ORAL PRESENTATION

Education

Graduate School
Valaya Alongkorn Rajabhat University under the Royal Patronage
A STUDY OF LEARNING MANAGEMENT BY USING LOCAL WISDOM MEDIA TO DEVELOP YOUNG CHILDREN IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT CENTRES IN THE NORTHEAST PROVINCES OF THAILAND

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ABSTRACT

The research objective was to study learning management by using local wisdom media to develop young children in child development centres in the Northeast Provinces of Thailand. The research tool was a questionnaire for 263 teachers at child development centres in the Northeast Provinces and the simple random sampling method was used in this study. The learning management was divided into four domains of child development which were physical development, emotional and psychological development, social development and cognitive development. The research results found that the teachers used media as a purpose of movement and balance using gross motor for physical development at 88.97 percent. Second, the teachers used media as a purpose of the children’s self-control for emotional and psychological development at 85 percent. Third, the teachers used media as a purpose of interacting with peers for social development at 90.49 percent. Lastly, the teachers complied with the rules on the use of the media according to learning units for cognitive development at 79.85 percent. As for problems and difficulties in this research, there was a durability issue of using media to develop children in the domain of physics, emotion, social and cognition at 40.30 percent, 35 percent and 33.84 respectively.

Keywords: media, young children, local wisdom

Introduction

Early childhood education is an important education level for the future of the nation. Children at this period have the fastest brain development. Therefore, people who work in this field of education should provide the best learning for children to receive the maximum benefit and reach their fullest potential. According to the National Education Act of B.E. 2542 (1999), supplement (No. 2) Act of B.E. 2554 (2011), and (No. 3) Act of B.E. 2553 (2012) as stated in Article 22, education must be based on the principle that all students are able to learn and develop themselves and should be considered as the most important. The education must encourage students to develop naturally and potentially. The Article 23 also stated that education management including formal education, informal education and non-formal education must emphasize the importance of knowledge, morality, learning process and integration of
knowledge on different level of education appropriately. The Article 7 mentioned the learning process must be aimed at instilling awareness about politics in the democratic form of government with the King as Head of State. People should be able to protect and promote the rights of freedom, respect, equality, human dignity and pride in the Thailand. They should also protect public and national interests, promote religion, art, culture, sports, local knowledge, Thai and universal wisdom. Moreover, they should conserve the natural resources and environment, have the ability to earn a living with self-reliance and creativity to learn continuously which related to Sanit Charoarnunta (2008). He mentioned that education in local areas, by local government is the foundation of democracy and most close to people. It is defined by the act of promoting and providing academic assistance to local governments. The proposed amendment of the constitution also stated that general education and basic education are public service for all people including the participation of local governments. At present, the government plans to transfer its mission of providing basic education to local government administrator. As a result, there are increasing numbers of child development centers by local governments.

Nowadays, there are many learning media for young children. The media are primary tools for interacting between children and teachers. They are useful in helping teachers to convey knowledge to meet the learning objectives that are expected from teachers; Children learn from hands-on experience through media that the teacher utilizes and helps create good relationships between teachers and children. It also promotes positive attitudes towards learning. Teachers use media as an introduction in learning processes such as experiments, demonstrations and practices. Therefore, the media are important for developing in early childhood level whether it is the physical, emotional, social or cognitive domain. However, there are few numbers of teachers who know how to use media properly or create media that meets learning objectives especially the local media. The study of learning management by using media to develop young children in child development centres will provide information that can lead to proper early childhood learning management by using local wisdom media in the Northeast Provinces of Thailand.

**Research objective**

The objective was to study learning management of using local wisdom media to develop young children in child development centres in the Northeast Provinces of Thailand including physical, emotional, social and cognition.

**Methodology**

Simple random sampling was used in this study. The subjects were 263 rural area teachers working in child development centres in the Northeast Provinces of Thailand which were Sakonnakhon, Udonthani, Nongbualamphu, Nongkhai, Mahasarakham, Buriram, Roiet, Loei, Buengkan, Kalasin, Khonkaen, Surin and Chaiyaphum. The instrument used were a questionnaire survey about learning management for young children in child development centres by Department of Local Administration in the Northeast Provinces of Thailand. There were five parts to the questionnaire: personal information, learning management that promoted physical development, learning management that promoted emotional and psychological
development, learning management that promoted social development and the learning management that promoted cognitive development.

Research Results

The results obtained from the analysis of data about patterns of learning management for young children in child care centers by Department of Local Administration in the Northeast Provinces of Thailand.

Table 1 shows the percentage of participants by sex.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 showed that the majority of participants were 97 percent of 263 females and 3 percent of 9 males.

Table 2 shows the number and percentage of rules in the learning management that promote physical development for young children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rules</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>According to learning units</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>83.27</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>According to children’s interests</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>76.05</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>According to children’s environment</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>71.86</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental appropriateness</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>82.51</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age appropriateness</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>79.81</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of use</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>40.30</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable price</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>36.88</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical purposes</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>41.83</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 shows the most number and percentage of rules in the learning management that promote physical development for young children which was according to children’s interests with the number of 219 participants or 83.27 percent. Next, it was the developmental appropriateness with the number of 217 participants or 82.51 percent and the age appropriateness with the number of 210 participants or 79.81 percent respectively.

Table 3 shows the number and percentage of the objectives in (content for learning activities) learning management that promote physical development for young children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content for learning activities</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Movement and balance using gross motor</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>88.97</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movement using fine motor</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>82.51</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensory and movement</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>80.99</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical fitness</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>53.61</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-help</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>71.86</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows the most number and percentage of the objectives in learning management that promote physical development for young children which was movement and balance using gross motor with 234 participants or 88.97 percent. Next, it was movement using fine motor with 217 participants or 82.51 percent and sensory and movement with 213 participants or 80.99 percent respectively.
Table 4 shows the number and percentage of problems and difficulties in the use of media that promotes physical development by utilizing local wisdom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems and difficulties in the use of media</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never use media from local wisdom for learning management</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.60</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not understand the process of promoting physical activities using media from local wisdom</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>20.91</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not have media that correspond to learning units</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>11.79</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of knowledge and understanding in the use of local wisdom</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>24.33</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media do not correspond to the content of instruction</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11.03</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media do not attract children’s attention.</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>23.19</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media are not durable.</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>40.30</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media cannot be used to plan learning experiences.</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>10.27</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows the most number and percentage of problems and difficulties in the use of media that promotes physical development by utilizing local wisdom which was the durability of media with 106 participants or 40.30 percent. Next, it was the lack of knowledge and understanding in the use of local wisdom with 64 participants or 24.33 percent and the media do not attract children’s attention with 61 participants or 23.19 percent respectively.
Table 5 shows the number and percentage of the rules in learning management that foster emotional development for young children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rules</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>According to learning units</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>77.18</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>According to children’s interests</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>78.70</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>According to children’s environment</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>74.14</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental appropriateness</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>76.04</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age appropriateness</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>77.94</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of use</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>43.72</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable price</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>34.60</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical purposes</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>34.60</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows the most number and percentage of the rules in the learning management that foster emotional development for young children which was according to children’s interests with 207 participants or 77.18 percent. Next, it was affordable price with 205 participants or 77.94 percent and had practical purposes with 91 participants or 34.60 percent.

Table 6 shows the number and percentage of the objectives in (content for learning activities) learning management that promote emotional and psychological development for young children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content for learning activities</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-thinking</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>68.82</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-control</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>85.17</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>52.09</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows the most number and percentage of the objectives in the learning management that promote the emotional and psychological development for young children which was self-control with 224 participants or 85.17 percent. Next, it was self-thinking with 181 participants or 68.82 percent and self-efficacy with 137 participants or 52.09 percent respectively.
Table 7 shows the number and percentage of problems and difficulties in the use of media that promote emotional and psychological development by utilizing local wisdom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems and difficulties in the use of media</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never use media from local wisdom for learning management</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6.46</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not understand the process of promoting emotional and psychological activities using media from local wisdom</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>17.49</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not have media that correspond to learning units</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>13.68</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of knowledge and understanding in the use of local wisdom</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>30.41</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media do not correspond to the content of instruction</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13.30</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media do not attract children’s attention</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>17.49</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media are not durable</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>35.36</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media cannot be used to plan learning experiences</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>12.54</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows the most number and percentage of problems and difficulties in the use of media that promote emotional and psychological development by utilizing local wisdom which was the durability of media with 93 participants or 35.36 percent. Next, it was the lack of knowledge and understanding in the use of local wisdom with 80 participants or 30.14 percent.
Table 8 shows the number and percentage of the rules in the learning management that promote social development for young children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rules</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>According to learning units</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>77.95</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>According to children’s interests</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>71.48</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>According to children’s environment</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>79.47</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental appropriateness</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>74.14</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age appropriateness</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>77.19</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of use</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>45.63</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable price</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>36.50</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical purposes</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>39.92</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 shows the most number and percentage of the rules in the learning management that promotes social development for young children which was according with children’s environment with 209 participants or 79.47 percent. Next, it was according to learning units with 205 participants or 77.95 percent and age appropriateness with 203 participants or 77.19 percent respectively.

Table 9 shows the number and percentage of the objectives in (content for learning activities) learning management that promotes social development for young children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content for learning activities</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with adults</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>75.67</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with peers</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>90.49</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social behavior</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>85.93</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valuing differences</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>51.33</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 shows the most number and percentage of the objectives in the learning management that promote social development for young children which was interacting with peers with 238 participants or 90.49 percent. Next, it was social behavior with 226
participants or 85.93 percent and interacting with adults with 199 participants or 75.67 percent respectively.

Table 10 shows the number and percentage of problems and difficulties in the use of media that promote social development by utilizing local wisdom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems and difficulties in the use of media</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never use media from local wisdom for learning management</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8.74</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not understand the process of promoting social activities using media from local wisdom</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>19.39</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not have media that correspond to learning units</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of knowledge and understanding in the use of local wisdom</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>25.85</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media do not correspond to the content of instruction</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13.30</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media do not attract children’s attention.</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>17.87</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media are not durable.</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>27.37</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media cannot be used to plan learning experiences.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7.98</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 shows the most number and percentage of problems and difficulties in the use of media that promote social development by utilizing local wisdom which was the durability of media with 72 participants or 27.37 percent. Next, it was the lack of knowledge and understanding in the use of local wisdom with 68 participants or 25.85 percent and not understand the process of promoting social activities using media from local wisdom with 51 participants or 19.39 percent respectively.
Table 11 shows the number and percentage of rules in the learning management that promote cognitive development for young children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rules</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>According to learning units</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>79.85</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>According to children’s interests</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>73.00</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>According to children’s environment</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>69.20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental appropriateness</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>74.90</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age appropriateness</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>74.52</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of use</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>49.43</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable price</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>39.16</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical purposes</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>36.88</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 shows the most number and percentage of the rules in the learning management that promotes cognitive development for young children which was according with learning units with 210 participants or 79.85 percent. Next, it was developmental appropriateness with 197 participants or 74.90 percent and age appropriateness with 196 participants or 74.52 percent respectively.
Table 12 shows the number and percentage of the objectives in (content for learning activities) learning management that promote cognitive development for young children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content for learning activities</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>57.03</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>43.35</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating or developing ideas</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>72.24</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematic thinking</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>40.68</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logic and rationality</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>32.70</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding the phenomenon</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>29.28</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical thinking</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>41.06</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding the world around them</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>59.70</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pollution and environmental protection</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>24.71</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding the economic value</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>12.93</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding the use of language</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>49.81</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual arts</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>10.27</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 shows the most number and percentage of the objectives in the learning management that promotes cognitive development for young children which was creating or developing ideas with 190 participants or 72.24 percent. Next, it was understanding the world around them with 157 participants or 59.70 percent and memory with 150 participants or 57.03 percent respectively.
Table 13 shows the number and percentage of problems and difficulties in the use of media that promote cognitive development by utilizing local wisdom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems and difficulties in the use of media</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never use media from local wisdom for learning management</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not understand the process of promoting cognitive activities using media from local wisdom</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>18.25</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not have media that correspond to learning units</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>16.73</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of knowledge and understanding in the use of local wisdom</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>29.28</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media do not correspond to the content of instruction.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12.17</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media do not attract children’s attention</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>13.69</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media are not durable.</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>33.84</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media cannot be used to plan learning experiences</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9.13</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13 shows the most number and percentage of problems and difficulties in the use of media that promotes cognitive development by utilizing local wisdom which was the durability of media with 89 participants or 33.84 percent. Next, it was the lack of knowledge and understanding in the use of local wisdom with the number of 77 participants or 29.98 percent who did not understand the process of promoting cognitive activities using media from local wisdom with 48 participants or 18.25 percent respectively.

**Conclusion and Discussion**

The findings from data analysis of the rules in the learning management for young children varied according to the child development including physical domain and cognitive domain, the teachers managed learning that were according with learning units 83.27 percent and 79.85 percent respectively. For emotional and psychological domain, The teachers managed learning that was according to children’s interests 78.70 percent. For social domain, the teachers managed learning that was according to children’s environment 79.47 percent. The findings related to Caine & Caine (2002) who mentioned learning management for children that learning is not separated into sections. It should correspond with the nature of human brain which can run several functions at the same time. Learning about human anatomy can also provide learning management that fits each child individually, because each person's brain is different. It is caused by genetic and environmental differences and appropriate learning
atmospheres that encourage learning. Emotion and learning cannot be separated and emotion has an affect on patterns of learning. Therefore, teachers should learn how to manage learning.

In addition, the findings on the content for learning activities used to promote the development of children found that most teachers focused on movement and balance using gross motor 88.97 percent in promoting physical development. The content about self-control was 85.17 percent in promoting emotional and psychological development. The content about interacting with peers was 90.49 percent in promoting social development. The content about creating or developing ideas was 72.24 percent in promoting cognitive development. As Worranart Raksakulthai (2005) said about creating learning content should be knowledge with scrutiny and appropriate boundaries for learners. The content must be meaningful to learners, related to their real lives, suitable of difficulty for different ages. Learners can create knowledge by themselves with the right learning approach.

The problems and difficulties in the use of media to promote development for young children mostly were the durability of the media which was found in all domains of development. Next, it was the lack of knowledge and understanding in the use of local wisdom and the media did not attract children’s attention. This finding related to Nikom Chompulong (2011) who wrote about problems of using local wisdom. He said teachers did not adjust learning activities and still used the traditional teaching method and teaching experience. They did not see the value and importance of local wisdom. There was lack of funding in bringing local wisdom for learning management and lack of content on local wisdom and resources in the community to create information for schools. In conclusion, the teachers were still lacking of local wisdom in the learning management that promoted development for young children and did not know how to create media using local wisdom in traditional classroom.

References
LESS-SUCCESSFUL UNIVERSITY LEARNERS’ WANTS IN ENGLISH LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated what aspects of the English language less-successful Thai learners wanted to study in an English class by conducting a needs analysis. The participants, recruited based on purposive sampling, were 35 university students at Valaya Alongkorn Rajabhat University under the Royal Patronage, located in Pathum Thani province, signing up for English for Communication (course code 9000102), a course in the old curriculum offered in 2016. These learners once took this course, but they failed or withdrew from it. Therefore, they were regarded as less-successful in terms of their English learning outcomes, especially in a classroom setting. To collect data, the learners were asked to complete an assignment about self-introduction which featured a question asking what the learners wanted to study in English or in a general English course. The results revealed a range of learners’ wants. That is, communication skills were most wanted, followed by vocabulary and reading skills as well as pronunciation. On the other hand, grammar, test preparation, and slang were least wanted from the number of responses. Discussion of major results is also provided. It is hoped that the study provides an insight into the wants of university students regarding English learning, and that it might be a guideline for further developments in general English courses.

Keywords: Needs analysis, learners’ wants, less-successful university learners

Introduction

It is indisputable that English, rather than other languages, has achieved its global status and become both internationalized in different workforce arenas and institutionalized in several countries (Crystal, 2003; Jenkins, 2015). Since the advent of English in Thailand in the reign of King Rama III, English has been highly welcomed due to its high prestige. In addition, English is considered the working language of ASEAN, so its great demand for effective and successful communication with ASEAN members has increased. English has, therefore, been part of the Thai curriculum from primary to tertiary level (Darasawang, 2007).

In Thai education, university students are likely to become future English users in the competitive world of working. Numerous universities have offered courses in general English aimed at enhancing undergraduate students’ communicative competence in everyday life. University lecturers of English, therefore, are the ones who determine what learners need to study in English.
However, the learners’ voice seems to be unheard of with regard to the areas of English language the learners themselves think they want to study or view as a necessity for them. This might be in contrast to the so-called learner-centered teaching and learning in which Thai educators are supposed to follow. Furthermore, to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, not much research on needs analysis has been conducted with respect to general English, especially in the Thai context, whereas needs analysis in English for Specific Purposes (ESP henceforth) has become popular among Thai researchers, such as Changpueng and Pattanapichet (2015), who together did a needs analysis of engineers in writing in English and Prachanant (2012), who carried out a needs analysis on the use of English in tourism industry among tourism employees. As exemplified, it can be stated that needs analysis in general English courses should be conducted. Accordingly, this study, in hopes of bridging the gap, is preliminary to further research in a similar vein, attempting to investigate a pool of less-successful university students’ wants in English learning by deploying a needs analysis.

**Literature Review**

A question arises as to what needs analysis is. Essentially, it is a process of gathering information for course and curriculum developments and is thus going to serve students’ needs (Iwai et al., as cited in Songhori, 2007). The term needs can also refer to wants, thereby implying what learners want to gain from a course (Brindley; Berwick, as cited in Timyam, 2008). In other words, wants are “what the learner actually wants to learn or what they feel they need” (Astika, 1999, p. 36). It has been said that needs analysis is useful for ESP courses, overlooking the needs of learners in general English courses (Seedhouse, 1995).

As needs analysis is commonplace in ESP, many studies have focused on the needs of students in various fields. For example, Salehi (2010) investigated the English language needs of 225 engineering students at Sharif University of Technology in Iran by using a questionnaire. The results demonstrated that the students considered technical writing most important, whereas translation was rated inappropriate for learning. Technical writing was, however, not in the curriculum of the university. Similarly, Hossain (2013), also employing a questionnaire, examined the needs and wants in English of 103 engineering students at Presidency University, Dhaka. Their needs were related to business English such as writing a business correspondence.

In Thailand, Timyam (2008) explored the needs of linguistic knowledge by 123 English-major students at Kasetsart University. Seven fields of linguistics, namely phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and sociolinguistics were considered necessary for the use of English. However, the students did not want to study linguistic concepts or topics that were too theoretical since they were deemed not much useful and relevant to the use of English. As exemplified, not many studies focus on general English courses, hence a less-explored area of research.

To fill this gap, this study is to find out what a group of less-successful or weak university students wants to study in English or in a general English class since learners’ perceived wants cannot be ignored according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987). Even though these learners study the English course (English for
Communication 9000102), which is in the old curriculum, their wants might be useful for further improvements in the newly-revamped course, English for Communication (VGE103), in the new curriculum as well as other English courses. Their viewpoints or wants, therefore, might be more or less useful, especially for course developers and university lecturers if appropriately taken into account.

**Research Objective**

To find out a group of less-successful university learners’ wants in English learning.

**Methodology**

**Participants**

The research participants, recruited based on purposive sampling, were 35 fourth, fifth, and sixth year students from three different faculties, namely the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, the Faculty of Industrial Technology, and the Faculty of Management Sciences at Valaya Alongkorn Rajabhat University under the Royal Patronage, located in Pathum Thani province. They studied English for Communication (course code 9000102), which was a general English course offered in the old curriculum. These learners signed up again for this course since they failed or withdrew from it. They were thus considered less-successful learners of English, especially in a classroom setting. These students studied English for approximately fifteen years. Their age range was 21-26.

**Data collection**

The participants were assigned to introduce themselves on paper on the second week of the first semester in 2016 and asked to submit this assignment about self-introduction which included a question asking what they thought they wanted to study in English or in a general English course on the fourth week. Also, the learners were informed to answer the question in Thai so as to elicit more detailed responses.

**Data analysis**

The researcher manually analyzed raw data obtained. Different areas of English mentioned by the participants were counted and grouped together. The data, the frequent number of responses, was then converted to percentage scores.

**Research Results**

The study investigated the aspects of the English language the less-successful university students thought they wanted to study.

The results revealed different wants in the English language. They are provided in the table below along with the number of responses (frequency) and percentage scores.

Table 1: The frequency and percentages of the areas of English language mentioned by the students
Table 2: The frequency and percentages of the areas of English language mentioned by the students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas of English</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication skills</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading skills</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening skills</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English for Specific Purposes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing skills</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test preparation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slang</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As clearly seen from the table, communication skills were most wanted among the participants, which stood at 30%. The next five important areas of English that followed were vocabulary (13.33%), reading skills (13.33%), pronunciation (11.67%), listening skills (10%), and writing skills (6.67%). English for Specific Purposes and translation were equally wanted (5% each) whereas grammar, test preparation, and slang were, from the number of responses, least wanted, each of which were at 1.67%.

To get a clearer picture, the results are rearranged according to the percentage scores on the graph below.

![Figure 1: The percentages of the areas of English language mentioned by the students](image-url)
Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to address the wants of less-successful university learners of English in their English learning in a classroom setting by using a question asking what they thought they wanted to study in English or in a general English course.

As can be seen from the findings, communication skills were the most wanted of all the English aspects mentioned. This implies that the learners still realize the importance of communicative competence in English. However, many of the students in this study suggested only ‘everyday’ English communication rather than English at work, for example. Their responses seem to contrast with what would-be graduates are expected in the 21st century in that English communication skills are important not only to their lives, but also to their education and future careers (Riemer, 2007). Their wants in communication skills in English are only to be able to get by. Thus, it is quite possible that many of these less-successful learners are not going to use English for work. They might also not realize that being able to communicate in English can help them get a job and be successful at work. Still, a question arises as to what should be taught and is going to be helpful for the learners in terms of improving their English communication skills. One answer could be communication strategies (CSs) which are recommended by Kongsom (2016), who argues for the instruction of CSs in an English class and provides empirical evidence that CSs should be taught to learners since they can help solve oral communication problems and thus help them achieve communicative goals.

In addition to English communication skills, vocabulary and reading skills were equally wanted. Since it is known that without a fair amount of vocabulary, not only communication but also reading is virtually impossible. What several of the learners wanted to study was again ‘everyday’ vocabulary to deal only with daily topics in everyday communication. According to Sedita (2005), vocabulary knowledge is an integral part of both reading and effective communication as well as of acquiring new knowledge. Furthermore, vocabulary size of English learners correlates with how much they can comprehend a text (Aderson, as cited in Pang, 2008). It is, therefore, assumed that what the learners’ wants are in line with the fact that vocabulary, reading, and communication supplement one another.

As for pronunciation, the learners viewed it as an essential skill they wanted to study. Two responses from two learners are exemplified below.

(1) “I want to study how to communicate in English with good pronunciation. This is because I have been studying English for so many years, but I can’t communicate well with other English users. When I open my mouth to speak English, I often stumble over my words.”

(Jay)

(2) “I want a teacher to teach different techniques for English communication and how to speak like an American.”

(Aom)
From (1), what the learner meant by ‘good pronunciation’ is questionable, that is, whether he wanted to sound like a native English speaker similar to the second learner (2) or to be simply intelligible. With this in mind, it is generally accepted that, in oral comprehensibility, intelligibility in pronunciation to serve various needed purposes instead of native-like pronunciation is sufficient (Morley, 1991). No matter what is preferred, however, the learners realize the importance of pronunciation and want to study it because what impairs learners’ communications or leads to incomprehensibility to the listener might not be vocabulary nor grammar, but rather bad and unclear pronunciation (Hinofotis and Baily, as cited in Gilakjani (2011). In sum, the learners want pronunciation to be incorporated into an English class. Pronunciation teaching is also recommended by many studies such as Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011) since it has a positive effect on communicative competence. Pedagogically speaking, Wennerstrom (as cited in Gilakjani, 2011) recommends that connected speech, rhythm, word stress, and intonation should be introduced to learners of English.

Moreover, the learners wanted to improve their listening skills. In communication, listening is an ability that needs to be trained since conversations, more often than not, take place in a two-way fashion. Hence, to be able to understand what is being said by another speaker helps us respond and communicate correctly and appropriately. Apart from listening skills, writing was the next skill the students wanted to study. However, not many responses could be drawn from the learners. This might be because, according to Alsamadani (2010), EFL writing is considered difficult and complicated. Therefore, it is possible that the students find writing in English intimidating and thus are not well aware of the fact that these days writing is also one of the crucial means to communicate at work.

Among the responses, grammar, test preparation, and slang were least wanted. As the learners are not competent in English, it might be expected that they did not want to study English grammar. This is probably because, according to Al-Mekhlafi and Nagaratnam (2011), within an English class, grammar is not a driving force to the English learning, but a demotivating one which gives rise to discomfort and terror for L2 learners of English (Thai EFL learners included).

As for test preparation, only one student verbalized wanting to study TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication). As these learners were, at the time of the research, the fourth, fifth, and sixth-year university students, they seem to be less prepared for the test that is of importance to them in their future careers. These less-successful learners might thus become TOEIC test-takers who obtain low scores. This may be in line with the findings from Bolton (2008), who found that Thai test-takers were low score achievers of TOEIC.

Lastly, the learners least wanted to study slang. This is probably because slang is informal or colloquial expressions which are commonly used with close friends and families. Also, slang terms might not be appropriate in professional situations; therefore, they should only be used in the right place and at the right time.

Even though the learners realize the importance of the English language, their wants, nevertheless, seem to be broad. Furthermore, they do not seem to endeavor to better their English, thereby failing the course or withdrawing from it in the past. These interpretations might be similar to Gaerlan (2016), who found that
less-successful Filipino ESL learners, albeit aware of how necessary English is, tend not to use English to a satisfactory extent.

On the whole, based on the findings, it can be concluded that the learners’ wants in what areas of the English language should be taught were varied in that communication skills were most wanted, followed by vocabulary and reading skills, pronunciation, and listening skills whereas grammar, test preparation, and slang were least wanted among the learners. University lecturers who are also course developers or are responsible for course design can carefully take these learners’ wants into consideration in order to create a general English course which both meets and satisfies students’ wants.

As only one task to collect the data was administered in this study, future research can use other kinds of techniques such as a questionnaire and face-to-face interviews to make its results more reliable and less subjective. A large number of participants are also recommended, which can lead to a more generalized conclusion.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to thank my fourth, fifth, and sixth year students who provided the valuable data for the study. Also, my thanks go to Ajarn Nanda Kemsrinual for her suggestions at the beginning of the study. Finally, I am grateful to two anonymous reviewers for their constructive comments on this study.

References


EVIDENCE OF NULL PREPOSITIONS FROM L1 THAI LEARNERS OF L2 ENGLISH: A CASE OF THE FULL TRANSFER/FULL ACCESS HYPOTHESIS

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ABSTRACT

The study explored the omission of prepositions in wh-questions and relative clauses requiring preposition pied-piping or stranding by L1 Thai learners of L2 English who could supply the same prepositions in the declarative counterparts. This phenomenon is known as null-prep, which results from a difficulty in acquiring target-like wh-movement. It is hypothesized that Thai learners, whose L1 is a wh-in-situ language, are able to recognize null prepositions and supply the overt counterparts in English, which is a wh-movement language, in accordance with the Full Transfer/Full Access Hypothesis (FTFA), and against the Failed Functional Feature Hypothesis (FFFH). A sample of 17 intermediate participants and 11 advanced participants were given a task involving grammaticality judgment and correction of null-prep sentences comprising three structure types: declarative sentences, wh-questions, and relative clauses. It was found that the higher-proficiency group’s score on rejecting sentences with null preps and supplying the overt ones was above 80%, while that of the lower-proficiency group was below 42%. It is assumed that parameterized features like wh-movement in English can be acquired by the advanced learners whose L1 is a wh-in-situ language as they can access Universal Grammar on the grammatical area non-existent in their L1. As for the intermediate participants, they accepted null preps that are deviant forms of the target grammar possibly because they were at a developmental stage of the acquisition. As witnessed in this study that post-puberty learners could acquire wh-movement, which controls preposition stranding pied-piping and stranding and is not instantiated in their L1, FFFH is contradicted and FTFA is confirmed.

Keywords: L1 Thai learners, L2 English, Null Prepositions, Full Access/Full Transfer Hypothesis, Failed Functional Features Hypothesis

Introduction

Omission of prepositions in wh-questions and relative clauses by L2 learners who can supply the same prepositions in declarative sentences has been well documented (e.g. Klein 1993, 1995, 2001; Dekydtspotter et al. 1998; Kao 2001; Sadighi et al. 2004; Hokari and Wakabayashi 2009). For example, when the complement of the preposition “with” in (1) undergoes wh-movement to form a wh-question and a relative clause, the preposition must be either stranded (2a, 3a) or pied-piped (2b, 3b). However, L2 learners of English sometimes accept or produce wh-questions and relative clauses, as in (2c, 3c) although they correctly supply the same preposition in declarative sentences as in (1).

