of hard work, but their knowledge is often narrow and cultural foundation is not solid with a lack of profound cultivation, especially the comprehensive literacy and the humanistic quality as modern. This phenomenon has to do with the lack of humanistic library in colleges of science and engineering. Therefore, colleges of science and engineering should speed up the construction of the humanistic library, because it is beneficial not only to the growth of talent, but also to building a harmonious society in China.

4. The construction of humanistic library

4.1 Create a good humanistic environment

Tao Xingzhi, a famous educator, said: "A vibrant, stable and harmonious, healthy and progressive atmosphere itself has a wide range of educational functions." Therefore, the setting of the library should be designed to fully reflect the humanistic spirit and provide a good environment and atmosphere for the development of students.

First, we should emphasize the humanistic characteristics on the building of library, from the design to the internal structure, to be close to the needs for use, emotion and psychology of readers. External environment should be carefully designed and created, such as the color tone to unification, and the sufficient emphasis on the visual aesthetic. Its architectural style and building image should not only be coordinate the buildings environment in the region but also have their own unique personality through the display of its architectural style and personality image to create a harmonious atmosphere between buildings and people, humans and nature. In addition, green the surrounding premises of the library and engage in afforestation with sculptures, fountains, lawns and flowers to embellish the environment, to create a rich cultural atmosphere of the library. After a lengthy reading, the readers here can enjoy the natural scenery, relieve fatigue and improve learning efficiency.

Second, the indoor environment of the library should be designed to follow the reader-oriented principle based on the aesthetic sense, using the color match, the formal contrast, the level arrangements, the reciprocal style and the embedded decoration etc. to create a quiet, elegant and comfortable reading environment. For example, choose the evergreen plants, which have the function of air purification such as Evergreen and Chlorophytum. This will not only beautify the indoor environment, but also purify the air with bringing readers a good psychological and physical feeling. In addition, the furnishings should have profound cultural connotation. For instance, sculpture can be placed in the room. We could also post some murals, calligraphy and famous celebrities etc. on the wall. These layouts not only beautify the indoor environment but also purify the readers’ soul.

4.2 Establish a "people-oriented" service concept

To meet the needs of the students, realize the value of the students and pursue the development of the students, the important thing is that librarians should establish a student-oriented service concept, because it is necessary to treat others with sincerity, carry conviction by emotion and reason and give each student the respect of personality fully, humanistic care and human warmth. Only in this way can we win the trust of readers, embody the concept of the humanistic spirit and make readers take full advantage of the various library information resources. In addition, the comprehensive quality of librarians should be enhanced. First the librarians must emphasize scientific literacy, constantly improve their attainments, and then master the modern, digital and Internet-based skills. Secondly librarians should improve their own moral cultivation, so that they can play a positive role as teachers in work style, service attitude, demeanour and other aspects for the purpose of management and education.

4.3 Rich collections of information

The construction of information resources is the most important task for the library and is the material basis of external services. When correctly handling the proportion of the various structures and providing literature information comprehensively and balancedly for each subject, specialty and course, it is necessary to adjust the structure, increase
the collection of the books on the humanistic and social sciences and largely introduce the books which can improve the cultural quality and taste of students. Only in this way can we fully meet the reading needs of students so that students can widen their view, integrate their knowledge structure, increase their hobbies and fully be stimulated the creativity and imagination.

4.4 Add multi-function service room

In order to meet the diversified demands of readers, the architectural design of modern university library should develop in the direction of multi-function in addition to the original function, and provide readers with a broad and stretch of space. For example, establish audio-visual room, lecture hall, exhibition hall, academic research studio and speech hall etc.

5. Conclusion

Colleges and universities are the cradles of cultivating students and library as an educational and cultural centre of colleges and universities plays an important role in building a harmonious campus. Creating humanistic library is our goal to be pursued. And the building of a harmonious campus is our ultimate goal. We should take the humanistic spirit as guidance for the library's ideological work, establish a people-oriented concept to service students, and make full use of library's own advantages in order to promote the building of harmonious campus and harmonious society.

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Inquiry-Oriented Science in Urban Secondary Schools: 
Voices of New and Experience Science Teachers

On Perception of Preparedness

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Abstract
This study explores urban secondary teachers’ perception of how prepared they are to teach science through inquiry-based strategy. It was conducted against the backdrop of recent calls by the National Research Council (NRC) to restructure the way science is taught. Results described in this paper are based on data collected through a Likert scale questionnaire administered to 39 practicing science teachers. The questionnaire provided both quantitative and qualitative data. Analysis of data showed that the majority (78%) of the teachers surveyed believed that they had the knowledge and skill required to teach science through inquiry. Their responses to open ended survey questions indicated something different. Only 13% of the teachers were able to list the elements of inquiry-based science instruction which raised the question about what they actually perceived as knowledge and skills of inquiry-based instruction. These differences are discussed in this paper. Implications for teacher preparation to instruct in an inquiry fashion are also presented.

Keywords: Inquiry, Perception, Preparedness, Professional, Development, Administrative, Instruction, Questionnaire

1. Introduction
One of the greatest challenges facing US public education is tackling the increasing differences in science achievement and educational opportunity between students from high socioeconomic status (SES) backgrounds and students from low SES backgrounds. Students from high SES have continued to score higher on science achievement tests than those from low SES (National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 2000; O’Sullevan, Reese, & Mazzeo, 1997). This is supported by the report by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) 2000 which shows that 41% of White students, 37% of Asian/Pacific Islander students, 14% of American Indian/Alaskan Native students, 12% of Hispanic students, and 5% of Black students scored at or above proficient in the eighth grade science test. (NCES, NAEP, 1996 & 2000 Science Assessments).

One of the most controversial findings of adolescent science achievement is its association with race and ethnicity (Von Secker, 2004). “Without doubt, teaching and learning science pose many challenges even in the best of circumstances” (Tobin, Roth, & Zimmermann, 2001 p.941). These challenges increase in number and intensity in those urban schools that deal with inadequate funding, teacher shortage, lack of resources, and a high proportion of students from conditions of poverty (Tobin, Seiler, & Walls, 1999).

According to the National Science Education Standards [NSES], science in our schools must be for all students regardless of age, gender, cultural or ethnic background, disabilities, aspirations, or interest and motivation in science. All students should have the opportunity to attain high levels of scientific literacy (NSES, 1996). In an age now driven by the relentless necessity of scientific and technological advancement, the current preparation that students in the United States receive in Mathematics and Science is, in a word, unacceptable (National Commission on Mathematics and Science Teaching for the 21st Century, 2000).
Discussions of the changes in science education that have taken place over the past 20 years often revolve around advances in cognitive science and learning theories, the movement towards teacher professional development, the development of state and national standards, accountability and assessment programs, and on-going call for equity and excellence (Barton & Tobin, 2001). However, the expected change in teacher instructional strategies and student motivation resulting in a significant increase in student achievement has been abysmal as indicated in the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS, 2003) and the National Assessment of Educational Progress Report (NAEP, 2000). Heeding the bad news from this report has to involve something more than wringing our hands and raising polite rallying cry for improvement. The issues raised by this report are deeply entrenched and cannot be papered over (National Commission on Mathematics and Science Teaching for the 21st Century, 2000).

Akrson and Hanuscen (2006) explained that portraying science in a way that goes beyond thinking of science as just a body of knowledge requires an understanding of the nature of science itself. Cohen, Raudenbusch, and Ball (2000) as cited in Knapp and Plecki (2001) posited that in some ways, we have come a long way in the past several decades in understanding the nature of high-quality science teaching and conditions that might encourage it in settings such as this. Most of our learning to date has had to do with the fine detail of interactions among teacher, learner, and materials—the “triangle” that lies at the core of instruction in science or any other subject.

Today, educators and researchers understand that most people learn best through personal experience and by connecting new experience to what they already believe and know (National Research Council, 1996; American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1990). According to the National Science Education Standards “learning science is something students do, not something that is done to them...science teaching must involve students in inquiry-oriented investigations as they interact with their teachers and peers” (NRC, 1996, p. 20). The report explains that an inquiry based classroom is more than a “gathering of individual learners brought together for reasons of economy.” Inquiry teaching for the purpose of this study includes “diverse ways in which scientists study natural world and propose explanations based on the evidence derived from their work” (NRC, 1996, p.23).

In presenting some clarifications for what an inquiry based classroom represents, the National Research Council explains that some activities provide a basis for observation, data collection, reflection, and analysis of firsthand events and phenomena while other activities encourage the critical analysis of secondary sources—including media, books, and journals in the library (NRC, 1996, p.33). It therefore encourages teachers to use student-centered learning strategies that actively engage students in conversations and activities that will enhance deeper conceptual understanding.

“A number of researchers have shown that in highly resourced settings, inquiry instruction in urban classrooms can be successful, when it includes materials that leverage the culturally relevant knowledge and beliefs held by students from diverse backgrounds. The challenge remains, however, to move these successes from the design environments in which they were created to the wider rough and tumble of neighborhood schools where teachers can enact them successfully and students can benefit from the opportunity” (Marx et al, 2004, p.1064).

In the past decade, there have been efforts by science education community to make inquiry-based science a reality in the classrooms through professional development programs, science methods classes, and other reform-based science materials (Abell et al. 2005;Lowden, 2005; Tobin, Roth & Zimmerman, 2001; Barton, 2001; Amaral, Garrison & Klenstshy, 2002; Fraser-Abder, Atwater & Lee, 2006; Supovitz & Turner, 2000). Yet according to Keys and Bryan (2001) “as yet we have little knowledge of teachers’ views about the goals and purposes of inquiry, the processes by which they carry it out, or their motivation for undertaking a more complex and often difficult to manage form of instruction” (p. 636). Also, not much is known about whether urban teachers’ skill levels and understanding are adequate to actually implement inquiry-based science instruction in urban science classrooms. This study therefore seeks to explore what urban science teachers are saying about implementing inquiry in their classrooms. In doing so, the study hopes to ascertain whether the teachers’ have adequate skill levels and understanding to implement inquiry in the classroom.

1.1 Urban Schooling

Understanding the diversity evident in urban school setting, teachers must reflect on a more ethnographic approach to inquiry based pedagogy. Murillo (1997) as cited in Barton (2001) argues the relevance of an ethnographic inquiry in urban classrooms: “ethnographic inquiry is most appropriate when it places events and people in the social, cultural, and political history and contexts in which they are constituted. It can never be innocent or neutral, since it is embedded in a political and moral process.” Urban school teachers and administrators must understand that the inquiry based pedagogical reform is a process that requires a clear awareness of the specific goals of science education. Marx et al (2004) in citing different studies that point to the need of urban science reform explains, “over the past decade, systemic reform has been advanced as a comprehensive and systematic approach to school improvement (Fuhrman, 2001; Smith & O’Day, 1991) designed to increase student learning through careful programming and alignment of curriculum and instruction, assessment, and professional development.” The study furthermore emphasizes, that systemic reform in science often takes place in large urban systems that present a particular set of challenges for educators and their
partners in reform (Blumenfeld, Fishman, Krajcik, Max, Soloway, 2000). Teachers and administrators should not assume that a structured hands-on activity will necessarily have all of the elements of inquiry. This only results in what Moscovici and Nelson (1998) referred to as “activity mania” and does not result in the necessary conceptual understanding needed in science learning. Inquiry as defined in the national science education standards (NSES):

Is a multifaceted activity that involves making observations; posing questions; examining books and other sources of information to see what is already known; planning investigations; reviewing what is already known in light of experimental evidence; using tools to gather, analyze, and interpret data; proposing answers, explanations, and predictions; and communicating the results. Inquiry requires identification of assumptions, use of critical and logical thinking, and consideration of alternative explanations (p. 23).

According to NRC (2000), “developing the ability to understand and engage in this kind of activity requires direct experience and continued practice with the processes of inquiry. Students do not come to understand inquiry simply by learning words such as "hypothesis" and "inference" or by memorizing procedures such as "the steps of the scientific method." They must experience inquiry directly to gain a deep understanding of its characteristics.” (p.12). It is based on this premise that we sought to identify the key perception of new and experienced urban science teachers about inquiry oriented science instruction in urban secondary schools. Identifying teachers’ perceptions of inquiry will support professional development opportunities that address the systemic needs in the area of science instruction. Jarrett (1997) explains, “teachers and administrators should look out for certain inquiry specific structures already mentioned above when observing an inquiry rich classroom.”

Cultural diversity is another important consideration when discussing the challenges of teaching and learning in urban settings. Based on the U.S. Census report (2000), an estimate of 75% of its inhabitants resides in urban areas while the central urban cities make up 29% of the total population of the U.S. “Educators in the urban area while developing science curriculum must develop urban/science specific instructional strategies that will benefit the students of low SES that are predominant in urban settings.

1.1.2 Teachers’ Beliefs about Inquiry

The act of becoming a teacher is a complex process of socialization into a community of practice” (Murrell, 2001; Wenger, 1998). Goodson (1992), Helms (1998) and Zeichner (1983) as cited in Proweller and Mitchener (2004) point out studies of teacher socialization as documenting a long tension between notions of teaching rooted in the personal; that is, the teacher’s person or self influences what is taught and the structural constraints of school organization and culture (p.1044).

Cuevas, Lee, Hart, and Deaktor (2005) as cited in Krystyniak and Heikkinen (2007) noted “the difficulty of finding a clear-cut definition of inquiry, and cited separate work regarding inquiry theory, a process, and the relative extent to which it is student – or teacher driven.” Creating an inquiry based classroom requires teachers asking students for their suggestions and allowing students to take ownership of the learning process. This puts urban school teachers in a position to share control and effectively guide learners while ensuring a safe classroom environment. A situation that seems to dishearten some urban school educators in pursuing an inquiry based classroom environment. It also takes a courageous teacher to encourage students to offer their own ideas, to make comments, to debate the validity of explanations and solutions, and to take part in the decision making (Borasi, 1992) process. “Teachers hold personal beliefs that inquiry promotes the scientific thinking and learning autonomy that they want for their students; yet, enacting inquiry is mediated by cultural beliefs, such as transmission and efficiency”. “These dual belief sets cause tension for teachers who are attempting to use inquiry-based instruction” (Keys & Bryan, 2001, p. 636).

Wallace and Kang (2004) in citing several studies explain the importance of teacher belief in effective inquiry based instruction. In their opinion “teachers’ understandings of the nature of science may create barriers to implementing inquiry-based instruction. They suggest that “previous studies have indicated that many teachers have a view of the nature of science as an objective body of knowledge created by a rigid “scientific methods” (Duschl & Wright, 1989; Brickhouse, 1990; Gallagher, 1991). Continuing on this, Wallace and Kang posit that “teachers have no educational background in the history and philosophy of science, nor do they have first hand experience practicing science” (p.940). Thus, they tend to portray science as a collection of facts, principles, and concepts with little or no instructional attention given to the processes by which scientific knowledge is made public and validated (Gallagher, 1991). An implication of the resulting dilemma is that with such shallow understanding of how scientists work, teachers may be inhibited to involve students in inquiry-based science activities that reflect the way scientists work.

An urban teachers’ orientation plays a major role in teacher beliefs. Friedrichsen (2002) found in her study of high school chemistry teachers that instructional decisions are generally based on their beliefs and attitude. Wallace and Kang (2004) in the analysis of their study comprising of six secondary science teachers, outline the diverse perspective of science teachers to the relevance of inquiry based instruction based on their perception of student preparedness, academic abilities and state content requirements. Of the teachers studied, two major belief strands emerged. The first
belief strand ranged from the curriculum being less rigorous to students being too immature and lazy to appreciate the inquiry process. While the second belief strand ranged from inquiry process creating independent, deep thinking and problem solving skills to inquiry process stimulating creativity in science learning.

1.1.3 Teacher Preparation and Professional Development

Teaching in ways recommended as powerful for student learning, will require most teachers to develop new knowledge and skills in teaching (Borko & Putman, 1996). Professional development lies at the heart of nearly every educational effort to improve student achievement (Supovitz & Turner, 2000). Yet, paradoxically, the development of educators is a much maligned enterprise. In a 1985 national survey, teachers ranked in-service training as their least effective source of learning (Smylie, 1989). Tobin, Roth and Zimmerman (2001) explains that the characteristics of urban schools make likely the necessity of employing a radically different approach from that successfully employed in preparing teachers for schools with students from middle and upper class settings. Such a different course is especially likely to be needed when the majority of students in an urban school are from the working class or from homes in which earnings are below the poverty line. The goal of any professional development effort should be: (a) to aid urban science teachers to possess the tools in dealing with the specificities of urban science teaching in terms of school climate, size, funding, and demographics; and (b) to develop better urban public schools and science teachers who want to stay in urban settings (Fraser-Abder, Atwater, Lee, 2006).

Although professional development has not realized its potential, it is still seen as the best bet for changing teaching practices, because alternative methods, such as policies and programs that regulate teacher behavior, have not fared better (Smylie, 1996). Urban school administrators must plan high quality professional development opportunities that are both systemic and sustainable in nature as they strive for an inquiry based science classroom. Despite historical shortcoming, evolutionary advances in science professional development hold promise as a way of influencing the teaching and learning of science in American public schools (Supovitz & Turner, 2000). The question then is how have these professional development trainings especially those on inquiry-based approach to science instructions changed teachers’ perceptions about science and the way it should be taught in the urban classrooms?

1.1.4 Administrative Support

Excellence and equity in science teaching and learning in urban schools are determined by various social, cultural, and linguistic factors by the major players in the arena (Fraser-Abder, Atwater, Lee, 2006). Urban school teachers continue to seek avenues to engage their students in a meaningful way while addressing other external variables that play a significant role in daily classroom behavior. To promote goals established for student learning, reform efforts in science education have focused attention on classrooms and how teachers can improve their instructional practices (Schneider, Krajcik, & Blumenfeld, 2005). Although educators agree that the 1996 National Science Standards has prompted a focus on inquiry based instructional strategies, however, there is a need for urban school administrators to address the issue of teacher preparedness in addressing inquiry-based science instruction (Basista, Tomlin, Pennington, & Pugh, 2001).

Urban School science classrooms often lack appropriate science instructional materials and supplies, a state of affairs often exacerbated by more generalized lack of resources and funding in urban schools serving large numbers of underperforming and underrepresented groups of students (Fraser-Abder, Atwater, Lee, 2006). Administrators have to reflect on this lack of resources and funding as a major cause of the achievement gap and the teacher attrition, as well as student and teacher low moral as they plan and design relevant professional development opportunities for urban science teachers. Basista, Tomlin, Pennington, & Pugh (2001) in their study, emphasized the need for administrators to participate in professional developments focusing on inquiry based instruction.