(1) Anthony spoke with Angela yesterday.
(2) a. Who did Anthony speak with yesterday?  
b. With whom Anthony did speak yesterday?  
c. *Whom did Anthony speak yesterday?  

(3) a. The girl with whom Anthony spoke yesterday was Angela.  
b. The girl whom Anthony spoke with yesterday was Angela.  
c. *The girl whom Anthony spoke yesterday was Angela.  

Previous research has reflected some characteristics of this null-prep phenomenon. For instance, Klein (1993) found that L2 learners accepted and produced null-preps regardless of their L1 backgrounds. Klein (1993, 1995) also found that though L2 learners accepted and produced null-preps less as their English proficiency increased, advanced learners still sometimes omitted required prepositions. Last but not least, prepositions are omitted even when they are subcategorized by verbs\(^1\) (Klein, 2001).

Several attempts have been made to explain the cause of this null-prep phenomenon. Dekydtspotter et al. (1998) argued that null preps occur when L2 learners resort to the general strategy of relying on A-bar binding and preposition incorporation. In natural languages, according to Dekydtspotter et al. (1998), two types of operator-variable dependency are available; one involves operator movement and the other involves non-movement A-bar binding. The former is present in languages that exhibit subjacency effects like English and includes Merge and Move (Chomsky, 1995). By contrast, the latter involves Merge only, which is more computationally economical than the former. Therefore, L2 learners may resort to non-movement A-bar binding, a more economical operation, which results in null-preps in their interlanguage grammar. On the other hand, Klein (2001) argued that null-preps result from a null operator movement. This movement takes place before obligatory overt-movement is acquired and will only occur in interlanguage grammar. According to Klein (2001), null preps are due to incomplete acquisition of wh-movement combined with L2 learners’ tendency to avoid preposition stranding. In brief, Dekydtspotter et al. (1998) and Klein (2001) based their analyses on economy principles. Dekydtspotter et al. (1998) seem to assume that having a null preposition is less costly than having an overt one because there is no movement in the construction (Merge only) whereas Klein (2001) assumes that moving a null preposition is more economical than having an overt one since there is only covert movement.

To conclude, though details of the previous analyses to account for the null-prep phenomenon are different, what they have in common is that null prepositions result from a difficulty in acquiring target-like wh-movement. This leads the researcher to challenge the claim made by the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH) that parameterized features in the L2 absent in the L1 can never be acquired. Instead, in line with the Full Transfer/Full Access (FTFA) Hypothesis, the researcher hypothesizes that Thai-speaking learners whose L1 is a wh-in-situ language and who are at later stages of the acquisition can ultimately acquire wh-movement, thereby being able to reject

\(^1\) When a verb is subcategorized in a declarative sentence, the required preposition is correctly supplied, as in (1).
null prepositions and to either pie-pipe or strand prepositions, which are the two syntactic constructions required in English wh-questions and relative clauses.

**Literature review**

**2.1 Theoretical backgrounds**

**2.1.1 The Full Transfer/Full Access Hypothesis (FTFA)**

Schwartz and Sprouse (1994, 1996) propose the Full Transfer/Full Access (FTFA), claiming that the entire L1 grammar (both functional and lexical categories) constitutes the initial state, hence, the term “full transfer”. Moreover, when L2 learners are stuck with L2 features, e.g. functional categories, which are not instantiated in their L1, they will access to Universal Grammar (henceforth UG) instead, hence, the term “full access”. In other words, full transfer refers to the initial state grammar. Full access refers to the subsequent restructuring of the grammar. The FTFA hypothesis states that L1 final state constitutes the initial L2 state but does not determine the time period this state holds and the time needed for a restructuring of the system to take place. On this view, convergence of the L2 grammar does not necessarily happen. The final outcome of L2 acquisition might never be the same as the target language due to either absence of data needed to guide restructuring or complexity and rarity of positive data. For example, White et al. (2004) investigated the acquisition of Spanish, a language with a gender feature for nouns and gender agreement for determiners and adjectives, by speakers of an L1 that also has gender (French), as well as an L1 that does not (English). The results on gender agreement were in line with the FTFA hypothesis in that the English group whose L1 lacks gender agreement could acquire this feature and finally converged on native speakers’ performance, given that their accuracy rate was above 90%, suggesting that parameter resetting is possible given that English lacks gender agreement, but L1 English learners of L2 Spanish could acquire this parameterized feature in the L2, which is non-existent in their L1.

The present study attempts to test the FTFA hypothesis in terms of full access which predicts that parameter resetting is possible. More specifically, even though the Wh-Movement Parameter is set differently in English (+ wh-movement) and Thai (-wh-movement), advanced L1 Thai learners will be able to reset this parameter from the value of their L1 to the value of the L2 due to UG, thereby being able to reject null prepositions in English wh-questions and relative clauses.

**2.1.2 The Failed Functional Feature Hypothesis (FFFH)**

The Failed Functional Feature Hypothesis (FFFH) is proposed by Hawkins and Chan (1997) who believe that L2 learners will never acquire some L2 aspects such as functional features which are not instantiated in their L1. On this view, parameter resetting is impossible for post-puberty L2 learners. Proponents of the FFFH believe in the Critical Period Hypothesis proposed by Lanneberg (1967) who claims that after the age of puberty (12-15 years), human capacity for learning languages declines, and native-like competence can never be achieved. According to the FFFH, parameterized features are subject to a critical period, leading to non-target-like representations in
interlanguage grammar. To take an example, Hawkins and Chan (1997) investigated the acquisition of wh-operators in English by Chinese learners of English. French learners of English and native English speakers also participated in the study as controls. A Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT) was used to collect data. The researchers found that Chinese subjects’ accuracy in their intuition about English restrictive relative clauses (RRCs) increased with increasing proficiency, but their ability to indicate subjacency violations decreases with exposure to English. However, the French subjects were able to correct subjacency violations with increasing proficiency. The results showed that subjects were constrained by the feature specifications of functional categories in their L1s. In other words, Chinese does not allow wh-operator movement, while French does. In addition, Hawkins and Chan (1997) hypothesized that though the Chinese subjects correctly rejected ungrammatical gap constructions in English RRCs, their mental representations of the construction were different from those of native speakers.

The present study argues against the FFFH that parameterized features like wh-movement can be acquired by advanced Thai learners (who are assumed to be endstate learners) whose L1 lacks wh-movement. Therefore, this group of learners will have no difficulty in rejecting null prepositions in English wh-questions and relative clauses, which involve wh-movement operation.

2.1.3 Wh-movement in English

Wh-movement refers to instances when wh-expressions beginning with wh-words like “what”, “which”, “who”, “where”, “when”, and “why” move into the specifier position within a Complementizer Phrase (CP) (Radford, 2009). (Note that “how” is also treated as a wh-operator since it exhibits the same syntactic behavior) Under the framework of generative grammar, wh movement takes place in both wh-questions and relative clauses (Radford, 2009). To form a wh-question in English, consider the sentence and its syntactic derivation below (Radford, 2009, 153):

(4) Who was she dating?

(5)
Two kinds of movement operations are required to form wh-questions like (5). First, the movement arrowed in (4) involves a head movement operation by which the auxiliary “was” moves from the specifier position within TP to the head C position of CP. By contrast, the movement arrowed in (5) involves movement of the wh-word “who” from the complement position within VP into the specifier position in CP, and this kind of movement is called wh-movement. To form a relative clause in English, consider the sentence and its syntactic derivation below:

(6) There is no one else [who you can blame]

(7) 

Following the Wh-Attraction Condition suggested by Radford (2009), the edge feature (EF) on the relative clause C constituent attracts the relative pronoun “who” to move into the specifier position of CP. When “who” moves to the specifier position of CP, the edge feature of C is deleted.

Following Chomsky’s copy theory of movement within the framework of the Minimalist program, Radford (2009) asserts that wh-movement is an operation involving two suboperations of “copying” and “deletion”; the first stage is for a copy of the moved wh-expression to be moved into the specifier position of CP, and the second stage is for the original wh-expression to be deleted. The two operations are illustrated in (5) and (7) above. It should be noted that in an earlier version of generative grammar, namely the Government and Binding Theory, copies were analyzed as traces. Therefore, when a wh-expression moves to serve as the specifier of CP in either wh-questions or relative clauses, it leaves its trace behind in the original position (Radford, 2009).

2.1.4 Preposition stranding and pied-piping in English

Preposition standing (PS) and pied-piping (PiP) occur in constructions derived by wh-movement, such as wh-questions and relative clauses (Radford, 2009). The former is exemplified in (8) and (9) and the latter in (10) and (11) below:

(8) The exam, which the students worried about, was easier than expected.
(9) Who are you looking for?

(10) The exam about which the students worried was easier than expected.

(11) For whom are you looking?

In (8), “about” is stranded in that its complement is missing from the normal post-head position. In other words, the preposition “about” is stranded since it is not followed by its complement “exam”. As explained earlier, wh-questions and relative clauses arguably require its wh-operator to move from the complement position within VP to serve as the specifier of CP. In (9), “for” is stranded since it is not followed by its complement “what”, which moves to serve as the specifier of CP to form wh-questions in English. In (10), however, the preposition is pied piped along with the relative pronoun “which”. In (11), the preposition “for” is placed before its complement “whom”. It is worth noting that prepositions can either be pied piped or stranded in wh-questions and relative clauses, but only stranding is possible for particles in phrasal verbs as shown below:

(12) Which light did Mary turn off?

(13) *Off which light did Mary turn?

2.1.5 Wh-in-situ in Thai

When wh-questions are formed in Thai, the wh-expression, be it a subject, an object, an indirect object or a possessor, occurs in the original position as the corresponding non-wh-expression in declarative sentences (Ruangjaroon, 2007). This is exemplified in (14) for wh-subjects, in (15) for wh-objects, in (16) for wh-indirect objects, and in (17) for wh-possessors (Ruangjaroon, 2007, 121).

(14) kʰrai sùː nǎ ŋsɯ̌ː mɯ̂ awaːnní:
who buy book yesterday
“Who bought a book yesterday?” [wh-subject]

(15) nít sùː ʔarai mɯ̂ awaːnní:
nit buy what yesterday
“What did Nit buy yesterday?” [wh-object]

(16) nít hāi nǎ ŋsɯ̌ː kʰrai mɯ̂ awaːnní:
nit give book whom yesterday
“To whom did Nit give a book yesterday?” [wh-indirect object]

(17) nít ʔāːn nǎ ŋsɯ̌ː kʰɔ̌ ŋ kʰrai mɯ̂ awaːnní:
nit read book of whom yesterday
“Whose book did Nit read yesterday?” [wh-possessor]

The above examples prove that Thai wh-expressions occur in their base-generated positions and this leads many scholars to assume that Thai is a wh-in-situ
language. Nominal question words in Thai, namely “kʰrai (who)” and “ʔarai (what),
however, can appear in various positions in a sentence (Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom,
2005). Consider (18) below:

(18) kʰrai tîː râk nît
Who that love nît
“Who is the one that loves Nît?”
(Ruangjaroon, 2007, 122)

(19) ʔarai tîː nît tɕɔ̂ːp
what that nît like
“What is it that Nît likes?”

At first glance, (18) and (19) may constitute evidence of wh-movement in Thai.
For example, Panphotong (2001) claimed that there exists wh-movement in Thai, but
the operation is covert, which means that wh-expression undergoes wh-movement at
LF (Logical Form).2

By contrast, Ruangjaroon (2005; 2007) claimed that all wh-expressions in Thai
are authentically in-situ. In fact, cases of apparent wh-movement of wh-expressions are
in fact instances of reduced wh-clefts. As Ruangjaroon (2005, 119) argued:

“…reduced wh-clefts have the same semantic and syntactic properties as
contrastive wh-clefts. If they have the same structure, then the wh-expression is
based generated at the left edge of the clause where it matches in feature with
the probe Q[wh] in C.”

Thus, cases of wh-movement exemplified in (18) and (19) are in fact wh-clefts.
This means that wh-expressions do not undergo movement in Thai, but they are
authentically in-situ.3 The present study supports the argument made by Ruangjaroon
(2005; 2007) that Thai is a wh-in-situ language and makes a prediction based on the
FTFA that parameterized features like wh-movement in English can be acquired by
advanced L1 Thai learners who are arguably to be at a final stage of the acquisition.

2.2 Previous studies

A number of studies have been conducted to investigate null-prep phenomena
among L2 English learners. Klein (1993), a pioneer scholar in this field, investigated
196 L2 learners of English from three levels of English proficiency and 18 L1
backgrounds such as Japanese, Korean, Chinese, French, Thai, Italian, Brazilian, and
many others to test the hypothesis that adult L2 learners of English showed null-prep
in the process of acquiring PiP and PS required in relative clauses and wh-questions.
All the participants were given a grammaticality judgment task with correction. In both
tasks, there were nine verb + preposition combinations: “wait for”, “apply for”, “pay
for”, “dance with”, “play with”, “live with”, “talk about”, “complain about”, and

2 See Panphotong (2001) for evidence she put forward to claim that Thai has wh-movement.
3 For detailed analyses of Thai as a wh-in-situ language, see Ruangjaroon (2005).
“worry about”. These nine combinations were presented in three types of clauses: declarative, wh-question, and relative. The results showed that the beginner-level participants who accurately subcategorized verbs with prepositions in declarative sentences accepted null-preps in the corresponding wh-questions and relative clauses at a mean of 69 and 78 per cent, respectively. As for the intermediate-level participants who accurately subcategorized verbs with prepositions, they accepted the same verbs without prepositions in wh-questions and relative clauses at a mean of 52 and 57 per cent, respectively. Null-preps still occurred among the advanced group of participants, though to a much lesser degree at 30 per cent in wh-questions and 36 per cent in relative clauses.

Having reviewed several previous studies on null-prep phenomena, Klein (1995) argued that null-prep constructions are severely restricted in natural languages; they are exclusively permitted in non-movement constructions like relative clauses. Therefore, null-preps in wh-questions formed by L2 learners are not UG-regulated and are considered, according to Klein, as part of wild L2 grammar.

Dekydtspotter et al. (1998) argued that the null-prep phenomenon discussed by Klein (1993; 1995) and Jourdain (1996 as cited in Dekydtspotter et al., 1998) derives from L2 learners’ general strategy of relying on A-bar binding and resulting preposition incorporation, which falls under the scope of UG.

Klein (2001) also argued against Dekydtspotter et al. (1998) that prepositions can be omitted regardless of whether they are subcategorized by verbs. Since incorporation of a preposition into a verb is allowed only if the preposition is subcategorized by the verb, Dekydtspotter et al.’s (1998) analysis is thus problematic for an explanation based on preposition incorporation.

Kao (2001) examined the acquisition of English prepositional verbs by Japanese EFL learners. 99 university students were provided a task involving grammaticality judgment and correction of individual sentences. The results showed that null prepositions occurred across the three levels of the participants. Moreover, stranding was found to be the preferred option for the correction task across proficiency levels and sentence types. Kao (2001) argued that the reason why some L2 learners omitted prepositions required by certain verbs may involve a communication strategy. That is to say, communicational redundant prepositions are likely to be omitted since they carry no meaning.

Sadighi et al. (2004) examined the development of preposition pied-piping and preposition stranding in the interlanguage grammar of 80 Iranian participants at three levels of proficiency and specially focused on null-prep constructions. A total of eight verbs were tested in a grammaticality judgment task (GJT). Each verb was initially presented in a declarative sentence to test the subcategorization knowledge of the participants. Furthermore, one interrogative and one relative clause were developed to check the differences between the two structures. Therefore, there were 24 test sentences in total and 24 incorrect filler sentences. The results showed that although the subcategorization knowledge of the target verbs increased with English proficiency, the interlanguage grammar of participants across the three proficiency levels who possessed the subcategorization knowledge of the relevant verbs in declarative sentences evidenced null-preps. The low-proficiency group accepted 66.7 and 76 per cent of null-preps in the corresponding interrogative and relative clauses, respectively. Similarly, the mid-proficiency group accepted null preps at a high per centage, 54 and
61.9, in both interrogatives and relative clauses, respectively. The high-proficiency group who accurately subcategorized the verbs in declarative sentences accepted 37 per cent of the interrogatives and 44.6 per cent of the relative clauses without prepositions. Sadighi et al. (2004) concluded that null-prep is an undeniable stage in L2 acquisition and it was found to be retained longer in relative clauses than in interrogatives.

Hokari and Wakabayashi (2009) reported results of an experiment which tested L1 Japanese speakers of L2 English whether their interlanguage grammar showed different frequencies of null-preps in wh-questions, which require wh-movement, and passive sentences, which require no movement of wh-expressions. Participants included 67 Japanese learners of English, which were further divided into three groups of different proficiency levels. The results showed that null-preps were more accepted in passive sentences than in wh-questions across three groups of participants. Hokari and Wakabayashi (2009) explained that null-preps in interlanguage is a far more complicated phenomenon than previously reported since previous studies only focused on null-preps in constructions which require wh-movement like interrogatives and relative clauses. The possible reasons why Japanese learners of English accepted null-preps in non-wh-movement constructions like passive sentences at a greater rate than in wh-movement constructions like wh-questions, according to Hokari and Wakabayashi (2009), were that the participants had difficulty in acquiring native-like productive system of Case-absorption for prepositions.

2.3 The present study

In this paper the researcher challenges the Failed Functional Feature Hypothesis (FFFH) which claims that parameterized features cannot be acquired by post-puberty L2 learners. Instead, in accordance with the Full Transfer/Full Access Hypothesis (FTFA), the researcher hypothesizes that parameterized features like wh-movement are acquirable. According to the FFFH, L1 Thai learners of L2 English, regardless of proficiency levels, will never acquire features non-existent in their L1 like wh-movement, given the acquisition criterion being above 80 %. By contrast, the FTFA predicts that advanced proficiency learners and (possibly) intermediate-level proficiency learners who are in later stages of acquisition will meet the acquisition criterion. The present study’s hypotheses are as follows:

1. Intermediate L1 Thai learners of L2 English who are able to subcategorize verbs with prepositions have difficulty in retaining the prepositions in wh-questions and relative clauses.

2. Advanced learners who are able to subcategorize verbs with prepositions are able to retain the prepositions in wh-questions and relative clauses.

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4 For detailed explanation of Case-absorption, see Hokari and Wakabayashi (2009).
5 According to Tarone, Gass, and Cohen (1994), the 80% criterion for acquisition is commonly accepted in SLA.
In contrast, the FFFH predicts persistent problems of post-puberty learners whose L1 lacks wh-movement, even at advanced levels of proficiency.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

Participants were divided into two groups based on their scores of Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT). They were Chulalongkorn University and Silpakorn University undergraduate students whose age fell between 19 and 22. The participants who scored between 30 and 40 were labeled as intermediate and between 48 and 56 as advanced. In addition, those who failed to subcategorize all of the test verbs in declarative sentences were excluded from the study.

3.2 Tasks

3.2.1 English placement test

The Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT), Version 2 (2001), was utilized to divide participants into two groups. Those who scored from 30 to 40 were categorized as intermediate and from 48 to 56 as advanced. With these criteria, 17 participants were grouped as intermediate and 11 participants as advanced.

3.2.2 Grammaticality judgment task (GJT)

A GJT was employed to elicit the learners’ knowledge of verb subcategorization in declarative sentences and preposition suppleness in the corresponding wh-questions and relative clauses. Nine verbs as used in Klein’s (1993) study, namely “wait for”, “apply for”, “pay for”, “dance with”, “play with”, “live with”, “talk about”, “complain about”, and “worry about”, were tested in three sentence types, i.e. nine declaratives (as in 1, 4), nine wh-questions (as in 2, 5) and nine relative clauses (as in 3, 6). All of them were VP complements, which required functional prepositions; lexical prepositions were excluded for the sake of the researcher’s argument that functional categories in the L2 absent in the L1 can finally be acquired by post-puberty L2 learners. There were also 12 correct and 12 incorrect filler sentences. In total, there were 27 target sentences and 24 filler sentences. Examples of target sentences are shown below:

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6 Prepositions are arguably categorized as either functional or lexical morphemes (Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden, 2013). Lexical prepositions are, for example, spatial prepositions such as “in”, “on”, and “under”, which describe the position of an object in relation to another object, while functional prepositions have a more abstract meaning (Mardale, 2011).
Table 2: Target sentences in the GJT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Target Sentences</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>*My professor likes to talk political situations in Thailand.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>*What problem is the British Prime Minister talking?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>*The theory which the professor talked last week is difficult to understand.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>*I have been waiting a shuttle bus to IKEA for almost an hour.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>*What evidence are the police waiting before making an arrest?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>*Mike is the one whom I am waiting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants were asked to judge the acceptability of the test sentences. If a sentence was judged incorrect, the subjects had to correct by inserting a preposition. Importantly, the subjects who could supply a required preposition either in a wh-question or a relative clause but failed to do so in a declarative sentence would be ignored, given that they were unable to subcategorize verbs in declarative sentences and that they might simply guess the answers. The present study thus exclusively focuses on whether the participants who could subcategorize verbs by inserting a preposition in a declarative sentence are able to retain the same preposition in the corresponding wh-question and relative clause.

3.3 Procedure

The OQPT Version 2 and the GJT were distributed to participants in a regular classroom setting. They were given one hour to complete each test and were also given a snack as a reward. All participants had a positive attitude and were keen and cooperative throughout the experiment.

Results

4.1 Verb subcategorization

As for the intermediate group, there were 65 out of 153 accurately subcategorized declaratives (42.48%) which serve as a baseline. By contrast, the advanced group accurately subcategorized as many as 78 out of 99 declaratives (78.79%). The result is summarized in Table 2 below:
Table 3: Subcategorization of verbs in declaratives by proficiency levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of proficiency</th>
<th>N-subj</th>
<th>N-subcat</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>65/153</td>
<td>42.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>78/99</td>
<td>78.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N-subj = number of subjects, N-subcat = number of subcategorized declaratives

4.2 Null-preps in wh-questions

Among the accurately subcategorized declaratives, 40 per cent of the intermediate participants and 88.46 per cent of the advanced participants successfully supplied the same prepositions in the corresponding wh-questions. The result is summarized in Table 3 below:

Table 4: Null-prep results for wh-questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of proficiency</th>
<th>N-subj</th>
<th>N-subcat-ques</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26/65</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>69/78</td>
<td>88.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N-subj = number of subjects, N-subcat-ques = number of wh-questions with accurate suppliance of prepositions

4.3 Null-preps in relative clauses

Among the accurately subcategorized declaratives, 35.39 per cent of the intermediate participants and 80.77 per cent of the advanced participants successfully supplied the same prepositions in the corresponding relative clauses. The result is summarized in Table 4 below:

Table 5: Null-prep results for relative clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of proficiency</th>
<th>N-subj</th>
<th>N-subcat-rel</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>23/65</td>
<td>35.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>63/78</td>
<td>80.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N-subj = number of subjects, N-subcat-rel = number of relative clauses with accurate suppliance of prepositions

4.4 Overall results

As for the intermediate participants who accurately subcategorized 23 out of 65 declaratives, rejection of null-preps in questions was 40 per cent, and in relatives, 35.39 per cent. The advanced participants who accurately subcategorized 63 out of 78 declaratives, however, rejected null preps in wh-questions and relative clauses to a much larger extent, 88.46 per cent and 80.77 per cent, respectively. The overall results are summarized in Table 5 below:
Table 6: Overall null-prep results for L1 Thai learners of L2 English by proficiency level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of proficiency</th>
<th>N-subj</th>
<th>N-subcat (%)</th>
<th>N-subcat-ques (%)</th>
<th>N-subcat-rel (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>42.48</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>35.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>78.79</td>
<td>88.46</td>
<td>80.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N-subj = number of subjects, N-subcat = number of accurately subcategorized declaratives, N-subcat-ques = number of wh-questions with accurate suppliance of prepositions, N-subcat-rel = number of relative clauses with accurate suppliance of prepositions

Discussion

In the current study, the advanced learners clearly outperformed the intermediate learners in rejecting null-preps in wh-questions and relative clauses. The higher-proficiency group rejected null preps in wh-questions at a mean of 88.46 per cent and in relative clauses at a mean of 80.77 per cent. In contrast, the lower-proficiency group rejected null preps in both constructions at a far lower percentage: 40 per cent for wh-questions and 35.39 per cent for relative clauses. Up to this point, the results confirm both Hypothesis 1 and 2 as the intermediate participants had difficulty rejecting null preps in both wh-questions and relative clauses and that the advanced participants, who were assumed to represent endstate L2 learners, met the acquisition criteria rejecting null-preps at a mean above 80 per cent in both wh-questions and relative clauses. The present study’s results, however, contradict some previous studies on null-preps. For example, Klein (1993, 1995) found that advanced learners still accepted null preps at a high rate, 30 per cent in wh-questions and 36 per cent in relative clauses. Similar to Sadighi et al.’s results (2004), they found that advanced learners who could subcategorize verbs in declaratives accepted null preps in wh-questions and relative clauses at a rate of 38 per cent and 45 per cent, respectively. Indeed, the FTFA is confirmed, given that parameterized features in the L2 non-existent in the L1 can be acquired by endstate L2 learners. Conversely, the FFFH is contradicted as the wh-movement parameter which controls preposition pied-piping and stranding can be acquired by Thai learners whose L1 is a wh-in-situ language.

Some minor findings are worth discussing. For instance, both groups of the participants showed a preference for preposition stranding over preposition pied-piping. It was found that when supplying the required prepositions in the two constructions, almost all the participants chose to strand the required prepositions, rather than pied-pipe them. This is possibly due to classroom language input in that preposition stranding is far more favored than preposition pied-piping, especially in spoken input. Kao (2001) also found that her participants preferred preposition stranding to pied-piping as their teachers and textbooks showed a much higher frequency and a greater preference for preposition stranding than pied-piping. As for those who failed to supply
the required prepositions, it probably resulted from the fact that standard Thai textbooks do not include preposition pied piping and stranding in their lessons.

Whether null prepositions result from no wh-movement (Dekydtspotter et al., 1998) or covert wh-movement (Klein, 2001), it seems reasonable to make a conclusion based on economy principles (Chomsky, 1995) that L2 learners choose a less costly option, i.e. null-prep constructions, since it requires no prepositions, unlike preposition pied-piping or standing. The researcher also supports Kao’s (2001) claim that communicational redundant prepositions (e.g. functional prepositions such as “to”, “about”, and “of”) are likely to be omitted by L2 learners, who are especially in the initial stage of L2 acquisition.

Conclusion

The present study constitutes another piece of evidence to strengthen the fact that the null-prep is a prevailing phenomenon, which occurs especially in an interim stage of L2 acquisition regardless of L1 backgrounds. Most importantly, this study provides counter-evidence to the FFTH proponents who believe that parameterized features in the L2 not instantiated in the L1 cannot be acquired by post-puberty L2 learners. The advanced participants who represented endstate learners met the acquisition criterion, rejecting null-preps at a mean above 80 per cent. This proves that the wh-movement parameter which controls preposition pied-piping and stranding can be acquired by L2 learners whose L1 is a wh-in-situ language.

This study also offers some pedagogical implications for L2 learners of English. That is, teachers should stress the importance of preposition pied-piping and stranding, which are the two obligatory syntactic constructions derived by wh-movement and required in wh-questions and relative clauses, since many learners are able to use neither of them despite their correct supplance of the required prepositions in declarative sentences. Moreover, since preposition pied-piping and stranding seem to be overlooked and excluded from English lessons as exemplified in the two aforementioned popular English textbooks found in Thailand, drills may be specially designed to explicitly teach the two constructions. In so doing, Thai learners might finally be able to recognize null preps and produce the target-like grammatical structure.

Limitation

Research in the future may use more participants than did the present study so that the results will be more generalized. In addition, a greater number of verbs with different prepositions can be used to see whether they affect the use of null prepositions in wh-questions and relative clauses. Since the present study investigated only L2 learners’ receptive knowledge of null prepositions, future research may collect data from both receptive tasks and elicited production tasks to see if there are task effects. Furthermore, future research may examine two groups of learners whose L1s are wh-

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7 Preposition pied piping and stranding are not greatly emphasized in Thai standard curriculum of the English language for senior high school students, as exemplified in two popular English textbooks by Krungkaew and Prasampoj (2012) and Kaewsa-art, Lekpet, and Lojinda (2014) where the two constructions are absent from the lessons.
movement and wh-in-situ languages, respectively, to see whether those whose L1 is a wh-movement language can reject null prepositions better than those whose L1 is a wh-in-situ language. Last but not least, since previous studies almost exclusively focus on null-preps in constructions with wh-movement, future studies may investigate null-preps in constructions without movement like passives, which may yield interesting results as well.

References


FACTORS RELATED TO THE INSTRUCTIONAL QUALITY OF PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN BATTAMBANG PROVINCE, CAMBODIA

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ABSTRACT

This research was to study the factors related to the instructional quality of private universities in Battambang province, Cambodia. A sample of 274 students derived from the population of 869 students using Yamane’s formula was used to collect the data. The research instrument, a five-point Likert rating scale questionnaire with the validity in IOC ranging from 0.60 to 1.00 was approved by 5 intellectual experts and the reliability of 0.85. The statistics used in data analysis were percentage, mean and standard deviation. The statistic hypothesis testing was Pearson Correlation to find out the relationship between the instructional quality and related variables.

The research study found that:

Analysis of the factors related to the instructional quality of private universities in Battambang province, Cambodia indicated positive correlation. It was found respectively that the firstly highest significant correlation was instructional quality with teachers’ instructional process (r=.398, p<0.01), the secondly highest significant correlation was instructional quality with teachers’ dispositions (r=.335, p<0.01), and the thirdly highest significant correlation was instructional quality with teachers’ experiences (r=.328, p<0.01). The results of factors related to the instructional quality of private universities were shown highly significant correlation between each factor and the instructional quality comprising of students’ learning achievement and students’ desirable characteristics.
The study offered several directions and profound implications for future studies of the instructional quality of private universities in Battambang province of Cambodia to improve the instructional quality for national education development. **Keywords:** Instructional Quality, Private Universities, Battambang Province - Cambodia

**Introduction**

Cambodia is among the many developing nations with a recent history of rapid growth within the private higher education sector. Since Cambodia switched to a free market economy in the early 1990s, higher education has been viewed as the key to human resource development in the economy. This was partly due to the continuous shortage of financial and skilled human resources in this field and the past legacies caused by many years of civil wars (Pit & Ford, 2004: 67-68). Moreover, foreign financial support in this sub-sector was very limited and neglected, especially compared to basic general education (Duggan, 2008: 45).

The instructional quality means teachers accomplish instructional goals and strengthen students’ meaningful learning through a series of planned instructional activities, such as preparation, curriculum, teacher-student interaction, instructional activities and evaluation (ACC, 2013). The instructional quality refers to students’ learning achievements and students’ desirable characteristics (MoEYS, 2013). High-quality of instruction should be based on students’ learning intentions and efforts, social support and assistance, as well as instructional and learning opportunities and resources. These, in conjunction with positive interactions and the better instruction will be realized in private higher education (Jonh Wiley & Sons, 2011: 188).

**Research Objectives**

The purpose of this study is to find out the factors related to the instructional quality of private universities in Battambang province, Cambodia.

**Methodology**

The researcher used multi-stage sampling which included stratified random sampling and simple random sampling to obtain the sample size of target group from the total member of students who studying at those three private universities in...
marketing management. At first, the researcher used Yamane’s formula (1973) to identify appreciation the totally 879 students at private universities. This formula is reliable 95% and less than 5% of deviation factors.

\[ n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2} \]

\( e = \text{Deviation of Sampling} \)
\( N = \text{Size of Population} \)
\( n = \text{Size of sample} \)

\[ n = \frac{879}{1 + 879(0.05)^2} \]

Therefore, the sample size is 274 students.

Then researcher used percentage sampling by divided into three sample groups of universities: (1) Build Bright University, (2) Cambodia Specialize University and (3) University of Management and Economics.

**Validity:**

Five experts, three Cambodian experts of University of Management and Economics and the two Thai experts of Valaya Alongkorn Rajabhat University who had more than five years of curriculum and instruction, evaluation and physical working experience and had taught curriculum and instruction as well to check how well the instrument measures the subject matter content, all items were evaluated by those five experts in order to find the content validity. According to the result of content validity, IOC was ranging from 0.60 to 1.00 which was approved by 5 intellectual experts, so the questionnaire was highly reliable.

**Reliability:**

Reliability of the survey instrument was obtained by using the coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951). The 43 items of questionnaire was answered by 30 students of General Education in English Program, V.R.U. And the alpha coefficient from the research was equal 0.85, therefore it can be assumed that the questionnaire had high reliability.

**Statistics for Data Analysis**

The exploratory survey data were analyzed using the descriptive statistic and statistical procedure program known as statistical analyzing software to report descriptive, inferential statistics and using also standard deviation on each item of
statement. The researcher also used correlation to analyze the relationship between several independent or predictor variables and a dependent or criterion variable, the term was first used by Pearson Coefficient Correlation.

**Core Categories of variables**

**Table:** Below describes the common core categories of variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Core categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| University Factors | 1. University Administration  
                      2. University Context of Social and Physical environment  
                      3. Curriculum of Universities and Faculties  
                      4. School Policies and Regulation  
                      5. Educational Resources |
| Teacher Factors  | 6. Teachers’ Knowledge  
                      7. Teachers’ Experiences  
                      8. Teachers’ Dispositions  
                      9. Teachers’ Instructional Process |
| Instructional Quality | 1. Students’ Learning Achievement  
                         2. Desirable of Students’ Characteristics |

**Research Results**

The statistical analysis presented the results related to the instructional quality were found:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>( \bar{x} )</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>Interpretation of Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Administrate</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.467</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Context social</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>.465</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.Curriculum</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>.527</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Policies</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>.519</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.Resources</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>.557</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Knowledge</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>.544</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Experiences</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>.568</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Dispositions</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>.528</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total of Instruct. Quality | 4.12 | .477 | High

1). **Descriptive Statistics:** The mean and standard deviation of instructional quality was found (\( \bar{x} = 4.12 \) and S.D=0.477). It also was found three highest levels are firstly teachers’ experiences (\( \bar{x} = 4.44 \) and S.D=0.568), secondly teachers’ dispositions (\( \bar{x} = 4.39 \) and S.D=0.528) and thirdly teachers’ instructional processes (\( \bar{x} = 4.37 \) and
S.D=0.549). It was also found the lowest level is universities’ administration (\(\bar{x}=3.93\) and S.D=0.467).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Administrate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Context social</td>
<td>.477**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Curriculum</td>
<td>.458**</td>
<td>.640**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Policies</td>
<td>.322**</td>
<td>.409**</td>
<td>.507*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Resources</td>
<td>.326**</td>
<td>.771**</td>
<td>.466**</td>
<td>.519**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Knowledge</td>
<td>.158**</td>
<td>.218**</td>
<td>.281**</td>
<td>.377**</td>
<td>.441**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Experiences</td>
<td>.142**</td>
<td>.179**</td>
<td>.238**</td>
<td>.321**</td>
<td>.207**</td>
<td>.578**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Dispositions</td>
<td>.110**</td>
<td>.232**</td>
<td>.301**</td>
<td>.324**</td>
<td>.165**</td>
<td>.544**</td>
<td>.580**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Inst. Process</td>
<td>.072**</td>
<td>.183**</td>
<td>.235**</td>
<td>.253**</td>
<td>.089</td>
<td>.408**</td>
<td>.527**</td>
<td>.655**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2). Correlations of factor variables: the analysis, It was found respectively that there were firstly highest significant correlation between teachers’ instructional process with instructional quality (\(r=.398, p<0.01\)). And it was found that there were the secondly highest significant correlation between teachers’ dispositions and instructional quality (\(r=.335, p<0.01\)). It was found that there were thirdly highest significant correlation between teachers’ experiences and instructional quality (\(r=.328, p<0.01\)).

3). Correlations of those variables with instructional quality: every pair is significant and it was found respectively that there were firstly highest significant correlation between teachers’ instructional process and teachers’ disposition (\(r=.655, p<0.01\)). It was found that there were secondly highest significant correlation between curriculum and context of social (\(r=.640, p<0.01\)). It was also found that there were thirdly highest significant correlation between teachers’ disposition and teachers’ experiences (\(r=.580, p<0.01\)).

**Summary**

The researcher was able to arrive at these conclusions based on the findings of purpose of this study is to find out the factors related to the instructional quality of private universities in Battambang province, Cambodia, the following drawn:
1). The researcher concluded that the teachers’ instructional process firstly have been related significantly to instructional quality, the study investigates teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge, professional beliefs, work-related motivation, and self-regulation as aspects of their professional competence on instructional quality that was diversified and flexible to follow curriculums (ACC, 2013) and develop human resources with excellent knowledge, skills, and moral values of characteristics to ensure qualified students have an opportunity to access instructional quality which respond to the needs of socio-economics development and labor market of global integration (MoEYS, 2014).

2). The researcher concluded that the teachers’ dispositions secondly have been related to instructional quality (MoEYS, 2014) to establish internal quality assurance mechanisms and conduct regular internal self-assessment of the instructional quality management according to regulations and guided by beliefs and attitudes related to values such as caring, fairness, honesty, responsibility, accountability and social justice to motivate, encourage, understand and care inspired students and provided a positive disposition of instructional activities to promote and support in the quality of teaching and learning, address priority instruction, solve local development issues and lead to increased economic growth (HEIs, 2012). And the teachers also have to make every clear job descriptions of teaching dispositions to serve the objective of developing relevant curricula that provide students with excellent knowledge, skills and moral values of characteristics (MoEYS, 2014) that help students contribute fully to national development and labor market needs to turn contributed instructional quality to students’ success in their later lives.

3). The researcher concluded that the teachers’ experiences thirdly have been related significantly to instructional quality, teachers’ experiences from practical knowledge and work performance could indicate that progress of educational and training capability at higher education level plays a critical role in developing instructional quality (UNICEF, 2013), specially industries and business enterprises sectors through the establishment of linkage between academic knowledge and practical knowledge to achieve instructional quality (MoEYS, 2014). Both of teachers’ knowledge and experiences are key important to instruct students to achieve instructional quality improvement and expanding the coverage to ensure that young
people are required with necessary knowledgeable skills and moral values of characteristics to improve their working performances for living standard and contribute to national development (Ahrens & Kemmerer, 2002).

**Recommendations**

The following recommendations to private universities are offered for related research in the field of education for instructional quality.

1). The finding had shown that instructional quality was correctly related with teachers’ instructional process achieved that would be diversified and flexible to follow curriculums with students as centers of learning have also been given high priority on instructional quality.

2). The finding provides a basic for concluding that instructional quality which contributes to teachers’ dispositions would provide valuable responsibilities and accountabilities on teaching and learning activities.

3). Research related to other teachers’ experiences should be properly developed to reflect subjects based contents with work performances that can apply academic knowledge to practical knowledge to enhance instructional quality.

**Acknowledgement**

I would like to acknowledgement the following people, to all of whom I feel forever especially indebted and appreciate.

I would like to express my sincere appreciate to my advisor, Dr. Phithack Nilnopkoon and my co-advisor, Assistant Professor Dr. Usa Kongthong for their valuable suggestions, assistance, advice, guidance, motivation and patience throughout my study and research.

I would also like to humbly thank Assistant Professor Kanreutai Klangphahol, Ph.D and Mr. Mesa Nuari, and also five intellectual experts for their guidance and explanation to support my research finished completely.

I am also deeply grateful Professor Dr. Pheakdkey TUN-Cambodian UME President and Associate Professor Dr. Sombat Kotchasit-Thailand VRU President and also VRU’s administrators and instructors who were working and helping my master finished completely.
Finally, all thanks go to my respective grandparents, wonderful parents, helpful sisters, brothers in law and supportive friends whose love, motivation, assistance and understanding have always been invaluable resources.

References


THE THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL PERSPECTIVES ON THE EDUCATIONAL PARTNERSHIPS FOR APPLICATION IN THAILAND

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ABSTRACT

The objectives of this qualitative documentary research were to: 1) explore globally and locally the theoretical and practical perspectives on the educational partnerships, and 2) propose public management on the educational partnerships for the application in Thailand. The data were collected both primary and secondary documents which also domestic and abroad related to conceptual framework, purposefully selected 8 primary documents and 7 secondary documents. The quality control criteria for handling document sources were authenticity, credibility, representativeness and meaning. The data were analyzed by content analysis as used to categorize, investigate, interpret and identify the content.

The research findings revealed that:

1) The exploration of the theoretical and practical perspective revealed that (1) theoretical perspective: public – private partnerships (PPPs) in education were increased the optimal potentials in inclusive and equitable accessibility of students and improved better education achievement on 4 targets as access, quality, cost effectiveness and reduced inequality. The PPPs based primarily on various theories of public governance and new public management. The PPPs emerged from 3 critical conditions; the relationship between public and private sector was long term, the private sector cooperated in both the decision making as to how best to provide a public goods and services and the relationship involved a negotiated allocation of risks, and (2) the practical perspective: there were 7 types of education contracts following management services, professional services, support services, operation services, education services, facility services and facility and education services. While category of contracts divided into 4 kinds as voucher, subsidies, private management of school and public financial initiates. Fortunately stage of developing a PPPs include pre-development stage (problem and need clear, identified PPPs and trust creation), strategy development (formation of agreement, setting implementation mechanism) and ex-post evaluation (feedback into improving strategy and partnership).

2) The proposed public management classified into 2 contexts (1) essential partnership in education based primarily on cultural dimensions that suitable rural area and community strength, relied on the components of relationship, shared responsibility and collaboration, composed of home, temple and school which were a school partners or H-T-S model. H was a home means parents, T was a temple means community which both of H and T means a private sector while S was a school means a public sector, and (2) comprehensive partnership in education based primarily on public – private
partnerships (PPPs), P was a public sector means school, government, local public agencies, P was a private sector means people or civil society or NGO or business firms. The private sector, however have many types of organizations with different motives and resources, the first priority was organization concerned with corporate social responsibility (CSR). So that the formal structure of the partnership ranged from general agreement to formal legally binding contracts. Whether, how to establish the PPPs was the consideration of the purpose of entering into partnership- to gain extra resources – to transform the organization. Process of mobilization was top down or originated from the higher level of authority or bottom up that started up from local area or practitioners at street level.

Keywords: Theoretical and Practical Perspectives, Educational Partnerships,

Introduction

Education makes a people easy to lead, but difficult to drive; easy to govern, but impossible to enslave; speech of Brougham in 1828, the world popular proverb. The education is the most important for human life. Education is widely believed to be critical for any nation’s economic, political, and social development. It is widely believed to help people escape from poverty and participate more fully in society and in the market place. These are a few of the reasons why governments around the world assume the responsibility for providing and financing education, especially basic education. But this responsibility is a large and complex one for any government to meet adequately, which is why it is important for governments to explore diverse ways of financing and providing educational services. Thailand set out formal educational institutions more than 100 years under the responsibility of temples or Buddhism, later the Ministry of Education had own responsible by schools which divided into formal, non-formal and informal education. Moreover, the Act of National Education B.E. 2542 formulated the principle of education for all and all for education and the state must manage education inclusively and qualitatively and enhanced the opportunities for public sector, institutions or other organizations participated and provided right for basic education. Thailand educational participation of private sector was at very low level: elementary school at 18.9 percent, junior secondary school at 13.1 percent and senior secondary school at 20.5 percent. The international achievement reported by PISA 2009 was lower than the mean all subjects. The achievement of mathematics and science (TIMSS 2011) of mathayomsuksa 2 was lower than mean (500 score) (Office of the Education Council, 2013).

The draft of National Economic and Social Development Plan Issue 12 B.E. 2560-2564 focused on stability, prosperity and sustainability of nation through governance, decentralization and upgraded the quality of education and learning inclusively and equitably. Moreover, reform the managerial system to be accountability, fiscal reform on education by allocating directly to students. The Strategic Plan of Thailand Bureaucratic System Development B.E. 2556-2561 provided the promoting of cooperation between public private and people sector altogether to create partnership, network and governance. While the second decade of Education Reform. B.E. 2552-2561 determined to develop management system for public participation, private and all of sector in society, moreover the National Education Plan.
B.E. 2552-2559 and draft plan 15 years (B.E. 2560-2574) aimed to reduce the role of central and regional agencies, decentralized to school and enhanced educational participation. Thailand has long experienced in education management, formally by temples, schools and other institutions. Later the globalization affected all of sector of Thai society. It was necessitated to adapt educational management for the better outcomes.

The national education is not able to trial and error so the state should find out the new way of management as a public policy provision by redesigning seriously to warrant the ultimate outcomes and to meet the educational objectives. While the public-private partnerships today were an increasing aspect of the delivery of public policies and services across the world so the reviews on the theoretical and practical perspectives for the application in Thailand are the most important that ensured efficient and effective education.

**Research Objectives**

The objectives of this qualitative documentary research were:

1) to explore globally and locally the theoretical and practical perspectives on the educational partnerships

2) to propose public management on educational partnerships for the application in Thailand

**Methodology**

This study was a qualitative documentary research firstly consideration of a framework for research design. To find out the research problem by review studies addressing the problem in order to justify the importance of the study and to create distinctions between past studies and a proposed study. The review literature was analyzed and summarized to be a research questions and objectives.

**Conceptual framework**

This study was conducted firstly a useful tool of a visual picture by literature map of the research, then abstracting studies with review of related literature of the research question. The researcher developed theoretical perspective and visualized the interconnections of variables or texts. A study will be carried on the theory and paradigm of governance, new public management related to public policy formulation and educational partnerships following figure 1.
Data collection

The data were collected both primary and secondary documents which also domestic and abroad relevant to conceptual framework. The study was undertaken to find an answer regarding a particular phenomenon so the primary documents refer to eye-witness accounts list of public document sources include 8 government publications as follows: 1) the National Economic and Social Development Plan Issue 11 B. E. 2555-2559 and draft Issue 12 B. E. 2560-2564; 2) The Act of National Education B. E. 2542; 3) the Strategic Plan of Thai Bureaucratic System B. E. 2556-2561; 4) The policy declaration of General Prayut Chan-o-cha; 5) The National Education plan B. E. 2552-2559 and draft B. E. 2560-2574; 6) The Education Development Plan Issue II. B. E. 2552-2559; 7) the Provision of the Second Decade of Education Reform B. E. 2552-2561; and 8) the Pracharat project. The secondary documents were related research literature included 7 texts and articles as follows: 1) the Role and Impact of Public-Private Partnerships in Education (Patrinos, Barrera-Osorio, & Guáqueta, 2009); 2) Public-Private Partnerships Theory and Practice in International Perspectives (Osborne, 2000); 3) Public-Private Partnerships and the Public Accountability Question (Forrer, Kee, Newcomer & Boyer, 2010); 4) The Impact of Public Private Partnerships on Education (Gibson, & Davies, 2008); 5) Public-Private Partnerships in Public Policy: a Case Study of Public Policy in Education (Thirasirikul, 2013); 6) Public-Private Partnerships in Education Administration (Chaisirithanya, 2008); and 7) the Development of Educational Partnership Model for Thai Society (Seetubtim, 2013)
Data analysis

Reading all of data for understanding and recognized the main issue relevant to research question, provide data coding, connected the data to find out patterns and the meaning by interpretation, then summarized for theory generating and answered research question. The approaches of qualitative data analysis were content analysis as used to categorize, investigate, interpret and identify the content (Mogalakwe, 2006). Then using coding composed of open-coding, axial coding and selective coding; moreover, data analysis and interpretation classified into 3 steps as 1) organized and prepare the data for analysis involved materials, sorting and arranging the data into different types depending on the analysis of information, 2) read through all the data, obtain a general sense of the information and to reflect on its overall meaning, and 3) begin detailed analysis with a coding process. Validating the accuracy of findings by the terms of authenticity (refer to whether evidence was genuine), credibility (refer to whether evidence was typical of its kind, representatives (refer to representative of the totally of the relevant documents) and meaning (refer to evidence was clear and comprehensible).

Research Results

This study conducted documentary research using 8 government publications and 7 texts and articles of related research literature and the data were analyzed by content analysis. The exploration of the research divided into 2 objectives;

1) theoretical and practical perspective revealed that (1) theoretical perspective: the critical reasons in developing in public–private partnerships (PPPs) in education were increased the optimal potentials in inclusive and equitable accessibility of students and improved better education achievement on 4 targets as access, quality, cost effectiveness and reduced inequality. The PPPs based primarily on various theories. Firstly the public governance; emphasized the accountability and public participation, secondly new public management referred to government policies for modernizing the public sector in view of a greater cost-efficiency, highlighting the importance of organizing and managing public services and market-oriented decision making. The PPPs emerged from 3 critical conditions; the relationship between public and private sector was long term, the private sector cooperated in both the decision making as to how best to provide a public goods and services and the relationship involved a negotiated allocation of risks. Additionally, Osborne (2000) proposed the evolution of PPPs concepts and theory of partnership, type and dimension of partnership. Gibson, & Davies (2008). They explained the words governance and partnership and provided the advantage and disadvantage of partnership in education. Forrer, Kee, Newcomer, & Boyer (2010) analyzed the issue of public accountability and provided 6 dimensions – risk, cost and benefits, political and social impacts, expertise, collaboration and performance measurement were incorporated in improving public accountability, (2) the practical perspective: there were 7 types of education contracts following management services, professional services, support services,
operation services, education services, facility services and facility and education services. While category of contracts divided into 4 kinds as voucher, subsidies, private management of school and public financial initiates. Fortunately stage of developing a PPPs include pre-development stage (problem and need clear, identified PPPs and trust creation), strategy development (formation of agreement, setting implementation mechanism) and ex-post evaluation (feedback into improving strategy and partnership).

2) The proposed public management classified into 2 contexts (1) essential partnership in education based primarily on cultural dimensions that was suitable rural area and community strength, relied on direct stakeholders with the components of relationship, shares responsibility and collaboration, composed of home, temple and school which were a school partners or H-T-S model, H was a home, means parents, T was a temple, means community which both of H and T means a private sector while S was a school, means a public sector, (2) comprehensive partnership in education based primarily on public – private partnerships (PPPs). P was a public sector means school, government, local public agencies, P was a private sector means people or civil society or NGO or business firms.

The private sector, however have many types of organizations with different motives and resources, the first priority was organization concerned with corporate social responsibility. So that the formal structure of the partnership ranged from general agreement to formal legally binding contracts. Whether, how to establish the PPPs was the consideration of the purpose of entering into partnership to gain extra resources – to transform the organization. Process of mobilization was top down or originated from the higher level of authority or bottom up that start up from local area or practitioners at street level. The Act of National Education B.E. 2542 formulated the principle of education for all and all for education and the state must be managed education inclusively and qualitatively and enhanced the opportunities for public sector. The draft of National Economic and Social Development Plan Issue 12 B.E. 2560-2564 focused on stability, prosperity and sustainability of nation through governance, decentralization and upgraded the quality of education and learning inclusively and equitably. Moreover, reform the managerial system to be accountability, fiscal reform on education by allocating directly to students. The Strategic Plan of Thailand Bureaucratic System Development B.E. 2556-2561 provided the promoting of cooperation between public private and people sector altogether to create partnership, network and governance. While the second decade of Education Reform. B.E. 2552-2561 determined to develop management system for public participation, private and all of sector in society, moreover the National Education Plan. B.E. 2552-2559 and draft plan 15 years (2560-2574) aimed to reduce the role of central and regional agencies, decentralized to school and enhanced educational participation. The policy declaration of the prime minister, General Prayut Chan-o-cha on the aspect of education and learning by providing education and learning reform. Reallocation of budget to subsidized comply with the need of learners and offered the choice to choose education
service, one approach was a voucher system. Pracharat project was emerged from the policy of Pracharat strategic-driven for grass root economy of General Prayut Chan-o-cha government, the prime minister, synergized public-private and civil society for national sustainable development. Ministry of Education was responsible to provide Pracharat school and synergized 19 public sectors and 4 civil societies, so called ConNext ED in order to enhance school partners for Pracharat school. This project will be implemented in B.E 2560 with the objectives of improvement the results of basic education schools, utilized and opened information according to the governance principles especially transparency and accountability, promoting ICT for management and developing active learning and critical thinking. While Patrinos, Barrera-Osorio, & Guáqueta (2009) provided enhancing the role of private sector partners in education can lead to significant improvement in education service delivery and illustrated evidence on the role and impact of PPPs in education. Chaisirithanya (2008) revealed that the 5 component of PPPs were governance, agreement and contract, educational innovation, measure of promote and public policy. Thirasirikul, (2013) proposed PPPs related public policy in education and explained the paradigm shift to new public management in order to run government like a business. Seetubtim (2013) analyzed the policy implementation on educational partnership, the components of partnerships and developing model of educational partnership for Thai society.

Discussion and Recommendation

The theoretical perspective was useful for developing public – private partnerships (PPPs) in education, increased the optimal potentials in inclusive and equitable accessibility of students and improved better education achievement on 4 targets as access, quality, cost effectiveness and reduced inequality. PPPs based primarily on various theories; public governance; emphasized the accountability and public participation, new public management was compatible with Osborne (2000) that analyzed the theory and practice of partnerships under international perspectives. The PPPs emerged from 3 critical conditions; the relationship between public and private sector was long term, the private sector cooperated in both the decision making as to how best to provide a public goods and services and the relationship involved a negotiated allocation of risks. This findings due to the long term experience of partners or stakeholders who jointed together and was compatible with Chaisirithanya (2008) discussed the 5 component of PPPs were governance, agreement and contract, educational innovation, measure of promote and public policy. The practical perspective: there were 7 types of education contracts following management services, professional services, support services, operation services, education services, facility services and facility and education services. While category of contracts divided into 4 kinds as voucher, subsidies, private management of school and public financial initiates. Fortunately stage of developing a PPPs include pre-development stage (problem and need clear, identified PPPs and trust creation), strategy development (formation of agreement, setting implementation mechanism) and ex-post evaluation (feedback into improving strategy and partnership).
The proposed public management classified into 2 contexts (1) essential partnership in education based primarily on cultural dimensions that was suitable rural area and community strength, relied on sense of belongings, owner and direct stakeholder, composed of home, temple and school which were a school partners or H-T-S model. Home means parents, Temple means community which both of H and T was a private sector while School was a public sector, (2) comprehensive partnership in education based primarily on public – private partnerships (PPPs), P was a public sector means school, government, local public agencies, P was a private sector means people or civil society or NGO or business firms. The private sector, however have many types of organizations with different motives and resources, the first priority was organization concerned with corporate social responsibility. So that the formal structure of the partnership ranged from general agreement to formal legally binding contracts. Whether, how to establish the PPPs was the consideration of the purpose of entering into partnership- to gain extra resources – to transform the organization. Process of mobilization was top down or originated from the higher level of authority or bottom up that start up from local area or practitioners at street level. This findings due to the concepts of partnerships were accepted globally and congruence with local and regional environment and comply with McQuaid (2009) that he proposed partnerships advantages for improving the quality of public services, increased the efficiency and effectiveness of public management. Moreover the success factors based on clear agreement and contract and manifested the manual system for evaluating and monitoring the partnerships process cycle.

The recommendations for further research are the rule and regulation that concerned on standard of procedure for implementation mechanisms both top down and bottom up approaches, moreover researching to survey on the ready of school entering educational partnerships and preparing public and private sector as well as specifications of manual for evaluating and monitoring educational partnerships.

Acknowledgement
This study could not complete without the encouragement and advice of Professor Dr. Boonton Dockthaisong so I want to acknowledge and thank for given valuable suggestions on how to use English language accurately for writing academic article and culminate me how to do a good thing to serve people and nation, finally, I wish to express my sincerest appreciation to my father and mother who were a wise and good parent and rearing all of children to be proud in sufficient life.

References


EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE OF KOREAN 119 PARAMEDIC DISPATCHERS IN USING THE AMERICAN CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

This research is about the necessary educational contents needed from the viewpoint of Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers. Interviews were conducted on abilities and techniques required for medical dispatchers. Interview questions were extracted from American EMD national standard curriculum. Work strains of Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers converged into the domain of affective, required skills and required knowledge. Educational program combining the domain of skills and knowledge is required for Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers to relieve emotional stress in the affective domain.

Keywords: Paramedic Dispatcher, American EMD Curriculum

Introduction

1.1 Research background and rationale

Emergency Medical Dispatcher (EMD) is a gate keeper to the emergency medical service system such as the 999 (UK), 911 (USA), and 119 (Korea, China and Japan). The dispatchers working at emergency call centres take emergency calls and send necessary human and material resources such as Emergency Medical Technicians (EMTs) and ambulance to the scene where patients are waiting. Patients in critical conditions with cardiac arrest, stroke, trauma and unconsciousness need immediate help from Emergency Medical Service System (EMSS), which consists of sequential emergency procedures from a phone call to medical care on the scene and in the hospital. As the first link to the pre-hospital emergency medical practice, ‘emergency dispatch is a process of making split-second decisions, that affects patient’s life (Nooji, 2013, p. 9). They are expected to be triage dispatchers and strategists of the pre-hospital emergency medical systems. So, EMDs should not be just call takers or information deliverers. Nevertheless, only recently have EMDs been widely recognised as professionals; this is mainly due to the misconceptions of dispatchers’ role.