Professional development for urban administrators to understand and support an inquiry based pedagogical strategy is important in effectively supporting urban teachers in their quest to reform instruction. According to the National Commission on Mathematics and Science Teaching for the 21st Century (2000), administrators need to understand that effective teacher professional development will, (1) deepen their knowledge of the subject; (2) sharpen their teaching skills in the classroom; (3) keep up with developments in their fields, and in education generally; (4) generate and contribute new knowledge to the profession; and (5) increase their ability to monitor students’ work, so they can provide constructive feedback to students and appropriately redirect their own teaching.

1.1.5 Purpose of Study

Several studies continue to focus on secondary school teacher perception of inquiry –oriented Science in diverse classrooms (Knapp & Pleck, 2001; Barton & Tobin, 2001; Eick & Reed, 2001; Von Secker, 2004; Bencze & Hodson, 1999; Jarrett, 1997; NWREL, 1997; Max et al, 2004; Supovitz & Turner, 2000; Fuhrman, 2001; Volkman & Zgagacz, 2003; Akerson & Hanuscin, 2006). Krystyniak and Heikkinen (2007) explain, “that a major effort in science education reform has been the implementation of inquiry strategies into k-12 classrooms and laboratories … Since then, the National Science Education Standards (NSES) has included inquiry as both learning and a teaching expectation for
k-12 instruction (NRC, 1996). This served as an impetus to explore through the present study what teachers are doing in their classrooms as well as what they are saying about inquiry as an approach to science instruction especially in urban setting. Specifically, the current study was designed to answer the following research questions regarding urban science teachers’ perception and preparedness for inquiry based instruction.

1. What are urban science teachers’ perceptions of their knowledge base and skills of teaching science through the inquiry approach?
2. Do these perceptions affect their preparedness in implementing inquiry based instruction?
3. How do these perceptions influence their implementation of inquiry-based instruction?

2. Methodology

2.1 Study Participants

The study participants include teachers from four urban school districts in southern California who were either enrolled in our science methods course or were full time science teachers in an urban school setting. These are teachers from urban secondary schools in Los Angeles County, California with about 62 percent of them holding or enrolled in either a master’s or doctoral degree program. Out of the 39 secondary teachers who participated in this study, 64 percent have been teaching science for less than 20 years. Fifty nine percent of the participants have less than 6 years experience working in an urban setting. Participants were selected based on their teaching science in an urban secondary school.

2.1.1 Data Collection

A brief questionnaire (part Likert and part open ended) was used to obtain data from participating teachers. For the purpose of this study, the questionnaire was structured to provide both quantitative and qualitative data (Tashakkori & Creswell, In Scott et al. 2007). The questionnaire consisted of demographic information and twenty eight questions focusing on perceptions of inquiry instruction while also identifying professional development focus areas that can enhance teacher efficacy in inquiry based instruction. This study relied on teacher self-reports of pedagogical activities. The current focus on teacher perception included open and close ended questions regarding three areas: (1) Knowledge and skill of teaching science inquiry; (2) teacher perception of inquiry; (3) teacher understanding of inquiry reflected in assessment and classroom resource selection. Mayer(1999) as cited in Smith et al (2007) points out, “research has shown that survey measures of teaching, especially composite measures such as those we used in this study, can be effective in describing and distinguishing among different types of teaching practices.” Other topics include open ended responses to the questions: List all the elements that you will see in a classroom where science inquiry is employed. What system have your school established to support your teaching of science? What sources of professional development have been very useful for your teaching of science? What issues if any have arisen for you in providing adequate and appropriate science education experience to different groups of students, and how have you resolved these? What are three major challenges you face in implementing the science curriculum? Item response format used a 4 structured Likert scale for some of the questions while the rest were yes or no responses.

2.1.2 Reliability and Validity

The survey used in this study was a three page questionnaire developed by researchers and an evaluation team. The survey was validated by a summative committee comprised of science teacher leaders, administrators who are aware of science practices and science methods professors. This team reviewed the construct validity of the open ended question to ascertain the fidelity with which the responses from this category were coded. Construct validity is an indicator of the logical, conceptual connection between a test and what it is designed to measure. Reliability analysis of the items resulted in an alpha coefficient of .92, indicating a strong internal consistency of items. This format ensured both reliability and validity of the instrument. The final questionnaire for the teachers contained 27 questions.

2.1.3 Procedure

Administered surveys were collected over a two month time period. Despite hand delivering the tools, emphasis on anonymity, and several follow-up phone calls, some of the teachers did not complete the questionnaire. A total of 78 percent (n= 39) of the teachers responded. Some of the limitations to the study include possible non-response bias of the respondents who did not answer all questions on the instrument and lack of information on non respondents.

2.1.4 Data Analysis

The presentation of our quantitative and qualitative data analysis is organized around our three research questions. Data analysis procedures for the survey included descriptive statistics such as percentages used to collate and tabulate the patterns of responses. For the open ended questions (eg. List all the elements that you will see in a classroom where science inquiry is employed?), a three step process was used for coding responses. First, the term inquiry was defined based on the National Science Education Standards (NRC, 2000)’s essential features of inquiry to include all activities in the classroom that enabled the learner to: (1) engage in scientifically oriented questions, (2) give priority to evidence
in responding to questions, (3) formulate explanations from evidence, (4) connect explanations to scientific knowledge, and (5) communicate and justify explanations. Based on this, we proposed that student inquiry application in the classroom should include all minds-on, hands-on activities in which students are guided in the practice of making observation, collecting data, reflecting, and analyzing firsthand events and phenomena and suggesting possible explanations based on scientific evidence (NRC, 1996). Second, we discussed each teacher’s response and the appropriateness in relation to the above-mentioned characteristics of inquiry. Third, the responses are coded as inquiry or no inquiry. Those responses that fall into the definition will be coded as inquiry while those responses that do not reflect the characteristics in the definition will be coded as no inquiry. In addition, we randomly selected six (three from those who listed the correct elements of inquiry and three of those that did not list the correct elements) teachers’ free responses to the open ended survey questions for in-depth analysis. For easy understanding of our presentation and because we are going to quote the teachers’ exact responses, we decided to use the pseudonyms: Andrew, Johnson Kate, AnnMaria, Keisha, and Annette to represent these six teachers.

3. Results

To organize the data analyses of this study in clear and coherent manner, the result of the study is presented under two sub-titles: Quantitative analysis and Qualitative analysis.

3.1 Quantitative Analysis

In order to answer research question one, we obtained information about teachers’ perception of their level of understanding of what inquiry is as well as the skill of using this approach in science instruction by analyzing the teachers’ responses to the knowledge and skills question cluster. This revealed that 78 percent of the teachers who participated in the study thought they were either proficient or accomplished in their level of understanding of what science inquiry means while 62 percent indicated that they were either proficient or accomplished in the use of science inquiry. Based on this, we assumed that these groups of teachers had clear (or at least a working) understanding of the inquiry approach and may likely use this approach in their classrooms.

3.1.1 Qualitative Analysis

However, when asked to list all the elements that need to be found in an inquiry-based instruction, about 39 percent of the teachers surveyed listed attributes such as hands-on, students centered, scientific methods, questioning, open-ended, active participation, discovery, student communication, teacher modeling, lab. before lecture, use of note books, performance based, interactive, collecting and interpreting data, predicting, student ownership of experience, engagement, discussion, explanation, higher order, evaluative and analytical thinking, constructivism, prior knowledge, construction of logical framework, making connections, cooperative groups, problem-solving, and exploring ideas. Also, we found that only 33 percent of this group listed the elements that point to the five essential features of inquiry as prescribed by NRC, (1996) such as:

Students are actively participating in learning. Students are interacting w/each other. Students are conducting investigations. Students are communicating using a variety of methods. Teacher is seen modeling & supporting learning, using a variety of methods. Hands-on activities, cooperative learning interactive science notebooks, labs before lecture, performance-based assessment. Questioning, experimentation, observation. Collecting and interpreting data, the one development, evaluation of ideas, predicting outcomes of experiments. Engagement, student ownership of experience, group discussion, questioning, pursuing explanation of a certain phenomenon. Student engagement open-ended questioning constructivism, higher-order evaluative and analytical thinking, observations, connections to prior knowledge, the construction of logical framework, etc.

This represented about 13 percent of all the teachers surveyed and so raised doubts about the 78 percent that had indicated that they had clear understanding of inquiry based instruction.

To answer research questions two and three, we resorted to an in-depth analysis of the open ended survey questions since they assumed that the teachers’ responses to these questions will give them a clearer understanding of the teachers’ perceptions and their actual level of understanding. Three of these survey questions which adequately served this purpose will be analyzed. The first question had to do with whether the teachers implement inquiry in their classrooms. To this question, 46 percent of the teachers responded that they use inquiry-based science instruction in their classrooms while 29 percent said they use inquiry sometimes. Five percent of the teachers responded that they rarely use inquiry in their science classrooms.

The second question had to do with the ease with which the teachers implemented inquiry-based instruction. Analysis of teachers’ responses to this survey question showed that 59 percent of the teachers responded that it was either very easy or easy while 41 percent responded that it was either difficult of very difficult. The third survey question asked teachers...
to list all the elements that they will see in a classroom where science inquiry is employed. This question was specifically designed to be open ended to give teachers the opportunity to actually verbalize what their understanding of science inquiry is. Analysis of this question which was coded to highlight the various elements of inquiry evident in teachers’ responses showed very clear divergence in what the teachers perceived and applied as science inquiry (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

For the purpose of this analysis, we decided to randomly select six teachers to represent the participants who responded to these questions from the sample of 39 percent of teachers who correctly identified some elements of inquiry and 61 percent who did not identify elements of science inquiry for a descriptive analysis. Because we were going to quote the teachers’ exact responses, we decided to use the pseudonyms Andrew, Johnson, Kate, AnnMaria, Keisha, and Annette to represent these six teachers.

These teachers were asked to respond to the third of the three survey questions. The first three randomly selected teachers’ responses identified some of the elements outlined in the NRC (1996) as evidence of an inquiry-based science classroom. Specifically, Kate’s response to that question was “controlled chaos – students moving, talking (loudly even), questioning, and discovering.” Johnson’s response was “measuring, observing, creating, classifying, graphing, experimenting, hypothesizing, and sequencing (all process spills).” Finally, Johnson’s response to the question was “collecting and interpreting data, development and evaluation of ideas, and predicting outcomes of experiments.”

While the first group of teachers appeared to have fairly good understanding of the elements of inquiry-based science instruction in the classroom, the second sample group seemed not to understand the elements of an inquiry-based science instruction as outlined by the National Research Council (1996) or at least did not list them. These three teachers, AnnMaria, Keisha, and Annettes’ responses are as follows: AnnMaria: “unique work product/different curriculum.” Keisha: “reading assessments and labs.” Annette: “standards, wall, and students work.” A cross-analysis of their responses point out the divergence in their understanding within this subgroup as it relates to science inquiry. For instance, Annette understood science inquiry as following state content standards for the grade level and exhibiting student finished work as evidence of inquiry while Keisha points to reading and laboratory exercise as examples of inquiry-based science instruction (Maxwell, 1996).

3.1.2 Discussion

The purpose of this study was to explore urban science teachers’ perception of what their understanding and skill levels are about inquiry-based science instruction and to ascertain whether these perceptions influence their implementing inquiry in their classrooms. To do this, we resorted to the use of qualitative and quantitative data sources. Analysis of the quantitative data revealed that a majority of teachers surveyed perceived themselves as being knowledgeable and skillful about inquiry. To find out how their perception influenced their implementation of inquiry-based instruction in their classrooms, we analyzed the open-ended question that asked them to list all the elements that reflects an inquiry-based instructional strategy. Data showed that their responses to this open-ended survey question contradicted this belief. This finding appears to contradict the study by Tobin, Tippins, and Gallard (1994) which found a strong influence between teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning and how they taught science. This disconnection between the teachers’ beliefs and what they do in the classroom may be attributed to their lack of understanding of what inquiry-based instruction actually means. Their perception of inquiry may have been wrong at best or may not have reflected the actual meaning of inquiry as described by the National Science Education Standards.

It is important to note at this time that although 46 percent of the study teachers agreed that they use inquiry-based instruction often, evidence from their responses to the open-ended survey questions did not support their claims or true understanding of inquiry and its elements as related in their instructional description. In addition, the fact that 59 percent of these teachers responded that they found it easy to use inquiry, even though they were not able to identify the key elements of inquiry as outlined by the National Science Education Standards (NRC, 2000) raises an interesting question about what these teachers refer to as inquiry. This finding supports the findings of Cuevas, Lee, Hart, and Deaktor (2005) which points to the difficulty of finding a clear-cut definition of inquiry. Also as Smith et al (2007) reiterates “although inquiry-oriented approaches to education have been advocated since Dewey, early in the last century (Dewey, 1910, as cited in National Research Council, 2000), what constitutes inquiry in science instruction varies widely across the literature (Anderson, 2002). Evidence based on collected data analysis is consistent with the notion that these teachers are either not as knowledgeable as they claim or are still confused about what inquiry-based instruction actually is. We assumed that they may have heard that there is a push for the use of inquiry-based instruction and decided to agree that they use it. The inquiry strategy has been promoted in a lot of science professional development in the Los Angeles area at the time of this study and it is possible that some of the participating teachers have either participated in these professional developments or have heard about inquiry from other colleagues that may have participated in these trainings.

Another focus of this study is to identify if teachers’ perception of inquiry knowledge and skill affects their preparedness to implement inquiry-based strategies in their classroom. Evidence from the data analysis show that
teachers’ perceptions of inquiry-based instruction affected their ability to clearly identify the elements of inquiry-based instruction as outlined in the National Science Education Standards (NRC, 2000), consequently reflecting their curricular and pedagogical focus in science. We suggest this from comparing data from the skill and knowledge section of the survey instrument and teachers’ responses to key elements of implementing inquiry-based instruction in their classrooms. The research findings present a concern in relation to the major push by science education reformers to implement inquiry-based instruction in K-12 classrooms and laboratory. Also, science teachers in their identifying, planning, and monitoring professional developments will have to overcome the difficulties created by perception of teacher knowledge and skills as it relates to inquiry-based science instruction.

Science Educators, Lead teachers, and Administrators in supervising these classrooms must intentionally identify strategies for creating awareness as to the key components of an inquiry-based science classroom and laboratory. For example, they may use inquiry-based instruction matrix during and after classroom observations to point out to teachers what inquiry-based strategies should look like. Furthermore, science teachers in urban secondary schools will enhance their ability to use inquiry-based strategies in the classroom if they understand the strong influence between teachers’ belief about teaching and learning and how they teach science (Eick and Reed, 2001). Indeed, 62 percent of surveyed teachers agree that they have attended professional development sessions focused specifically on inquiry-based science strategies. This percentage when compared to the 39 percent of teachers who identified the key elements of an inquiry-based science instruction leads us to conclude that there is a clear difference between perceptions of professional development and implementation of inquiry-based instruction. From the foregoing, we assume that the attendance of PDs focusing on inquiry-based instruction has not enhanced the teachers’ understanding and implementation of inquiry in their classrooms. That raises the question about the effectiveness of the PDs. Administrators and teacher leaders should reflect on these findings and develop ongoing PDs that allow teachers to implement the skills learned from these trainings while presenting an opportunity for reflection and feedback using a monitoring matrix based on the NRC identified components for inquiry.

Science educators and school administrators in planning for the future National Assessment of Education Framework (2009) will have to present learning opportunities that challenge the gap between their teachers’ perception of knowledge and skill of inquiry-based instruction and the reality of instruction in the science classroom. This framework founded in conceptual understanding, science investigation, and practical investigation outlined four science practices to be assessed: (1) identifying science principles, (2) using science principles, (3) using science inquiry, and (4) using technological design (U.S. Department of Education, 2007). Wright and Wright (1998) as cited in Smith et al. (2007) “pointed out the gap between science education as it was taught at the time and as it was described in the National Science Education Standards, suggesting that it would take considerable effort for teachers and students to enact the vision of inquiry put forth in the guideline in their classroom.”

Focusing on content and analysis rather than the process of inquiry aligned to the key components of the NSES (NRC, 2001) continues to hinder the preparedness of science teachers in urban secondary schools (Fraser-Abder, Atwater, & Lee, 2006). As science education reformers continue to ensure equity in science, it becomes imperative that urban school systems must create a path to bridge the gap between perception and reality. Numerous research on inquiry-oriented science instruction as outlined in this paper support the need for all science educators to develop the ability to understand and engage in the kind of activity that will re-enforce the understanding and continued practice of the skills necessary to foster inquiry-based instruction. Focusing on the science academic needs of urban school districts as exemplified in the State standardized test scores has not yielded the intended result for science education reformers. However, the data from these standardized test scores supports the need for more research on inquiry-based science instruction in urban secondary schools. Studies of learning from inquiry-based approaches in secondary classroom are necessary in light of the difficulties conducting inquiry in the more constraining high school environment (Keys & Bryan, 2001) in urban settings.

3.1.3 Conclusion

Urban science teachers’ perception of what their knowledge, understanding, and skill levels are regarding inquiry-based science instruction, and its influence on their implementing these strategies show a gap based on the data analysis from the study survey instrument. Flick (1995) as cited in the McRel Report (1997) point out that teacher skill is crucial to inquiry. These findings support studies that show that teacher skills and knowledge, deep cultural understanding for framing pedagogy, administrative support, collaborative monitoring, and continuous targeted professional development is an integral approach to sustaining two decades of science reform (Fraser-Abder, Atwater, & Lee, 2006; Eick & Reed, 2001; Smith et al, 2007; Luft, 2001; NRC, 2000; Akerson & Hanuscin, 2006). Furthermore, we found that urban science teachers who participated in this study had a different opinion of what inquiry-oriented instructional strategies exemplified in the urban classroom. Methodological frameworks for the study include quantitative and qualitative approaches to address the three research questions proposed for this study. The study data supports the assertion that there is a gap between teacher perception of inquiry-oriented instructional abilities and its actual implementation in the
classroom. “How best to reform science instruction has been debated by scientists and science educators for decades, although how science is taught is likely to garner wider public policy interest as science achievement becomes part of the formula for calculating where schools and districts are making adequate yearly report” (Smith et al, 2007).