Studies on medical dispatchers’ education or training programme were scarce worldwide. According to Gardett et al’s study (2013), Past, Present, and Future of Emergency Dispatch Research: A Systematic Literature Review, only two studies in Sweden and Belgium respectively discuss the effectiveness of dispatcher training programme. It is clear that little attention has been given to this important subject area. Korea is not exempted from this situation; training programmes for novice dispatchers in 119 emergency call centres are reported not only as insufficient but disorganized and inappropriate (Shin et al., 2009). In Korea, the misconception about EMD’s role has
remained the biggest barrier in medical dispatchers’ education and training (Yoo, 2011). None of the standard dispatcher curriculum is one of major problems causing this inadequate training. This is why I want to research the topic of the educational experience of Korean 119 dispatchers in using the American curriculum. I hope the study of EMD educational curriculum is the first step to relieve the heavy burden of field dispatchers and to improve priority dispatch system in many countries including Korea.

1.2 Research focus and purpose
This study focuses on Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers’ work experience from the viewpoint of American national standard training curriculum for 911 emergency medical dispatchers. In detail, I will be concentrating on 119 paramedic dispatchers’ work experience and educational contents and objectives in the curriculum. The aim of this study is to identify difficulties Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers face while they are doing their job. As a useful tool to discover Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers’ practical problems, the American curriculum is adopted because it covers training contents required for dispatchers’ multitasking job (NHTSA, EMD Trainee Guide; the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005). One of important goals in this research is to check and understand discrepancies between the training contents in American dispatcher curriculum and the reality facet in Korea and hopefully shed light on implementing useful American curriculum into the Korean programme. Therefore, this study is intended to overview main training items in American EMDs’ curriculum based on Korean field paramedic dispatchers’ point of view. I believe that any difference between educational curriculum and the dispatchers’ actual work should be adjusted to the reality by listening to the voice of the field dispatchers. I hope that in the near future, the first standard training curriculum for Korean medical dispatchers could be established based on their work experience. This research is expected to provide practical insight into the future Korean dispatcher training curriculum.

1.3 Research Questions
Research questions I expect to explore in this study are as follows:
1. Main research question
   What difficulties Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers face and complain about when they are doing their work?
2. Sub-research questions
   2-1. What useful educational contents in American national standard curriculum for 911 medical dispatchers may be of great help to the Korean 119 programme?
   2-2. What difficulties are Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers experiencing in three different type of 32 medical chief complaints and each parts of dispatching abilities and skills required for American 911 medical dispatchers in the curriculum?
   2-3. What educational contents in the future Korean dispatcher training curriculum should be extracted and put from the field experience of Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers?

With these research questions, I hope I could grasp Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers’ work experiences and difficulties. To elicit their personal work experience, interview questions are formed based on American national standard curriculum for 911 medical dispatchers. I would like to match their personal work experience with educational
items in the curriculum. By doing so, I hope I could find desirable training items for Korean 119 medical dispatchers.

Research Methodology

2.1 Methodology
My approach to the research is to utilise case study. First of all, my intention in the research matches with the aims of case study. Case study is a methodology that identifies unique features that all organisations and individuals have in common (Bell, 2005). Similarly, a major concern of the research is to identify common experiences which Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers share at work. Besides, as case study can be often used as means of recognising important issues which merit further research, it fits in well with my hope of bridging the gap to preparing for 119 dispatchers’ educational programme (Bell, 2005). This research employs a qualitative approach method to draw specific work experience from Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers. It focuses on discovering hidden stories that may not easily be detected by a large-scale or quantitative research. After all, this research is a small-scale qualitative case study. This methodology is believed to ‘catch the close-up reality and thick description’ of Korean 119 dispatchers’ ‘lived experiences of, thoughts about and feelings for, a situation’ (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 290). This approach is expected to provide better understanding on 119 paramedic dispatchers’ work experience and appropriate training contents reflecting on their experience.

2.2 Method
The study adopted telephone interview with highly structured in-depth questions focusing on certain topics. According to Cohen et al. (2011), interviews are largely divided into structured interview and unstructured interview according to the degree of formation, which reflects the purposes of the interview. Smartphone was used to conduct the interviews. The interview questions were organised from general to specific about dispatchers’ abilities and practical skills, so that the focus was on associating Korean paramedic dispatchers’ work difficulties with training contents in American EMD curriculum. I believe this interview approach was the best choice to reveal the difficulties Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers face and to understand their educational needs.

2.2-1 Participants
I have recruited only two participants for this study. Two participants in the research are field dispatchers working at Seoul 119 call centre. They all majored in emergency care in college. After completing the 2 year course in college, they acquired paramedic qualification by passing the national exam. Additionally, they have experience of being field paramedics for some years in Seoul respectively before they started working at Seoul 119 call centre. They both are 119 dispatchers in action having paramedic experience in the field as well as paramedic qualification. Therefore, the participants are likely to be homogeneous participants in that they have not only similar characteristics or experience but have similar professional concern and knowledge of the training issues for 119 dispatchers (Bell, 2005).

2.2-2 Interview questions
The interview questions consist of two main parts. The first part is made up of five questions on basic personal information related to work. The second part includes seven questions on work experience. Lastly, I gave participants time to talk freely about
what they want to say. The questions focus on experiential approaches to the dispatcher training curriculum. The second part is comprised of open and closed ended questions. The participants are informed that the interviews are only about medical calls. They are encouraged to speak freely.

The main concern is to come up with reliable questions and arrange the layout of those questions to raise validity and reliability. The interviews place emphasis on questioning work difficulties concerning dispatcher education rather than their work experience as a part of their lives. The practical way of reducing the sources of bias is ‘the characteristics of the interviewer and respondents’ and ‘the substantive content of the questions’ (Cohen et al., 2011, p.204). Furthermore, interview questions are organised to be highly structured; the questions are designed to fit into the consistent format for increased reliability (Cohen et al., 2011). For instance, 32 chief medical complaints and the abilities required for effective dispatching are used in the second part of work experience of 119 dispatchers, which relate to American EMD standard curriculum.

The 32 chief complaints in three types of incidents are used in forming the questions. The 32 chief medical complaints in Emergency Medical Dispatch Protocol Reference System (EMDPRS) are as follows (NHTSA, EMD trainee Guide; the state of Utah, EMD trainee Guide, 2005).

Type I - Traumatic incident
1) Animals bites. 2) Assault / sexual assault. 3) Burns. 4) Eye problems / Injuries. 5) Fall victim. 6) Heat / Cold exposure. 7) Bleeding. 8) Industrial Accidents. 9) Stabbing / Gunshot victim. 10) Traumatic injuries. 11) Vehicle Related injuries.

Type II - Individual Chief Complaint


Type III - Time / Life-Critical Events

The first two questions on work experience are open ended. The initial question is ‘what are the difficulties when you are performing your job as a 119 dispatcher?’ Then, the question ‘what type of calls among traumatic, individual and time / life-critical events are the most challenging to manage and why?’ follows. Participants are asked questions with rating scales, and later will have a chance to comment. Specific abilities and skills for effective dispatching are adapted as examples of rating scales for participants to choose in the latter question. They are as follows: 1) Identification of medical emergencies. 2) Telephone technique. 3) Control callers. 4) To elicit dispatch information. 5) To allocate resources based on information gathered. 6) To deliver proper medical instructions. 7) Related medical knowledge. 8) To control 119 dispatcher consoles. The first 6 questions are items about dispatching skills in American EMD national standard curriculum. The 7th and 8th items are added taking into consideration there is no sufficient dispatch and training programme in Korea.
skills required for effective dispatching. The participants are informed to previously check each item with scales prior to giving remarks on them. Given a range of responses are 1) not at all, 2) a little, 3) somewhat, 4) a lot, 5) a very great deal (Cohen et al., 2011). Similarly, basic concepts and practical techniques of emergency medical dispatch are used as tools for eliciting participants’ work experience. There are 10 questions concerning practical abilities: 6 related to skills and 4 on the basic concepts about EMD (see appendix). Basic concepts are dispatchers’ roles and responsibilities, and dispatchers’ legal liability. The participants are asked to answer the question in the same way as they did in the former question. They are also asked to tell why they chose certain rating scales for each practical ability.

Final four questions are open ended which concentrate on other work difficulties, any particular training for improving their work competence, necessary education for 119 dispatchers and additional remarks. Interview questions are designed to find the participants’ practical difficulties related to necessary abilities for medical dispatchers. Interviews were carried out for 40 minutes in Korean language using a smartphone. Extracted data was compared to training contents in American EMD curriculum in order to find out the educational curriculum required for Korean 119 dispatchers.

Research Results
The procedure for analysing the descriptive data consists of two phrases. The first step was to understand the general work experience in Korean context. It focuses on common items 119 dispatchers mention or reiterate the most (Cohen et al., 2011). The second step was to search for reasons of their remarks and checked scores in the scale given in two questions. Differences in the common items which respondents describe with similar or the same words on their work experience were cautiously examined.

1 A general understanding

1-1 Work-related personal information
Two participants in the study are Hwang and Choi. They both majored in the same subject area in college and hold careers one as a field paramedic and the other as a 119 dispatcher. They worked as field paramedics before starting 119 dispatching work at the centre. The call centre serves a population of 10 million. Hwang has 12 years’ experience in emergency care and has been working as a 119 dispatcher since February 2013. Choi worked as a field paramedic in action for 10 years 4 months and subsequently has been doing dispatching job for a year and 10 months at the centre. They confirmed they were educated for two weeks during orientation for novice dispatchers before starting their own work. The orientation consists of two parts. A general introduction to the 119 dispatch centre was given during the first week. Then, experienced dispatchers were assigned as their mentors during the second week. According to them, it was not about training contents for emergency medical dispatchers but about how to control 119 dispatching console. While Hwang describes the training as techniques for system coordination, Choi takes it as simple, manipulative skills in coordinating the 119 dispatching system. Their statements were consistent with earlier researches on training programmes for novice dispatchers at 119 call centres, which report that the training programme for novice dispatchers is short in length and focuses on controlling 119 dispatch console rather than abilities required for emergency medical dispatchers (Shin et al., 2009).
1-2 Work experience

1. Question 1: what are the most common difficulties you encounter when you are doing your job as a 119 paramedic dispatcher?

With respect to the common difficulties as a dispatcher, Hwang refers to relations with callers firstly and then, callers’ emotional agitation, difficulty in getting necessary information, doing a job in time critical situation and telephone skills in order. On the other hand, Choi describes time pressure, critical situation, assessing severity of patients’ illness over the phone and emotional callers as the greatest challenges. According to their reference, both of them have commonly difficulties in doing their job with emotional agitated callers in order to get necessary information while being chased by time pressure under an emergency situation.

2. Question 2: what type of calls among traumatic, individual and time / life-critical events are the most challenging for you to manage and why?

Regarding the question on the most difficult part of three main incident types of American EMD national standard curriculum, Choi answered that he believed individual chief complaints was more difficult than trauma incident type and time / life-critical events. As Choi explained it is not easy to find out detailed information about individual disease than other things because callers usually do not know about patients’ medical symptoms. Callers are willing to describe trauma patient’s conditions because injuries are seen easily. Relatively, they do not answer dispatcher’s questions about medical conditions of individual disease (Yoo, 2011).

On the contrary, Hwang regarded trauma patients as the most challenging type. Hwang said that many trauma incidents go unreported by callers. In particular, it is tougher to grasp information on “what is going on there?” and “what is the correct location of the incident?” than other call types. Trauma type incidents require dispatchers to collect multiple pieces of information such as the number of patients, the mechanism of injury, and allocating resources (Clawson et al., 2008). In addition, Hwang said that calls concerning critically ill patients whose lives are in danger out of non-trauma patients are difficult to handle because it is hard to gather information about the patient’s medical condition from callers, since most of the callers are patients’ family members who tend to be emotionally under a stressful situation.

3. Question 3: how much work strains do you experience while managing three types of incidents: traumatic incidents, individual chief complaints and time / life critical events?

This question is intended to understand their level of work strains while the participants are applying their practical techniques in three major incident types using American EMD curriculum. Firstly, participants are asked to answer questionnaires with rating scales on intensity of challenges. The results are shown in table 2 rated by 5 Scales: 1) not at all, 2) a little, 3) somewhat, 4) a lot, 5) a very great deal.

Participants’ scales of three major incident types in American EMD curriculum (Table 2)
Three major incident types in American EMD curriculum | Traumatic Incidents | Individual Chief Complaint | Time / Life - Critical Events
---|---|---|---
participants’ scales concerning training contents | Hwang | Choi | Hwang | Choi | Hwang | Choi
Identification of medical emergencies | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2
Telephone technique | 3 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1
Control callers (normal / emotional) | 3 / 5 | 2 / 4 | 1 / 5 | 2 / 4 | 2 / 5 | 2 / 4
Elicit dispatch information | 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 2
Allocate resources based on Information gathered | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1
Deliver proper medical instructions | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1
Related medical knowledge | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 1
Control 119 dispatch consoles | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1

Shown from the data, while Hwang’s level of work strains is higher in traumatic incidents and critical situations than in individual disease, Choi’s strains in work is higher in individual disease than other two incidents. Most of the selections Hwang made in the scaled interview questions were not over 3 (somewhat) except for the item of control emotional callers. In particular, each of the scale in emergency identification, resource allocation, medical instructions delivery, and the system manipulation was given with a similar low scores of 1 to 2 (not at all or a little).

For Hwang, the level of work difficulties among three different incident types was only revealed to be different in 3 practical skills: telephone technique, callers control and to elicit dispatch information. These were major sources of work strain for Hwang. Prominently, Hwang picked controlling emotional callers in all incident types as the most challenge which she gave the highest score of 5 (a very great deal). Hwang stated that laypersons who called for emergency help tended to be so agitated or nervous that dispatchers were challenged to control them. Some callers losing their composer could not answer important questions asked by Hwang. The questions asked were: the cause of the accidents, its correct location, the numbers of patients, and the mechanism of injury.

From Hwang’s statements, it is understandable that Hwang felt most stressful when dealing with emergency calls concerning various accidents such as fall, suicide and injuries. In particular, emotional callers in critical traumatic situation asking for emergency help seem to intensify Hwang’s level of work difficulty. For Hwang, while handling emotional callers, eliciting dispatch information from them was the most burdensome part of work difficulties. The reason why telephone technique was somewhat difficult for Hwang was because to handle callers and gather information on the phone is the practical skill needed by dispatchers that is not properly trained.

To summarize, the most difficult work challenge from which Hwang was suffering from was largely caused by emotional status of callers. Another challenge was telephone technique which is a necessary skill for eliciting information from emotional
callers. After all, it is clear from Hwang’s scales of training items in the curriculum and statements that her biggest challenges lay in affective area and practical skills rather than in medical knowledge.

In Choi’s case, the scales given to training contents in medical incident were relatively higher than the ones in the other two parts however the difference was not large. The scores he gave for emergency identification, telephone technique, providing medical instructions and related medical knowledge were different according to type of incidents. The rest of the items received the same score for all incidents. Choi’s level of work strains was relatively increased in the area of training contents of control callers and medical knowledge on individual disease. Controlling normal and emotional callers were given a 2 and a 4 in scales respectively regardless of incident types. Therefore, it showed that the hardest work for Choi was controlling an unstable caller related with non-trauma patients.

Choi stated that it was not easy to identify whether medical status of non-trauma patients was critical or not over the phone. Medical dispatchers identify patients’ medical emergencies based on their level of consciousness, evaluation of breathing, chief complaints and medical history (Clawson et al., 2008). Dispatcher should deliver these pieces of medical information about patients to emergency medical technicians (EMTs) en route for the scene. These questions are basic and important information to field EMTs for medical care (Yoo, 2011). For Choi, eliciting dispatch information and delivering proper medical instructions were challenges in work as well. Medical dispatcher should be able to provide medical instructions on how to help the patients in critical condition to callers when gathering relevant pieces of medical information concerning patients. Providing medical instructions is one of the essential missions that medical dispatchers are obliged to do (Clawson et al., 2008). Dispatchers should have relevant medical knowledge in order to explain medical care instructions to callers.

Choi suffered the most when callers were emotional. However, unlike Hwang, Choi’s level of work difficulty during work was maximized when dealing with emergency calls concerning disease. Choi stated that she felt nervous and confused the most when patients were critically ill and callers were emotional. For instance, Choi informed that it was quite difficult to differentiate seizure as an early sign of imminent cardiac arrest from symptoms of seizure or convulsion from layperson on the phone. For Choi, medical knowledge was required to understand patients’ medical status to provide correct medical information to EMTs on the way to the scene. It is likely that Choi’s work difficulties were primarily resulted from affective area and the uncertainty of medical knowledge, in particular about non-traumatic disease rather than practical skills.

4. Question 4: what difficulties have you experienced in each of next practical abilities while you working?

1) Dispatcher’s roles and responsibilities: Two participants understood well that roles and responsibilities of dispatcher were collecting information, delivering gathered information to responding 119 EMS crews. They sometimes provided medical instructions to callers when necessary. However, since there is a team with the sole responsibility of giving medical advice to the callers at the call centre, the dispatchers usually pass those emergency calls to the team. For this reason, they appear to think of providing telephone medical care as a minor part of their role rather than their responsibility. Hwang informed that she has been under stress doing her job because of
time limits whereas Choi said she was confused because ‘I do not understand exactly what my roles and responsibilities are, in particular about responsibilities as a dispatcher’.

2) Dispatcher’s legal responsibility and liability: Hwang said that she had no clear understanding of dispatcher’s legal responsibility and liability. So did Choi. They both were afraid of citizens making complaints concerning their dealing with emergency calls. They thought that dispatchers were blamed and only responsible for the complaint made. They stated that 119 call centres did not protect dispatchers’ rights during work even when complaints were unreasonable. From my work experience at Seoul 119 call centre, citizen’s complaints against dispatchers’ response to emergency calls are one of the leading factors to discourage 119 medical dispatchers from performing their job positively. Choi said that she has been providing telephone medical care but was also anxious to take on responsibility when problem arose. Hwang added that clear regulations or standards on legal responsibility and liability of dispatcher work are necessary.

3) Medical knowledge: As a dispatcher, Hwang felt she benefited a lot from her paramedic background. She said that the work experience she had as field paramedic helped to ask questions relevant to the situation and accordingly shorten time when interrogating with callers. Hwang did not seem to experience any particular problems caused by medical knowledge doing the job. Hwang added that EMT field experience and basic medical knowledge were necessarily required for emergency medical dispatchers. Choi did not think her medical knowledge was enough to do the 119 dispatch job. She said that she had no problem gathering basic information such as patient’s chief complaints. However, she said that ‘I am not confident if I have to ask callers about patient’s medical status in more detail’.

4) To identify medical emergencies: Hwang and Choi both agreed that their paramedic work experience greatly helped them the ‘whole picture’ of the scene and identify patients’ medical emergencies on the phone (Yoo, 2011, p.33). Hwang sometimes suffered from identifying patient’s medical status when callers were third-party callers such as passers-by. The third-party callers were either people who asked to call for emergency help from a remote party or persons who do not want to identify the patient’s condition (Garza et al., 2003). Therefore, ‘they tend to know less specific things about the situation’ (Clawson et al., 2008, p3.8). They often refuse to check status of the person for whom they are reporting to 119 call centre (Yoo, 2011). For Choi, diseases with similar symptoms made it difficult for her to understand the level of seriousness of disease when identifying medical emergencies.

5) To use proper telephone technique: Telephone technique is considered to be a practical skill to handle emotional callers. Concerning telephone technique, both Hwang and Choi remarked on emotional status of callers. For both of them, emotional callers tended to be irritated and annoyed when the dispatchers tried to find out detailed information about the patient and the scene. In particular, it appeared to be more difficult for Choi.

6) Helping to ease caller emotions: The participants said that controlling callers depended on whether callers were emotional or not. Their level of work strain on controlling callers seemed to be different from how emotional status of callers was. Both Hwang and Choi expressed the same opinion that they had no particular difficulties in interrogating callers when they were calm.
7) To elicit dispatch information: Eliciting dispatch information is the next procedure of identifying medical emergencies (Yoo, 2011; Clawson et al., 2008). Medical dispatcher asks callers about the nature of patient’s problem in more detail. Hwang and Choi appeared to flexibly use their personal experience and knowledge fitting to callers and the nature of patient’s problem when they elicited dispatch information since they did not have dispatching programme to utilise. They said they have some limitations to elicit dispatch information because of emotional callers and a shortage of practical skills and medical knowledge.

8) To allocate resources based on information gathered: Hwang and Choi did not think that allocating 119 resources was one of their main roles. It is primarily because dispatching system of Seoul 119 call centers is being operated yet based on one single tired system in which the level of EMT crews and ambulance is not divided according to the severity of patient’s emergency (Yoo, 2011). Furthermore, there is a team which is responsible for controlling dispatched 119 crews at the call center (Yoo, 2011). This is why Choi said that she did not have any particular problem in allocating available resources only if she could grasp the situation of the scene. On the other hand, American EMD national curriculum is made based on presupposition that EMD under multi tired system should control the whole process of emergency calls which he or she are taking (Clawson et al., 2008; NHTSA, EMD trainee Guide; the state of Utah, EMD trainee Guide, 2005).

9) To deliver proper medical instructions: Hwang and Choi did not seem to feel the pressure of providing medical instructions because there was a team in charge of providing medical instructions to callers at the 119 call center. However, dispatchers sometimes have to provide medical instructions. Hwang is said that she explained medical care instructions on the phone since she had paramedic work experience in field. Choi also agreed that she could provide first aid instructions but she added that she needed to study medical knowledge again and practice relevant training to provide callers with in depth medical instructions over the phone about various medical problems.

10) To control 119 dispatch consoles: Both Hwang and Choi commented that they had no particular difficulties in using the system of 119 dispatch console except when a caller calling with mobile phone was not able to tell exact address or location of the scene. Some agitated callers, according to Hwang, sometimes could not explain the place where they were.

5. Question 5: what other difficulties have you experienced when you were working? Hwang referred to lack of trustworthiness between 119 field EMT crews and dispatchers as one of the difficulties. Hwang felt dispatchers and field EMT crews did not collaborate as colleagues with the same goals. Choi also had difficulty in communicating with field dispatchers. Working as paramedics in field, they used to be dissatisfied with information delivered from call centre but they said there were other difficulties that they did not realize which hindered them in providing enough information to field EMT crews. Distrust and misunderstanding made their work even more difficult. In addition, Choi recognized dispatcher’s job as emotional labour. Caller’s emotional response and unfiltered language were stressful for Choi.

6. Question 6: what do you think you need to learn in order to improve your work competence?
Hwang answered that she needed deeper medical knowledge and wanted to learn how to maintain work experience of field paramedic so that she could improve her professional competence as an emergency medical dispatcher. Similarly, Choi wanted to improve personal knowledge on medicine enough to provide medical instructions. Practical skills such as telephone techniques were training contents that Choi wanted to learn as well.

7. Question 7: what education do you think is necessary for 119 paramedic dispatchers?
Hwang suggested practical exercise as necessary education for 119 dispatchers. Choi proposed that practical training that fit well with 119 dispatchers’ work was required and important.

8. Question 8: Is there anything else do you would like to add?
Hwang added stress management programme for dispatchers was crucial whereas Choi mentioned that certificated EMTs need to work as a dispatcher since the number of medical calls has been increasing.

Summary and Recommendation
The interview questions were designed to elicit participants’ work experiences from general to specific and to identify their overlapping experiences or difficulties in work. Sub items of the interview questions were divided into two categories: area of knowledge and area of practical skills. Difficulties the participants face during work in the two areas were identified based on analysis of their answers on work experience. Other main theme concerning work strain, affective area was identified as well. Therefore, three themes are discussed in this part: affective area, skills area, and knowledge area. These themes are consistent with condition of a successful emergency medical dispatcher of the American EMD standard curriculum. According to the curriculum, the successful EMD should master philosophy, the skills, and knowledge of emergency medical dispatch (the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005).

1 Affective area for medical dispatch
Affective area is about human feelings or emotions which effect human thoughts and attitudes (Bloom et al., 1999). Medical dispatching is such a stressful work that dispatchers experience considerable work difficulties and it is also not easy to manage their emotional distress (Clayson et al., 2008). According to Weibel et al’s research (2003), the stress level of emergency medical dispatchers was significantly increased during their work time. Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers are also supposed to suffer difficult experience in the affective area (Yoo, 2011). The general understanding of the participants showed that affective area stood out the most in the participants’ work distress.

The causes of the participants’ work strain in the affective area are features of dispatching work, callers’ emotional disorder and complaints, relations with 119 ambulance crews in field, and the organizational culture or leadership of 119 call centre. The participants stated that while they were doing dispatching work, they had to deal with sensitive callers under emergency situation and felt the pressure of time. In particular, the biggest cause of their work strains was emotional status of callers. Both participants reiterated that coping with emotionally hysterical callers was the most difficult part of their job.

As shown in the second table (p.33-4), Hwang’s work stress was raised when easing emotional callers who requested emergency help. Hwang relatively felt less work stress...
dealing with calls about non-trauma patients. While handling those distressful calls, the level of anxiety that Hwang felt was a 3 in scales out of 5 when callers were not emotional whereas she gave a 5 when callers were emotionally uncontrollable. Hwang gave the highest score of 5 in appeasing hysterical callers of all incident types, similarly, stating that emergency calls on individual disease were relatively more difficult to deal with than other incident types. Choi also considered pacifying hysterical callers was the most stressful and difficult part of her job, regardless of the type of incidents. Those callers were mostly uncontrollable and hysterical given the highest level of 5 in the emotional content and cooperation score in emergency medical dispatching (ECCSs), which is to examine how much callers cooperate with dispatchers according to their emotional levels from 1 to 5 (Clawson and Sinclair, 2001).

Hysteria was not the only emotional behaviour callers showed. Callers’ emotions are various such as ‘sadness, grief, anxiety, fear, or even hysteria’ (Clawson et al., 2008, p.10.2). Both Hwang and Choi suffered from emotional given by the callers. Choi said she sometimes felt humiliated and depressed with the bad language callers used. Callers’ emotional response affects work performance of emergency medical dispatchers. They said they had to respond passively to emotional callers. According to a study on Swedish dispatchers’ work experiences of emergency calls (Forslund et al., 2004), the emergency operators feel powerless when they have more difficulty in taking control and perfectly understanding emergency calls. However, the sense of powerlessness was different from Korean 119 dispatchers’ feelings. Swedish dispatchers said that they felt more sense of powerlessness when their performance does not comply with ethical responsibility (Forslund et al., 2004).

Additionally, they were worried about official complaints by callers on their work and felt they were not protected against complaints, even when those complaints were absurd. According to Weibel et al’s (2003) study on dispatchers’ work-related stress, dispatchers’ workload negatively increased as the leadership in the organisation was authoritative (Weibel et al., 2003). Another difficulty they encountered was bad working relationship with field 119 crews. Hwang and Choi were having trouble with field colleagues while doing the job. It was caused by misunderstandings: field ambulances crews expected correct and detailed information from dispatchers whereas dispatchers felt field crews did not understand the fact that the dispatchers often could not find out information they needed from the callers.

The emotions and feelings of callers and dispatchers are the most sensitive part which is why it is the most important and difficult issue they face while working. Weibel et al. (2003) report that stress levels of 8 French emergency medical dispatchers are high in affective area such as mental workload and emotional distress. Interestingly enough, however, this was not true with 16 Swedish medical operators’ work experience. Callers’ hysterical or uncontrollable emotions are not reported as one of dispatchers’ work strains (Forslund et al., 2004). Comparative studies are needed in order to understand the difference in this particular area.

2 Required skills for medical dispatch
Training contents in American EMD curriculum consist of three domains: obtaining information from callers, providing necessary information to field EMS crews or callers, and applying related practical skills for obtaining and providing information. Hwang and Choi had difficulties in obtaining information and applying practical skills for it than actually providing it.
Hwang and Choi were well aware that the main reason for obtaining information was to identify the stage of patients’ emergency and to elicit relevant additional information from callers. They added that dispatchers needed good medical knowledge and practical skills such as asking the right questions at the right time to the callers in order to obtain information. For them, telephone skills such as handling emotional callers are necessary practical skills. Emotional responses from callers were the cause of their stress in the area of dispatcher skills. Hwang and Choi seemed to think of telephone techniques as practical skill in order to gather necessary medical information drawing out cooperation from the callers. Telephone technique was chosen as necessary skills to improve competence in doing dispatcher’s work by Hwang and Choi. Interestingly, they suffered less stress while providing callers with first aids and allocating 119 resources. It seems that they felt this way since there were other expert teams taking care of the situation when needed. On the other hand, they were severely stressed out when they could not ascertain the correct address or location of where patients were or the place incidents happened. When callers called using house phone, the address and phone number of the caller automatically appeared on 119 dispatch system. So, they relied on this system and believed that this information was correct. However, this function is not available for mobile phones.

Choi said that agitated callers could not often answer their address or location. Hwang answered that she managed to dispatch relevant 119 resources such as ambulances, a fire brigade and rescue team to the closest place to a base transceiver station (BTS) of caller’s mobile phone when she could not gain the correct location information from callers. The major causes of dispatchers’ stress are uncertainty and unpredictability that they meet doing their roles (Forslund et al., 2004). After all, ascertaining the location is a skill to manipulate 119 dispatch systems which is closely related to easing emotional callers.