The voices of these urban school science teachers show that there is a need for district and school site administrators to support teachers through the planning of a structured, continuous inquiry-based professional development topics. Perhaps, preparing these teachers to effectively identify the key elements of an inquiry-oriented classroom and modeling these elements in professional developments will not only improve their daily science pedagogy but will also support the academic growth of urban students as measured in the state standardized test score.

Urban school districts must encourage science teachers and site administrators to incorporate the inquiry framework outlined in the U.S. Department of Education report (2007) in their curriculum development and pedagogy. Although the correlation between professional development and teachers’ use of inquiry cannot be ascertained by the survey instrument used for this study, it is evident from the assessment measures that students improved academic growth in science is based on an understanding and continued implementation of inquiry-based strategies. Furthermore, science instruction and science teacher professional development is an area ripe for both experimental and quasi-experimental design methodologies to support the replication of best practices in urban science classrooms.

References


### Table 1. Teacher Perception of Inquiry

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<th>Item</th>
<th>1-Rudimentary</th>
<th>2-Developing</th>
<th>3-Proficient</th>
<th>4-Accomplished</th>
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<td>0%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>36%</td>
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<td>Please indicate your level of understanding of what science inquiry means</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicate your skill level in using inquiry to teach science</td>
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<td>36%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>21%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indicate your skill level in using open ended questioning in teaching</td>
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<td>23%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>31%</td>
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Note: Knowledge and skills of teaching science as inquiry
Table 2. Resource Use

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<th>2-Rarely</th>
<th>3-Sometimes</th>
<th>4-Often</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Laboratory</td>
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<td>10%</td>
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<tr>
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<td>13%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>13%</td>
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<tr>
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<td>23%</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
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<td>33%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Commercial Software</td>
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<td>18%</td>
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<td>33%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Community</td>
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<td>46%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Indicate how often you use the following resources
Countermeasures for Universities on the Dislocation between

The Job-finding of Fresh College Graduates of

And the Employment of Units

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Abstract

In recent years, conflicts over the employment of college graduates are becoming more and more evident. For one hand, many college graduates cannot find appropriate jobs, whilst for another, many units fail to recruit college graduates who are qualified. This paper, on the basis of making deep analysis on the reasons that cause the dislocation of supply and demand, put forwards for universities the corresponding countermeasures.

Keywords: The dislocation of recruitment and job-finding, The hardship of the employment of college students, Cultivation mode, Talents

In recent years, many universities enlarge enrollment year by year. The number of college graduates increases evidently. Theoretically speaking, it should be easy for various employment units to recruit talents that meet their demands. However, in reality, it is another scene. For one hand, many college graduates cannot find appropriate jobs, whilst for another, many units fail to recruit college graduates who are qualified. What has caused this phenomenon, the dislocation of between job-finding and employment, “some people are out of job” and “some jobs cannot find appropriate employees”? 

1. The current situation of the employment of units and job-finding of college graduates

The higher education of China started to enlarge enrollment in 1999. The number of college students gradually increases. In the three years from 1999 to 2002, the first group of the undergraduates enrolled during the enlarged enrollment did not enter into labor market. Therefore, the employment of college graduates was not serious. The hardship of the employment of college graduates did not draw wide attention from the society that time. It is until 2003 when the first group of college graduates of the enlarged enrollment entered into labor market that the hardship of the employment of college graduates became a common social phenomenon. The following is the statistics data of the employment of college graduates in the past few years published by the Ministry of Education. (Please refer to Table 1)

From Table 1, we can see that from 2002 to 2007, the influence of the enlarged enrollment on the number of college graduates enlarges year by year. In average, the number increased within one year reached 500,000. The increase rate reached 46.2%in 2003, the highest one. The number of college graduates employed also increases year by year under the influence of base number increase. However, the amplitude is evidently lower than the increase of the college graduates, resulting in the increase of the number of college graduates unemployed. In recent years, the proportion of college graduates unemployed exceeds 20% to a great extent. It can be seen that the hardship of the employment of college graduates has become a significant issue. The employment situation brought by popular education is not so optimistic.

For another aspect, according to the statistics, over 40% of employment units cannot find college graduates that meet their demands. The employment units opine that part of college graduates lack genuine ability and knowledge and some graduates reach for what is beyond their grasp, just care about welfare and salary, and lack real capacity. Therefore, many employment units would rather lack employees than to employ those who are not qualified.

2. The analysis on the questionnaires

In order to do research on the branch points between college graduates and employment units, we investigated some enterprises and college students of Shandong province in the form of questionnaires. (Please refer to Figure 1)
The investigation was carried out through internet questionnaires and personal interviews. This investigation covers 113 college graduates from over 10 universities of Shandong province and over 50 enterprises of 10 industries, of which 24 are private enterprises, accounting for 45.3%, 9 are state owned enterprise, accounting for 17.0%, 15 are foreign enterprises (including joint equity enterprises), accounting for 28.3%, and 5 are Taiwan and other enterprises, accounting for 9.4%. 4 enterprises are with more than 5000 employees, accounting for 7.5%; 11 enterprises are with 500 to 5000 employees, accounting for 20.8%; 17 are with 100 to 500 employees, accounting for 32.1%; and 21 enterprises are with less than 100 employees, accounting for 39.6%. Among the enterprises investigated, private enterprises take up high proportion, the reasons for which are that the choice is made according to the investigation hardship and that it cannot be denied that the demand of private enterprises on college graduates is the highest.

2.1 The demand of employment units

With the coming of economy and knowledge era, the competition of talents is more and more fierce. The employment units lay higher and higher expectation on talents. The society raises higher requirements on the makings and capacities of college students. Employment units pay more attention on the qualities of the graduates, on the professional skills, working attitudes, and work experience and occupation moralities of college graduates, on the practical capacities of graduates. While at present, the makings and capacities of college graduates lag far behind the requirements laid by the employment units.

(Please refer to Figure 2)It is easy to see from graph 2 that the education background of college graduates has already exceeded the demands of employment units; however, the weakness of their professional skills fails them to qualify the demands of employment units and they cannot create benefits for enterprises in short term; the working attitude and occupation morality of college graduates are not satisfying either. The investigation shows that employment units lay rather high requirements on the professional skills, working attitude and occupation morality of college graduates, whiles college graduates can only reach 40% to 60% of the demands of employment units in the above mentioned three aspects. For work experience, college graduates score around zero and is far and far behind the requirements of employment units. Of course, many employment units still care about the development potential of fresh college graduates and think that part of college graduates are of high makings and promising future.

2.2 The views of fresh college graduates

Through investigation, it is found that around 75% of fresh college graduates hope to work in big cities and many would like to stay where their universities locate because in the past four years, they become familiar with the city and have friends in the city. Many fresh college graduates think that gender discrimination occurs in employment units, especially some chemical industry units or posts that require employees to go on business trip or go abroad. As for work experience, fresh college graduates hold that many employment units are too rigor. The work experience of college graduates is limited to part time job experience, which mostly do not qualify the demands of the companies. They are of the opinion that companies should place the potential of employees at the most important place.

The questionnaires show that more than 70% students believe that the employment situation in the following years will be more severe. Only around 10% students believe that the present employment situation is good. Almost all this 10% students have done part time jobs in the past four years and are good at personal communication. Among students who have found jobs, 18% find jobs through employment websites, 16% through newspapers, 2% through magazines, 20% though job fairs, 18% through the introduction of acquaintance and 26% through campus recruitment. (Please refer to Figure 3). The result shows that campus recruitment accounts for a large proportion in the job-hunting of students. The platform of employment websites and job fairs could not be looked down upon in helping students to find jobs. The introduction of acquaintance becomes a way that is adopted by many students, whilst professional magazines are the main way for the publication of information for strong professional posts.

2.3 The main branch points of the two parties

2.3.1 The gab between the expected incomes of college graduates and that offered by the employment units

This investigation shows the gab between the expected incomes of college graduates (the first jobs) and that offered by the employment units as follows: (Please refer to Table 2)

Table 2 shows that the expected incomes of college graduates mainly center on RMB1500-3000, while above 60% of employment units think that reasonable salary offered for college graduates is just above RMB1000. Of course, about 20% of employment units think that the salary offered for college graduates is below RMB1000. Just about 7% of employment units would like to offer college graduates above RMB2000 as salary. Why this kind of gab occurs? This gab is closely connected to the study costs of college students and the employment costs of employment units.

2.3.2 The branch point over work experience

The employment units believe that those with work experience will be quick at adapting to the work environment and do not need training. On the other hand, fresh college graduates need time to be trained and to adapt to the work
environment. Besides, the job-hopping possibility of fresh college graduates is great and the loyalty of college fresh graduates to the work is rather low. Fresh college graduates think that the work experience could be cultivated and will not require much time. They believe that it is not beneficial for employment units to lay too strict requirements on work experience, which will be detrimental to the selection of excellent persons with ability and the innovation of work.

3. Analysis on the reasons for the dislocation of the employment of units and the job-finding of fresh college graduates

The situation of the employment of college graduates is extremely severe, the reasons for which are various. With the constant development of the popularization of higher education of China, the number of college graduates constantly increases, from 1,450,000 of year 2002 to 4,950,000 of year 2007. Based on the constant increase, some one holds that the rapid increase of the number of college students is the fundamental cause for the hardship of the employment of college graduates. However, the proportion of Chinese who have received higher education is far lower than those of the western developed industrial countries. What is more, at present, the total number of college students is not of saturation and the supply of college students does not exceed the demands. The reason is that the types and qualities of college graduates cannot meet the demands of the society. In this connection, the increase of college students is not the fundamental cause for the hardship of the employment of college students. With regards to the hardship of college students, this paper mainly carries out analysis and discussion from the following two aspects:

3.1 The causes from employment units

3.1.1 The “high-class consumption” of the employment units

Many high technology companies, enterprises with new projects and large-sized multinational companies develop very fast. Therefore, they lay higher and higher requirements on specialty, level and work experience of employees. However, when recruiting, many enterprises require employees to have work experience and to be of education level of employees beyond undergraduates. Therefore, they close the door for many graduates. The essential cause is that under the market economy, employment units pursue the maximum benefits. The maximum benefit is realized through the minimum investment which brings along the maximum benefits. For one hand, the number of college graduates who are applying for jobs exceeds that of the posts the employment units could provide. For another, the existence of unemployed college graduates is good for the demand of enterprises on high making talents and provides chances for employment units to lower salaries and to raise the production force of college graduates at work. Hence, the “high-class consumption of talents” cannot be avoided.

3.1.2 The shunt and reform of enterprises reduces the post demands

With the deepening of reform and the shunt of enterprises, to increase benefits by reducing employee numbers is still a necessary road for the development of many enterprises. In order to speed up the shunt of economy system and the transformation of the economy increase mode, many enterprises reduce employee number so as to increase benefits. Meanwhile, they need talents with work experience. Hence, their demands on the fresh college graduates decrease. Because of the implementation of the new labor contract law at the beginning of 2008, many enterprises, out of consideration of costs, tend to use less employees and to employ those with high makings, which hardens the situation of the employment of fresh college graduates.

3.2 The causes from graduates

3.2.1 The common high expectation on employment

Although the employment situation is rather severe, many graduates still lay high expectation on job-finding. Many college students still favor to work at big cities and coastal developed areas. They pursue hot occupations and expect high incomes and good welfare, such as stable units, governments’ organs, large-sized multinational enterprises, joint equity enterprises, and state owned enterprises. On the other hand, they do not care about industries with general incomes, middle and small sized enterprises which are in urgent need of talents, and areas of poor economy developments. The misappropriate performance of college graduates pricks up the hardship of college graduates to certain extent.

3.2.2 The comprehensive makings of college graduates cannot meet the demands of employment units

In the labor market, generally, employment units will take the comprehensive makings of graduates as the main reference to decide whether to employ such graduates. The employment units put forward higher requirements on the devotion spirit, occupation morality and teamwork spirit of college graduates. Some employment units keep a close eye on those graduates who have good comprehensive makings, are good at practicing and have special strong points. However, at present, many students lack personal feature and are poor at practicing, wrong at employment attitude, are weak in innovation awareness, and are poor at with depth of specialty knowledge; especially, some lack good communication ability, cooperation capacity and hardworking spirit. Some students back out when knowing that the work requires employee to work at workshop. The result is that college graduates lack competition force and attraction.
force in labor market.

3.2.3 Lacking the analysis capacity on self-merits and employment information

Many graduates do not fix their development direction and design their professional life on the basis of careful analysis of their merits and defects. They do not know what jobs are suitable for them. At the same time, although they can obtain employment information through internet, friends relatives, and magazines, they lack analysis capacity on information. They lack understanding on that which place might have jobs suitable for them, the work environment, development future, salaries and welfare of the units they apply for. They do not know how to make choice and do not know how to obtain this job among so many competitors either.

4. Countermeasures for universities

4.1 To reasonably set up specialties according to social demands

One of the important functions of higher education is to serve the society, which is shown though timely meeting the society’s demands on talents of various levels and types. Facing the worldwide fierce talent competition, the economic globalization, the demands of market economy on talents of multi-levels, multi-functions and multi-specialties, universities should conduct reforms on teaching concept and specialty setting-up and should take social demand as a main standard to determine and evaluate the teaching effect. The discrepancies between specialty settings-up and social demands are once the weakness of universities. After several adjustments, this situation is changed. However, in the process of adjustment, the “following trend” phenomenon occurred. For some hot specialties, many universities started to open courses without further consideration, which resulted in the irrational specialty structures and the unbalancing of supply and demand and influenced the employment of graduates. Universities should, according to the demands of social and economical development, timely adjust specialty structure and course setting-up, constantly optimize the knowledge structure, capacity structure, making structure of students, adjust enrollment number and the standards of talent cultivation, and enhance discipline and specialty feature so as to fully enhance the cultivation quality.

Guilin Tourism School sets a good example for us. In order to meet the demands of the market on high-level and application talents, Guilin Tourism School emphasizes the construction of tourism management and hotel management, gives prominence to the distinct specialities, such as tourism craftworks and tourism art performance, develops 19 new specialities, such as tourism resource development and application, so as to make the specialty setting-up comply with the market demands. In the job fairs of 2005, the graduates from Guilin Tourism School became “hot cargo”. The employment units provide 3200 job posts for 1906 graduates. Since 1999, the one time employment rate of Guilin Tourism School exceeds 90% in 5 years. In 2004, the employment rate reaches 98.56%.

4.2 To set the talents cultivation modes of the new times

The employment competition nature of college students is the competition of the comprehensive makings of college students, whilst the degrees of the comprehensive makings of college students is to great extent under the influence of cultivation mode and teaching quality of universities and colleges. With regards to the unbalancing of the knowledge capacity structure of graduates that commonly exist in talent cultivation and the big gap between comprehensive makings and social demands, universities should in due time adjust the talent cultivation mode, and should change from emphasis on “the cultivation of theoretical talents” to the “cultivation of talents of solid knowledge foundation, wide knowledge scale, strong capacity, high makings, multiple type, applicable type, innovation type and international type, and shall stress the timely nature, front nature, application nature and international nature of the teaching contents so as to raise teaching quality. Universities shall emphasize to cultivate the sustainable development capacity of college students, the study capacity, decision-making capacity, innovation capacity, organization and coordinating capacity, communication and adaptation capacity, leadership capacity and express capacity of college students; shall open practice courses, standardize summer vacation social practice (as annual practice), and realize the “real practice” of communication and adaptation capacity, leadership capacity and express capacity of college students; shall at the same time, pay attention to the healthy psychological makings and the cultivation of occupation makings of college students, including strong will power, grand responsibility sense, good occupation morality as well as the personality of daring to compete, to innovate and to cooperate; what is more important, at present with the globalization of economy, the students should have global consciousness and be in possession of relevant capacity of international communication, competition and cooperation in order to face various challenges from the work and life in the future.

4.3 To enhance the guidance on the employment of graduates

Guidance on the employment is an indispensable general job for schools to help graduates to smoothly find jobs. At present, generally speaking, the guidance on the employment of schools still lack systematical, standard, and pertinent property. Because students cannot get more comprehensive and detailed help from schools, students can only find their ways in practices. They have to obtain information themselves and adjust targets and moods, which will cause students to embark on the wrong roads, and waster time and energy. Hence, officials of schools must pay high attention on the
guidance on the employment of graduates and lead to construct scientific employment guidance operation system that complies with the employment market system, help graduates to set up correct employment concept, explain employment policies to graduates, analyze employment situation, forecast employment foreground, give directions on job-finding skills and should do well the following jobs:

The first is to enhance the information service work of graduates. A key element for whether all graduates can find jobs is whether graduates can find sufficient demand information. For one hand, schools should reinforce their relation with enterprises and actively introduce the specialty features and making characteristics of their graduates; for another, the schools should enhance the construction of information network, open widely information channels and realize resources share. Through employment consultation and guidance given by expert teachers, employment information platform on the website of schools, and graduation information electronic board set up in eye catching site of schools, the schools can help to provide graduates with employment information.

The second is to strengthen the ideology education of college students and to help students to actively change their employment concepts. At present, the self-choice of employment is not equivalent to free choice. The choice of employment of graduates must be carried out within the scale as stipulated by relevant state employment policies. Therefore, universities should, for one hand, continue to strengthen the ideology education on the employment, job choice, and starting business of college students, help them to clarify their understandings, to set up correct world view, life view, value view, job choice view and occupation morality view, and to construct reasonable value tropism, advocate the hardworking spirit, help them to combine personal wishes with the state needs and employment reality, direct them to consciously abide by social demands and to actively change their employment concepts and to choose to be employed through multi-channels; for another hand, universities should help to persuade college students to lower employment expectation, to discard traditional employment concepts, to set up the concept of “be employed and then choose jobs” so as to change the commonly existing phenomenon in the process of job-finding, “prefer the east to the west” and “prefer the high salary to the lower salary”.

The third is to enhance education on business-starting to encourage students to start careers themselves. Universities should pay emphasize on the cultivation of the business-starting awareness, career-starting capacity and career-starting personality of students, encourage students to innovate and to achieve success at the posts where they could exert their capacities and specialties and to take career-starting as one of occupation choices. College graduates can not only create employment opportunities for themselves, but also provide the society with more employment chances. This is a new way for the full employment of graduates, which will, to great extent, be beneficial for resolving the hardship of the employment of college students.

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Zhang, Qingliang. (2005). Research on the marketing of the employment market of college graduates. Finance and Trade Research. 2005: lnternational knowledge, international communication and competition and cooperation in order to lay solid foundation for meeting various challenges in the future work and life.
Table 1. The Statistics Data of the Employment of College Students in the Past a Few Years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of College Graduates (thousand)</th>
<th>Compared to the previous year, increased by(thousand)</th>
<th>Increased by(percent age)</th>
<th>Number of college graduates employed(thousand)</th>
<th>Number of college graduates unemployed (thousand)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>1450</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>1015</td>
<td>435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>2120</td>
<td>670</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>1484</td>
<td>636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2800</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>2044</td>
<td>756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>3380</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>2143</td>
<td>793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>4130</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>2970</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>4950</td>
<td>820</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>3510</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data source: calculated according to the statistics papers published by the Ministry of Education in corresponding years. The number of college graduates employed and the number of college graduates unemployed are calculated according to the employment rate of September.

Table 2. The Gab between the Expected Incomes of College Graduates and That Offered by the Employment Units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expected Incomes of College Graduates</th>
<th>RMB1500-3000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Offered by Employment Units</td>
<td>67%；offer RMB1000-2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offered by Employment Units</td>
<td>26%；offer below RMB1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offered by Employment Units</td>
<td>7%；offer above RMB2000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. The Percentage of the Natures of the Investigated Enterprises
Figure 2. The Gap between the Makings and Capacities of College Graduates and Those Required by Employment Units

Figure 3. The Channels for Graduates to Find Jobs
Analyzing the Causes of the Dissolution of the Former Yugoslav Federation from the Perspective of Ethnicity Relations

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Abstract
The split and continual civil war of Yugoslav, which once caused deep concern by the international community, has its complex specific reasons. But for a long time, the tense relations among the ethnic groups are the underlying factors that caused the disintegration of Yugoslav. The harmonious ethnicity relations will promote national prosperity. Otherwise, it will accelerate its demise. Some Chinese experts and scholars have begun to ponder over the development and the future of Chinese socialism. They are aware of the significance to constitute a reasonable ethnic policy to deal with ethnicity relations. This paper tries to give a systematic analysis of the breakup of the former Yugoslav Federation from the perspective of ethnicity relations. And it also tries to get something of inspiration.

Keywords: ethnicity relation, disintegration of the former Yugoslavia, reason, inspiration

1. Introduction
Every ethnic group of human society has a long and complex process of growth. Once an ethnic group forms, it has become a force in the local social life that cannot be overlooked. Due to the numerous migrations in history, majorities of the countries are multiethnic. How to treat the structural differences (such as population, occupation, industry, income, education, etc.) and cultural differences among the ethic groups, how to protect and safeguard the legal statuses and fundamental rights of all ethnic groups to achieve the equality in practice and how to constitute the corresponding ethnic policy according to the facts of the country, are the important prerequisite and core issue resulting in the good interethnic relations. If a country has a harmonious relations of ethnic groups, it can enhance the cohesiveness of all citizens continuously by the positive internal integration, thereby reducing the costs of social operation and management, improving the efficiency of social organizations and economic entities, and achieving economic prosperity. In the society where politics, economy and culture develop in healthy and comprehensive way, all ethnic groups will share the fruit produced by the economic development and the powerful country. Although all the ethnic groups cannot be achieved absolute equality in the distribution of the various interests, in a certain sense, they are all winners in the process of the game. If a state can not handle the internal relations of ethnic groups properly, the vicious internal conflicts will further lead to an increased centrifugal force, and the increased social cost for the maintenance of the social order, financial, human and material resources, which will raise the government expenditure and the people’s tax burden. If contradictions among ethnic groups deteriorate into open political conflicts and separatist movements, they will make the entire community collapse, leading to civil war and foreign invasion. Thus the state will be weakened sharply or divided into parts. While in chaos or in a war, the economic base and various facilities will be destroyed. Therefore, all ethnic groups in the country will suffer a political division and economic decline. As a result, in this process, we can say that all the ethnic groups in the country are ultimately LOSERS. (Rong, Ma.2004.). The disintegration of the former Yugoslav Federation is the result of the deterioration of relations among the ethnic groups.

1.1 The historical factors foreshadow the evolution of the subsequent ethnicity relations in Yugoslavia.
Slavs is one of the three major tribes in Europe and originally it distributed in the east to the Vistula rive, north to the Carpathian Mountains, west to the Dnieper River, and in the vast area to the south of the Baltic Sea. During 6 to 7 AD, some Slavs moved to the south. They crossed Carpathian, arrived at the vicinity of the Danube basin and the Balkans, and settled down there. They were the South Slavs and gradually divided into nations of Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia and Macedonia. Since the 4th century, the national states such as Croatia, Serbia, Slovenia and Macedonia have formed. But it was not too long before this region was forced to be ruled by foreign ethnic group. Serbia in the 10th century was subjected to Byzantine Empire. And in the 11th century it became the Kingdom of Serbia. But in the second half of the 14th century, the Ottoman Empire conquered Serbia, and swallowed Bosnia-Herzegovina and parts of Montenegro and Macedonia. Since then, the Ottoman Empire had ruled it for nearly five centuries. Slovenia and Croatia were under the
rule of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Since war of Russia and Turkey (828-1829), Serbia had become autonomous principality in the sovereignty of Turkey and under the protection of Russia. Serbia won independence in 1879 and became the Kingdom in 1882. From 1912 to 1913, Serbia participated in the Balkans war and doubled its size of the territory. After World War I, Austro-Hungarian Empire was disintegrated. Slovenia and Croatia demanded the merger with the winners of the Kingdom of Serbia and Montenegro Kingdom to form a country of the southern Slavs. In 1918, Serbia merged into Montenegro. On December 1 of the same year, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia, Herzegovina merged into Serbia. Serbia-Croatia-Slovenia Kingdom was set up. Kala jiao became the king. In January 1929, King Alexander I changed the country’s name to the Kingdom of Yugoslavia. This is the first historical Yugoslavia. During World War II, Germany, Italy and other fascist troops invaded Yugoslavia. The Yugoslav people of all nationalities in the South, led by the Yugoslavia Communist Party with Josip Broz Tito as the leader, had four years of hard and bitter struggles and on May 15, 1945 liberated the whole country. On November 29 of the same year the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia was established. In 1974 it was renamed the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.

The newly born Yugoslav Federation had roughly the same territory as that of the previous World War II, in addition to the increased northwest Leah Peninsula. It stood with Italy to the northwest, Austria and Hungary to the north, Romania and Bulgaria to the east, Greece and Albania to the south. The Adriatic Sea was to its west. The total area was 255,800 square km. It was composed by the six Republics of Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Montenegro and Macedonia, in addition to the Vojvodina and Kosovo autonomous provinces, which belonged to the Republic of Serbia.

By the time of the disintegration, the former Yugoslav Federation had a population of nearly 24 million. Serbs accounted for 36.3%; Croat 19.8%, Slovenian 7.8%, Macedonian 6%, Muslim 8.9%, Albanian 7.7%, Yugoslav 5.4% and Hungarian 1.9%. Belgrade, the capital, had a population of 1.5 million.

1.2 The complex relations of the various ethnic groups resulting in numerous conflicts make Yugoslavia in political unrest.

The increasing acute contradictions among ethnic groups are the major factors leading to the disintegration of Yugoslavia. Although the majorities of Yugoslav are all Slavs branches, in the long process of development, different clan groups came into being. In history, these peoples were under the rule of the neighboring countries and in a fragmented state for many times. So there appeared a geographical distribution of a large mixed settlement or small clusters. But the internal strife had continued. As for the Yugoslav Federation, which set up after the Second World War, its six republics all set up as main ethnic components. But not a single nation had one nationality. Take Serbian of the largest population as an example, most of them dwelt in the Republic of Serbia. And there were 3 million people in Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina Republic. And the other nations also had the similar circumstances. In addition, the Yugoslav Federation after World War II had committed a series of mistakes in the national policy. Thus, the long-standing feuds among the various ethnic groups burst forth in the late 1980s and early 1990s when the international climate and ethnic separatism swept over the former Soviet Union and the Eastern Europe. The inherent cohesion in each ethnic group led to opposite choices concerning the independence or unification of all the republics. Then armed conflicts broke out. The upgrade accelerated the process of the dissolution of the Yugoslav Federation. Among all the ethnic conflicts of the former Yugoslav, the followings are the most acute.

1.2.1 Conflicts between Serbians and Croatians

Croatia has 600,000 Serbs, accounting for 12 percent of the population of the Croatia republic. Their inhabited area was almost a quarter of the republic territory. During World War II, the puppet of the Republic of Croatia supported by the Nazis massacred numerous Serbs, causing hostility between the two nations. After the 1990’s election, when leaders of Croatia wanted to break away from Yugoslavia to be independent, the local Serbs were worried that the tragedy in World War II would recur. So in early 1991, they announced the establishment of Krajina Serb Autonomous Region. It broke away from Croatia and became part of Serbia and the Federal Yugoslavia. This was supported by Serbia but rejected by Croatia. Then the conflicts broke out.

1.2.2 Conflicts between Serbians and the Bosnian Muslims

In the 1970s, the then Yugoslav leader wanted to weaken and restrict the biggest Republic of Serbia, so listed the Serbs in Bosnia and Herzegovina who believed in Islam as a separate Muslims. So the Serbs of majorities of Bosnia and Herzegovina were divided into two nationalities by religion. Muslims, accounting for 40 percent of the total population became the largest nation while the Serbs only accounting for one third. The artificial division in accordance with religious belief was unique in the world. However it resulted in a unique ethnic contradiction in Bosnia. When Bosnian Muslims and Croatians took majority vote on breaking away for independence from Yugoslavia, Serbs revolted and occupied two thirds of Bosnia and Herzegovina supported by the former Yugoslavia army. On August 12, 1992, the Serbs in Bosnia and Herzegovina republic issued a declaration of setting up a new country of their own in Bosnia and Herzegovina. It was the Republic of Serbia with the National Flag of tricolors, red, blue and white. As large as Republic of Serbia, it included all the places in Bosnia that the Serbs lived in and the place where Muslims and Croats implemented genocide during World War II. The decision of Serbs caused the further upgrade of the conflicts in Bosnia
Yugoslavia held its 14th General Assembly. Due to the different opinions, the representatives of Slovenia announced their withdrawal from the General Assembly and triggered a chain reaction. The General Assembly got into indefinite adjournment. After that, all the republics and autonomous provinces renamed their states. Thus League of Communists of Yugoslavia was the first to get rid of the Soviet model within the socialist camp and form a socialist country with its own characteristics. Contrary to the former Soviet Union, which ignored the uniqueness of every nationality, Yugoslavia went to another extreme by excessively emphasizing it. Too much emphasis on the personality of a nationality undermined the authority of the State authority, foreshadowing the hidden trouble of the disintegration of the country.

Yugoslavia in the 1960s conducted a universal discussion entitled “Are You a Yugoslav?” The result, of the discussion was that: Yugoslavia only existed in the eyes of the foreign countries. Within the country, every person belonged to a specific nationality. So the federal powers were decentralized continually to each republic and autonomous province. By 1974 when the Constitution was passed, federal authority almost had no power left. Even cadres of federal agencies were appointed or selected by the republics or autonomous provinces. And the national decision-making should be determined by consensus of the republics and autonomous provinces. As a matter of fact, every republic or autonomous province had the right of veto. Many important issues could be discussed without any results or could be decided with no implementation. The internal power of Yugoslav Communist Party was decentralized. From 1969, the Ninth General Assembly of the League of Communist of Yugoslavia, members of the leading body had not been elected by the National People's Congress any longer, but by the General Assembly on behalf of the republics and the autonomous provinces at the allocated names and got endorsed by the General Assembly. It is difficult for the leading organizations of the Party Central Committee to form a strong core. All these foreshadowed a huge hidden danger of system for the disintegration.

Tito died in 1980. Many questions originally covered now came to the surface and gradually evolved into crises. In 1986, League of Communists of Yugoslavia carried out a fierce internal debate on the country’s political system. It focused on the power problems of the Federal government and the republics. But a big difference appeared and any consensus was not reached. In later years, as the international climate changed and the domestic economic crisis deepened, the disintegration of the country was becoming evident. In January 1990, League of Communists of Yugoslavia held its 14th General Assembly. Due to the different opinions, the representatives of Slovenia announced their withdrawal from the General Assembly and triggered a chain reaction. The General Assembly got into halfway indefinite adjournment. After that, all the republics and autonomous provinces renamed their states. Thus League of Communists of Yugoslavia with 70 years of history disappeared. Political parties continued to emerge. From April to December of 1990, there had appeared some 300 political parties in the republics for only eight months. Extreme nationalism overrun. Bloody conflicts at a small-scale occurred repeatedly. All these finally triggered the overall war. The Bosnian war claimed more than 20 million lives and more than 2 million people became refugees and the economic loss was more than 100 billion US dollars. However, if the loss of material property could be compensated, the spiritual wound cannot be healed. It is unprecedented difficult or impossible to reestablish the once harmonious ethnicity relations in the history of Yugoslavia.

1.3 The ethnic policies and system arrangements by the former Yugoslav leaders did not regulate ethnicity relations and ease the contradictions. On the contrary, they aggravated the tense situation in Yugoslavia.

League of Communists of Yugoslavia was the first to get rid of the Soviet model within the socialist camp and form a socialist country with its own characteristics. Contrary to the former Soviet Union, which ignored the uniqueness of every nationality, Yugoslavia went to another extreme by excessively emphasizing it. Too much emphasis on the personality of a nationality undermined the authority of the State authority, foreshadowing the hidden trouble of the disintegration of the country.

1.4 The imbalance and downturn in economic development of the post-war republics, to a large extent, further deteriorated the ethnicity relations and deepened the contradictions. So the political situations were more volatile.

After World War II, from 1950s to the middle of 1970s, Yugoslav’s economy developed faster. But there was a hidden danger, that is, the imbalance in regional economic growth. Croatia and Slovenia relatively, especially Slovenia, developed faster. Their population accounted for 27.6 percent of the total former Yugoslavia, and covered 30 percent of the total land, but social output value accounts for 42.1 per cent and exports 46.3 percent of the whole Yugoslavia. So
there was a big gap of income between the two countries and the less developed regions of Yugoslavia (such as the autonomous province of Kosovo of Serbia Republic, Montenegro Republic, the Republic of Macedonia, and Bosnia and Herzegovina Republic). For example, provided Yugoslav per capita social value index is 100 in 1989, Slovenia will be 203, Croatia 128, and the last on the top Kosovo only 23. The gap ratio of Slovenia and Kosovo will be 8.8 to 1. In 1991 the per capita GNP of Slovenia was 12520 US dollars, Croatia 7110 US dollars, Serbia 4950 US dollars, Macedonia 3330 US dollars, while Montenegro and Bosnia-Herzegovina and other backward areas were less than 3000 US dollars.

Because the former Yugoslavia prescribed that all the republics and the autonomous provinces must provide funds for the underdeveloped regions (A certain percentage deduction was drawn from the salary of each employee monthly), year after year, Croatia and Slovenia thought it was other republics that hindered their economic development. And it was uneconomical to stay in the Yugoslav Federation. Therefore they were the first to declare independence. In addition, Yugoslavia had a long-term decline in economy since the mid-1970s. 1990’s GDP was back to that of 1979. Inflation became increasingly serious. The unemployment rate was leaping. All these exacerbated the political turbulence.

1.5 The powerful external interference, the incited social conflicts, religious and ethnic conflicts, and the explosive ethnic hatred aggravated the tense situation of Yugoslavia.

Although the disintegration of the Yugoslav Federation mainly resulted from the domestic political, ideological, socio-economic and ethnic contradictions in the history, the involvement of external factors also played a big role.

In recent years, the Western countries had implemented a strategy against Yugoslavia: disintegrating Yugoslavia after Tito. In order to achieve this strategic goal, for a long time, the Western countries did the utmost to publicize the threats. They said the threats Yugoslavia had confronted were from the East, from the Soviet Union and the military interference of Warsaw Pact. At the same time, they tried every means to incite the social, religious and ethnic conflicts. In particular, after Yugoslavia implemented a multiparty system in 1990, a complicated situation of “one country, three systems” provided an opportunity for foreign interference. The Western media vigorously publicized the new regime of Slovenia and Croatia to be a “young democratic regime”, while derogated Serbia to be “the last bastion of Bolshevism in Europe”. Slovenia and Croatia were under the reign of the Austro-Hungarian Empire for nearly two centuries and the two countries had a far-reaching historical origin with Germany, Austria and Hungary. So Germany, Austria and Hungary fully supported their independence and succeeded in expanding their land in Kosovo, Slovenia and Croatia by the excuses of the nationalists calling for independence. They also provided Slovakia and Croatia claiming for independence with large quantities of weapons, fund, materials and other assistance. All of these pricked up the tension in Yugoslavia to a large extent, and eventually caused the disintegration of the Yugoslav Federation.

2. Concluding remarks

The disintegration of former Yugoslavia, its successor of the new Yugoslavia, and the Serbia-Bosnia-Herzegovina gives us a most important revelation. In the first place, a country must have a strong nationality as a principal part. In China we must establish a philosophy that it is glorious to be a member of Han nationality. We must pay more attention to the public opinion of Han nationality, set up a sound democratic system and cultivate most people’s consciousness of the master of the country. Second, there was an old concept, which was considered to be quite right for a long time. All nationalities are brothers. China is a large family with all nationalities living together. All the ethnic groups should get an equitable development. Han chauvinism should be fought against and minorities be fostered. I think, the concept and practice will only weaken the strength of Han nationality, and destroy its self-esteem, self-confident. self-love and self-improvement, deepen the ethnic hostile to Han, and enhance the sense and ethnic forces of the minorities. The consequence will step into the shoes of the former Yugoslavia and the new Yugoslavia.

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Gender Disparities in Secondary Education in Bangladesh

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Abstract
Enrolment and success rates are very crucial for any educational system in the world but they are more important for the developing countries like Bangladesh. Gender differences in enrolment and success rates are also emerging issues. This study investigated the enrolment and success rate’s status in secondary educational system of Bangladesh along with internal efficiency rates involving completion rate, retention or survival rate, dropout rate and gender parity index. Some tests of hypotheses of homogeneity were also conducted. Among the findings higher female enrolment rate, lower female success rate, higher male completion rate, survival rate and higher female dropout rate were perceived along with different location, types of schools variations. Some policy implications were suggested with acknowledgement of some flaws in the female stipend Program in Bangladesh.