3 Required knowledge for medical dispatch
The difficulties participants faced in knowledge area were the uncertainty of dispatcher’s roles and responsibilities and, legal and liability issues. Furthermore, the participants stated that their medical knowledge was not enough for doing their job. Hwang and Choi were generally aware of their roles: taking calls, gathering information and dispatching 119 crews to the scene. However, they did not clearly understand their responsibilities. The gap between their role and responsibility was confusing for them. Choi said that she did not clearly grasp the concept of dispatcher’s roles. Particularly, they were not well informed of dispatcher’s legal issues. Therefore, they did not know what legal responsibilities they had and in what instances they were exempted from those legal liabilities. Both Hwang and Choi were afraid of callers making complaints. This clearly hindered them from performing their job confidently. The participants majored in emergency medical care at college and had a long work experiences as field paramedics. They said that their experiences helped grasping circumstances patients were in including the scenes and eliciting medical information. Having knowledge of medicine and medical cares is an important quality for emergency medical dispatchers. It was their practical advantage of doing dispatching job asserted by the participants. On the contrary, Swedish dispatchers with no formal medical education had difficulties in medical knowledge and experience (Forslund et al., 2004). For example, Swedish dispatchers had difficulty in understanding medical terminologies and recognizing diffuse medical symptoms (Forslund et al., 2004).
Although having studied emergency medical care in college and had work experience in field, both Hwang and Choi stated that they needed to have more in-depth medical knowledge so as to improve their work competence. There are supposed to be two reasons for it. The first reason is that they had to depend on their own medical knowledge because they had no official dispatching programme to assist them in doing their job (Yoo, 2011; Cho, 2004). Furthermore, they felt challenged in applying their medical knowledge to various medical cases under critical time limits.

Discussion

Work difficulties of Korean paramedic medical dispatchers and educational contents of American EMD national standard curriculum

This chapter discusses the link between 119 paramedic dispatchers’ training needs and their work challenges. More importantly, the challenges which dispatchers face during work are investigated through educational contents of American curriculum. I believe this could help in developing educational suggestions for Korean 119 dispatchers.

1 Required stress management for Korean paramedic medical dispatchers
A Critical Incident Stress Management (CISD) in the American curriculum is an educational content for medical dispatchers to cope with work distress in the affective area. This part contains ‘sign and symptoms of work stress’, ‘controlling stress while on the job’, ‘coping techniques for stress management’ and CISD programme (the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005, p.55-56). In particular, the distinctive feature of the curriculum is about the running of CISD programme which main objective is to provide crisis intervention after, or during, critical incidents to lessen stress-related trauma to emergency personnel (the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005). For example, the state of Utah runs ‘the CISM team being comprised of mental health professionals and trained peer support personnel to help emergency responders in dealing with the stress of their profession’ (the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005, p.56).

Common causes of dispatcher stress in the CISD in the curriculum are shift work, co-workers, the emotional aspect of some calls and working environment (the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005). On the other hand, the sources of the participants’ work stress in the research are summarised as follows: crisis management stress, callers’ emotional disorder and complaints, relationship with EMS crews and organisational culture. Interestingly enough, it has been clearly revealed that the interviewees suffered much from human relations with callers and colleagues, particularly when dealing with emotional callers than work conditions or environment such as three shifts a day, noise and lights. Medical dispatchers’ work strain on the affective area is not restricted in personal problem but is closely related with their work performance (Clawson et al., 2008).

As exposed in the interviews with my participants, education on philosophy of emergency medical dispatchers is needed for 119 dispatchers. Emergency medical dispatchers should be helpful and compassionate. Compassion for others and the desire to help are not only dispatcher’s basic philosophy but the most important characteristics of a good EMD (the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005). Furthermore, Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers need to be trained to master their work techniques and relevant knowledge to manage their work stress from emotional problems. Accordingly, Korean CISD programme for 119 dispatchers is urgently required. The programme needs to be designed to decrease the impact of cumulated emotional
distress on 119 dispatchers and to prevent stress related sources. Training contents should be developed based on Korean 119 dispatchers’ work strains to manage work stress in the CISD programme.

2 Required skills for Korean paramedic medical dispatchers
Medical dispatchers determine ‘the nature and severity of the emergency’ of all calls and, accordingly how to respond to the calls based on the information given from callers (Clawson et al., 2008; the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005, p.17). Therefore, it is important for dispatchers to obtain proper information from callers. According to the American EMD curriculum, medical dispatchers should be competent to perform six practical skills in order to achieve their work goals (the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005).

Hwang and Choi revealed that they face difficulties in performing four particular skills out of six. The four skills were: identification of medical emergencies, eliciting dispatch information, handling difficult callers, and telephone techniques. These are required skills as a dispatcher to properly gain information from callers. The other two skills are: allocating resources on information gathered and delivering medical instructions.

Medical dispatchers decide the severity of emergency calls based on callers’ answers to ‘the four commandments’ about patients: chief complaints, conscious levels, breathing status, and age (Clawson et al., 2008; the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005, p.17). Medical knowledge is necessary for these core questions. Hwang and Choi seemed to have no work difficulties in gaining necessary information from these four questions because they had enough medical knowledge for the basic questions. Additionally, medical dispatchers must gather dispatching information concerning the location of the patient, the nature of the medical emergency, when it occurred, how and to whom it occurred (the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005). Hwang and Choi believed they performed well in eliciting additional dispatching information.

Interestingly enough, however, they said it was quite difficult to extract relevant information concerning patients and incidents when callers were emotional. Work difficulties faced by Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers’ while undertaking the 4 skills tend to be more intensified as callers’ emotional status increased from calmness to hysteria (Yoo, 2011). Therefore, training contents such as telephone technique and handling difficult callers of the American EMD curriculum are necessarily required for Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers.

The EMD curriculum has basic telephone techniques and methods to calm people down as training contents for reassuring the caller and assisting them to feel comfortable (the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005). In particular, Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers need to practice these particular skills focusing on controlling the call and obtaining the initial information about the medical problem's severity and the dispatching information. Based on Hwang and Choi’s statements, basic education on receiving and handling telephone calls and calming people down when needed should be conducted in practical and real-life simulations. Furthermore, they need to be trained to prioritise and consolidate information obtained into a useful format.

3 Required knowledge for Korean paramedic medical dispatchers
Given from the result of the interviews with Hwang and Choi on work strains, education concerning the basic concepts of EMD and medical knowledge are required for Korean 119 medical dispatchers to decrease their difficulties in action. Basic
concepts of EMD consist of EMD’s roles and responsibilities, and legal liability in the American EMD national standard curriculum (the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005). While Hwang and Choi recognized taking calls, gathering basic information, identifying location and delivering collected data to field EMS crews as their roles, they did not realize dispatchers’ responsibilities clearly. It is because the concept of dispatchers’ roles and responsibilities has not clearly established and appropriate programme for dispatchers lacks in Korea as shown in related studies on the unprofessional status of Korean medical dispatchers (Choi, 2012; Seo et al., 2009; Shin et al., 2009).

Particularly, Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers should be taught about the importance and necessity of coordinating limited EMS resources, providing emergency medical instructions to callers, and coordinating responding 119 crews with other public providers (Yoo, 2011). In addition, education on legal and liability issues related to their work is necessarily required as well. Hwang and Choi were not properly trained to understand legal information on dispatchers’ responsibilities and legal areas of risks. Lack of education led to confusion on the scope of their roles and responsibilities and ultimately they became afraid of civil complaints or legal litigation. Therefore, legal issues such as abandonment, negligence, liability exemptions, legal consents, and confidentiality should be clearly explained in order for Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers to avoid or reduce unnecessary liability in doing their job (the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005).

Medical knowledge is also one of major concerns for the participants. Both Hwang and Choi commented that education on medical knowledge was necessary to improve their work competence. Considering that they are paramedic dispatchers, their comment on medical knowledge seemed was unexpected. However, it is understandable since educational contents for medical dispatchers are different from educational ones of emergency medical technicians (Yoo, 2011). Seen from their work experience in grasping the nature of calls and providing medical instructions, medical education for Korean 119 dispatchers is supposed to be regularly supplemented during work. Additional education on medical knowledge is substantially required considering that many 119 medical dispatchers are certified fire officers with no medical background and, furthermore there is no official medical dispatching programme on which they can depend (Choi, 2012; Shin et al., 2009; Cho, 2004).

The American curriculum includes general information on 32 chief complaint types which are classified into three different categories of incidents (NHTSA, EMD Trainee Guide; the state of Utah, EMD Trainee Guide, 2005). All Korean 119 dispatchers familiarized themselves with these medical complaints in order to improve their work competence (Yoo, 2011). Hwang said that she thought the minimum medical knowledge and EMT’s work experience in field should be basic required qualifications of medical dispatchers working in Seoul emergency call centre.

Though Hwang and Choi have had work experience in medical field, they still felt applying their medical knowledge to various emergency situations under critical work stress was difficult. Therefore, practical educational contents to make up for their difficulties are crucial for paramedic dispatchers like Hwang and Choi. First of all, training contents in medical education for paramedic dispatchers need to place emphasis on differentiating patients’ similar signs and symptoms of various diseases in two medical complaint types: individual chief complaints and traumatic incident types.
Additionally, it is necessary for Korean paramedic dispatchers to have specific medical instructions for emergency calls of the time or life critical events which pose urgent risks to the patient, bystanders and responders. Particularly, important medical instructions on telephone CPR, choking, unconsciousness, difficult breathing and childbirth are essential to dispatchers (Yoo, 2011). Educational content combining this specific medical knowledge with their interrogation skills is necessary for Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers.

**Conclusion**

My interest in this topic has grown since I have worked as a paramedic in action. I have fervently experienced how dispatchers’ roles impacted callers, patients and field EMTs for 12 years. I really suffered from poor and incorrect information from 119 emergency call centre. I had not realised the causes until I started working as a medical dispatcher at Seoul 119 emergency call centre. Although there might be diverse reasons, I strongly believe that one of the leading causes was lack of educational programme for Korean medical dispatchers.

Recent research has thrown new light on the importance of emergency medical dispatchers’ roles in out-of-hospital emergency medical service system. Many researchers have proven the importance of how first responder’s roles of medical dispatchers in out-of-hospital emergency medical service system. Emergency medical dispatchers were performing multi-roles in priority dispatching system. Furthermore, emergency dispatching work was inseparable from the mental stress and time critical situations. Therefore, it was clear that educational programme is essential for excellent dispatching job. So far, however, there has been little discussion about education and training programme for them worldwide. Particularly, in Korea, it was revealed that too little attention has been paid to studies on their education as well as 119 dispatchers work. This research aimed at finding what Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers’ work strains were. Furthermore, finding out what kind of training contents were necessary for 119 paramedic dispatchers was another objective of this research.

Telephone interviews with Korean paramedic dispatchers were conducted in order to extract their work difficulties. In particular, the interview questions were formed from practical abilities and skills of American EMD national standard curriculum. The American curriculum has been available for training dispatchers to operate the priority dispatch system, MPDS which is being used at over 3,000 emergency call centres in 24 countries. Interview participants believed that the curriculum included necessary training contents for Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers. The structure of interview questions was designed to examine work strains of Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers related to practical abilities and techniques required for medical dispatchers. Besides, the format of the first four questions on the participants’ work experience was designed to clearly extract indispensable educational items for 119 paramedic dispatchers. This study was qualitative based research but scales given in matrix question on practical dispatching techniques were added to estimate the level of work strains quantitatively. I adopted the progressive focussing approach to gather and analyse the data which helped to produce salient features of 119 paramedic dispatchers’ work strains and necessary educational contents. At first, I broadly approached to work difficulties which Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers were experiencing while doing their job. As a result, the most distinguishing feature of their work stress was that it was strongly
related to emotional status of callers regardless of whether calls were on disease, accidents or time critical incidents. They felt the greatest difficulty in supporting emotional callers since it was hard to gather information from them properly. While easing emotional callers, they not only sensed helplessness but worried about citizen complaints on their response after dealing with emotional callers’ hysterical response or unreasonable demands.

Additionally, they underwent confusion, agitation, anxiety and were guilty about their own dispatching abilities and techniques. Along with it, the interviewers attributed their work strains to lack of skills in emergency medical identification, eliciting dispatching information and telephone techniques. These three skills were related to interrogating callers. Also, medical knowledge was necessarily required to extract relevant medical information from callers. Consequently, the participants’ educational requirement for medical knowledge was high as well. Education for basic philosophy of EMD was urgently required since they did not know dispatchers’ roles and responsibilities clearly. Medical dispatchers’ legal responsibilities were revealed to be included in the educational contents. Their ignorance about roles and responsibilities and legal liability required for medical dispatchers was supposed to cause confusion or anxiety in work. On the other hand, allocating resources and delivering proper medical instructions were seen as less important by the participants. It seemed to be this way because they did not fully recognize these features as important roles.

After all, the participants’ work strains converged into three domains: affectiveness, required skills and required knowledge. Their work difficulties in three domains were contained as educational contents in the American EMD curriculum. I compared work difficulties from which Korean paramedic dispatchers were suffering to educational contents in American EMD curriculum in more detail.

I conclude that the American EMD educational contents are useful to train Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers so as to improve their work performance, and relieve their work stress. I suggest that Korean training programme for 119 dispatchers should mainly focus on solving their work difficulties of the affective domain. Educational contents in the domain of required skills and knowledge need to be designed to train Korean dispatchers to relieve emotional stress for both themselves and callers. For example, simulation training programme is required to improve Korean 119 paramedic dispatchers’ practical dispatching techniques. In the domain of knowledge, medical knowledge concentrating on specific signs and symptoms of disease is essential for dispatchers to triage patients and provide medical instructions. First of all, it is important to combine telecommunication techniques and medical knowledge in training programme for Korean 119 dispatchers. In terms of emotional stress, stress management programme is necessary for Korean paramedic dispatchers as well. In the long term, Korean priority dispatching system such as Medical Priority Dispatch System (MPDS) or Criteria Based Dispatch (CBD) should be established in order to decrease 119 medical dispatchers’ difficulties in work and consequently improve effective dispatching work. Importantly enough, the system should fit well into the context of Korea. I believe that listening to medical dispatchers in action is the first step towards a better dispatching service.

This research does not aim for generalisation as I am well aware that this research was only conducted with two paramedic dispatchers. However, it serves as a springboard for further related researches to be carried out in order to fully achieve educational
objectives of the research. Although there are limitations in the study, I believe this paper is worth in that it is the first study on 119 paramedic dispatchers’ work strains and the necessity for proper dispatch education in Korea.

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HOW DOES EDUCATION EMPOWER FEMALE COMMUNITY?

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ABSTRACT

Education, regarded as a way to empower the powerless, has been studied a lot in the literature. When discussing education, attention has been paid mainly to children’s education. In this research, my focus is on adult education, especially the informal one which takes place outside the university without obtaining the degree. I will explore the effectiveness of education on female community development through training the community workers and volunteers, because community workers and volunteers are the bridges between the whole community and each individual inside the community. Qualitative research data from participants through interviews, observation and myself, through autobiography, will provide different views on how education promotes community development. Since my research site is a women-only community, the uniqueness concerning female community development will arise in the findings. This study will facilitate my understanding of the relation between education and community, which provides me the framework of similar research in China.

Keywords: adult education, community, female, Paulo Freire

Introduction

Education, for most people, is a never ending topic, because it is the premise of societal development. People in different ageing stages would probably encounter different types of education such as primary, secondary, and adult education. However, according to UNESCO (2006), all types of education can be ‘allocated’ to adult education, because, education is the way to prepare people for adulthood. In the document named ‘What is adult education?’ (2006), UNESCO articulates the ultimate goal of education as “to achieve its humanistic and ethical aims in recognising that understanding is more important than knowledge, since only this produces a responsibility towards morals and wisdom” (p. 17). Education, seen from a narrow sense, facilitates individuals towards self-perfection, but seen from a broader sense, leads societies to develop. In this study, my focus is on adult education which assists the workers and volunteers to enhance their working competence. Society has been divided by locality and interest into different communities, in which people share the same space, value and identities, getting together to achieve their common aim. My research setting is a women-only community. In this community, they provide adult training for volunteers and workers to be involved in helping women with various types of difficulties, and activities and therapies for women who encounter unhappy situations in their daily life.

Freire’s ideas about adult education were formed through the practice of literacy education among adults. According to Taylor (1993) Freire was born into a comfortable middle-class family in Brazil. However, the world economic crisis changed his life; he suffered hunger and poverty at that time. In the 1940s, Freire actively participated in
the activities of teaching adults, which became his initial experience in promoting literacy among adults. Later in the 1950s, he joined the adult literacy programme in the northeast of Brazil, which helped him accumulate more experience in adult education, and in 1963, he took on the responsibility of elimination of illiteracy across the whole country. However, in 1964, he was exiled due to political issues, and during the exile he acted as an educational consultant for literacy work in other countries. In the 1970s, he joined the literacy programme in Africa and participated in educating the farmers and the public in Latin America. Besides that, he was invited to give lectures in Australia, Italy and many other countries. He did not return to Brazil until 1980, ending his exile. Coming back to his home country, he never gave up the cause of adult education. His educational cause takes him half a century and his influence can be traced in different continents, which contribute to his worldwide fame as an influential adult educator.

Although Freire’s theories are mostly associated with adult education, his concepts are also compatible with social and community work. According to Carroll and Minkler (2000), the key concepts including ‘conscientization’, ‘dialogue’ and ‘praxis’ can also be adapted in many other areas, such as case work (Lee, 1994), youth empowerment (Wallerstein, 1992; Wallerstein, Sanchez-Merki & Dow, 1997), work with abused women (Mann, 1987), worker health and safety (Weinger & Lyons, 1992), English as a second language (ESL) programs (Auerbach and Wallerstein, 1987), community health organizing and education (Killian, 1988; Merideth, 1994; Minkler & Cox, 1980; Minkler 1997), homelessness (Breton, 1991; Lee, 1989; Ovrebo, Ryan, Jackson, Hutchinson, 1994; Sachs, 1991; Yeich, 1996), social work education (Gutierrez et al., 1998) and macro practice with communities of colour (Gutierrez & Lewis, 1997; Rivera & Erich, 1992). The projects listed above demonstrate that Freire’s philosophy is widely used and that he is not only regarded as an adult educator but also as a social and community worker. Based on Carroll and Minkler’s (2000) illustration, social workers are “part of the social structure, the importance of bringing about changes that are humanistic were regarded by Freire as part of the social worker’s central role” (p.26), which is also consistent with the ultimate goal of Freire’s educational philosophy, achieving humanity. For Freire, transformation is the essence in the role of social workers, because they either help to accelerate the process of humanization or reinforce dehumanization. Social workers may side with the weak groups by fighting for rights with them and helping them improve their living conditions, or they may choose to do nothing. Therefore, in order to reach equality or humanization, the spirit of transformation should be emphasized by social workers.

Education for social or community activists indirectly empowers the community, because the people working in their community play a leading role of managing and enhancing the welfare. In the educational process, Freire’s concepts are applicable. In my research I will examine how Freire’s ideas fit with community training, and while the trainers and trainees may not know Freire and his theories, the teaching process can reflect the influence of Freire.

Since education and community are contested topics encompassing different perspectives, my research into the relationship between adult education and community development may provide a new idea on these topics. There is a widespread literature about education for children and adults in the general communities; however there weren’t many pieces of research on specific communities such as women offenders or
refugees. My research will explore the effectiveness of education on community workers and volunteers in order to achieve community development.

Additionally, the theories of Freire were adapted to some social projects to assist community development; I also want to demonstrate that Freirean concepts can be applied to the operation of women-only communities in which my research background is situated. In the next section my research methods and methodology will be illustrated to underpin my empirical research design to provide a clear view of how the data was collected and analysed.

Research Objectives

My main aim is to explore how education facilitates the community volunteers and workers in their work with women in order to fulfill community development.

Within my main aim, there are three points I want to examine as well. The first one is how the adult educators’ philosophies affect the learners’ knowledge. For example, if the educator possesses the idea that communication skill is important, they would prefer to teach how to conduct good conversation with others in the curriculum. As a result, the learners may have the same idea that communication skill is of importance and they should be aware of it in the work. Secondly, since I am interested in Paulo Freire and his theories, I will also examine whether their class teaching reflects the ideas of Freire. Moreover, much community research employs Freire’s theories as the methods to help communities to develop. I will explore whether his theories can be applied to the community I studied. Thirdly, my research context is a women-only community; thus it may possess its own uniqueness in terms of community development. Through the research, I will also investigate some new ideas of female community development. These ideas, such as the gender specific approach and the absence of men, will be presented in the findings and discussions section.

Methodology

This study employs qualitative research methods to investigate the connection between education and female community development. Since choosing an appropriate and consistent methodology is of great significance in carrying out research, this research was conducted from an interpretivist’s perspective, emphasising the significance of personal experience and knowledge and how they are formed in different social contexts. “Interpretivism is about contextualized meaning involving a belief that reality is socially constructed, filled with multiple meanings and interpretations, and that emotions are involved” (Hurworth, 2005, p.210). The study was carried out based upon participants’ opinions and their subject knowledge towards certain phenomenon. From my own perspective, interpretivism is about constructing the world through various opinions and experience. In my study, the data were collected through people’s perspective and experience. Within the interpretivist’s paradigm, the research was conducted based on the theories of social constructivism. This is influenced by Creswell (2007), who believes that, in this viewpoint, people construct meanings of the world according to individual experience and knowledge through social interactions. In my research, how the adult educators’ perspectives construct their classroom teaching and relationship with the learners was explored, and the contribution the mentors made, by consoling the vulnerable women who may be abused or who are refugees, will be examined.
Research Results

Drawing from Gibson and Brown (2009), the final success of a piece of research largely depends on the process of data analysis, since:
on working with data to achieve something interesting and perhaps even important in relation to the substantive focus of a research project; on successfully relating such findings to an academic or professional field; on being able to say something through engagement with the data and using it to reflect not just on the particular setting being explored, but ideally, to create some generalizable or at least ‘general interesting’ finding or idea that can be taken forward in other contexts (p. 1).

These ideas give meaning to the study which the researcher is engaged in, and also they are the force driving the researcher to carry on the study. Data in this study are qualitative ones, which are collected through dialogue, observation and documents. The richness of the data can facilitate the researcher’s understanding of phenomena from various angles. By participating in the training session and volunteering in the in the female community, I can grasp a better understanding of their operation, their purpose and their value. Moreover, by interviewing B and N, and sharing ideas with them, I got to know more about the training and community work and absorbed the value of the women-only community.

Despite the significance of the data, one of the most difficult tasks is data analysis. The information was gathered based on opinions, beliefs and values about training and community. According to Gibson and Brown (2009), unlike quantitative data which mainly is comprised of statistics and numbers, the challenge of analysing qualitative data does not lie in the choice of analysing approaches, but in interpreting the data comprehensively.

Additionally, Gibson and Brown (2009) both agree that qualitative data analysis aims at identifying relationships and the underlying themes. The two elements of relationship and themes imply the structure of the data analysis. In this research, I will explore the relationship between adult education and female community development through the training of volunteers.

Summary and Recommendation

From this study, there was a particular link made between adult educators’ perceptions and their class arrangements. For a female community, their major aim was to help women out of various difficulties and provide them a safe place without men’s presence. In the training process, their aim was frequently emphasised and all the educational activities served to build a better female community. The gender specific approach, as a new concept, was regarded as the guide for their work. By recognising the difference between women and men, community workers can provide better services for the women. Equal dialogue was conducted between the workers and the women wanting help, aiming at minimizing the imbalance of power between professionals and women in difficulties. The theories of Paulo Freire can be applied to various situations in which there exists an imbalanced power relationship.

In terms of the adult training, the training contents were related to later practice. The combination of theory and activities could enhance learners’ understanding of the important issues of the class and facilitate them to apply it to future work. Since the
training was also a two-way relationship, the process not only involved what the trainers could impart but also included what the trainees can offer. This relationship broke the ‘banking concept education’ criticised by Freire. Though some educators may not familiar with Freire and his theories, in the educational process, their teaching shed some lights on Freire’s educational concepts.

One important finding in my study was that the interviewees ascribed the development of the community to the absence of men, which was of great difference from the findings in precious documents, in which the researchers believed social capital was an essential element for community development. However, it can be recognised that there was a great distinction between the target communities. The community I studied was women-only; thus the approach and philosophy underpinning the community development were different.

However, the study did not find a clear ‘clue’ about the relationship between education and female community development. It could only show that through educating the community volunteers and workers, their understanding of the female community and their skills were enhanced which were manifested in their work. It can be inferred that the community workers and volunteers can offer better service after the training, which will consequently benefit the women coming to this community. Therefore, the community will be better and attract more people who are willing to help and women who are suffering difficulties.

**Interview Questions**

1. What is your post or job in this organization or community?
2. How many years have you been working in this community?
3. What does this training cover?
4. As a trainer, what do you think is important for the trainees to learn or to know?
5. From your perspective, what are the aims the training intends to achieve?
6. After the training process, when the volunteers practice in the real situation, do you think they meet your expectation?
7. For a community worker or volunteer, what kind of ability do you think they possess?
8. Do you think consciousness, dialogue, and reflection are important elements for community worker in their work?
9. In your work, how do you interact with women with different difficulties?
10. For women community development, what do you think are the important elements?
11. In the history, the earliest female community was call “Mum’s Group” which only for the women get together to share ideas about parenting skills and domestic chores. It was later turned into parents committee. Some people argued that there was a stereotype of women in the society. For example, women should be mothers and should take responsibility of domestic chores such as cooking or sewing. Social or community workers sometimes though out of kind heart want to help them; however in most cases they reinforce this stereotype rather than liberating it? What do you think about this opinion?
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ENGLISH TEACHING IN CHINA: MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES FOR THE NON-ENGLISH MAJOR STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Most English learners in China nowadays lack the ability of communication. Consequently, finding out the appropriate motivational strategies to stimulate learners to improve their speaking and communicative ability is an important topic for educational researchers. In the late 1970s, in order to innovate the traditional teaching method, the government has introduced CLT in China. However, although CLT has positive effects on English classroom teaching in western countries, due to different contextual, the results seem unsatisfactory in China. Therefore, I want to research what motivate students to speak English and what are the biggest difficulties they faced so as to find out the motivational strategies could be used to help students to speak English confidently.

This research mainly focuses on non-English major students. The participants are students from Shaoyang University in China. The research adopted both quantitative and qualitative approaches, including questionnaire and interview research methods. The results of the research show that for most non-English major students instrumental orientations are of great importance. The results also show that non-English major students are facing serious language anxiety and they feel insufficient speaking chances in class. Furthermore, the classroom setting is simple and dull, and lacking interesting and appealing classroom activities greatly decreased students’ speaking motivation in English learning class. Consequently, about how to reduce the language anxiety and how to inspire them to speak confidently are the important purposes in this study. What is more, it is also found that arranging more appealing activities and giving students the right to choose them are also considered as effective strategies in this research.

Keywords: motivational strategies, non-English major learners, English learning research

Introduction

English is the language that most people are learning or intend to learn across the globe today. With the development of globalization and economy, the status of English has been enhanced to a great extent (Crystal, 1997). One of the compulsory subjects from primary school in China, English is taught everywhere from the remotest villages to the largest cities. Chinese students generally spend more than ten years learning English until graduation from university. Nonetheless, English teaching in China is still not up to par (Hu, 2003). In the eyes of Chinese learners of English, nowadays, the majority of them still have troubles in communication with native speakers of English (Campbell & Zhao, 1993). Ultimately, discussing and researching the most workable strategy for Chinese learners seems to be significant.
Since 1960s, a host of researchers have concentrated their attention on motivation, which is believed to play a vital role in second language teaching (Ellis, 2008). It is so efficacious that the rate and achievement of second language learning are all known to be influenced by it (Dornyei, 2001; Ellis, 2008; Van, 1996). In addition, researchers endeavoured to exert their utmost in order to identify the motivational strategies for classroom application and for practical language teaching in the classroom until the mid-1990s (Dornyei&Ushioda, 2011). Compared with the substantial research on second language motivation, the research on motivational strategies that aims to improve English teaching is relatively sparse and has not added up to a coherent theory (ibid). One main reason for this is the influence of socio-contextual factors. In fact, according to the different social-contextual factors, not every pedagogical suggestion is suitable for all classroom settings. In consequence, it is imperative to work out the fitting motivational strategies in accordance with the unique learning context (Holliday, 1994). In fact, in China, with the exception of English majors who normally have their own motivations in learning English, non-English majors lack such motivations in language learning and considerable importance should thus be accorded to them. Thus, in this paper, I intend to confine my research to non-English majors in an ordinary university and try to track down what may motivate these students to learn with intent to whet their appetites for communicating in English in class.