Keywords: Gender disparity, Enrolment rate, Success rate, Secondary Education, Bangladesh

1. Introduction
Bangladesh is one of the least developed countries of the world. It terms of human development index it ranks 137 among 177 countries (UNDP, 2006). But it has made notable progress in the education sector in the last two decades. A significant increase in enrolment rates in primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education has been perceived. Apart from the increase in enrolment rates, an important aspect of the recent growth in enrolment is the closure of the gender-gap in primary and secondary enrolment. The gender-gap was much wider even a decade ago. A small fraction of girl students completing primary education used to continue up to secondary education and the dropout rates for the girls was very higher than their male counterparts. However, remarkable progress is noticed in respect of female participation, continuation and reduction in dropout rates. Such progress in female participation in secondary education is mainly attributed to female-stipend Programs in rural areas of Bangladesh. Under this Program, all female students from grade 6 to 10 receive monthly stipends for their school participation. In addition to stipend money, school fees for female students are paid by the government to the respective schools. In order to achieve Millennium Development Goals, the government of Bangladesh has implemented food for education Program at the primary level and female stipend Program at the secondary level of education. Implementation of these Programs would therefore result in the elimination of gender disparities in the primary and secondary education as called for by the Millennium Development Goals.

Bangladesh has also made considerable progress in expanding educational facilities in the country. In the last two decades, the number of secondary schools has increased by two times. Along with the expansion of physical facilities, the availability of teachers has also improved. Ensuring adequate availability of educational facilities is necessary but not sufficient for enrolment, completion, survival and reduction of dropout in the secondary level education. The facilities must be accessible to the poor and females. This means that the facilities must be affordable for everyone without social and gender discriminations.

2. Data and Methodology

2.1 Data Source
The data originated from two different sources, firstly, national level data from Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics (BANBEIS) and Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) and secondly, a sample survey conducted for “A Study of Secondary Education in Bangladesh and West Bengal” sponsored by The South Asian
Network of Economic Research Institutes (SANEI). They surveyed a total of 104 secondary schools (High Schools) spread over Bangladesh. From each school, teachers, a sample of 10 students studying in grades 9 and 10 and a sample of 5 students who passed SSC examination in 2003 were also interviewed. The list of schools under the seven Secondary and Higher Secondary Education Boards was the universe. The sample data comprises of 485 SSC passed students across 8 Govt. high schools, 4 Cadet colleges, 82 Private but govt. aided and 4 Private but not govt. aided and 6 Private but Specially endowed schools.

2.2 Tools of Data Analysis

- **Completion Rate**: The completion rate is defined as the percentage of a cohort of pupil who enrolled in grade 6 of secondary education in a specific grade who could not reach the next grade in the next academic year and left school before holding annual examination.

- **Survival Rate**: The survival rate is defined as the percentage of a cohort of pupils who enrolled in the Grade 6 of Secondary education in a given-year and who eventually reach Grade 10. Its purpose is to measure the "holding power" and internal efficiency of an education system at secondary level. In other words, it implies that the proportion of a pupil cohort that Completes Grade 9 and reaches Grade 10. It also indicates the magnitude of dropout before Grade 10. The survival rate approaching 100 percent signifies a high overall level of efficiency, while less than 100 percent indicates inefficiency due to grade repetition and drop-out. The survival rate may be also defined as the share of grade 10 enrolments in the total enrolment in each area or school. But it does not reflect the pattern of flow of students over a period; it serves only as an index of rates of survival in the school system over the period.

- **Dropout Rate**: The dropout rate is defined as the percentage of a cohort of pupils who enrolled in a specific grade but couldn’t reach the next grade in next academic year. In the present context the difference in enrolment at the time of admission in February and at the time of annual examination in December was collected to estimate the dropout rates during one academic year.

- **Gender Parity Index (GPI)**: GPI is the ratio of female to male enrolment rates. When the enrolment gender parity index (GPI) for enrolment shows a value equal to 1, female enrolment and male enrolment rates are equal. A value less than 1 indicates that proportionately less female than male have enrolled.

- **Test of Homogeneity of Two Factors**: The test statistic: \[ \chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{c} \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}, \] where \( O \) represents the observed frequencies and \( E \) represents the expected frequencies.

- **Test of Homogeneity of more than Two Factors**: We applied the analysis of variance to test the homogeneity of their achievements. The test statistic used was

\[ F = \frac{\text{Between mean square}}{\text{Within mean square}} \]

which if \( H_0 \) is true, has an \( F \)-distribution with \( \gamma_1 = k-1, \gamma_2 = n-k \) degrees of freedom. The critical region is \( F > F_{0.05}(c-1, n-c) \)

3. Gender Disparity in Enrolment and Success Rates

We are going to discuss the scenario of gender disparity with respect to enrolment rates and success rates in secondary educational system in Bangladesh.

3.1 Enrolment Rate: National level

Enrolment rate is very important determinant of educational achievement of a country. According the Nath et al. (1999) the current school enrolment appeared to be the main predictor of basic education in Bangladesh while Raynor (2005) finds girls in Bangladesh are enrolling in a higher rate than the boys. So, a good discussion on enrolment status of Bangladesh should be addressed.

Gross enrolment rate at the secondary level of education is showing an increasing trend and the growth for female enrolment rate is higher than the male children. It was 57.46 percent for male and 42.54 percent for female in 1999. But the enrolment rate for male decreased to 51.52 percent, which for female it increased to 48.48 percent in 2003 (Table 1). The gender gap in enrolment rate has been gradually reducing. This is because each female student from grades 6 to 10 gets stipend from the government and other donor agencies. Government also provides tuition fees to the school for each female student. As a result of female stipend Program at the secondary school in rural areas, enrolment has steadily gained ground and enrolment rate for female is increasing gradually. But it has been found that many parents give priority to arrange marriage for their daughters instead of completing of secondary level education and this is reckoned as one of the main causes of dropout of female students.
The estimated value of gender parity index (GPI) is less than 1 but it increases from 0.7403 in 1999 to 0.9410 in 2003. When the gender parity index (GPI) for enrolment shows a value equal to 1, female and male enrolment rates are equal. A value less than 1 indicates that proportionately less female than male have enrolled. However, GPI gradually approaching towards 1 indicating that gender disparity in enrolment is gradually reducing.

In a broad view, there has been a sharp increase in female enrollment in all phases of education in Bangladesh. Since independence Bangladesh has been achieving tremendous progress in female education though female education has not yet reached its goal of educating every single female in this country under the slogan “Education for all”. From primary level to tertiary or above level female education has received greater public concern and became one of the burning issues accomplishing the task of educational progress among women in Bangladesh reducing the gender disparities. Not only in enrollment of female students but also the dramatic increase in the number of female educational institution and female teachers show us the evidence that government policy regarding the progress in female education is approaching its goal very slowly. Table 2 below shows us the enrollment of students in secondary schools from 1981-2002 (data of previous years were not available in any publication available in BANBEIS (note 1) at the time of data collection). In this table we can see that the enrollment percentage of females in secondary schools has shown a tremendous increase over these years and reached 52.8 % in 2002 from 27.02 % in 1981.

Though we have already had a data view and we understood how tremendously accelerated is female enrolment in comparison with their male counterparts, yet we are going to set a trend from the data which will say for itself about the almost monotonic increasing trend of percentages of female enrollment and almost monotonic decreasing trend of percentages of male enrollment over the years 1981-2002 at secondary level of education in Bangladesh. From figure 1 we can perceive the trends for males and females. The tremendous progress of female enrolment is to be noted compared to the diminishing trend of male enrolments.

The values of Gender Parity Index (GPI) shown in Table 2 indicate the increasing trend of female enrolment also. The values of GPI from the year 1981 to 1997 show increasing female enrolment over those years yet with male dominance. In those years female enrolment was much less than male enrolment. It is from 1998 when female enrolment exceeded male enrolment and till 2002 it is a dominating scenario of female enrolment.

3.2 Success Rate: National Level

Let’s have a look on the present secondary educational success rate among the students, which may provide us an insight into the secondary educational realm. Figure 3 shows the Secondary School Certificate (S. S. C.) examination results of the whole country since independence to 2003 that is from 1972 to 2003, which has a trend of ups and downs with the highest pick at 1972 (82.54 %) and the lowest one at 1990 (31.13 %). In recent days that is from 1995 till 2003 the trend shows an almost decreasing pattern which actually indicates a downward rate of success of students at SSC level. Especially it seems that students in far previous years have shown to achieve better success at SSC level than the students of present days.

In Figure 2 we can see the results of Secondary School Certificate examination from 1990 to 2003 decomposed with respect to sex. If we set a trend line through the data then we may discover the idea that female success in SSC examination is totally reverse in comparison to their enrollment status. The result over the years 1990-2003 shows us the ups and downs in the trend and specially the almost decreasing trend part of female success from 1995 whereas their male counterparts had a almost increasing trend regarding success in passing SSC examination. Neither the data nor the data source states the reasons behind this trend yet we are to discover the determinations of this huge gender disparity existing in the present secondary educational level of Bangladesh.

We can very easily observe that female students are enrolling at a higher rate than the male students yet they don’t do better in final SSC examination. Some critics state this situation this way that female enrollment has increased a lot but the comparative result in SSC examination with respect to males has decreased because female students get enrolled to enjoy the female stipend Program. Even though Raynor (2005) and Raynor and Wessen (2006) talks about the advantages of the stipend Program yet with the help of corrupted clerks female students take the advantage of female stipend Program. Though there has been three distinct undertakings to be signed before taking the stipend like student must get at least 40 % marks in all exams, student must have at least 75 % class attendance and she must not marry till grade 10, yet they find a way in between without fulfilling the rules with the help of those corrupted clerks. This is why the result of female students are getting worse day by day though they consume a stipend which, of course, the male students are being deprived of.

3.3 Enrolment Rate: Sample Schools

To shed light on the factors affecting student enrolment let us perceive the facts inside the data.

- Trends in Enrolment in the 104 Sample Schools by Locations and Type of Schools

In this study the country has been divided in to four distinct areas namely Metropolitan, Municipality, Semi-urban and
Rural areas. Let’s have distinctive discussion on each of these areas regarding enrolment. Summing up all the locations
the trend in per school enrolment by location is given in Figure 4. It is observed that there exist wide location variations
in enrolment per school and proportion of female students to total enrolment. The enrolment per school was the highest
in metropolitan area and lowest in rural area.

If we look at different location segments the higher rates of enrolments were observed in the metropolitan area, while
the lower rates of enrolments were found to be in rural areas. In 1998 of the total enrolment 50.6 percent was male and
the rest 49.4 percent was female. In 2000 the enrolment of female was 54 percent of the total enrolment. In 2003 the
proportion of female students further increased to 56 percent. The value of gender parity index (GPI) of enrolment rate
is greater than 1 which indicates that proportionately higher female have enrolled in metropolitan area in 2003. The
gender parity index increased from 0.98 in 1998 to 1.2 in 2000 and to 1.3 in 2003. In Municipality area, the shares of
female enrolment were 72 percent in 1998, 73 percent in 2000 and 69 percent in 2003, which shows a marginal decline
in share of female students in 2003. Higher percentage of female enrolment was mainly due to selection of more than 50
percent girl’s school in the sample. Moreover, 4 schools were selected from co-education system. Nevertheless, the
value of gender parity index in the sample schools is decreasing gradually which means that female enrolment is
reducing over the period in municipality areas. In Semi-Urban area the share of female students in enrolment increased
from 61 percent in 1998 to 67 percent 2000 and then 69 percent in 2003. In Semi-Urban area, the selection of sample
schools was biased towards girls’ school, which resulted in higher share of female enrolments. In rural area the share of
female students was 54 percent in 1998, 57 percent in 2000 and 59 percent in 2003 while this figure for male was 46
percent, 43 percent and 41 percent respectively. A noticeable feature is that there were wide differences in the
participation rates of male and female. The main reason for these wide differences in the participation rates between
male of female was implementation of female stipend Program along with tuition fee waiver particularly in rural areas.
As a result, the proportion of female students increased from 54 percent in 1998 to 57 percent in 2000 and then to 59
percent in 2003. The value of the gender parity index for female enrolment rate was also greater than 1 in rural area.

Trend in per school enrolment by location.

In all types of schools there has been a clear increasing trend in enrolment per school between 1998 and 2003. Sample
comprised of 200 students of Cadet College, 1384 students of Govt. high school, 1460 students of Private (NGA)
schools and 1170 students of Special Endowed School (SES). But the increase in enrolment in Govt. high school and
Cadet College is not significant as there is no scope to increase the class size; while in other private schools there is no
such limitation. But increase in enrolment per school was moderate and the private but govt. aided school illustrated
first upward trend up to 2001 then it registered a downward trend. The private but not govt. aided and specially
endowed schools showed clear and moderate increase in enrolment per school over the period. Trend in per school
enrolment by type is shown in Figure 5.

It has been seen that the enrolment sample govt. high schools is gradually increasing the growth rate for male students
per annum was 1.2 percent between 1998 and 2003, while this figure for female students was 2.2 percent and the
difference in growth rate between and female has persisted during the period under review. The female enrolment as
percentage to total enrolment was found to be 41 percent in 1998, 37 percent in 2000 and 36 percent in 2003. The value
of gender parity is less than 1 implies that proportionately fewer female than male enrolled in government high school.
In sample cadet colleges there were 808 students in 1998, 832 in 2000 and 848 in 2003 and the corresponding
enrolment per college was 202, 208 and 212 respectively. Actually, it is not wise to make any attempt to measure trend
in enrolment in cadet colleges, as there is no scope for expansion of class size. In sample private but govt. aided schools
enrolment for female as percentage of total enrolment shows a slight improvement between 1998 and 2003 and it
increased from 58 percent in 1998 to 61 percent in 2000 and 62 percent in 2003. The enrolment in sample private but
not govt. aided schools has been increasing steadily and it has become more than double in 2003 compared to 1998.
The annual growth rate of enrolment, over the period was estimated at about 28 percent. The share of female enrolment
to total enrolment was 69 percent in 1998, 75 percent in 2000 and 71 percent in 2003. The main reason for higher
percentage of female students was that out of 4 sample schools 2 were exclusively for girls and 2 were co-education
system. In sample specially endowed schools more than 80 percent of the students were female because 2 girls and 4
under co-education system schools were in the sample. More precisely, it was 84 percent in 1998 as well as in 2000 and
82 percent in 2003.

3.4 Success Rate: Sample Schools

- Distribution of SSC Passed Students by Locations and Types of Schools

The data in Table 8 reveals that the highest number of students who secured “A”“ belongs to municipality area though
the respective number of metropolitan area is almost near and rural areas are places to third in that rank. Yet we feel despaired
by having a look at the semi-urban area where no one got the highest grade. Among the other grades it has been
observed that result of the students of municipality area dominates over the rest of the areas except for the grade “A”
and “C” where metropolitan and rural areas owns the highest number respectively. That means students of metropolitan
and municipality areas do well in SSC exam usually. We also have tested whether result varies with location significantly which is given below

- Test for Homogeneity of Locations

Table 3 contains the scores obtained by students in four locations of SSC passed students. The hypothesis corresponding to the problem that the locations are equal in achievement has the calculated value of $F = 751.79$ which falls in the critical region, we can reject the null hypothesis of equality of the means. Hence, the data provide sufficient evidence to indicate that the locations differ with respect to their achievement, which means result of students, varies with locations.

From Table 4 we observe that students of Cadet Colleges undoubtedly obtained the maximum number of “A+” though data were collected only on 200 students of Cadet College as compared to 1384 students of Govt. high school, 1460 students of Private (NGA) schools and 1170 students of Special Endowed School. It actually proves the credit of Cadet Colleges to build students to secured excellent results. Among other institutions we observe that Govt. High schools and Special Endowed Schools are doing very well to create students do well in SSC exam.

Again we tested the homogeneity of school types which is attached below

- Test for Homogeneity of School Types

Table 4 contains the scores obtained by students in five types of schools of SSC passed students. The hypothesis corresponding to the problem that the types of schools are equal in achievement has the calculated value of $F = 7890.12$ which falls in the critical region, we can reject the null hypothesis. The data provide sufficient evidence to indicate that their achievement differ with respect to the types of schools, which also means that school type is a factor affecting result of students.

4. Gender Disparity

Asadullah, M, N. and Chaudhury, N (2006) mentioned that the gender disparity in education in Bangladesh has different dimension along with career path for females which, to a certain extent, linked with social, religious and economic values of Bangladesh while Raynor (2005) focuses on the attitudes of people of Bangladesh about the female education which is to blame for the gender disparity in education in Bangladesh. Whereas Chowdhury et al. (2002) finds that gender differences disappeared from enrolment at primary level. Maitra(2003) also asserts “…there is no gender differential in the probability of current school enrolment of children aged 6-12, girls have a significantly higher probability of continuing in school relative to boys”. Even though our study investigated secondary education but we are going to express different opinion about the gender disparity in educational system of Bangladesh.

4.1 Internal Efficiency Rates: National level

Khandker (1996) examined school efficiency and perceived different attainment, failure and dropout rates for males and females but with low disparity. He also found that lower dropout rate for girls contrasts sharply with the household-level analysis.

In our case, the internal efficiency rate at the secondary level of education have been examined by estimating three important components of efficiency such as completion rate, dropout rate and survival rate of students by sex. The higher value of completion rate and survival rate signifies a higher level of efficiency, while higher value of dropout rate implies lower level of efficiency and higher social cost of education. Table 5 shows the internal efficiency by sex.

It reveals from the Table 5 that completion rate for female students is significantly lower than the male students and showing a decreasing trend between 1999 and 2003, while the dropout rate for females is much more higher than males. A decreasing trend is also noticed in respect of survival rate and coefficient of efficiency. It is worth mentioning that in spite of implementing female stipend Program in secondary education, the completion and survival rates for female are not encouraging. Only 14 % female of a cohort of pupil who enrolled in grade 6 and who actually completed secondary education and reached grade 10 in 2003 which is low compared to the 20% male students. However, opposite scenario is observed in case of dropout rate where dropout rate is higher for female than the male students. There is a wide disparity between male and female in respect of completion rate, drop out rate and survival rate.

4.2 Internal Efficiency Rates: Sample Schools

- Survival Rates of Different Locations and Type of Schools by Sex

The survival rates are provided in the following two tables. We perceive that the notable feature is that in rural area the survival rate for female was much higher than that of male whereas in all areas except rural survival rate for male was higher than that of female. On the other hand, the highest (100%) survival rate was observed in metropolitan areas and it was the lowest (64%) in rural area.

The data on survival rate between 1998 and 2002 indicate the progressively diminishing survival of pupils in the system.
from grade 6 to grade 10 during the 4-year’s period.

The survival rate for male pupils in government high school is 100 percent, which indicates no wastage due to repetition and dropout, but for female this rate was about 87 percent in government high school, 100 percent in Cadet College and specially endowed schools. Relatively lower survival rates both for male and female pupils were deserved in private but government aided and private but not aided schools. Thus the economic efficiency and resource utilization were optimal in government high school, Cadet College and specially endowed schools.

The survival rate in the sample schools appears to be much higher than that of national rate estimated by the BANBEIS. It is also higher for female particularly in private high school in rural areas and this higher survival rate is mainly due to implementation of female stipend Program from grade 6 to grade 12.

- Dropout Rate by Locations and Types of Schools

One of the prime concerns of the policy makers is the high dropout rate in secondary schools. The estimated rate by location and type of school is shown in Table 8 and Table 9 respectively.

The dropouts who leave school within one-year were the highest (26%) for female students in rural area. This figure was 17 percent in semi-urban, 4.6 percent in municipality and less than one percent in metropolitan area. More than one-fourth of the total female students dropped out within one-year from rural schools. The same trend has been perceived from their male counterparts with different percentage points. On the other hand, highest proportion of students (11% for male and 18% for female) dropped out from private but govt. aided schools. The dropout rate for female students was higher than that of male students except metropolitan area and specially endowed schools. From socio-economic view point, the students who leave school at the earlier stages receive only partial education and the majority of them are obviously ill-adapted to its social and economic environment.

4.3 Gender disparities from the results of SSC of Sample Schools

To investigate the gender disparity in educational attainment an in-depth survey on 485 students who passed SSC examination in 2003 was performed. The distribution of the sample SSC passed students by grade and sex in shown in Table 10. It is to be noted that students who failed in the examination were discarded from the analysis and that all the interviewed students actually passed the SSC examination in 2003. If we stare at the Table 9 we can see that out of 485 students only 7.2 % got the top grade “A+” (GPA=5), 12.6 % got the second highest grade “A” (GPA=4), 8 % got “A-” (GPA=3.5), 29.7 % got “B” (GPA=3), majority of the students (40 %) got “C” (GPA=2) and 2.7 % got the lowest grade “D” (GPA=1). If we try to draw lines in the gender variation then we can see that only 8.5 % of the male students and 6.1 % of the female students secured “A+” which actually shows a slight better achievement of male students. Among both the male and female majority portion got grade “C” (36.9 % of male and 42.4 % of female and 39.8 % of both gender).

Of the total “A+” and “A” holders we can see that 54.3 % and 54.1 % belongs to the male students and 45.7 % and 46.4 % to the female students where we can see the dominance of the male students. And in case of the rest of the categories of results female students dominate over male students. And among males and females who achieved higher grades we perceive an almost complete dominance by male students. For example, among the 35 students who got A+ 19 of them are males and 16 are females, among 61 A’s 33 is the number of male students and 28 was of females. Among the students of metropolitan area only 1 male student secured the highest grade “A+” whereas 8 female students obtained that grade. This type of performance dominance of female students over male students has been observed over other categories of grades except grade “A” where 16 male students secured it with compared to 10 female students. In municipality area we perceive the same picture of female students doing better in performing better result in all the categories of grades except the highest grade “A+” whereas 8 female students obtained that grade. This type of performance dominance of female students over male students has been observed over other categories of grades except grade “A” where 16 male students secured it with compared to 10 female students. In municipality area we perceive the same picture of female students doing better in performing better result in all the categories of grades except the highest grade “A+” whereas 8 female students obtained that grade. Among metropolitan area the picture is clearer that female students did better than their male counterparts in all the categories of result grade though nobody from the semi-urban area secured the highest grade “A+”. From the same illustration we find in rural area male students dominated in all the grade categories except the grades “C” and “D”.

- Test for Homogeneity of Gender

To investigate whether the two groups, male and female, are homogenous with respect to the 6 categories we have the null hypothesis that the male and female groups are homogenous. Therefore, we have $$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{6} \frac{O_{ij}^2}{E_{ij}} - N = 49.876$$

The tabulated value of $$\chi^2_{5,0.05} = 11.0705$$

From the above analysis we see that the value of Chi-square is significant at 5% level of significance and hence we can reject the null hypothesis of homogeneity. This means that on the basis of the available data, it would be unreasonable to
treat the groups homogenous. Therefore, we can conclude that the result of S.S.C. with 6 different categories is significantly different for the male and female groups.

5. Summary and Conclusion

The relationship between gender and education is complex and dynamic. In the past, these differences were formalized into separate provision, designed; it was argued to prepare girls and boys for their different lives as adults. Today, while educational policy no longer recommends separate provision, more hidden processes can still result in inequality.

Female enrolment has been increased in all phases of education in Bangladesh. From the enrollment of students data in secondary schools all over Bangladesh from 1981-2002, we can see that the enrolment percentage of females in secondary schools has shown a tremendous increase over these years and reached 52.8 % in 2002 from 27.02 % in 1981. The values of Gender Parity Index (GPI) indicate the increasing trend of female enrolment also.

It is observed that there exist wide location variations in enrolment per school and proportion of female students to total enrolment. The enrolment per school was the highest in metropolitan area and lowest in rural area. In metropolitan area there was an increasing trend in enrolment per school, while the trend in semi-urban and rural areas registered a declining trend from 2001 to 2003. In municipality area there was a mixed trend in enrolment per school.

In all areas except rural survival rate for male was higher than that of female. On the other hand, the highest survival rate for male was observed in metropolitan areas and it was the lowest in rural area. This means internal efficiency and holding power of male students in rural school is very low. For female, the highest was in metropolitan area and the lowest holding power was found to be in semi-urban area. However, in all respects the survival rate in metropolitan school is greater than any other locations. This rate ranked second in municipality area.

The survival rates of govt. high school, Cadet College, private but govt. aided, private but not govt. aided and specially endowed schools were key indicators of internal efficiency. The highest survival rate for male was observed in govt. high school and the lowest in private but not govt. aided whereas the highest survival rate for female was observed in Cadet Colleges and the lowest in private but govt. aided schools. That’s how the economic proficiency and excellence were superb in government high school, Cadet College and specially endowed schools.

The dropout rate was the highest for female students in rural area and the lowest was less than one percent in metropolitan area. For male students the picture was almost same with changes in percentages. The dropout rate for female students except metropolitan area and specially endowed schools was higher than that of male students. From socio-economic viewpoint, the students who leave school at the earlier stages receive only partial education and the majority of them are obviously ill adapted to its social and economic environment.

To sum up, the enrolment in metropolitan and municipality areas has been continuously increasing, while decreasing trend is noticed in semi-urban and rural areas. The survival rates in semi-urban and rural areas are found to be lower as compared to metropolitan and municipality areas. The students-teacher ratios in semi-urban and rural areas are much higher than those in metropolitan and municipality areas.

The SSC results, which represents success rate, shows us that female success in SSC examination is totally reverse in comparison to their enrollment status. The result over the years 1990-2003 shows us the almost decreasing trend part of female success from 1995 whereas their male counterparts had a almost increasing trend regarding success in passing SSC examination.

The sample data reveals that the highest number of students who secured “A⁺” belongs to municipality area though the respective number of metropolitan area is almost near and rural are places to third in that rank. That means students of metropolitan and municipality areas do well in SSC exam usually.

It has been observed that students of Cadet Colleges undoubtedly obtained the maximum number of “A⁺” It actually proves the credit of Cadet Colleges to build students to secure excellent results. Among other institutions we observe that Govt. High schools and Special Endowed Schools are doing very well to create students do well in SSC exam.

Male students dominated in achieving higher grades (“A⁺” and “A”) whereas female students dominated in getting relatively lower grades (“A”, “B”, “C” and “D”).

Through the test of homogeneity we found, on the basis of the available data, it would be unreasonable to treat the sex groups homogenous. We can conclude that the result of S.S.C. with 6 different categories is significantly different for the male and female groups. And it is easily perceived from the data of our sample survey that female students show better performance as compared to their male counterparts at metropolitan, municipality and semi-urban areas. Only at rural area they both perform almost the same.

Finally, we can very easily observe that female students are enrolling at a higher rate than the male students yet they don’t do better in final SSC examination. Some critics state this situation this way that female enrollment has increased a lot but the comparative result in SSC examination with respect to males has decreased because female students get
enrolled to enjoy the female stipend Program. With the help of corrupted clerks female students take the advantage of female stipend Program. They find a way without fulfilling the rules of stipend with the help of those corrupted clerks. This is why the result of female students are getting worse day by day though they consume a stipend which is not given to male students.

Though we have critics of the holes of female stipend Program yet it turned out to be an inspiration to the female students of Bangladesh. We have to remember equity for girls means equity for everyone. By following gender equity guidelines to improve education, it is improved for boys as well as for girls. The goal of better serving girls through female stipend does not entail neglecting or suppressing boys. By putting boys and girls on an equal plane, the relatively increased valuing of girls will also benefit boys by informing them of the strengths, capabilities and contributions of girls and women. This, in turn, may help decrease the pressure many boys feel to conform to the traditional roles, behaviors and ways of thinking. Eventually, the stereotypes may be counteracted and eliminated, so education may begin to be more gender balanced.

5.1 Policy Implications

- Govt. should stop corruption of administrative people who are related to stipend Program in rural schools to increase female success rate in SSC exam.
- Female students are enrolling at a higher rate than male students at this point of time, so govt. should now promote male students in rural areas as well by keeping the female enrolment steady.
- Schools in rural areas have lower survival rate and higher drop out rate. Govt. should take initiatives to increase survival rate in those areas.
- If possible govt. should establish more Cadet Colleges and Govt. High Schools or at least increase the seats in those institutes without compromising the quality of educational environment.

Acknowledgment

The authors would like to thank the seminar participants at Institute of Statistical Research and Training (ISRT), University of Dhaka, Bangladesh.

References


BANBEIS (1999). National Education Survey (Post-Primary), Final Report


BANBEIS (2002). Statistical Profile on Education in Bangladesh 2002


Notes
Note 1. Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics (BANBEIS)

Table 1. Gross Enrolment Rate at Secondary Level by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Gross Enrolment Rate (%)</th>
<th>GPI*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
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<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>57.46</td>
<td>42.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>55.13</td>
<td>44.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>53.77</td>
<td>46.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>51.84</td>
<td>48.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>51.52</td>
<td>48.48</td>
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</table>


*Gender Parity Index (GPI) is the ratio of female to male enrolment rates.
Table 2. Student Enrollment in Secondary Schools of Bangladesh by Sex, 1981-2002

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Female %</th>
<th>GPI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>7420358</td>
<td>3915654</td>
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<td>2001</td>
<td>7154712</td>
<td>3756660</td>
<td>52.5061</td>
<td>1.1055</td>
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<td>2000</td>
<td>7027111</td>
<td>3670097</td>
<td>52.22758</td>
<td>1.0933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>6620845</td>
<td>3409728</td>
<td>51.49989</td>
<td>1.0619</td>
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<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>6144925</td>
<td>3119704</td>
<td>50.76879</td>
<td>1.0312</td>
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<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>5492114</td>
<td>2580578</td>
<td>46.98697</td>
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<td>1996</td>
<td>5021390</td>
<td>2327758</td>
<td>46.35685</td>
<td>0.8642</td>
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<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>4620769</td>
<td>2135973</td>
<td>46.22549</td>
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<td>1994</td>
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<td>3809515</td>
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<td>1991</td>
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<td>1989</td>
<td>2628036</td>
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<td>1988</td>
<td>2542316</td>
<td>830676</td>
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<td>1987</td>
<td>2473911</td>
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<td>1985</td>
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<td>2129478</td>
<td>656232</td>
<td>30.81657</td>
<td>0.4454</td>
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<td>1981</td>
<td>1970075</td>
<td>532299</td>
<td>27.01923</td>
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Table 3. Distribution of Sample SSC Passed Students by Grade and Area

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<td></td>
<td>Municipality</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi-urban</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
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<tr>
<td>A+</td>
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<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>1280</td>
<td>88</td>
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<tr>
<td>A-</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1861</td>
<td>4301</td>
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Table 4. Distribution of Sample SSC Passed Students by Grade and Type of School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Govt. High</th>
<th>Cadet College</th>
<th>Private (GA)</th>
<th>Private (NGA)</th>
<th>Special ES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A+</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>81</td>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>729</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>876</td>
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<tr>
<td>A-</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>156</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>394</td>
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<td>485</td>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
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<td>652</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>1460</td>
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<td>1170</td>
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Table 5. Internal Efficiency Rates at the Secondary Level (Grade 6-10) in School

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Completion Rate</th>
<th>Dropout Rate</th>
<th>Survival Rate</th>
<th>Co-efficient of efficiency</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Both Sexes</td>
<td>35.32</td>
<td>64.68</td>
<td>62.30</td>
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<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>38.51</td>
<td>61.49</td>
<td>62.55</td>
<td>44.1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>31.72</td>
<td>68.28</td>
<td>61.91</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Both Sexes</td>
<td>28.24</td>
<td>71.76</td>
<td>65.37</td>
<td>32.2</td>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>32.33</td>
<td>67.67</td>
<td>66.19</td>
<td>38.0</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23.89</td>
<td>76.11</td>
<td>64.00</td>
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<td>2001</td>
<td>Both Sexes</td>
<td>17.16</td>
<td>82.84</td>
<td>57.27</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>20.27</td>
<td>79.73</td>
<td>58.65</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>13.98</td>
<td>86.02</td>
<td>55.67</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Both Sexes</td>
<td>24.79</td>
<td>75.21</td>
<td>57.89</td>
<td>28.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30.87</td>
<td>69.13</td>
<td>61.75</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>19.23</td>
<td>80.77</td>
<td>54.31</td>
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<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Both Sexes</td>
<td>16.57</td>
<td>83.43</td>
<td>49.38</td>
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<td>19.53</td>
<td>80.47</td>
<td>50.75</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>13.74</td>
<td>86.26</td>
<td>48.30</td>
<td>16.7</td>
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Table 6. Survival Rates by Location and Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Survival Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>Metropolitan</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipality</td>
<td>98.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-Urban</td>
<td>86.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>64.3</td>
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Table 7. Survival Rates by Type of School and Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Govt. high School</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>86.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cadet College</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private but Govt. Aided</td>
<td>65.8</td>
<td>71.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private but not Govt. Aided</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>77.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specially Endowed School</td>
<td>91.5</td>
<td>99.8</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 8. Dropout Rate by Location Between February and December 2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location/Area</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipality</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-Urban</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>25.5</td>
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</table>

Table 9. Dropout Rate Type of School Between February and December 2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Govt. high School</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>2.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cadet College</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>5.60</td>
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<td>17.50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Specially Endowed School</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.51</td>
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Table 10. Distribution of Sample SSC Passed Students by Grade and Sex (Left: Grade based, Right: Sex based)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Grade %)</td>
<td>(Sex %)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>A+</td>
<td>(8.5%)</td>
<td>(54.1%)</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>(14.8%)</td>
<td>(54.1%)</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A'</td>
<td>(7.6%)</td>
<td>(43.6%)</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>(30.9%)</td>
<td>(47.9%)</td>
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<td>C</td>
<td>(36.9%)</td>
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<td>193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>(1.3%)</td>
<td>(23.1%)</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>(100%)</td>
<td>(100%)</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1. Percentages of student enrollment by sex

Figure 2. Percentages of SS passed students by sex

Figure 3. Percentage of SSC passed students of Bangladesh over the years 1972-2003

Figure 4. Trend in school enrolment by type

Figure 5. Trend in enrolment per school by location
A Perfect Match of Style and Subject: Remarks on the Style of

*World Leaders Pay Tribute to Reagan*

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Abstract

Style is very important in writing. When a style matches a subject, the subject can be well expressed. The author of the article “World Leaders Pay Tribute to Reagan” succeeds in using the right style to reflect the unforgettable solemnity of the state funeral for the former president and people’s deep memory of him. This paper intends to do some research on the successful match of the style and the subject of the article.

**Keywords:** Style, State funeral, Solemnity

1. Introduction

Style, though very hard to define academically, can be understood as a special manner of expression in writing. Text style is a very important type. It represents the writer’s tendency of linguistic choices, through which the style of a discourse may be racy, pompous, formal, journalistic, colloquial, rhetoric, inflammatory, etc..

The article entitled “World Leaders Pay Tribute to Reagan” is found in The Guardian on Saturday, June 12 2004. The style of this article, I think, is journalistic, formal, and rhetoric. The author is skilled in weaving them into a highly integrated unit.

2. The journalistic style attracts the reader at once

2.1 It is a news report in the inverted pyramid

A news report is usually written in an inverted pyramid marked as “▼”. The author usually gives the general elements at the very beginning: who, what, where, why, and how, and then goes into certain specific details.

Adopting this method, the author of this article makes things very clear and attracts the reader’s interest immediately. Only through the title and the lead of this article does the reader get the most important information: world leaders came to attend the ceremony of the state funeral for the former president. The reader becomes so seriously excited that he is eager to go on reading for details. The inverted pyramid really functions here!

2.2 It is a feature of a powerful semantic field

Semantic field theory takes the view that the vocabulary of a language is not simply a listing of independent items, but is organized into fields, within which words interrelate and define each other in various ways. The author of this article, intuitive or conscious, succeeds in forming such a semantic field --- the special state funeral for the former president. To show the greatness and solemnity of the occasion, the author uses “pomp and ceremony” side by side. To express the
high level of the ceremony, the author describes the people who had the right to come as “icons of present and cold war eras, a stellar cast of world leaders and the greatest gathering of foreign dignitaries, the most powerful of the world, the high-powered assembly”. To achieve the solemnity, the author resorts to plenty of expressions like “masterful entrance”, “the hush of the National Cathedral”, “the regular tapping of the bishop’s staff on the marble floor”, “grandeur”, “greatest”, “restrained solemnities”, “final assignation”, “sirens blaring”, “limousine”, “cavalcade”, “hearse”. The feature is well done just by creating such a great and expressive field. Only in this field can the reader “experience” the grand, solemn, high-ranked, and unforgettable ceremony, and only by reading such a feature can the reader share everything with the author.

3. The formal style matches very well with such a serious subject

The subject of this article---world leaders pay tribute to former president Reagan---is a very serious one. Therefore, the author uses the formal style from the very beginning to the end. This matches everything with the subject and the subject is well expressed by the author’s careful and proper choice of formal words.