**Research Objectives**

The main purpose of this research is to seek out operative motivational strategies applicable to teaching classrooms for non-English majors as well as for identification of the teaching skills and methods most suitable for learners and teachers. In order to serve these objectives, I intend to put forward three research questions for my research.

What factors motivate non-English majors the most in English classroom?

What barriers do such learners encounter when they are learning English?

What are the most useful motivational strategies to encourage non-English major students to learn English?

According to the first question, it explores the motivational factors that have an impact on non-English major students to communicate in English. What I want to present in the second and third question is about practical classroom learning and teaching. Through these two questions, I aim to determine the obstacles that impede students to learn English especially speaking English in English learning class. Moreover, I also search for the motivational strategies that teachers could use to motivate students to learn English in an effective way and speak English confidently in their teaching class.

**Methodology**

In my research, I adopted both quantitative and qualitative approaches. It is argued that mixed approach can compensate for limitations and disadvantages of only one approach and the greatest value can be extracted from it (Bryman, 2006). As a result, I selected the quantitative method as my main research approach, and then employed the qualitative method as a supplement. By adopting this multi-method approach, I am able to reach a comprehensive and deep understanding of my research topic.
Research methods

For my research, I collected data by means of ‘triangulation’ (Bell, 2010, p.118), which refers to amassing of data through both quantitative and qualitative methods; in this way, the findings can be cross-checked (ibid). Just as Law et al. (2003, p 281) put it, ‘the key to the triangulation is to see the same thing from different perspectives and thus to be able to confirm or challenge the finding of one method with those of another’. I used both questionnaire and interview as my research methods in my study. The former intends to present a general picture of the chief incentives for participants to speak English and establish the pivotal motivational strategies that can come in handy for the purpose of encouraging them. Then, a semi-structured interview, which results in qualitative data, is conducted to substantiate the findings of questionnaire and to have a detailed analysis of the reasons behind students’ choices and their suggestions for further instruction.

Participants

Participants for the questionnaire

This research is carried out in a common comprehensive university in China. Participants are engineering freshman students in two classes in Shaoyang University. The reason why I picked participants from this university is that I worked for a year there. It is convenient for me to converse with students and collect the data. At the same time, I am conscious of the specific context, and my English teacher experiences benefit me in conducting the research.

Participants for the interview

In order to deeply understand what influence students’ selections, why students view the problems as their main obstacles and how the motivational strategies they pick will abate their anxiety and encourage them to join in class activities, I applied interview as a supplementary method to gather qualitative data. I asked a few of the students who have completed the questionnaire as my interview participants. Considering that conducting one-to-one interview is time-consuming, the number of participants is relatively small. I chose the participants according to three criteria. First and foremost, they must complete those questionnaires. Secondly, they have undergone some form of language anxiety and have encountered difficulties in learning English in class. Thirdly, they are inclined to participate in the interview. As the freshman students, all of them have passed college admission examination.

Research Results

I present all the research data in this chapter. I distributed 50 questionnaires to 52 students from engineering major for a whole class. Among the 52 students, 2 of them were selected as my pilot participants. Therefore, except for 6 invalid questionnaires, 44 questionnaires were returned. My research results are based on the 44 questionnaires and 5 interview records.

Analysis of questionnaire

Assessment to the current English teacher and teaching classroom

The first section of the questionnaire, the question 1-8, are trying to find out students’ present attitude towards their teachers’ teaching and classroom environment. Therefore, it helps us to realize the likely problems that might impede students’ English speaking in a classroom.

My teachers often encourage us to speak English and they treated mistakes as a matter
of course.

My teachers often urge us to speak English voluntarily in class by arousing our interests with additional contents or by making lessons appealing with humorous, challenging and interesting activities.

My teachers often encourage us to take an active part in communication-related group activities in English.

My teachers often teach some communicational strategies to help us remove language barriers during communication.

My teachers often give more emphasis on group discussion.

My teachers often attach much more importance to oral communication than mere explanation of grammar.

My English classes are often lively and relaxing, and teachers are friendly.

The results shows that the majority of students think that the contemporary English teaching especially in speaking training is still far from satisfactory. Nearly 10%-20% students (range from 6 to 11 students) like to keep the neutralizing attitude. 18 students disagree and 5 students strongly disagree that teachers have enough patience with their oral mistakes and didn’t actively encourage them in speaking. Meanwhile, the results also show that teachers seldom arrange appealing activities in classroom setting. The majority of participants are not satisfied with the classroom activities. Only 10 students (5 agree and 5 strongly agree) think that the teacher encourage them speaking and the classroom activities are stimulating. The third result displays that only a few students (about 3 agree and 2 strongly agree respectively) believe that their teachers suggest and recommend communication-related group activities in English. The percentage is low to 15% together. Similarly, the research result about teachers’ sharing communicational strategies to students still seems unsatisfactory. Teachers do not pay attention to the group discussion either. In additional, the traditional grammar teaching method still plays the dominant position in classroom. In total 27 students feel that the main point of their class is still grammar teaching rather than oral training. What is worse, when it comes to the class atmosphere and teachers’ teaching spiritual state, the percentage of participants who is satisfied with their class and teachers is small, only occupied 20% (4 strongly agree and 5 agree). In terms of teachers’ encouragement, in total 33 students (22 disagree and 11 strongly disagree respectively) denied that they have received constant encouragement and positive feedback from the teachers to inspire them to speak English in class. Consequently, we can reach a conclusion that most students feel disappointed about current English class and teachers’ teaching.

**Students’ attitudes toward oral English learning**

The second section of the questionnaire, the question 9-12, attempts to explore students’ attitude towards oral English learning and their speaking ability state.

I am aware of the importance of learning English.

I think that oral English is important and I am willing to concentrate my time on improving it.

Ordinarily I seldom speak English actively.

In terms of the ninth question, only 7 students recognize and 4 students greatly agree that they have the cautions to learn English well. On the contrary, the number of students who cannot aware the significance of speaking is much more, about in total 27 students. The results from the tenth question seems not that negative, but it still shows that the number of students who consider oral English is important and have the
motivation to improve it. The number of above students is less than the number of those who are unwilling to spend much effort to improve their oral English. And, more than 10 students choose neutral attitude, they have no fixed conviction about oral English learning. These two statistics indicate that the participants in the chosen class have low motivation in oral English learning. There are some possible factors. Some researchers mentioned that student’s no confidence in their speaking and disappointing learning experiences seriously decreased their motivation in oral English learning (Liu & Chen, 2010). Additionally, English is not the main course for non-English major students. They do not think English is as important as their major courses. Moreover, teachers for non-English major students do not pay much attention to oral English training and oral English test is not included in the final English exams. Students would like to spend more time practicing grammar, reading or other skills that needs to be tested (Xiang, 2007; Xu, 2010). Question 11 and question 12 try to verify these reasons.

The vast majority of students agree that their oral English still far from satisfactory and they need to improve it. 37 students believe that they are limited English speakers and extremely disappointed about their oral English. The students who are satisfied with their oral English are quite few; only one student chooses strongly agree. Besides, according to this question, just one student keeps neutralizing attitude. This indicates most of students understand their choices. It can be inferred that students lack confidence in their oral English. Similar situation happens in the twelfth question. Quite lots of student seldom open their mouth speaking English in an active way. The percentage is high to 75%. About 6 students (3 agree and 3 strongly agree respectively) always voluntarily speak English, accounting for only 13%. Therefore, we can conclude that English speaking is relatively weak for most students.

**Students’ main motivational orientations**

The third part of the questionnaire is composed of 8 questions. Question 13-20 aim to explore the main motivational orientations among students. The questions are based on Clement et al.’s (1994) motivational questionnaire with some adjustments. Making it more appropriate to the non-English major English learners according to my own teaching experience. The following is the results of these questions.

1) I am worrying that classroom performance might affect my grade; therefore, I took an active part in classroom activities voluntarily.
2) I may make a comparison with my classmates who perform better than me in order to urge myself on.
3) I think that a high level of proficiency in oral English will do me much good in job-hunting.
4) I often make a study on the conversation from movies just because I enjoying watching English films; sometimes I can make use of these conversations.
5) I often listen to English songs; in addition, I can make out the lyrics and sometimes articulate them myself.
6) I want to learn English well because I intend to go to Europe and American for further studies.
7) I want to improve my oral English because I have found that English is very important when travelling abroad.
8) I want to learn English well because I often get access to social networking sites and talk with foreigners.
There are two types of the purposes for language learners, that is, integrative orientation and instrumental motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). The meaning of the integrative orientation is that the goals reflect a ‘positive disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with even become similar to valued members of that community’. Conversely, instrumental motivation refers to the goals that related to the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency. For example, better salary job, teachers’ praising, exam passing are kinds of instrumental motivation (Dornyei, 2001:16).

The results above indicate that the instrumental orientation plays the dominant role among students, however, the integrative orientation still have some impact on students to some extent as well. More than half of students think that their grades are of great importance and they should perform well for better their grades. About 12 students choose the neutral option about comparing with classmates motivation. The number of students who will make a comparison with their classmates in order to urge themselves’ study is nearly as much as those who won’t do this. Almost 80% of participants (15 strongly agree and 20 agree) admit that they want to speak English because the high level of oral English proficiency can help them find a good job in the future. A better job will bring them wealth and reputation. Meanwhile, the integrative orientation plays a less important role but still does some impact on motivating students to speak English. More than 10 students keep moderate attitude toward motivation about English films, songs, travels, studies and chatting. Totally 22 students choose the option that they can to speak English because of the English films, accounting for half percentage. While 15 students select neutral option, among the rest of them, the number of students who enjoy English songs is 20. According to study abroad, 10 students choose disagree and 11 students choose agree option, the percentage is almost the same. Similarly, the participants who want to consider travel abroad motivation is 19 totally (5 strongly agree and 14 agree), with the support rate 43%. But, the number of students who enjoys chatting with foreigners on Internet is low to 10, not that popular as motives mentioned before.

The results showed that main motives for students to speak English are the instrumental ones like having an advantage in job market, win good impression grade in exam. However, the integrative orientations like being passionate for English films and songs, travelling and studying abroad also influence students’ motivation to some extent.

Students’ opinion about their performance in classroom interaction and main difficulty for students to speak English in class

The following 5 questions plan to explore whether students are satisfied with their performance in class. If they are not satisfied with their performance, what are the main obstacles for them to speak English?

I do not like my teacher ask me to answer a question because I always feel nervous and uneasy.
I am afraid that I may give a wrong answer to a question and that my classmates may thus laugh at me.
I am afraid that my teacher may criticize me for giving a wrong answer to a question.
I cannot speak English well because my English proficiency is weak.
I seldom communicated in English in class because of limited opportunities.

Most of students are not satisfied with their performances in class in general. About 30 students admitted that they always felt nervous when their teachers ask them
to answer questions. The percentage of students who believe that they suffered greatly nervousness is 30% (about 13 students). Moreover, worrying about their classmates’ laughing and teachers’ criticism become one of the most important impediments that lead to students’ unwillingness to speak English in class. 32 students are afraid of being laughed by their classmates, consisting of 17 strongly agree and 15 agree. Similarly, 29 students fear to make mistakes on account of teachers’ criticism. However, not so many students feel they are incompetent speaker, 21 students do not agree with their limited speaking ability. Only 4 students strongly feel speaking weakness, even not reach to 10%. In addition, the majority of students, about 30 people, support that they do not have enough chances to speak in class.

Language anxiety is one of the essential obstacles for students to speak English and the percentage of language anxiety is high. Making mistakes and being criticized by teachers, losing face in front of their classmates are the important language anxiety related factors. And, most students have the basic ability to express ideas in English; they do not consider linguistic knowledge as main impediment.

Appropriate motivational strategies in selected classroom

We have discussed some obstacles for students on speaking English. Therefore, finding out the appropriate corresponding motivational strategies to solve students’ difficulties is of great significance to benefiting the practical English teaching. Question 26-36 are designed to find out the effective motivational strategies that could be used in classrooms to inspire students to spend more efforts in oral English learning and encourage them to speak English in class confidently.

I like some activities organized by the teacher and thus I can listen more attentively.
I think that if my teacher can attach much more importance to oral trainings in class, my oral English will be improved.
I think that if there are some personalized trainings and help, my oral English will be improved.
I think that if there is more oral training, my oral English will be improved.
I think that if an oral test is incorporated into the final examination, that will be a motivation for me to improve my oral English.
I hope that my teacher will talk more about his/her own experience in how to improve oral English.
I hope that my teacher will pay more attention to my studies and my progress.
I hope that my teacher’s instruction will be more lively and humorous and that class atmosphere will be relaxing and funny.
I hope that my teacher will tolerate some grammatical errors in my speech.
I hope that I will be able to decide whether or not to take part in some classroom activities.
I hope that themes of the lessons may interest me.

The data showing above describe the possible motivates, including personal training, teachers’ attention, classroom activities and so on. 25 students believe and strongly believe some kinds of classroom activities could help them improve oral English. In addition, more than 20 students also strongly think that if teachers could give more emphasis on speaking skills in class and care about students’ personal learning situation, they will be more willing to improve English speaking. Nearly all the students admit that if oral English test are included in the final exam, they will spend more time and effort to learn it. Only 1 student chose strongly disagree and 1 student chose disagree option. Less than half students think teachers’ personal experiences could inspire them, one-third participants keep neutralizing attitude; therefore, it seems
not that useful and effective. Among all the motivational strategies, strategies aiming to decrease students’ anxiety also win the greatest popularity among students. Teachers’ humorous teaching style, a relaxed classroom, and teachers’ tolerance of mistakes are the popular strategies. Temporarily, students also believe that interesting topics and giving them autonomy to choose activities that they like are available strategies for them, with the greatly support 21 and 19 respectively. And, no one strongly disagree that the interesting topics could inspire students.

Choosing appealing classroom activities

The last question is trying to find out what kind of activities that students like the best.

**Group discussion**

![Group discussion chart]

**Role-play**

![Role-play chart]
Speech competition

Debates

Story retelling
Drama show

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Film and music appreciation

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It can be seen from the research results that films and music appreciation, speech competitions, and drama shows win the most supporting among participants. Meanwhile, students also like group discussions, role-play and debates to some extent. On the contrary, only a few students consider story retelling as useful activities. I would suggest that teachers should apply more effective activities appealing to the students into classroom teaching to motivate students’ oral English proficiency.

Interview Analysis

In this section, there are five selected interviewees discussed four questions in the research. In order to better ask for the information from the students, the whole interview procedures were speaking in Chinese. All the answers presented in dissertation are the translation of the interviewee’s original responses. I used letters to replace students’ names. “A” represents the first student; “B” represents the second student; “C” represents the third student; “D” represents the forth student; “E” represents the fifth student.

Question one: what are the main reasons for you to learn and speak English and why?

According to the first question, all the interviewees show some similarities. They all considered English as a useful skill that would help them to get a good job in their fields. One respondent even said that he could even earn more money if he is
expert in speaking English. With the development of economy and globalization, many companies have set up branches all over the world. As English is the most popular international language, the employee with good English ability are needed urgently. Moreover, four students are interested in travelling abroad; they think that visiting different countries can be a wonderful experience in life. However, these five students also hold different opinions toward the question. Both students “A” and “B” have the plan to take master study abroad; therefore, improving English speaking ability will help them to better adapting to the living and learning environment in foreign countries. Meanwhile, student “C” said that he likes English films very much, and watching films is one of his favourite hobbies in his spare time. And, some English TV programs always attract him a lot. Student “D” is crazy for England’s football team. He said: “I am a big fan of Michael Owen, and he is from Britain. I need to learn English well so that I can better know more about him and English football. I really want to improve my speaking because I hope one day that I have the chance to meet my idol and talk to him”. Student “E” points out that learning English can broaden people’s outlook. He said, “There are abundant English books and websites covering all kinds of fields and majors in the world. And if I can learn English well, it would be much more convenience to me to read those foreign literatures. I want to improve my English speaking ability because I really want to tell people what I have read and what I have learned from those literatures; fluent English speaking ability can help me to express my ideas clearly”.

As we can see from the students’ answers, the reason for them to learn English especially the speaking is mainly about the instrumental orientations such as find a good job and travelling abroad.

Question two: What are the main difficulties for you to learn and speak English?

Question two tries to find out what impede students’ speaking English in the class. There are many problems for students to learn and speak English well. Among all the problems, five students all admitted that they do not want to lose face in front of people. Student “A” and “C” mentioned that, they always get high marks in the English tests, so their classmates consider them as good English learner. If they cannot speak fluent English and express ideas in a correct way without any grammatical mistakes, they are afraid of breaking their impressions from their classmates. Student “D” said, “I may make some silly mistakes unconsciously when I am answering the questions in English in class. My teacher sometimes likes correct my mistakes immediately, and this will interrupt my thinking. I hate this feelings so I am unwilling speaking English in the class and never want to be the volunteer to answer teacher’s questions.” Students “B” and “E” put forward that so many considerations need to be thought about before the speaking such as pronunciation and grammar. These considerations may easily make people feel nervous and uneasy. There is also a main impediment for students in that they are not familiar with western culture and cannot use idiom and oral word correctly. Therefore, they do not open their mouth to say something. What is more, the interviewees also mention other difficulties they meet. Student “A” points out that he easily get distracted in the class if the class environment is boring and uninteresting. “I do not want to participate in such boring class activities, I prefer to just sit there and do nothing”. This is not good for learning English. At the same time, students “E” mentions the Chinese learning tradition. He said, “In China, the class is teacher centred. Teachers are standing in front of the classroom, teaching and talking alone.
Under this tradition, students seldom have the chance to open their mouth to express their ideas and speaking. My class is just this case. I do not have enough chances to speak out and my class really lacks of stimulating activities’’. Consequently, it is clear that fearing losing face in front of the classmates, language anxiety, is the most serious obstacle for students. This will lower students’ motivation in speaking English in the class. The traditional teaching method and teachers’ ignorance of oral English teaching impede students’ speaking as well. Students are not willing to speaking English is mainly on account of anxiety from classmates and teachers rather than from poor linguistic knowledge. Under this circumstance, English teachers should help students get rid of the anxiety, encouraging students speaking and communicating in the class, and motivates them speaking self-confidently. Besides, speaking chances, classroom atmosphere, teachers’ feedback, and class topics also influence students’ motivation in class to some extent. We need to find out the appropriate motivational strategies in the class.

**Question three: What motivational strategies do you think will be useful to inspire you to speak English in class?**

Different students have different ideas about the classroom strategies to inspire students speaking. However, the common point they raised is adding the oral test. Student “C” said, “Chinese students are more likely to attach great importance to different kinds of examinations. They emphasize on the test marks and teachers’ evaluation. In some university or college, the examination results are related to scholarship directly. If the oral English test was included in the final examination, they could spend more effort to learn it”. Meanwhile, three students of the respondents, “A”, “B”, “C”, they point out that if teachers put more emphasis on oral English training, they will be more willing to improve oral English. Student “D” said, “I think teachers should be more tolerant to students’ oral mistakes. They need to release students’ language anxiety and give confidence to them. For me, a relaxed and comfortable atmosphere is important”. Similarly, Student “A” said, “teachers should give positive feedback rather than the negative feedback. My classmates and I all think that teachers’ attitude plays a significant role in students’ performance. So I think teachers’ encouragement can inspire students to speak English”. Student “E” argued that interesting classroom activities could be a good strategy. “Various kinds of activities create more speaking chances for students. Activities like English drama play and interesting games are good choices. Teachers had better giving students’ the right to choose and design activities they want to take. In addition, group discussion is a good way to motivate students to speak English”. He put forward several strategies. “I like group discussion very much. When I take the group study, I am more willing to express my ideas in English. The first reason is that I am not afraid of making mistakes because this is a group work and I am not alone. My group partners and I hold the responsibility together. The second reason is that I like working with others. Because we can share ideas and learn from each other”.

As we can see from the interview, many possible strategies can be used in the English classroom according to the students. The most useful strategy found in this research is the speaking test involved in the final English course test. Secondly, the motivational strategies aiming to decrease students’ language anxiety and to give them confidence are also appealing to them. Teachers’ teaching methods and attitude play an
extremely important role to students. Moreover, different stimulating class activities are also useful to increase students’ motivation. And, we may give them self-autonomy as well.

**Question four: Do you like classroom activities? Do you think classroom activities will help you to speak English? Why?**

The last interview question tries to find out whether the classroom activity is a useful strategy to improve students’ motivation. For this question, all the interview students answered definitely yes. They all like classroom activities and all stressed on the word “interest”. In addition, they give many reasons for this. The common points they stated are that the appropriate classroom activities would lead to an interesting and relaxing learning atmosphere, and help to raise students’ interest as well. Student “A” said, “Unlike the traditional teaching, classroom activities could attract the students’ initiative and active participation. Language learning is based on communication and interaction with each other. Therefore, classroom activities is a good strategy for students, at least for me, I like it very much.” Student “B” likes classroom activities too. He suggested that the best teacher is the interest. If students are interested in something, they are more willing to learn something, including language learning. “The effect of teaching will become better if let the students learning while playing”, he said. Both Student “C” and “E” like watching film very much. Student “C” indicated that activities like watching film bring lots of benefits. “It not only stimulate students’ interests, but also students can learn English from it at the same time”. Student “E” said, “The conversations in the film could be used in our daily life. Sometimes I can speak out some sentences in the film unconsciously. Therefore I think it is a good way to improve my oral English”. Other than film appreciation, student “D” put forward some other kinds of classroom activities, such as role-play, speech contest, debate competition and so on. “Among these activities, I like the presentation most. One of my English teachers has always used this method in class. Every class one group of students prepared one topic they interested in and presented the contents to other students and teachers. Therefore, there are chances for everyone to open their mouth to say something”.

It can be found that classroom activities win the greatest supports among students. Reasons are similar such as creating a relaxed atmosphere and raising students’ interests. Various kinds of activities could be applied in the classroom setting to motivate students speak English to some extent. Therefore, finding out the classroom activities that the students like is of great importance to improve students’ participation. Obviously in the interview, film appreciation is the most popular classroom activity. Meanwhile, presentation, role-play and group discussion are also appealing to students.

**Summary and Recommendation**

I put forward the comprehensive findings of the present study grounded upon my research questions.

The first research question was, ‘What motivates non-English majors to learn English?’ The main motivational considerations for such students to open their mouths and talk English are instrumental ones, such as a desire to be an international employee, to find a well-paid job. Nevertheless, integrative orientations also wield some influence on such students to utter English in public, such as articulating English for making sense of Western cultures and relishing English films and songs, as this study has
demonstrated.

As regards the main obstacles such students have met with in course of communicating in English classes, the most common lies in language anxiety. Owing to the hierarchical relationship between students and teachers and the teachers give inappropriate, discouraging responses to errors, students are too fearful of making mistakes, consequently, they are burdened with a high level of language anxiety. Tense classroom ambience, lack of confidence in oral English, fear of making mistakes, negative feedback from a teacher and scarce encouragement all combine to aggravate language anxiety. What is more, another prevailing obstacle revealed by this study is that some teachers do not have adequate means to teach oral English in class. Because of conventional grammar-translation teaching method and the passive leaning style, such students do not have much chance to make use of oral English to achieve authentic communication in class. Additionally, factors like simple-structured classroom activities and mind-numbing topics for discussion also abate students’ motivation in taking an active part in classroom activities.

With regard to efficacious motivational strategies that can be used to enhance students’ motivation in oral English learning, since the majority of students are for the most part instrumentally motivated, incorporating an oral test into English final examination is supposed to be an effectual measure to urge students to concentrate more time on oral English learning. In the meantime, as integrative motives like ‘enjoying the western cultures’ and ‘appreciating foreign films’ are also pivotal orientations for students to speak English, introduction of arresting foreign festivals and customs and organization of activities like film appreciation prove to be workable strategies to promote students’ integrative motivation in oral English learning.

In relation to the concrete motivational strategies for stimulating students to converse in English confidently in class, some steps may be taken. Firstly, teachers should endeavour to switch their methods of English teaching and accord more importance to oral English learning. Teachers are supposed to create more opportunities for students to conduct authentic and meaningful communication instead of simply rehashing the conversations in the textbook. Furthermore, motivational strategies that aim to diminish language anxiety are also of great importance. Strategies such as ‘creating a relaxed classroom atmosphere’, ‘establishing a harmonious relationship between teachers and students’, ‘giving more tolerance to students’ mistakes’ and ‘using more group and pair works’ are all strategies that can be employed effectively to relieve students’ language anxiety. Therefore, it is necessary that the teacher should implant the right concept of mistakes in students and make them realize that making mistakes is a natural part of learning and that there is no need to view making mistakes as a disaster. In addition, the motivational strategies utilized to increase students’ confidence in their oral English are also practical in emboldening students to ‘open their mouth’, including ‘giving positive feedback’ and ‘offering constant encouragement’. Finally, ‘increasing students’ self-autonomy’ plays a pivotal role. To be specific, teachers should allow students the opportunity to pick and choose the classroom activities they like, to volunteer topics they prefer to discuss and to put together their classroom activities of their choice of their own free will. As the findings have demonstrated, students are inclined to participate in classroom activities that are challenging and competitive. Therefore, teachers should work out some activities like role-playing and speech quizzes to increase students’ participation.
The results of this study can exert great impact on counseling oral English teaching for non-English majors in a Chinese comprehensive university. In order to make headway in oral English teaching and surmount oral teaching problems at present, some efficacious measures should be taken. In the following some pedagogical advice will be proffered.

**Changing the traditional learning method**

Since students and teachers nowadays are influenced too much extent by Confucian thinking, some traditional notions of learning and teaching are deeply ingrained in their minds in China. Those notions enormously prevent students from perfecting their oral English. Firstly, owing to the hierarchical relationship between students and teachers, teachers are often serious in class and students usually fear to make mistakes in front of teachers. These relationships aggravate students’ anxiety about communicating in English in class. At the same time, students frequently nurse a misconception of mistakes; as often as not they expect to be perfect before other students and think of making mistakes as losing face. Moreover, learning is viewed as a tough task; teachers are at a loss about the efficacy of learning through entertainment. The whole class is abundant with tedious instructions and explanations, which certainly abates students’ motivation in English learning. Additionally, under the traditional learning culture, students are supposed to be humble; thus, some students tend to envision active participation in class activities as a form of parading knowledge. All these factors have brought about nonchalance in the classroom. In consequence, it is of vital importance for teachers to lessen the restriction engendered by traditional learning culture and establish a harmonious and tight-knit relationship with students and implant in them the belief that making mistakes is no more than an integral part of learning and learning and making errors coexist side by side.

**Changing the traditional teaching method**

The traditional grammar-translation method still reigns supreme in English classes. In classes observed for this study, the teaching gives emphasis to the assimilation of linguistic knowledge and scarce attention has been paid to oral English and students’ communicative competence. In the meantime, teachers devote a great deal of time to explaining and analyzing linguistic knowledge, while students just serve as passive audience. There is rare interaction between students and teachers. Little chance is provided for students to apply what they have learned to practical use in class, which deals a heavy blow to students’ motivation and creativity in learning; it is ergo of consequence for teachers to lessen the restriction engendered by traditional learning culture and establish a harmonious and tight-knit relationship with students and implant in them the belief that making mistakes is no more than an integral part of learning and learning and making errors coexist side by side.

**Enriching classroom activities**

In this study, it has been found that in general, English classes are humourless and wearisome. Classroom activities for students to interact with teachers or with their peers are few and far between. At the same time, some activities are quite dull and easily manageable, which are unable to whet students’ appetites. The themes for discussion are for the most part outmoded and little related to the students’ daily life.
Therefore, teachers are supposed to arrange plenty of activities for students to use English in authentic situations. Moreover, teachers may let students make a choice over what kind of classroom activities they relish and endeavour to arrange the classroom activities that appeal to them. As students are inquisitive about English culture and passionate for English films, a teacher can organize activities such as celebrating film festivals and enjoying foreign films to broaden students’ overall horizons about English communities and to sharpen their integrative motivation.

Reducing language anxiety and growing the confidence

Language anxiety is a major obstacle to encouraging students to speak English in class. The bulk of students conceded that they were self-possessed in their oral English proficiency. In order to address these problems, teachers are obliged to take some effective measures to enhance students’ confidence and lessen their language anxiety. Teachers should not always assume a poker face; quite the contrary, teachers should smile once in a while so as to create a relaxed atmosphere for students to converse in English. Furthermore, teachers are supposed to be more tolerant of students’ mistakes. In addition, teachers should take advantage of more group work and pair work to strengthen cooperation between students, which will relieve students of the responsibility for learning and decrease their anxiety. At the same time, teachers should provide students with continuous encouragement and positive feedback to motivate them to communicate in English without reserve in class.

Acknowledgement

With grateful thanks, I acknowledge the following people for giving me help and support during the writing of the dissertation. First and foremost, I would like to take this opportunities to show my thanks to my former leader and colleagues in Shaoyang university who providing convenience for me to conduct the research. My sincere appreciation also goes to the students who participated in the research for their time and effort with great cooperation. Last but not least, I would like to give my thanks to my parents and my friends for all the encouragement and support that they have given for me.

References


THE REFLECTION OF ANALYZING BRITISH FOOTBALL AND BRITISH CULTURE

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ABSTRACT

This paper mainly discusses the relationship between the British football culture and the British social culture. As the birthplace of modern football, football culture has been one of the core of British culture so far. British football culture is not a kind of sports culture only, it reflects some distinctive characteristics of the British culture -- gentility, nation-state, insular attitude, and social classes as well. And with the rapid development of the football economy, football industry has become a great power to promote the British economy. The British politics is also affected by British football. In religion, the conflicts between Catholics and Protestants are also reflected in the football. Of course, it also has negative effects. But there is no doubt that with its special charm, football has become more and more popular all over the world. Football fans come from all over the world have brought the football culture and British culture to the whole world.

Keywords: Britain; culture; football

Introduction

Football is the most popular sport in Britain. Every culture consists of quite a lot of sub-categories which always need to be investigated. British football culture is a part of popular culture - sports culture, in other words, sports culture is an important part of the social subculture, it can reflect the characteristic of society culture. Among many games, no other sports are more popular than football in terms of adherents and influence in Britain, British football is not only a sport game, but more importantly, it a reflection of British culture in some aspects. This paper is aimed at probing into the football culture and discussing the relationship between football and British culture and how dose football influence the British society to get a better understanding of the British society and people.

Research Objectives

Maybe to many people, there is no discussion of meaning of football as it’s just a kind of sport. But thinking deeply you will find that football is not as simple as a black and white ball, it rich in its connotation. Roots back, football essence is a kind of culture and a kind of spirit. Football is a reflection of national cultural spirit, and is the external manifestation of national temperament. The British football association football is the ancestors of modern football, represented by the Anglo - Saxon embodiment of British culture. The importance of football influence can not be ignored. The purpose of this article is to well understand England by analyzing the British football culture.

By analyzing football and the related football culture, we can better know the Britain, the British, British’s real life, and the football’s role. Football is not only can be a exercise sport, but also can be a career; it not only can influence a person's life, but
also can affect the life of a group; it can be a 90 minutes game, but also can be a prosperous industry; it is about a person's belief, but also it was about a person's political leanings. The significance of the article is to let you understand the football's influence from every aspects of a country.

Methodology
This article mainly adopts literature analysis method. It obtain information by investigation and literature review. Through the investigation of British culture and British football culture from all aspects of the literature and some newspapers and magazines, so as to comprehensively and correctly understand the information associated with this article, and to better complete the study of this paper.

Research Results
The Distinctive Characteristics of British Culture from the Football Perspective

Sport is a kind of subculture, and is closely related to social culture. The origin and development of the British football are based on the British social background. British football may not as gorgeous as Spanish football, but it is the most inspiring. The British football style reflects the core culture of gentleman culture -- fair competition and knight spirit. The four national ethnic consciousness and identity of British people have also reflected in the football culture deeply. The relationship between FIFA and British FIFA is also an annotation of the insular attitude. Like other sports, football also reflected the British social class distinctions. Through football, we can have a better analysis of British society and culture.

Gentility
Gentleman culture is the external performance of the British national culture. Gentleman culture is based on noble spirit. The image of a gentleman is rooted in the medieval knight spirit.

In the middle ages, every noble young man should accept strict training from childhood. Only through the strict procedures can he become a knight. The knight should be brave and led the people fight to the end. And the closely connected historical events of knight spirit are the 200 years' Crusade of Crusades. The Crusades waving the flag with red bottom and golden lion to inspire the morale. King of England Richard I has also achieved the "Richard the Lionheart" title because of his bravely. The lion has become the symbol of courage, loyalty and noble in western culture. And we usually call the England football team "Crusades".

"Three Lions" is the badge of England football association. This signifying that England football inherited the spirit of knight. The core of knight spirit are courage, strength and proud. The British newspaper always uses Lions and the Lion-heart to describe the football players. The style of British football is heroic, stubborn and full of passion. They are honest, brave, impartial, not afraid of sacrifice and fight for the national honor.

The connotation of gentleman culture changes with the development of British society. The Victorian period (1837-1901) is recognized as the summit of gentleman culture. The whole society is paid more attention to honor, exquisite manners, appearance and behavior etiquette. It think highly of the values of "open competition"
and "fairplay" at that time. The British newspaper at that time always calls football players as "Mr" when they report.

Although gentleman culture has began to decline in the 20th century, it also has "football hooligans" phenomenon from 1960s in this gentleman nation, the core spirit "courage and proud" of gentleman culture have been accompanied with football.

**Nation-State**

As the birthplace of modern football, British also have a unique place in FIFA. It occupies four seats in FIFA and can send out four teams into the World Cup. This not only shows the leading position of British football at the beginning of the 20th century but also reflects the unique form of Britain, it formed by four independent "countries" (England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland). In English article, when we refer to these four British parts, we often call them "nation" or "country". These two words have mean "国家" or "country" in all kinds of English-English and English-Chinese Dictionary which is the same meaning when you call the others countries. Many people from Scotland would rather accept you call him Scottish than British. An Irish-American lady once firmly opposed that London is the capital of England; she said "London is the capital of England, not the capital of the UK. Because she thinks British are just a national alliance of four countries, it's not a real sense of entity.

The national identity consciousness is strongly reflected in the football culture. "Anyone but England" has been the slogan of the Scottish football team in every match. In 1872, the match between England and Scotland held in Glasgow was known as the first "international" football match. Compared with England, Scotland is behind in their policy and economy. Football has become a way for them to realize their national pride and glory. Although Scotland has low population, but the national stadium Hampden Park held the match between Scotland and England in 1937 has also attracted 149415 spectators. This number has still kept the record of most audience in one match in European.

Although Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland founded the local council through legislation in the 20th century, national consciousness and identity do not vanish in Britain. From 1974 FIFA cancelled the rule that professional athletes can take part in the Olympic Games. Britain was not an organized national team to take part in the Olympic football game. The 2012 Olympic Games will be held in London this year, after a series of negotiations and concessions, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland decided not to take part in the national team, but announced that they will not against England team stand for Britain national team to take part in Olympic football game.

**Insular Attitude**

The attitude that British towards Europe is the typical reflection of insular attitude. Generally, British people doubt that every decision of the European Union. All in all, Britain is the empire on which the sun never sets at once.

As the development of polity, economy in 19th century, football has vigorously developed in Britain. With the expansion of the empire, football spread to every corner of the world. Although seven continental countries established the FIFA in 1904, their football levels have still far lower than British football’s. In 1905, England was invited to join FIFA and began to dominate FIFA until 1918. But England quit FIFA in 1920 because had the different opinion with the other countries.
In fact, as early as 1886, British domestic four regions (England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales) had established The International Football Association Board, responsibility for negotiating and determining the rules of football and other relevant matters of football and the Football Association.

As the colonial countries became independent and the British Empire collapsed gradually, English football also lost its leading position in the world. The Scottish team has taken part in the World Cup since 1950, and has come into the World Cup finals eight times, but it always eliminated in the first round.

The political dominance and the insular attitude let Britain does not want to involve in European affairs. As the birthplace of modern football, Britain dose not want to join hands in FIFA. Although it was invited to join FIFA in 1905, it is not a good decision that it quit it 2 times and finally joins hands in FIFA again in 1946.

Britain has to face the reality that is the power of so many countries was enhanced constantly, so does their football.

**Social Classes**

Britain is one of the most serious countries about social class consciousness. Most people are known clearly about their classes: working class, middle class or upper class. In 2007, the Guardian and the British Investigation Bureau of Public Opinion had take a survey, 89% of the people think that a person’s class determines how to the society estimate the person, 55% of people think that the influence of one’s social class is more important than other aspects, such as personal ability. The survey showed that 53% of British people think they belong to the working class, 41% think they are middle class and 2% think they belong to the upper class.

The family income is one of an important standards determines how to division the social class, but the lifestyle is also an important aspects. Car factory workers’ income may high than university teachers, but from the perspective of culture, the former are the working class and the latter are middle class. They read the different newspapers. Workers read The Sun which are more about TV shows, the royal family and the sports news, but less about politics news. University teachers always read the Guardian which often pays more attention to the current politics of home and abroad. Even the entertainment news are main about the drama, literature and the others elegant art. In addition, listening to their accent can also help you to judge a British class identity, the working class always with a local accent, while the middle class always has the standard BBC pronunciation. If you are an overseas student, you will find it is very easy to understand a professor’s lecture on campus, but when you go to a street, you often find that the British English is so weird to understand.

Although the modern middle class created the standard football and expand it across the country, with the football growing popularity in the working class, the middle class started to produce a "hostile attitude" among them, they think is too brutal. And when the "football hooligans" become a phenomenon in Britain, the middle class are more and more alienated from football.

With the recession of industrial enterprises in the 20th century, a large numbers of white-collar workers generated in Britain, as the new generation of traditional working class, they love football because of his father and grandfather, and they belong to the middle class because of their higher education and new technology abilities. This new generation become to the backbone of the British football fans.
Compared with the old days that a majority of football fans are from working class, now the fans are a mixed group, including the workers, cleaners, managers and even governors and so on.

The Relationship Between Football and Britain

As the birthplace of modern football, football culture is one of the cores of British culture until nowadays. And with the rapid development of the football economy, football industry becomes a great power to promote the British economy. To some extent, The British politics is also affected by British football. In religion, the conflicts of Catholics and Protestants are also reflected in the football.

Football and British Society Culture

Football culture refers to the cultural aspects surrounding the game of association football. In many countries, football has ingrained itself into the national culture. Many countries have daily football newspapers, as well as football magazines.

Football players, especially in the top levels of the game, have become role models for people. The game has become glamorized, with many children practicing the game and aspiring to the wealth shown off by the top players. Football’s power runs deeper than the ninety minutes played on the pitch, it has also held the power to unify nations, it has played out wars and it has brought every people together from around the world. The FIFA World Cup held every four years is the quintessential football event, combining the greatest players in the world and the passion of the fans. Football has a long and glorious history, with which a vast and diverse culture has emerged. The culture of football can be easily divided into how the players, fans and clubs see the sport.

At every weekend, the subway lines of London are full of fans to the court. Fans tend to be relatively fixed. In spite of the high level of English Premier League, some fans might like a serene B team and follow their favorite team all the time. One reason for this phenomenon is that the English club has a long history. Although some clubs are now down, maybe they were champions before.

Football and British Economy

With the rapid development of the football economy, football industry has become a great power to promote the British economy. Football in Britain is more than a sport game, it is a highly commercialized industry. The history of commercialization of British football shows that the evolution of British football accorded to development of British economy.

It is clearly that the "commercialization" of football really first began long ago in England. During the Second World War period, as the influence of the cinema and later television grew, the professional football players start to sell commercial products through advertising and sponsorship. However, most football players in this period were still effectively confined to their clubs under the maximum wage and retain and transfer contract system. The new "commercialism" in football looks very different from earlier versions. Arguably, the effects of commercial interests accelerated in England in the 1960s, with the rise of the popularity of TV, the lifting of the maximum wage for players, and the hosting by England of the 1966 World Cup Finals. The 1966 World Cup was a major global television event and it was probably the first of the
major football finals to be shaped substantially by the concerns of the media, especially TV. Around 400 million people worldwide watched the TV coverage and many fans in England bought souvenirs to commemorating the event.

With the commercialization of British football, football industry has become a more important part of British economy. British football has its own football market; every game of English Premier League is basically filled with audiences. Tickets of most game are sold out one month in advance. The main reason why the British football market is relatively stable is that its fans are very fixed. Today, the British football market has become a thriving, global, high-tech industry that attracts fans of all ages, ethnic groups and cultures. All clubs are equipped with some specialized stores filled with a variety of goods. The main goods they sell are the club logo printed-on scarves, hats, clothing, and medals and so on. Of course, the names of all players’ printed-on hats, sweatshirts are for sale. Meeting with particular contests, the club has also produced a number of commemorative merchandise.

Football and British Politics

To some extent, I think football diplomacy is a very important policy in British politics. Just like the ping-pong diplomacy of China in 1970s, when the head of British has to meet with some foreign leaders, they will always talk about football, particularly the other country is also stronger at football.

The parliament is also involved of football sometimes, perhaps they will discuss the football match just finish in last weekend, and maybe they have to come up with a solution to end the phenomenon of hooligans.

On May, 23rd, 2010, the British famous football player David Beckham visited the British troops in Afghanistan accompany with British Foreign Minister Hager, British Defense Minister Fox and British International Development Minister Mirchell. This is the first time that a non-government personnel visited the British troops in Afghanistan, maybe they think football can encourage the armies. It obviously shows the influence of British football on British politics.

In British, a football match can created a friendship with the other country, and also can destroy a friendly relation. The most suitable example about this phenomenon is the relationship between Britain and Germany. Britain and Germany has a bad relationship because of the war in old times, both of them try to improve relations between themselves. But when their two nation team should meet with each other in the football match, they will no longer think about the efforts they do for the friendly relation before.

Football and British Religion

Football and religion, sports and beliefs, seems have not similarities, but you are wrong, it's still has something in common. As some scholars said, the fanaticism of football fans, like the worship to the Christian. When you are addicted to football, you can't control yourself. This is a spiritual pursuit.

The relationship between sports and religious has been on for a long time, football is the supreme representative of sport. For Christians, Sunday is the rest day of god, it is the Sabbath of rest, Christians have to stop their work, go to church to honor the god created the world. But you can find a interesting thing that in nowadays, the British people go to the football stadium more often than go to the church on Sunday. Many
British people no longer believe in god, no longer go to church to listen to the god. Instead, football became their new religion; go to the football pitch once a week instead of going to the church. It just like they are using another way to listen to the Gospel of god. Even though the team coach is a loser, even though the clubs members are all like a soft foot crab, British fans continue to support their own club, it is more crazy and loyalty than believer of religion. Many British people may change their religion, but they will only support a football club of his whole life.

Religion has its own festival, such as Christmas, even a un-Christian celebrates the birthday of Jesus Christ. Football has its own festival that is the World Cup, and the World Cup festival is treated grander than Christmas. Both football and religion have their own space, football has stadium and pitch, and religion has church and temple.

What impressed me most is that football and religion should be a city - Glasgow. Scotland has two famous clubs, Glasgow Rangers FC and Celtic FC; these two teams are located in Glasgow. When you are in Glasgow, no one will ask whether you are a Catholic or a Protestant, they'll only ask you which team you support. Because all the Celtic fans are Catholic, and ranger fans are protestant, this has been a tradition of thousands years and also has been the beliefs of the fans. A punk band wrote a song called "why Ranger never use Catholic players" in Glowsgow before. The Ranger gave us the answer "we have our own traditions, tradition can not be break." "If you change the consistent religion of the club, that will led to unthinkable disaster."

In Glasgow, football has turned into a religious war.

The Negative Effects of British Football Culture

Just like a old saying, one coin has two sides, although football is regarded as the most important sport of the world, and football has the largest number of fans in the world, football has negative effects. With the football become more and more popular all over the world, it is faced with many challenges, some problems haven't been solved, and new ones come into the stage. Among this problem, I think the most serious are hooliganism and violence, scandals of the famous football stars and the conflicts between "fans" and "blame fans"

Hooliganism and Violence

Football brings both great fame and ill reputation for British people. The notorious "British Disease", the behavior now known as "football hooliganism" originated in England in the early 1960s. Football hooligans are those who through a number of violent acts in the football match.

Referring to the British fans, people will automatically think of the notorious British soccer hooligans. "Football hooligans", supporters of rival teams, sometimes clash before, during and after matches and occasionally run riot through the town, breaking windows and beating each other up. Some football fans paint their faces and sing or chant football songs and it is not too difficult to imagine their warrior-ancestors. While football violence gets a lot of attention, before big matches when trouble is expected, police patrol the streets, pubs near the football grounds are closed, and shops lock their doors and shutter their windows.

Always all of the violent acts are about football, fans on the stands are in favor of one team and they could not tolerant any bad words for his team, especially at the case of playing aboard. But also some of the violence are about politics. If somebody wants
to announce his discontent to everyone, football matches are the best choice because there are so many people who are watching the game. Some people think that football hooligans are socially excluded vulnerable groups as a resistance. British police investigation has found that the behavior of football hooligans is mostly due to psychological factors, such as the breakdown in family relationships, to let off steam and so on. It is a reflection of the Social contradictions.

No football fans would forget the day on May 29, 1985. More than 60000 supporters of Liverpool and Juventus had made their way into the Heysel stadium in northwest Brussels, many having spent the day drinking before the European Cup final. At around 7 pm, about an hour before kickoff, the trouble started. Fans had been chanting, waving flags and letting off fireworks, but the atmosphere become more violent and a thin line police was unable to prevent a contingent of Liverpool follows from stampeding towards rival fans. A retaining wall separating the Liverpool follows Juventus supporters in sector "Z" collapsed under the pressure and many were crushed or trampled when panicking Juventus fans tried to escape.

Many causes account for the increasing expanding hooliganism, which alcohol and gambling are the two major ones. Football's close association with alcoholic drink, especially beer-drinking, has been strong from pre-industrial times, when folk football games were played at fairs and festivals. Today, playing, administering, and watching football remain deeply interconnected with the pub, the alcohol trade and drinking in general. By the turn of the century football game became an integral part of pub culture. Despite this close association, many clubs had uneasy relationship with pub landlords, especially as publicans sought to cash in on football's popularity.

Football can boast the biggest and most popular sport in the world. The interaction and cooperation between football teams across cities, states and continents can effectively encourage the ideology of friendship, equality and mutual development. Although we can not ends hooligans, but we should always remember, the central spirit of football remains positive and healthy. We should believe that these phenomena can be totally eradicated one day.

The Scandal of Football Player

So many football players are the idol of a majority of British young teenagers; they watched every match of them and followed by them. What these players do and what they say will influence those teenagers so much. Football players may teach you how to be brave and strong before, but in recent year, there are so many scandals happened among those stars. When you mention British football player, people will think of scandal. Media do not focus on the match but use a large page to describe their scandals. I think this is really a negative effect of football, the British football player should revise their own behavior and become a good example to lead all those teenagers go to the right.

The Conflict Between "Fan" and "Blame Fan"

Maybe a majority of British is really like football, but not everyone. The former British prime minister Margaret Thatcher is a representative of those people do not like football, and in some extent, she is very hostile to football, because she thinks that all the football fans are potential dangers for British society. Why she hates football so much? If you are a football fans, you may not the answer. During the period that she
hold power of the British government, Hillsborough tragedy happened in 1989 where 96 of the Liverpool fans lost their lives, Thatcher's government plans to come out a series of measures to ban the football. But these measures are not have actual effect. "Taylor report" is published after that time and it is discussed about this tragedy. In that report, the famous British judge point out that football has penetrated to the bone marrow of British and the football flowed in the blood of British, it never stops.

But all these can't deny the fact that some of British people is still don't like football, football is not their beliefs, football is not their spirit, and they will never join to the groups of football fans on weekend, even they are hostile to football, so we can call them "blame fans".

For those "blame fans", football is too crazy and full of violent. Everything about football has negatively affects. Maybe his daughter idling and indulging in fantasy all day long, because she just dream of become a football player's wife someday, she thinks to be a football star's wife means the rich life and the shine of the flash. After all, Britain has the famous "WAGs", and the famous singer Victoria Beckham is the leader, she is the wife of the famous football star Beckham. Moreover, perhaps they window is broken by some rude football fans and maybe the drunkard sleep in front of their house is the people who just come out from the pub after a football match. Maybe these are not serious at all, but everyone should be afraid of the fight between football fans and polices in the street, but this may happened in every weekend after a football match, because football fans is always too crazy and full of passion. All these things determine that where there are "fans", where there are "blame fans".

Summary and Recommendation

British football culture is not just a sport culture, it reflects so many characteristics of British culture. British football culture has never developed all by its own, it always been subjects to influences from all aspects of British social and historical activities.

We can make a basic summary, British football culture is definitely unique, as is the case with most sub-cultures, but this uniqueness is closely associated with the typical British cultural features such as gentility, nation-state, insular attitude, and social classes. By studying the British football culture, we can have a better understanding about British culture and know more about the relationship between British football and Britain.

As my thesis has presented, British football culture also has its negative effects, there are some phenomena didn't be expected by British people, such as hooligan, violence, scandal among football players, conflict between "football fans" and "blame fans". But I think these can never shake the status of football in Britain, these can never move football from the mind of British people.

Football is a sport full of passion and charm; it's a representative of the British gentle outside and British courage under their skin. British football culture is the most important part of British culture and history.

Acknowledgement

I extend my sincere thanks to everyone who has contributed directly or indirectly to this thesis.
My deepest gratitude goes first and foremost to my supervisor Miss Zeng. Her unfailing patience with each of my naive questions serves as a great comfort to me, which encourages and guides me to face all the difficulties I have ever encountered through the whole writing process. She has walked me through all the stages of the writing of this thesis. Without her consistent and illuminating instruction, this thesis could not have reached its present form.

Secondly, I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to the teachers in our library, who helped me a lot during my thesis writing. Thanks to them I can get enough materials for my thesis writing.

Also, I owe my sincere gratitude to my friends who gave me their help and time to listen to me and help me work out my problems during the difficult course of the thesis though I can’t list their names here one by one. Thanks for their priceless suggestions and heartfelt support.

Last but not least, my heartfelt thanks go to my beloved parents, whose love and encouragement are what I cherish most in my whole life.

References


FILIPINO THIRD GRADERS’ KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTION ON ADJECTIVES THROUGH JUANDERLAND

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ABSTRACT

With multimedia being effective in second language acquisition, this study explored how four episodes of 2D-animated IEC material, Juanderland, helped increase academic performance, stir attitudes, and gather perceptions on learning adjectives. Aside from describing socio-demographic profiles, knowledge, attitudes and perceptions (KAP) among 74 private and public school third graders in Laguna, Philippines were also identified and analyzed. Cognitive Rigor Matrix for Reading and Writing, test of means, one-way ANOVA, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z test were applied to analyze data. Results showed knowledge gain was not significant enough, but various intervening factors were identified, and these could have further affected knowledge gain. Interest in animated IEC materials also increased, in contrast to negative attitudinal changes on benefits and attention span. Overall, positive perceptions on Juanderland can trigger knowledge gain and more positive attitudes on its future use.

Keywords: 2D animation, learning adjectives, multimedia and learning, KAP study, grade 3 English

Introduction

Technology has changed the face of life, and now it is changing how learners are educated. In the 20th century, tri-media - television (TV), radio and print - became supplemental to education. For the past decade, students have been exposed to various technological advancements which have affected the way they learn and retain information. At present, students enjoy ease of learning through different software and applications available and accessible through mobile phones and gadgets such as tablets. Use of such technological improvements to match or supplement traditional teaching methods has been proved beneficial not only for students but also for teachers. This technological trend has caused education to be as important as it is now as an emerging influence across the globe, especially for developing countries (Khasawneh 2013).

The Philippines is no exception. With English being its second language and as English as Second Language (ESL) learners, Filipinos have been exposed to the language since 1900s and are being continually exposed to it through various ways such as multimedia. In the 1990’s, Philippine schools particularly elementary schools utilized supplemental educational materials in teaching specific subject matters such as
English, mathematics, science, history, values education, Philippine alphabet, and Philippine literature. These supplemental teaching materials were educational TV shows, probably the first of its kind in Philippine TV and history of education. Created and launched by ABS-CBN Lingkod Kapamilya Foundation, Inc., these shows were more commonly known as "schools-on-air" (SOA) programs. Such localized materials aimed to aid in explaining and simplifying concepts in various subjects through dramatization, audiovisual presentation, and animation (ABSCBN 2014). Distributed as a package (a TV, a DVD player, 108 DVD volumes on five subject areas: Sineskwela (science), Mathitinik (Mathematics), Bayani (history), HirayaManawari (values education), and Epol Apple (English), and a guide CD and a teacher training DVD) to schools nationwide in DVD format, these allowed teachers to use the materials in accordance to their curriculum (ABSCBN 2014). Dubbed as E-media or E-TV in 1994 (ABSCBN 2014), these materials can also be considered as instructional, educational and communication (IEC) materials aimed to supplement face-to-face and distance education.

The transition from tri-media to multimedia revolutionized almost all kinds of learning, including learning English as the universal language. One of the first educational TV shows that taught English in the Philippines was Epol Apple, a TV program that emphasized the proper use of English in simple and everyday conversations. It featured interesting characters and stories that appeal to children, and in order to make it livelier, the program had some parts that are musical. Interactive activities were also part of the language program. Not only schools had benefited from these materials, but learners who only have access to informal and non-formal education. These IEC materials received much appreciation not only from teachers and students, but parents as well, particularly from public schools given the shortage in textbooks. Because some of these TV programs were replayed on weekends, students were able to catch on the lessons even at home. However, while Epol Apple and other educational TV programs are still being aired on Knowledge Channel and Studio 23 (still under ABS-CBN), not many students and teachers watch and use the shows as learning or teaching aids anymore. Because learners and mentors have been widely exposed to various tools for learning, such TV shows may seem less challenging and outmoded to them.

This observation confirms the need to match educational materials with the available technology that can make learning effective or even more effective. With this, matching educational materials would mean looking at how schools, particularly public schools, can access and utilize these materials, especially because the problem seems to be in grassroots - elementary students may not be as literate as expected. According to literacy report by the Department of Education (DepEd) (2012) on the literacy of students and their national scores in the Philippines, DepEd explained that "[o]ur elementary pupils and high school students are not learning the desired competencies in English, science and math. They are, so to speak, "in school" but not "learning from school" (p.6). National scores in the National Assessment Test (NAT) revealed that while "grade four pupils obtained higher mean percentage scores in the NAT than in the National Diagnostic Test (NDT), which means that from grade three, the pupils improved their competencies in math, science and reading comprehension, "while in grade four" (p.6). DepEd in the same 2012 literacy report also stated that "overall, the mean net achievement for the three subjects increased from 40% in the NDT to 52% in
the NAT" (p.6). The desired NAT-NDT score is 75% (DepEd 2012); however, the national score, even though it increased, is still 23% far from the target. Looking at these results, it can be noted that grade four pupils are not competent enough in reading comprehension, science and math. This is crucial since these competencies are required in the NDT and NAT.

Unfortunately, these results contribute to the inconsistent quality of functionally literate high school graduates that the country is producing, since the alarming NAT-NDT scores continue up to high school. In the same 2012 literacy report, DepEd explained that in 2002, 2003 and 2004 NDT, NAT and High School Readiness Test (HSRT), the national means are 28%, 35% and 32%, respectively. The results may have increased, yet still far from what was expected. With English as the language in national or standardized tests (except for the subjects Filipino and Sibika at Kultura in elementary), it is necessary that elementary and high school students have a working knowledge of the English language. Such competency or proficiency can "make or break" their performance in other subjects such as mathematics and science. However, it can be noted that there could be numerous key factors affecting second/foreign language learning and its rate and success. For instance, motivation can be one factor especially if the learner is not exposed to the language at home. Poor performance can also be attributed to language learning anxiety (Gomari and Lucas 2013). Young (1991) defined language anxiety as "a complex, multidimensional phenomenon" (p. 434). This can be caused by different or combined factors such as ethnicity, prior language experience, exposure to language, personality, and even classroom circumstances. Such factors can be addressed by IEC materials, which are primarily meant to deliver messages to a specific audience. Back then, IEC materials are more common in development work to promote advocacy and raise awareness on issues like initiating social change and alleviating poverty. These materials are usually in the context of the community to break communication barriers in delivering the message. Nowadays, most messages are packaged in the same manner - informative, educational and communicative - and these purposes can also be applied to education. The educational TV programs launched by ABS-CBN are indeed examples of IEC materials for they were used not only in formal education, but in informal and non-formal educational modes as well.

Jim Stice (1987) explained that, "visual aids communicate an instructional message with an image" (p.2), and "that people remember 20% of what they hear, 30% of what they can see and 50% of what they see and hear" (p.2). He also explained that visual aids can facilitate learning more effectively by putting the lesson into a structural manner. It can also be more appealing, which also allows the developer to provide more explanation of the topic. As one aspect of communication, developing and testing IEC materials can be an effective way to help improve quality of education. A few years back, foreign language TV programs such as Blue's Clues and Dora the Explorer became big hits in the Philippines, helping toddlers count, recognize letters, shapes and colors, and read in English. While 3D animation is a popular topic today, 2D animation is still used in games and other applications used in the modern day - even Blue's Clues and Dora the Explorer were in 2D animation. Such language programs prove that this type of animation can still be a tool in conveying messages like learning to use adjectives. Knowledge, attitudes and perceptions of third graders from two elementary schools in Laguna, Philippines were measured.
Murphy (2014) explained that vision and learning are intimately related. In fact, experts say that roughly 80% of what a child learns in school is information that is presented visually. A study by Raymond et al. (1996) supports this, in which he discussed that "there are a large number of identifiable visual processing skills operating within the visual system, and there have been several attempts to describe them in some kind of rational framework" (p.229.). Raymond et. al. (1996) also discussed about the Deficit Skill Approach, which categorized visual processing into specific deficits, and the Information Processing Models, which described the reception organization and assimilation of visual information on a continuum from simple to complex. This means that understanding a message conveyed by multimedia involves working knowledge or may even require forming a knowledge structure of human visual information processing. An example of Information Processing Models can be found in the work of Warren (1992, 1993) who appears to have provided the best approach towards understanding visual processing. In Warren's model, "each skill level is dependent upon the skill level below it, and relies on the following functions: including visual cognition, visual memory, pattern recognition, scanning and visual attention" (p.230).