First, the author chooses a lot of formal words and phrases to show the formalness of the occasion, such as “stellar”, “dignitaries”, “salute”, “eulogy”, “overt”, “vignettes”, “assignation”, “personage”. Take “dignitary” and “vignette” as examples. Dignitary is a very formal word, meaning a person with a high rank or position. In this discourse “dignitaries” refers to “a stellar cast of world leaders, past and present, enemies and friends”. The word “vignette” has French origin meaning a short written description of something. It is well chosen here to refer to the very formal, authoritative, graceful and effective eulogy made by the 41st president George Bush Senior, the vice-president who worked for eight years with Reagan.

Second, the author lists as many high-ranked people as possible to show the importance of the ceremony. Besides the American presidents alive since 1974---Gerald Ford, Jimmy Carter and Bill Clinton, there came the very important leaders of some other countries---Britain’s prime minister, Tony Blair, Germany’s chancellor, Gerhard Schroder, and so forth. The greatest gathering of these important people showed that this funeral ceremony was, perhaps, of highest level in the world.

Third, the author skillfully describes the formalness of the procedures of the ceremony by using “the masterful entrance”, “the hush of the National Cathedral”, “the tapping of the bishop’s staff”, “the bringing-in of the Ronald Reagan’s casket at the beginning” and so on and so forth. The religious service “the regular tapping of the bishop’s staff on the marble floor” indicates the commencement of the state funeral; the eulogies made by George Bush Senior and George Bush Junior bring the ceremony to climax; the sirens blare and then become silent; the slow thrum of motorcycle engines in low gear announces the arrival of a cavalcade of black SUVs, limousines, and a hearse and also marks the end of three days of pomp and ceremony.

Fourth, the author makes the reader feel that the formal and solemn ceremony is all the more formal and valuable by giving a rough detailed description of the three leaders’ tributes. To show George Bush Senior’s deeper feeling and respect for Ronald Reagan, the author says Bush Senior “betrayed a more personal grief, choking slightly and saying” and cites the words of his eulogy, “As his vice-president for eight years, I learned more from Ronald Reagan than from anyone I encountered in all my years of public life.” To show the high praise of the present government, the author describes George Bush Junior’s tribute as “lengthy” to praise Ronald Reagan’s great commitment to freedom for which Reagan did his utmost to work for his people and cited, “Ronald Reagan belongs to the ages now, but we preferred it when he belonged to us, …” which was, perhaps, the most powerful and unforgettable sentence. To tell the reader Reagan’s contemporary, Margaret Thatcher’s great passion and high praise, the author uses the very formal word “extolled”, and quotes her phrases and sentences, such as “eight of the most important years of our lives”, “crediting him with winning the cold war”, “Surely it is hard to deny that Ronald Reagan’s life was providential, when we look at what he achieved in the eight years that followed.” All this shows that the formal style and the serious subject match very well.

4. The rhetoric writing strengthens the expressiveness

To strengthen the solemnity of the state funeral and to show fully the respect of people for the former president, the author resorts to rhetoric writing by using some figures of speech skillfully.

4.1 Transferred Epithet

Transferred epithet is a figure of speech in which the epithet is transferred from the appropriate noun to modify another to which it does not really belong.

The phrase “a masterful entrance” in the first paragraph of the article is a good example. The word masterful is usually used with a person, meaning able to control others. But in the article, it is transferred to modify “entrance” to show that the entrance was so formal and solemn that it reflected the level of the funeral and marked the beginning of the pomp and ceremony, and the formalness and solemnity would go through the whole process.
4.2 Euphemism

Euphemism is the substitution of an agreeable or inoffensive expression for one that may offend or suggest something unpleasant.

In order to show people’s great respect and deep love for Reagan, the author manages to avoid using harsh and blunt words and expressions. Take the sentence “From the hush of the National Cathedral, … as Ronald Reagan’s casket was borne in …” as an example. The word casket literally means a small, usually ornamental box for holding jewels and valuable things. But here it is a much milder expression than “coffin” which would suggest an unpleasant feeling. Only “casket” is proper for such a state funeral held for the revered former president.

4.3 Metaphor

Metaphor is the use of a word or phrase to indicate something different from the literal meaning and achieve a vivid and impressive effect.

The word “vignette” means a drawing or photo of a scene or someone’s head and shoulders. Figuratively, it means a short effective written description of a character. In this discourse it refers to George Bush Senior’s written description of Ronald Reagan’s character and greatness. By using this word, the author let the reader “see” or “experiencing” the life and work of the former president in the White House together with George Bush Senior. It leaves the reader a picturesque impression.

5. Conclusion

To sum up, the article of “World Leaders Pay Tribute to Reagan” is a good example of a perfect match of style and subject. It makes the reader share everything with the author. The success lies, perhaps, mainly in the right choice of style. The words and expressions are carefully chosen and organized, and the figures of speech were skillfully applied to match the style very well. Thus, such a subject is well expressed.

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An Exploration on the Reform of Teaching in Graduation Design for the Major of Animation

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Abstract
Graduation design is an important course to cultivate students’ comprehensive capability in teaching. Focusing on the features of graduation design and the practical situation of students, this paper discusses lots of issues concerning with the teaching and the practice for the major of animation, such as how to reform the teaching way by optimizing the content structure of graduate design and adjusting the content system, and how to form unique teaching features surrounding two aspects, namely solidifying the specialty techniques and improving the ability of practice. By this way, the final goal of graduation design may be realized.

Keywords: School education, Graduation design, Reform of teaching, Talent cultivation

The major of animation emphasizes on practices in special. And the graduation design is a necessary practice for the teaching of animation. And it is a comprehensive course in realizing the goal of specialty cultivation. It is also an important mark to evaluate the teaching quality of the major. The graduation design can not only cultivate and test students’ ability of using the learned theories, the specialty knowledge, and the basic technologies to analyze and solve common engineering and technological problems, but also have irreplaceable effects on the improvement and cultivation of students’ comprehensive quality, abilities of design and practice, and spirits of innovation. Moreover, the graduation design is the professional training before students enter the job market. And the grades serve as important reference for students’ graduation and quality of master degree. However, in recent years, many students are hunting for jobs or in practice at the last term, preparing for the professional job after graduation. Therefore, the graduation design becomes nothing, which greatly affects the design level of graduates and the application of normal graduation design.

By means of teaching reform, we should emphasize on cultivating students’ abilities of practice in choosing the subjects of graduation design, training them for further jobs. The subjects of graduation design include the three-dimensional animation design, the two-dimensional animation design, the composition of film, the digital video, and the stop-motion animation. At the same time, as a new major, the teaching of graduation design is short of experiences and students’ abilities of design need to be improved further. Besides, it faces up with lots of problems, such as the acceptance of the society, and the competition of similar majors in other universities. Therefore, it is urgent to reform the graduation design for the major of animation.

1. The problems existed in present graduation design

1.1 In the aspect of selecting the subjects of graduation design
The selection of the subjects of graduation design is not proper. And most the subjects are normal. For example, the subjects of graduation design are all the same for many years. Besides, the subjects are different in the degree of difficulty. And some subjects have not practical contents, separating from the reality. Students do not have motives to work for them.

1.2 In the aspect of faculty advisor
Faculty advisors have different abilities of practice. And some are short of practical experiences. Therefore, it is impossible for them to provide with better guidance for students in graduation design.

1.3 In the aspect of specialty quality
Many students neglect a deepening research on the subjects’ background and relevant materials, and similar foreign subjects. They do not have strong theoretical base.

1.4 In the aspect of test and assessment
The test and assessment mainly focus on the “soft” aspect, such as the rules and requirements but neglect the application. The test and assessment are usually superficial, what cannot drive students to do better.

1.5 In the aspect of thesis defense

At the stage of thesis defense, the requirements are loose. Most students can pass. The process of graduate design is always anti-climax.

Therefore, the goal of the teaching reform should follow two points: firstly, as the final ring in the teaching and the practice, the graduation design should emphasize on the comprehensive application of theoretical knowledge and the evident improvement of design ability; secondly, the major of animation extremely emphasizes the practice and the teaching should focus on cultivating students’ abilities of applying theories into practice and solving practical problems. Establish the goals of teaching reform: enhance theoretical knowledge, cultivate practical ability, improve students’ comprehensive ability, train complex talent, and meet the social need. It is better to construct the unique features graduation design teaching and make it catch up with the advanced level in the field of domestic animation design. The teaching reform can begin from two aspects, namely to solidify the specialty techniques and to improve the practical abilities. Optimize the content structure of graduation design. Adjust the content system. Reform the teaching methods and the management measures. Enhance the practical teaching and improve the teaching quality. Cultivate unique teaching features. And reach the final aim of graduation design.

2. The exploration of teaching reform

2.1 The reform of the content structure of graduation design

The project team mainly adjusts the traditional mode of graduation design, emphasizing the combination of design and practice. According to the nature and the features of graduation design, and the specialties of faculty advisors, the project team arranges the content of graduation design. Besides, the team aims at helping students to apply the theoretical knowledge into graduation design, enhancing their abilities of application.

2.2 The update and improvement of teaching methods

Considering the features of graduation design and the situation of students, the project team constructs a teaching system that is composed of the selection of graduation design subjects, the report of preparing for the design, the middle check, the introduction of the design, the demonstration of the design, and the thesis defense.

Emphasizing on practice, comprehensiveness, and innovation is the pre-condition of graduation design with high quality. Connect with advisors’ design practices and establish the subjects and write the task arrangement. In the university, there are many teachers who have rich experiences and practices. And it is better to invite other engineers who possess rich experiences as advisors. The dual advisor system serves as a technological guarantee for the high-quality graduation design. Providing with advices and suggestions for students during the whole draft drawing process, and assessing the quality of design at the middle stage of the design are the procedure guarantee for the graduation design. To design a demonstration scheme and to compose an introduction of design according to different subjects of students and to complete the thesis defense process are the final guarantee for the high quality of graduation design.

(1) The selection of subject is the key for the success of graduation design.

The selection of subject should follow three principles. The first is the practice. Extend the graduation design into the design practice and the scientific research. The subjects must come from the front of practice, which can inspire students’ responsibilities and spirits of innovation. The second is the comprehensiveness. During the process of graduation design, students can make best use of learned knowledge. And the subject can help to enlarge their knowledge scope. Besides, the subjects of graduation design should change every year. These subjects should include all aspects of animation design. Students can select certain subjects based on their interests. The third is innovation. The innovation of subjects is an important factor that guarantees the quality of graduation design. No matter where the subjects come from, design practice or scientific research, they must be innovative and indicates the uniqueness of designers. The innovation can enlarge and enrich students’ knowledge and improve their professional abilities.

(2) The team of advisors is the technological guarantee for high-quality graduation design

The team of advisors includes: teachers in the university who have rich experiences in teaching and practice can shoulder the responsibility of guiding graduation design; top designers outside the university who have rich practical experiences can also shoulder the responsibility. They can not only help to extend the content of graduation design but also help students gain more professional experiences.

(3) Reports of on-the-spot teaching and relevant materials are the theoretical guarantee for the high-quality graduation design

At the first stage of graduation design, advisors will perform the on-the-spot teaching. In this process, students will research on the practical cases of design, combining with their subjects, and make comments on these cases and point
out the advantages and disadvantages. At the same time, by retrieving relevant studies at home and abroad, students must write their reports in which they will advance their ideas of the subject, providing with theoretical and material foundation for the next stage.

(4) The initial design and the middle check are the procedure guarantee for the high-quality graduation design.

Emphasize on tutorship and suggestion. Be strict with the check on work attendance. In the process of teaching, advisors can provide with guidance for students and direct them to find out problems in their designs by means of self-introducing and mutual discussion. At the same time, students can check the feasibility of their designs and understand the distance between design ideas and technological possibilities. Without this step, the design will stray away from the technology. Meanwhile, advisors should inspire students’ motives, cultivating their abilities of self-checking, independent thinking, and problem solving. And advisors can encourage students to break through the initial thinking frame and input more innovative ideas in the designs. This teaching process can not only improve students’ ability of appreciation, but also help them taste the interests of innovation in the design.

The middle check is also the key for the graduation design. At the middle stage of the graduation design, the lead team and the advisors should check student’s designs respectively. The check should include these aspects: students introduce their designs; advisors evaluate these designs; the lead team makes the final check. The middle check should focus on the schedule, the quality, and the initial design of the graduation design. By this way, it can drive students to work hard for their graduation design. And it can further guarantee the quality of design.

(5) The thesis defense is the final guarantee for the high-quality graduation design.

The final grade of graduation design should take several factors into consideration. In specific, it includes the workload, the design level, the thesis, the ability of independent work, and the thesis defense. The thesis defense is to test students’ ability of analyzing problems, verbal expression, and answering questions. In order to meet the social need for talents in animation specialty, it is the advisors of students and the top designers in specialty companies who master the thesis defense. They help students to demonstrate their designs, aiming at improving their abilities of practice.

2.3 Combine with the practice of design and achieve progresses together

The graduation design is a kind of practice course. Therefore, it should focus on practical designs. Advisors must possess relevant practical experiences related with the subject. And in the teaching process, advisors can combine theoretical teaching with practice. Meanwhile, by inviting top designers who come from companies and have rich practical experiences, it can enlarge the sources of subjects and provide with more options for students to make choice.

By the teaching reform that emphasizes on fundamental knowledge, basic design training, and practical ability, the graduation design for the major of animation lays more stresses on the combination of specialty teaching and design practice. By this way, students’ abilities of practice and comprehensive qualities have been improved obviously. This improvement is not only in the aspect of graduation design, but also in after-school research, graduation survey, and social practice. Students majored in animation participate in social practice and specialty practice, step into the grass roots, contact with the society, and understand the social needs. They use specialty knowledge to solve social problems, which meet the social needs and gain praises from companies. Besides, more and more students choose to join in a series of competition out of school and win rewards. By this way, students’ comprehensive qualities and abilities have been exercised and displayed completely.

References


School Quality, Educational Inequality and Economic Growth

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Abstract
Realizing the importance of education in developing a country, many governments had begun to pay more attention in improving the education quality in their country. However whether the desired level of education quality is equally distributed is still debated on. On top of that, current literature on which level of education, either basic or tertiary education, brings greater return to the society is still inconclusive. It is not the objective of this paper to answer or add on the debate. On the other hand this paper would like to explore the relationship between school quality, namely at primary education and secondary education, and economic growth. Educational inequality at primary and secondary education would be measured with using the concept of education Gini. Using GDP as the dependent variable and regressing it with Gini coefficient of primary education and secondary education, would be able to show which level of education inequality is significant in explaining the economic growth of a country. Using Malaysian data, for the last 20 years, the relationship between education inequality of different level of education and the economic growth would be postulated.

Keywords: Inequality, Gini, economic growth

1. Introduction
Economics is basically the study on how limited resources are used to fulfill human’s unlimited wants. There will be an opportunity costs associated with every decision made on the use and distribution of these resources. Decision makers not only have to make choices on how resources are used but also on who gets what and when. This raises the question of equality and fairness. When there is unequal distribution of resources in a country, the repercussion could be great. It could even lead to political unrest which could undermine economic growth.

The existence of a trade off between equality and growth is still disputed by many scholars. Some of the studies were subjected to criticism because of the methodology and quality of data used to derive the conclusions (Easterly, 2007). It is not the objective of this article to dispute or get involve on the debate of this trade off. Our aim is to explore the relationship between equity in education and economy growth.

One of the important ingredients for sustained economic growth is a good education system. “Education For All” (EFA) report by the World Bank (Lanzi, 2007) is in the opinion that education does influence the economic growth of many countries. To support this stand, many countries in East Asia including Japan were used as examples. Though Malaysia was not included much in the study, empirical evidence shows that Malaysia too does invest heavily on education (see Figure 1). From RM6.5 million in 1989, it increased to almost RM27 million in the year 2005. However as other countries, Malaysia too faces difficulty in distributing educational resources equally across the country.
Education can be included as a public good in Malaysia. Although there are private schools in Malaysia, it’s the government’s constitutional responsibility to provide education for all children. Government has to make decisions on the distribution of educational resources. Primary and secondary education is provided to every child legally living in this country. Policy makers have to make decisions on which school gets what and how much. This leads to the question on equity which eventually will influence the economy growth of this country because students studying in the public school are future workers who will contribute to the economic growth of this country.

The distribution of educational resources to schools will not only raise the issue of equity but will also determine its quality. In other words, when distribution of resource is done equally, school quality across the nation should be same. Thus the contribution to and benefit from an economy growth in country will be even and equitable.

2. Literature Review

The effects of education on economic growth can be explained with using the production function and growth models (Belfield, 2000). In these models, the effects of education on economic growth are explained through the way education enhances the labour input (Romer, 1994). A Cobb-Douglas function is always used in discussion about productivity and growth. The relationship between labour and production function could be seen through the Cobb-Douglas function

\[ Y_t = \alpha K^\alpha H^\beta (AL)^{1-\alpha - \beta} \]

Where

- \( Y_t \) = per capita income
- \( H \) = stock of human capital
- \( L \) = Labour
- \( K \) = capital
- \( A \) = growth coefficient

(Stevens & Weale, 2004)

Other than labour and capital, human capital too influences \( Y_t \). Human capital in a country can be accumulated through 3 means. They are schooling time, quality of education and the human capital of the parent (Glomm, 1997). Since the 1970’s, the contribution of schooling time in human capital formation has been questioned. Schooling time can be measured by the enrollment rate in a country. Many countries’ experiences challenge the relationship between education, human capital and economy growth. There are countries that have had increasing rate of enrollment but did not experience the economy growth they had expected. Livingstone (1997) advocated that this notion of human capital and education needs to be retooled and viewed differently. He feels that instead of just focusing on the amount of education, it is necessary to address the problem of school quality if one wants to see the actual relationship between education and human capital. This opinion is in tandem with many others such as Vinod and Kaushik (2007). Vinod & Kaushik (2007) are also in the opinion that when the quantity and quality of human capital increases, a country’s economy will grow by itself.

Many governments had begun to focus their attention on uplifting the quality of education provided. Many studies have looked into the quality of resources distributed into the educational institutions under the care of government. It is important to distinguish between school quality and quality school. School quality can be seen through the resources or input used in producing the outputs. Meanwhile quality schools are seen through the exam results or other measures of outputs. Many empirically studies done with assumption that the inputs and outputs are related proportionately. For example, when there is an increase of 10% in input, output will increase by the same margin. However, in a real world this assumption does not hold true always (Raymond, 1968).

A school quality could be measured through the resources used in educating children or students. Some of them are

i. School Enrollment
ii. Percent of teachers with advanced degree
iii. Pupil Teacher Ratio
iv. Per-pupil expenditure
v. Textbook per student

(Eide & Showalter, 2005; Liu, 2001)

Horn (1993) defines the resources used in education as the input, while conversion of inputs into outputs is known as the process. Many studies had either focused on the input and output or process and output. Some of the findings of these studies are shown in Table 1. The inputs used in education also able to reflect an institution’s quality. Dispersion of education resources to educational institutions would indicate the commitment of government in ensuring an equitable quality education given to its people.

Among the educational resources, teachers are one of the most researched inputs (Belfield, 2000). This could be attributed to the fact that teachers are the most mobile among the inputs used in education (Brimley & Garfiled, 2005).
Many teachers like to teach in high socio-economy status (SES) then low SES school. Krei (2000) found out that the chances a teacher would move or willing to teach in a low SES than high SES is 4 times lower. Because of this mobility, many governments face the problem of placing teaching thus jeopardizing the pupil-teacher ratio (PTR) in many countries. PTR is an indication of a school quality. When government manages to ensure a standard PTR in all the schools under its care then educational equity is said to exist (Yamauchi, 2005).

Educational equity is important in developing a country. Equity in education is achieved when every child gets the same level of education in terms of quality and amount (Hoxby, 1996). As mentioned earlier, education plays an important role in developing a country. If there is no equitable education then economic growth of a country will be distorted (Partridge, 1997). How and why this distortion takes place in an economy is still being debated. Some studies show that inequality will actually spur economy growth where accumulation of wealth by the rich will cause economy growth. This occurs when the “rich” will reinvest their savings back in to the economy. This notion is not agreed by some because inequality in society will cause political instability which will eventually effect the economy of a country. Inequality in society will also harm economy growth through the imbalance in human capital formation. As mentioned earlier, education plays an important role in human capital formation. Marshall (1890) had stressed the role of education in developing a country. Whatever the argument is, every government had begun to ensure that every deserving student not only gets an equal amount of education but of equal quality as well.

Equity in education can be measured through many ways. The term “equity” itself is an abstract term thus the way it is measured could influence the verdict (Stiefel & Berne, 1981). One of the measures that is often used is the Gini coefficient. Gini coefficient is widely used by economist to show the inequality in a population (King, et.al, 2003).

3. Methodology

The data used in this study are obtained from the Educational Statistics Year book from the period of 1986-2005. The number of teachers and enrollments for each state is obtained from this report. Enrollments and the number of teachers reported in this report are as of 30th June each year. The number of teachers included in the final count of PTR is based on the availability of trained teachers in the states. There are trained and untrained teachers teaching in Malaysian public schools. Trained teachers are teachers who had undergone training at Teachers Training Colleges. Although the benefits derived by students taught by trained teachers in influencing student’s achievement or learning process is not proven, but it is the responsibility of every government in ensuring that every student is taught by a trained teacher (Hanushek & Luque, 2003).

School quality is calculated through PTR. PTR is computed through the following formula

\[
PTR_i = \frac{E_i}{TT_i}
\]  

Where \(E_i\) is the number of students enrolled in the state for the year \(t\); \(TT\) represents the number of trained teachers teaching in the year-\(t\).

\[
Gini_i = \frac{\left( \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} E_{it}E_{jt} \right) \left( PTR_{it} - PTR_{jt} \right)}{2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N} E_{it}^2 \right) PTR_{pt}}
\]

where

\[
PTR_{pt} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} E_{it} (PTR_{it})}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} E_{it}}
\]

\(PTR_{pt}\) = mean of pupil teacher-ratio for the year-\(t\)

\(E_{it}\) = number of pupils in state \(i\)

Education Gini is calculated for primary (GPS) and secondary school (GSS). Distribution is said to be equitable if the value of Gini Coefficient is less than 0.05 (Odden and Picus, 2000). In this study, the value of Gini education is converted to percentage by multiplying it with 100. Using Odden & Picus (2000) judgement, any value less than 5% is assumed to be equitable.

Currently there is no measure of economic growth which is not criticized. Gross National Product and Gross Domestic Product...
Product are widely used in studies involving economic growth (Gilbert, 1980). In this study, economic growth is measured with GDP. GDP is divided by the total population. Per Capita GDP also reflects the well being of people living in a country (Kakwani, 1997). The data for per capita GDP is obtained from the year book published by Department of Statistics, Malaysia. The relationship between economic growth and school quality is investigated using the following regression

$$PCGDP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 GPS + \beta_2 GSS + Pop + \varepsilon$$ \[4\]

Where PCGDP is per capita gross domestic product in 1987 prices, GPS is primary school inequality, GSS is secondary school inequality and Pop is the number of population who is in the age of 0-14.

The ideal control variable should be the population size or rate who are still studying or have not entered the employment group. However due to data availability, population who are in the age group of 0 to 14 were used as a control variable. Malaysians who are in the age of 7 onwards will start attending school. Almost all of them will remain in school until the age of 17. In other words, population who are in the age of 0 to 14, can be concluded as not employed and do not contribute much to GDP but will do so after their schooling age. The effect on GDP which is caused by the change in population strata depends on many factors. The breakdown of the population in terms of age will influence a country’s GDP (Faria, et.al, 2005). How exactly it will influence, in terms relationship between population breakdown and GDP, depends on a country itself. In the case of Malaysia, the influence of population breakdown and its impact on GDP had not been much recorded. Thus, the expected sign of this control variable would not be predicted and dwelled upon.

4. Estimation Results and Discussion

The results of Education Gini is shown in Figure 2. Using Odden & Picus’s (2000) value judgement, after the year 2000, school quality in terms of equality is improving especially at secondary schools. The same cannot be said of primary schools. This could be attributed to the fact that, in the last few years Malaysian government had been training graduate teachers who are eventually posted to secondary schools. Since 2005 onwards, graduate teachers are also posted to primary schools. Prior to this, non-graduate teachers are sent to primary schools while graduate teachers are sent to secondary schools only.

When there is influx of students in any public school, it will cause the PTR to change. The sudden increase in enrollments can outstretch a state’s capacity to provide teachers and maintain the PTR (Garnier & Schafer, 2006). This effect will be felt in primary schools followed by secondary schools. A student is required to undergo at least 6 years of primary education before he/she can further in a secondary school. This enables education planners to get teachers ready for secondary school, where 6 years is long enough to increase the supply of teachers. This explains why the fluctuation of the PTR in primary school appears to be greater than in secondary schools!

The objective in this study is to see the relationship between school inequality and economic growth. The estimated result is shown in Table 2. Adjusted $R^2$ of 0.88 and an F-Statistic that is significant shows that the overall goodness of fit is satisfactory. The non-significant of Jarque-Berra shows that the null hypothesis of normality is not rejected (Diebold, 2004). Since the p-value of White test is more than 0.05, then the null hypothesis of homoscedasticity is not rejected. Multicollinearity among the variables is also tested and none of them exceed the value of 0.8 which is recommended by Gujarati (1999).

The interpretation of the results is fairly straightforward. The sign of the constant can be either positive or negative. The slope parameters of inequality conform to the null hypothesis of a negative relationship between inequality and economic growth. When inequality in schools increases it will lead to a reduction of per capita GDP in the society. When primary school inequality increases by 1 percent, per capita GDP will reduce by RM149. Meanwhile when secondary school inequality increases by 1 percent then per capita GDP will reduce by RM323. However, only the secondary school inequality fulfills the 10% significance criterion.

The significant of secondary education in explaining the per capita GDP in a way contradicts to what was taught earlier of the importance of primary school over secondary school (Aromolaran, 2006). This results shows that secondary school is more important in explaining the per capita GDP in Malaysia. This could be attributed to the fact that only basic education such as Reading, Writing and Mathematics, which are taught in primary schools is not sufficient for a country such as Malaysia to fulfill its labour needs. Malaysian industrialization policies which had transformed the country’s economy from agriculture dependent to technology dependent needs skilled labour force. Basic reading, writing and mathematics skills alone are unable to prepare an individual for this task. Subjects such as “Information Technology” and ‘Living Skills” which are taught in secondary schools would prepare students to meet the nation’s labour demand. This explains why there is inequality in secondary schools, per capita GDP of Malaysia is affected.

5. Conclusion

...
Education is important in enhancing the stock of human capital in an economy. The mere providing of an education is not sufficient in improving an economy. This initial study shows that, equality in education in terms of quality will influence a country’s economic growth. This study also reveals the importance of secondary education. But this does not mean that primary education could be neglected. It is important that governments should improve the distribution of education resources among the secondary schools but it should not be at the expense of primary education. The other point which should be taken and explored further is whether the findings of this study will stand if carried out in a country with different economy activities such as agriculture based economies.

References


Table 1. Summary of estimated expenditure parameter coefficients from 147 Studies of Educational Production Function

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Number of studies</th>
<th>Statistically Significant</th>
<th>Statistically Insignificant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupil Teacher Ratio</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Education</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Experience</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Salary</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditures/pupils</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hanushek, 1986

Table 2. Per Capita GDP Parameter Estimation Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-8840.66</td>
<td>1596.52</td>
<td>-5.53</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPS</td>
<td>-149.08</td>
<td>211.27</td>
<td>-0.70</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSS</td>
<td>-323.28</td>
<td>185.74</td>
<td>-1.74</td>
<td>0.10**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pop</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>10.68</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R-squared: 0.90 Mean dependent var 8216.04
Adjusted R-squared: 0.88 S.D. dependent var 1425.58
S.E. of regression: 486.00 F-statistic 41.55*
Sum squared resid: 3070655 Prob(F-statistic) 0.00
Log likelihood: -127.00 White Heterosced 3.80
Jarque-Bera: 0.52 White Chi square prob 0.70
Jarque-Bera Prob: 0.76

* Statistical significance level at 5% level
** Statistical significance level at 10% level
Figure 1. Amount of expenditure on education by Central Government Malaysia (1988-2005)
Source: www.adb.org/statistics (26 November 2006)

Figure 2. Education Inequality (Pupil-Teacher Ratio) For Primary Schools and secondary Schools (1986-2006)

Figure 2. Education Inequality (Pupil Teacher ratio) for Primary Schools and secondary Schools (1986-2006)
Emotional Teaching
--An Effective Approach to Improve CET

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Abstract
As a matter of fact, many teachers and managements are puzzled about and not satisfied with the teaching results. They have no idea about the real reason. Actually, they pay more attention to recognition and less attention to the development of emotion of the students, which, to some extent, hinders the development of positive personalities of the students and at the same time has bad effects on the acquisition of knowledge. Language teaching is a process of many activities between teachers and students who are full of emotions. The learning process of the students is not only the one of the acquisition of language but also the one full of emotional experiences. So emotional teaching has its great importance in this process. This article discusses the importance of emotional teaching and the approaches to conduct it.

Keywords: emotional teaching, college English teaching, positive, negative

1. Introduction
Traditionally, exam-oriented education has a great effect on education at all levels in China. Teachers and managements pay more attention to recognition and less attention to the development of emotion of the students, which, to some extent, hinders the development of positive personalities of the students and at the same time has bad effects on the acquisition of knowledge.

Teaching process is a very complex one, which covers teachers’ teaching and students’ learning. There exist many factors, which have positive or negative effects on the course of this process, one of the most important of which is the emotion of the teacher and the one of the students. Emotion is a special reflection on reality. Human beings, during the course of recognition and creation of the world, have connections and relationship with reality. The subjects have different attitudes towards the things that possess different meanings to human beings, thus experiencing positively or negatively.

Emotion is an experience coming from the fact that whether the objective world meets the needs and desires of human beings. Some psychological studies showed that all the activities are followed by an emotional experience and at the same time are controlled by it. The pleasant emotional experience can contribute to active and positive imitation and repetition, accompanied by pleasure, satisfaction and love etc., while the unpleasant one can cause people to behave negatively, leading to anger, complaints and hate, etc.

Many teachers and managements put more emphasis on intelligence and less on emotions. They haven’t realized the importance of emotions to English learning and other subjects, thus leading to the results surprising the teacher who devotes all his or her time and energy to his or her teaching.

2. Emotion
In the studies of non-intelligence factors, emotion is a non-intelligence factor, which has much weight in the activities of intelligence and ability. Thus, the improvement of stability of emotion should be paid more attention to while intelligence and ability are being improved. Otherwise, the improvement of intelligence and ability becomes difficult.

Teaching, from the point of view of inner development, has two tasks: one is what is called hard task, including instructing, training and developing intelligence; another one is to cultivate students with positive emotions, which is called soft task. Both of them cannot be ignored.

In the course of study, students, on one hand, have to do studies of recognition; and on the other hand, they have to study emotionally. Both are closely connected, and if they are combined with each other, students can thus develop the initial happiness attained in the intelligence and ability activities into an intelligence process full of enthusiasm, improving their achievements positively.
The emotion in English language learning means the attitude toward English and the use of English, the point of view toward the relation between native language and foreign language and the relation between the native culture and the culture of the language he learns.

Emotion can function as a drive or a resistance for learning. Basic emotions include happiness, grief, anger and fear and so on. Positive emotions can encourage the students to have more interest in learning, thus stimulating their intense learning motivation.

The strength of emotion has a close relation with the activities of intelligence. Too low or too high level of emotional awaking is no better than moderate level of emotional awaking. And the relations of the nature of emotion with intelligence and abilities are as follows in Emotional Teaching: positive emotion contributes well to the operation of intelligence and abilities, while negative emotion is not good for their operation. Positive emotion, such as cheer and excitement, can activate one’s vigor and also drive people to take active actions. In contrast, negative emotion, such as grief and pain, can recede one’s vigor and restrain one’s actions.

3. The Effects of the Emotions of Teachers and Students on Teaching Quality

Teaching process is the one which covers greatly the emotions of teachers and students involved. Because of the side effect of oriented-exam education, many teachers and managements pay more attention to intelligence and less in emotions. Teachers who commit to their work and are full of enthusiasm can make their students around to catch the enthusiasm too. The students can be positively affected by their teachers and the students are more willing to learn what their teachers teach them. The students with the teachers who are always complaining are less motivated to learn. If the students cannot live up to the expectations of the teachers, the teachers will lose their heart in what they are doing, thus leading to the fact that teachers are not devoting to their work and students not to their studies. Anybody can imagine what will happen in such a case.

4. Emotional Teaching

By emotional teaching we mean that teachers, in the course of teaching process, bring emotions into full and active play as well as take recognition into full consideration to achieve teaching goals, thus strengthening teaching effect; that is to say, teaching can be improved by exercising positive and active emotions. Emotional teaching is an important part of the whole teaching process. And once the teaching methods touch the fields of students’ emotion and will, they can be brought into efficient functions.

English language teaching, in some sense, is the emotional communication between the work, teachers and students. According to the English text content, the teachers convey the emotion of the work as well as his or her own to the students, creating sympathetic responses and completing the feeling communication between the three parts and improving language teaching quality.

5. Approaches to Emotional Teaching

There are many ways to conduct emotional teaching in English language teaching.

5.1 The sense of success

The sense of satisfaction comes from success and also the effort on work comes from seeking for success, which can be said to be one of the basic motivations of human beings. Psychological satisfaction with success in studies is a positive emotional experience, which can motivate one to seek for success; while failure in work serves as a heavy hit on personal efforts. Therefore, let the students know they are progressing and arouse their strong desire for knowledge in the bottom of their heart. The sincere words of praise at the right time can make them have the sense of success. Once they are aroused, there is no stopping them from learning aggressively.

5.2 Body languages

Everyone likes to stay with a kind person of knowledge, that is to say, if you like the person, learning from him is no more a problem. Teachers in class with a smile on their face can signal the students that they are liked, and once they are liked, they are feeling encouraged, and when they are encouraged, they will listen to their teachers in class more attentively. Smiling can remove one’s grief and relieve one’s pains. This kind of facial expression has a great effect on people’s heart and a joyful heart can lead to efficient memory. Moreover, other body languages, such as raising one’s eye-browse and nodding which mean praise, can also communicate positive emotions to their learners. Nobody likes to be denied, which is universal. Eye contact is another way of conveying emotions to the language learners. Eyes, the window of the mind, can convey emotions either positively or negatively. The students should get more positive information instead of negative. The survey conducted by the author shows that if they have positive eye contact with the teacher, the students will be more attentive in class, especially the eye contact with a smile on the teacher’s face.

5.3 More friend than teacher (Building positive relationships)

The teacher has to be a friend in class with his or her students. They get along well with each other. If the teacher is
accepted by his or her students, it is much easier for him or her to convey his or her ideas, and the students are more willing to listen to him or her. This is what we call “love the teacher, love to listen to and learn from him”. Nobody likes to listen to a person who is a wet smack. On one hand, the teacher is greatly strict with his or her students in class; on the other hand, he or she should instruct or discuss the problems just like a friend.

Remembering the student’s name is another way to make his or her students feel that they are important and respected by their teacher, thus improving the relationship between them. Everybody wants to be liked and respected. According to our survey, the name is very important to them, of course to us all. If the teacher can call the student the name, the student will be very glad and has the sense of honor, and is more likely to pay more attention to what the teacher says in class and learn and remember what he hears more quickly and efficiently, which is proved in the author’s English classroom teaching, thus advancing his achievements.

6. Conclusion

Emotional teaching is one of the important ways to improve teaching results. More attention to intelligence and less to emotions will cause many surprising results. The nature of learning and teaching is a happy feeling. Only if combined with emotional teaching can they be more efficient and effective no matter how efficient and wonderful teaching methods are,

Learning process is the process of communicating emotions between teachers and students. As the teaching practice shows that the interest in learning must be built on the basis of emotions of the teacher and the students. Once the students feel the kind emotion from the teacher, they are more likely to think more independently and communicate ideas with their teacher.

Teachers should take into account the cognitive factors in the process of teaching, and at the same time take full advantage of the active and positive functions of emotional factors, thus perfecting teaching targets and strengthening classroom teaching effects. Learning process is not only a means but also a purpose. The nature of learning and teaching lies in the pleasure and happiness.

The true success of emotional teaching can enable students to function socially and emotionally within the classroom. After all, if a student can learn to function well in a classroom, there is a strong chance that success will follow into the ensuing social life.

Teaching requires emotional connection. And the best teachers are those who connect emotionally with their students.

References