In addition, Broadbent (1958) adopted a model of a brain as a limited capacity information processing system. The model represents the stages and the flow of information from one stage to the next. It is composed of stimulus, input processes, storage processes, output processes and response. Similar to Warren's model, Broadbent (1958) illustrated that as the person sees the image or a representation of the stimulus, it enters in the stage of input processes, which includes visual cognition. Visual cognition means visual information is manipulated and integrated with sensory information, and these are analyzed by the brain, focusing on the similarities and differences of the visual stimulus, until a meaning from the image is provided. The next stage would be the storage processes, which involve visual memory, pattern recognition, scanning and visual attention. Next is scanning, which records all the details of an image and examines it for several times to make sure that the information processed are organized, systemized and well executed. Visual attention attends to shift from one stimulus to another stimulus. As the stimulus undergoes this stage, stored information helps prepare for a response or responses in the output processes (Broadbent 1958).

Visual image is a good start to catch attention from the children in which they are conditioned to have selective attention regardless of other distractions. Warren (1992, 1993) and Broadbent's (1950) models show that humans can only process limited information at a time. Thus, this study was based on these models of information processing, since the visuals that were used in Juanderland were moving images aimed at learning a specific topic in English - adjectives.
Teaching and learning materials play a huge role in language learning. In the Philippines, the usefulness of multimedia became more evident in the 1990s when schools utilized educational TV shows as supplementary materials in teaching and learning content-specific matters. These IEC materials were helpful in explaining sensitive topics such as puberty and reproductive health, for example, the materials developed by Johnson's and Johnson's in explaining the menstrual cycle to female students in fourth, fifth and sixth grades in the late 1990's. Consequently, various studies on learning state that an individual can retain images and have the ability to recall them through images or text forms. Hence, it is interesting to explore how an original 2D-animated material can help increase academic performance, stir attitudes toward learning English, and gather perceptions. Furthermore, the study can be helpful in various ways to different stakeholders such as school administrators, English teachers, parents, multimedia practitioners, IEC material developers and contributors. Understanding factors as knowledge gain, attitudinal change and perception on such IEC material can aid these stakeholders in coming up with solutions to address improved learning English as a second language through development and use of multimedia.

**Research Objectives**

In general, the research generally aimed to explain how an original 2D-animated IEC material affects grade three pupils' knowledge, attitudes and perception in learning specific topics English such as adjectives. The study specifically (1) described the socio-demographic profile of the respondents; (2) identified the respondents' knowledge, knowledge levels and differences in knowledge and knowledge levels on adjectives, before and after viewing the video; (3) determined the respondents' attitudes, attitudinal levels and differences in attitudes and attitude levels towards learning adjectives, with and without viewing the study material; (4) discovered the respondents' perception towards learning the use of adjectives using the 2D-animated teaching tool; (5) analyzed the relationship between knowledge, attitudes and perceptions, and learning the adjectives using an original 2D-animated IEC material; (6) recognized any other intervening factors or occurring issues in learning adjectives using an original 2D-animated IEC material; and (7) recommended solutions to address any identified intervening factors and occurring issues. To easily conduct the study, various considerations bounded the research study. First, the study only focused on knowledge, attitudes and perception. Cluster sampling method was also used in getting the sample size needed. Proximity, convenience and efficiency of the conduct of
the study were the primary considerations in choosing the elementary schools. Data gathered came only from the two identified elementary schools - one private school and the other, public. Only third graders were chosen as respondents. Moreover, the study used three questionnaires: a 15-item multiple-choice knowledge test, a 12-item questionnaire on attitudes, and a 10-item questionnaire on perception. In addition, the study material was developed in September 2014 and was completed in December 2014. Data gathering was carried out in November 2014 until January 2015. Any knowledge gain, change in attitude or additional perception before and after these months were considered as part of the data set. Lastly, the study material only focused on adjectives, which was the topic in class discussions during data gathering period. This topic was chosen according to K-12 curriculum prescribed by the DepEd.

Methodology

Designed as a descriptive practical action research, this study entailed providing initiatives for easy and effective learning adjectives in Grade Three. *Juanderland* served as a “checking for understanding” material on the use of adjectives. The main character is named *Juan*, a very common cultural reference for Filipinos, and he is in a journey to learn different topics in English. Four episodes on adjectives were developed in September to December in 2014. Using a multi-cluster sampling method, 74 students from a private and a public school answered a 15-item pre-test and a post-test on adjectives, so knowledge and knowledge gain can be measured. Moreover, they completed another set of pre-test and post-test containing 12 statements to measure attitudinal change on learning English through *Juanderland*. Lastly, the respondents accomplished a 10-item survey questionnaire on their perception on the material itself. Qualitative non-correlational data were unavoidably collected as well, which helped support or validate implications of the results. Data collected in November and December 2014 until the first half of January 2015 were analyzed using (1) Hess’ Cognitive Rigor Matrix to interpret and explain knowledge and knowledge levels, (2) means to interpret and explain general attitudes, attitude levels and perceptions; (3) one-way ANOVA (analysis of variance) and the one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z test (one-sample, K-S test) to explain knowledge gain, attitudinal change and significance of perceptions.

Almost all of the 74 respondents are from Binan City (32 students) and Calamba City (30 students) in Laguna while the rest are from nearby towns like Sta. Rosa City and Cabuyao City in Laguna and Carmona, Cavite. Forty-four (44) respondents are females (23 from the private school and 21 from public) while 31 respondents are males (17 from private and 13 males from public). On the average, the public school respondents are aged 8-9 years old, while the third graders from the private school are averagely aged 9-10 years old. Both age ranges are still within the Concrete Operational Stage (7-12 years of age), a stage in which a child develops the ability to "evaluate" things. This means that the third grade respondents can already make connections between ideas and understand these connections using the rules they created. Such ability enables them to give valid responses when asked about their attitudes on learning adjectives and perceptions on *Juanderland*. 
Research Results

Animation and Knowledge. Although test scores generally revealed increase in knowledge in four episodes of Juanderland, there is no significant knowledge gain among the pupils. Results showed that knowledge gain is not significant enough since almost half of the respondents did not do well in knowledge tests in three episodes. However, since there is no baseline information on the cognitive ability of the respondents, the relationship between more than half of the sample not belonging to honor roll (49 students from both schools) and half of the class not doing well in three out of four knowledge tests cannot be established. Even so, the research also found that the knowledge of respondents from private and public schools differs in the four episodes depending on the topic of adjectives. Statistically, respondents from the private school performed better in knowledge tests in Episodes 1, 3 and 4. Meanwhile, respondents from the public school performed better in Episode 2 only, and knowledge test scores decreased or remained the same for the rest of the episodes. More specifically, respondents from the public elementary school performed the least in Episode 3: Descriptive Adjectives, but performed best in Episode 2: Limiting Adjectives. Meanwhile, respondents from the private elementary school performed least in Episode 2: Limiting Adjectives, compared to their best performance in Episode 4: Degrees of Comparison. Table 1 summarizes these results.

Table 1: Summary of pretest-posttest results on knowledge on adjectives among respondents from a public (PUB) and a private (PRV) elementary school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Scores from Pretest to Posttest</th>
<th>Episode 1</th>
<th>Episode 2</th>
<th>Episode 3</th>
<th>Episode 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Students</td>
<td>PUB PRV</td>
<td>PUB PRV</td>
<td>PUB PRV</td>
<td>PUB PRV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With decreased scores</td>
<td>12 11</td>
<td>10 22</td>
<td>17 12</td>
<td>19 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With maintained scores</td>
<td>8 10</td>
<td>6 3</td>
<td>10 19</td>
<td>1 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With increased scores</td>
<td>14 19</td>
<td>18 15</td>
<td>7 9</td>
<td>14 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of students (sample size: 74)</td>
<td>34 40 34 40</td>
<td>34 40 34 40</td>
<td>34 40 34 40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can also be noted that respondents could still be in the Recall and Reproduction Level of Cognitive Process Dimensions, in between the Understand and Apply levels. The students may not be on the Skills and Concepts level (Level 2) yet - otherwise the trends from Episode 1 to Episode 4 were not as fluctuating as they were. This can be assumed since the lessons in which Juanderland was developed from are building blocks of learning adjectives. A concept discussed in Episode 4 requires mastery of concepts discussed in first three episodes. This could mean that the material can only reinforce learning. Without strong foundations on the subject, the material may be able to increase knowledge on the surface. It is crucial that teachers provide comprehensive input in order for the 2D-animated material to complement the teacher’s input as learning aid.
**Animation and Attitudes.** To better understand the attitudes of the respondents and whether there was attitudinal change, the attitudinal statements were grouped into three categories: interest in animated English cartoons (statements 1, 2, and 3), attitudes toward benefits of animated English cartoons (statements 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12), concentration or attention in watching animated English cartoons (statements 5, 7, and 11). The respondents gauged their attitudes using a 5-point Likert scale: Strongly Disagree or Lubos na Hindi Sumasang-ayon (1), Disagree or Hindi Sumasang-ayon (2), Uncertain or Hindi Sigurado (3), Agree or Sumasang-ayon (4) and Strongly Agree or Lubos na Sumasang-ayon (5). Using the one-sample K-S test, the computed attitudinal mean showed that there is a positive change in attitudes in interest in animated IEC materials in contrast to the negative change in attitudes regarding the benefits of such materials and attention needed when viewing such learning tools. The general attitudes of the respondents were computed using the mean of all attitudes in four episodes both in the pretest and posttest (K-S statistic). Test results showed that the general attitudinal mean did not show how exactly different attitudes were before and after viewing the IEC material. However, there is a statistically significant change in interest in animated English cartoons to learn adjectives through *Juanderland* among grade three respondents from the private elementary school. The change may not be too high, but the statistical test confirmed that watching the video reinforced the positive attitudes of these respondents already have as far as interest in animated English cartoons to learn adjectives are concerned. Similar to the general attitudinal mean of private school respondents, the average mean of the attitudes among public school respondents did not yield too much of a change about on their attitudes after viewing *Juanderland*. On the contrary, statistics showed that there was negative change in interest in animated English cartoons as a tool in learning English among respondents from the public elementary school. According to Kellogg (1992), when animated movies and cartoons proliferated, program contents of these media included humor and amusement suited for all ages and styles. However, cartoons most frequently appealed to kids. The change may be attributed to the periodical viewing of the IEC material. Kemnitz (1973) stated that cartoons are the most interesting source of information for children, thereby highlighting affiliation and attachment that they develop as they continuously watch these shows (see Table 2 for the summary of the results).

**Animation and Perceptions.** Results revealed that the third grade respondents have an overall positive perception on *Juanderland*. Such positive perception on the material might motivate respondents to learn more, thus increasing knowledge, and thereby creating positive attitudes on utilizing such IEC materials. In this study, perception refers to what the respondents think of *Juanderland*, in relation to learning adjectives. Perception may cover what they liked or disliked about 2D-animated IEC material. To better describe and analyze perception, the elements were grouped in characters, setting, audio, clarity and length, frequency of use, and overall appeal of the IEC material, as described in detail below:

1. **Most and least liked characters.** Of all the characters in all four episodes, 30 respondents (41%) liked Juan the most, followed by Dr. Jose Rizal as liked by 24 respondents (32%), and then Jiji the Jeepney as liked by 11 respondents (15%). The remaining 16% of the sample size claimed either they liked all characters or there was
no particular character that they liked the most. Respondents explained that they like Juan the most because they learn a lot from him as he explains the details of using adjectives. Aside from cultural relevance, respondents most likely chose Juan as he explained almost all the concepts about adjectives – from identifying to comparing - in all four episodes. Dr. Jose Rizal is an icon that most students would recognize as he is named the national hero of the country, and is discussed in all history subjects or courses. It seems that Jiji the Jeepney was liked the most too as she is an emblem of the most common transportation in the country, something that respondents would have been taking to and from school. However, 36 respondents (49%) claimed that they disliked Jiji the Jeepney the most because she would either sleep or roam around while Juan is learning something about adjectives during their journey. They explained further that they don’t learn anything from her. Ten (10) respondents (14%) disliked Juan the most because he roams around too much on a jeepney, and they did not appreciate his appearance. This could mean that while a jeepney is a cultural icon in the Philippines, respondents may perceive this as too common, which may have something to do with their attitudes towards cultural icons such jeepneys. Unfortunately, these perceptions were not covered in the study. In addition, eight (8) respondents (11%) did not like Taro the Tarsier because he kept on jumping around which might have distracted the respondents from learning effectively. Three (3) respondents (4%) did not like Dr. Jose Rizal because bringing him back to life confused them a little bit. The remaining 16 respondents (22%) either disliked characters such as Carl the Carabao, or disliked none at all. Based on the results, it can be noted that characters could have affected the way respondents learned the topics. Instead of focusing on the topic, they may have been focusing their efforts on disliking specific characters.

2. Familiar locations. More than 90% of the respondents (70 respondents) liked the setting and all the places “visited” in Juanderland. This might be attributed to the respondents’ familiarity with the locations since places such as the Banaue Rice Terraces, Luneta Park, Bohol, among others, were used in the episodes of the 2D-animated video. Overall, respondents perceived the setting positively, which may contribute to an effective learning of the topics.

3. Effective audio. Audio was further subdivided into categories like voice, theme song, and background music. Majority of the respondents (60% or more than 44 respondents) said that the 2D-animated IEC material uses good audio in all four episodes. More than 44 respondents (60%) also said that they liked the voices of the characters, the theme song, and the background music. Because audio plays a huge role in an animated material, it is crucial that sounds are audible for better understanding of the topics.

4. Clarity of presentation through fair length. Of seventy-four (74) respondents, about 74% said that Juanderland has presented and discussed adjectives clearly in all four episodes. This may have contributed to the significant gain in knowledge test scores in Phase 1. Moreover, about 77% of the respondents said that Juanderland has fair length of coverage. This means they did not get bored watching the animated video, but perhaps other factors such as appearance of characters and content quality may have affected comprehension. However, the length of the presentation can be one factor why respondents said that the topics were clearly presented and discussed.
5. Frequency of use. When asked on how frequent they want to use Juanderland, majority of the respondents said that they want more episodes of the 2D-animated IEC material. Respondents also claimed that they would want to use the video material as a learning tool the whole school year round.

6. Overall appeal. Even though there is a significant change in knowledge, it cannot be denied that learning would still be dependent on how challenging the topic is. While 22 respondents said they want to use Juanderland as a learning tool in learning English topics such as adjectives, 17 respondents mentioned that they still prefer textbooks rather 2D-animated IEC materials. However, 21 respondents stated that they would prefer a combination of the textbook as reference and Juanderland as a learning tool. Eight (8) respondents said they would want all resources available in order to learning English topics. Overall, the material received positive perceptions from respondents in all categories. Respondents repeatedly claimed that are: (1) a lot can be learned about adjectives and English from the material; (2) the animation is amusing; and (3) it is helpful in learning English. These are some qualitative data that were gathered in support to the empirical data. Such comments may also validate that it is not the content that matters to the respondents, but basic technical and visual standards as well.

Relationships: Knowledge, Attitudes, Perceptions and Juanderland. Based on the results of all pretests and posttests, it can be seen that respondents already have positive attitudes toward 2D-animated IEC materials integrated in class, and when introduced to a new animated English material, they still maintained or slightly increased these positive attitudes. According to Hatfield (1997, as cited in Akande 2009), “perception depend on background of knowledge” (p.2), which means these observations should have led to significant change in knowledge as far as learning adjectives is concerned. Results show that even with positive perceptions and attitudes, knowledge is still dependent on other factors such as environments, individual's character or nature, and other relationships surrounding the individual or present in the environment. The students may have enjoyed watching the video, but results intensify the need for strong coordination between teachers, school administrators, researchers, and developers of IEC materials in order for Juanderland and other similar materials to be thoroughly effective. Alagbu (1999, as cited in Akande 2009) “also considered factors, as past experiences, present experiences, personality, and motivation, as crucial to understanding how people perceive events” (2). There is a strong connection between individual’s perception and attitude towards a particular issue, event, or object. According to Luthans (1998), the behavioral end of perception is that of reaction or response, whether overt or covert, which is necessary if perception is to be considered a behavioral event and thus a psychological process. This means that as a result of perception, respondents should have gained knowledge on adjectives through the 2D-animated material as an overt response, since their covert response – attitudes – is already positive. However, in this case, it can be noted that while respondents have positive perceptions and attitudes toward the material, knowledge did not increase. These may be because of several factors that affected how the learning of the respondents. Qualitative observations were also taken in order to also support numerical data. These intervening factors could have some effect on the results of study, but because these were not part of the dataset to be analyzed, such factors were only reported. These observations were grouped into internal environment (classroom
and school atmosphere, time allotted for answering questions), external environment (external environmental concerns such as holidays and typhoons occurring), learner’s disposition or temperament and surrounding relationships, as described in detail below:

1. Internal environment. One intervening factor that affected the results of the study may be the time given for data gathering. Social environments, according to Jain (2012), include physical environments are home, school and locality. Physical conditions such family size, lack of ventilation, uncomfortable temperature, improper lighting, noise, among others, can affect learning. Pretests viewing of the material and posttests were scheduled after lunch, in which students were more interested in playing or spending time with their friends. Such schedule may have resulted to short attention span and lack of focus among respondents.

2. External environment. Natural surroundings (Jain, 2012) also play a part in learning through a 2D-animated IEC material. While such material may be viewed at home in real-life instances, the data gathering was subjected to the calendar of activities of both schools. In the data gathering period, respondents were loaded with school activities that revolved around the post-celebrations of Halloween, Andres Bonifacio Day, Christmas season, Rizal Day, and New Year. What greatly affected the dataset was the long Christmas break in December 2014, which lasted for almost a month. This has caused change in momentum in answering pretests and posttests and viewing Juanderland. Moreover, there were suspensions of classes due to typhoon Ruby, which added to the long break enjoyed by the students. TeachThought (2012) argues that prolonged vacation may amplify “forgetfulness. However, mastery of skills and concepts require repetition. Such “rest” from data collection allowed respondents from both schools to “forget” concepts on adjectives that were discussed in the previous episodes.

3. Learner’s disposition. Happy students are more likely to learn as they maintain positive outlook in general, which serves as motivation. This was true among respondents from the public and private schools when they first saw Episode 1 of Juanderland. They took time to answer pretests and posttests, and they listened very carefully to what is presented and discussed in the video material. However, as the research progressed and as the topics became more complex, fewer respondents would come to class resulting to the decrease in sample size. Moreover, respondents found the data gathering procedures repetitive and exhausting that they did not want to cooperate anymore.

4. Surrounding relationships. According to Walker, Hover-Dempsey, Whetsel, & Green, (2004), “involvement of parents in children’s education may come through their participation in both home and school activities and that such parental involvement enhances children’s educational achievement” (p.4). Majority of the respondents come from families in which parents work, and this may be attributed to the number of respondents with outstanding academic performance. Moreover, existing perception, knowledge and attitudes on learning English may be affected since respondents may not or minimally interact with working parents as far as academic performance is concerned. Moreover, Ford and Wright (1998) stated that “children with higher academic achievement is said to have parents undertaking the role as disciplinarian and authoritarian and are more involved with the family” (p.4). However, this may only be possible if one parent stays at home and becomes the disciplinary or authoritative figure in the family, which forces the student to do better in school.
According to Entwisle and Alexander (1995), “socioeconomic status contributes to the differences in children’s cognitive development” (p.4). Nord et al. (1998) also explained that for instance, “[a] father’s involvement with children is positively related to his education” (p.4), while Entwisle and Alexander (1995) and Shouse (1997) argue that “low socioeconomic status of parents, such as poor educational attainment and residence in a poor neighborhood, leads to lesser educational material at home thereby affecting academic performance” (p.4). Such situations entail higher amounts of daily responsibilities, which may take away time that should be allotted for studying. Feuerstein (2000) observes that “parents with high socioeconomic status are involved in their children’s education and more hands on with their children’s schools and activities” (p.5). Moreover, since Juanderland was supposed to be a supplement material only, it is crucial that the teacher is present while the material is administered to the respondents in case of clarifications or questions. However, the material was treated as a stand-alone material which might greatly affected the knowledge scores of the respondents.

Summary and Recommendation

Results showed that knowledge gain is not significant enough since almost half of the respondents did not do well in knowledge tests in three episodes. However, there is a positive change in attitudes in interest in animated IEC materials in contrast to the negative changes in attitudes regarding the benefits of such materials and attention needed when viewing such learning tools. Respondents have an overall positive perception on Juanderland. Such positive perception on the material might motivate respondents to learn more, thus increasing knowledge, and thereby creating positive attitudes on utilizing IEC materials.

Even though test scores generally reveal increase in knowledge in four episodes of the 2D-animated IEC material, there is no significant knowledge gain of the pupils. With respondents still in the Recall and Reproduction level of cognitive process dimensions, the material can only reinforce learning. Without strong foundations on the subject, the material may be able to increase knowledge on the surface. It is crucial that teachers provide comprehensive input in order for the material, Juanderland, to complement the input. Results of the study show that even with positive perceptions and attitudes, knowledge is still dependent on other factors such as environment, an individual’s character or nature, and other relationships surrounding the individual or present in the environment. The students may have enjoyed watching the video, but results amplify the need for strong coordination between teachers, school administrators, researchers, and developers of IEC materials in order for Juanderland and other similar materials to be thoroughly effective. The study found that the knowledge of both schools differs in the four episodes depending on the topic of adjectives. Most of the private school respondents’ results increased in the first and last episode while most of the public school respondents’ scores increased in the first and second episode; the scores in the rest of the episodes decreased or remained the same. The Attitude and Perception meanwhile were positive in all four episodes. While there were likely positive results in the Attitude and Perception of the respondents towards 2D-animated IEC materials, the content and the subject matter in the video material is very important that it must be thoroughly discussed to have a Knowledge gain in the students. In the four episodes presented, the results of 2D-animated IEC material as a supplementary tool in teaching English are
positive with regards to Knowledge, and depending on the subject matter, Attitude and Perception as well.

From the findings and conclusions of this study, recommendations were divided into how the material should be used and what can be further done on the topic. Generally, it is recommended to use Juanderland only as supplementary learning tool. Moreover, it should be viewed in appropriate space with suitable equipment for more effective viewing. The teacher also has to be present during viewing, so arising questions can be answered. Since complex topics take time to digest, it is also recommended that the details be simplified for better understanding and retention. Moreover, attitudes and perceptions can be measured using an all-inclusive but shorter instrument to address issues on attention span among the respondents. Improvements on the material can also be made, such as inclusion of the tests in Juanderland itself, so it can be more visual and appealing to the students. A comparative analysis between parents administering the IEC material and teachers administering Juanderland can also be conducted. An evaluative study on the material can also be a possible research, as well as a comparative analysis of public and private schools’ resources that affect learning English through Juanderland. Lastly, producing another series of Juanderland on other topics in English and other subjects can be another research study.

Table 2: One-sample K-S test results on attitudinal change on learning adjectives through Juanderland among respondents from a public (PUB) and a private (PRV) elementary school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>PUB</th>
<th>PRV</th>
<th>PUB</th>
<th>PRV</th>
<th>PUB</th>
<th>PRV</th>
<th>PUB</th>
<th>PRV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.977</td>
<td>3.737</td>
<td>3.907</td>
<td>3.766</td>
<td>3.917</td>
<td>3.520</td>
<td>3.764</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
<td>0.505</td>
<td>0.753</td>
<td>0.710</td>
<td>0.595</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td>0.694</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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THE SWOT MODEL OF SELF-CARE COMPETENCY THROUGH DOMINANT BODY ELEMENTS OF PARTICIPANTS IN SPA MANAGER

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ABSTRACT

The present model regarding the quality of self-care competency through dominant body elements in participants in spa manager. The purpose of analytical survey was to analyze self-care competency with SWOT analysis. The dominant body elements define personality traits. What are the traits and qualities of each element that dominates the personality. The participants were 10 subjects, brainstormed and summarized on SWOT model, the information covered the dominant knowledge, skills and competence of self-care. Result: the formulated model of self-care competency through dominant body elements had effective 4 strategies to achieve the purpose and applying on Thai Traditional Medicine, Supplementary curriculum. The strategies were intensive strategy: international class, preventive strategy: solving variety and trend of Aesthetic health and spa service, correction strategy: to boost the skills to Labor Market expectation, and reactive strategy to provide a variety of continuous improvement training courses.

Future recommendation, the SWOT analysis is an efficient method that is used in the brainstorming techniques, especially when planning the strategy in order to identify the potentials and the priorities.

Keyword: SWOT analysis, Strategy, Dominant Body Element, Health Competency, Aesthetic Health and Spa service
Introduction

The Dominant Body Elements, the four elements system from Thai traditional medicine is a simple yet profound tool to recognize balance in all aspects of life. Learning this simple system lead to identify the weak and strong points of individuality and apply its balancing elements to diet, personality, emotion and environments.

In Thai traditional medicine, these 4 elements that form the building blocks of life. Everything in the universe is created from a certain ratio of the 4 elements. By understanding the dominant elements inside a person, substance or environment, lead to know what influences will be exerted upon the body and mind, to increase the opposing elements to create balance or more of the desired qualities for that moment. It is a spectrum of everything in the universe divided into 4 categories. The elements are Earth, Water, Air and Fire which are listed from the date of birth and personality. (Arunothai, 2011)

Air or Vayu: The main principle of air, the full spectrum of this great element, is movement. Within the body, it predominantly manifests as the electrical energy in the nervous system, movement of all tissues and cell functions, and the formation of gases. It governs all of the senses due to its affinity with the nervous system and specifically the sense of touch and the action of the hands to give, receive and move things. It to be associated with electrical energy. Its qualities are: mobile, dry, light, cold, rough and subtle.

Fire or Agni: The main principle of fire is transformation and metabolism. Within the body it predominantly manifests as balance of body temperature, the absorption and assimilation of food and the transformative power of the liver. From the creation perspective this is the point where to focus energy toward the fire of transformation. Its qualities are: hot, sharp, light, dry and subtle.

Water or Jala: The main principle of water is transportation. Within the body it predominantly manifests as the plasma and lymph which transport nutrients to the cells, and toxins away from cells; it is the river upon which life flows. Water governs the sense of taste and the action of reproduction through the genital organs. Its qualities are: cool, liquid, dull, soft, oily and slimy.

Earth or Prithvi: The main principle of earth is structure. Anywhere there is stability, permanence and rigidity there will be a dominance of earth. Within the body it predominantly manifests as the solid structures such as bones, muscles, cartilage, nails, hair, teeth and skin. It governs the sense of smell and the action of excreting waste products. Its qualities are: heavy, dull, constant, dense, hard and gross.

The preliminary study on self-care competency through dominant body elements in spa managers 116 subjects, who participated in spa manager training project, Thai traditional medicine college. It found that spa managers lack of self-care competency.

The competence is a cluster of related abilities, communication, competence, concern, convince and Courage that enable a person to act effectively in self-care through dominant body elements. (Arunothai, 2011). That is 1) Communication: Two-way process of reaching mutual understanding, in which participants not only exchange. 2) Competence: the ability to do something well, the quality or state of being competent. 3) Concern: is something that is of interest, important or worrisome. 4) Convince: To cause someone by the use of argument or evidence to believe something or to take a course of action. 5) Courage: The state or quality of mind or spirit that enables one to service with self-possession, Confidence, and resolution.
Research Objectives

To analyze self-care competency through dominant body elements in participants in spa manager with SWOT analysis.

Hypothesis

SWOT analysis can created intensive, preventive, correction and reactive strategy

Methodology

Samples selected with snowball technique. There were 10 out of 116 subjects from spa managers, who participated in spa manager training project, Thai traditional medicine college. In order to accomplish model of self-care competency, we used the SWOT Analyze. The SWOT Analyze is a very efficient one that is used in strategic planning for identifying model of self-care competency.

SWOT is made of two parts: the strengths and weaknesses refer to the internals of a company while the opportunities and threats are external to the company and exist in the environment. (David, 1998).

Strengths - attributes and resources that support a successful outcome
Weaknesses - attributes resources that work against a successful outcome
Opportunities - factors the project can capitalize on or use to its advantage
Threats - factors that could jeopardize the project

SWOT Analyze: Using the Tool (Nigel &William ,1989)

Step 1: write the findings in the space provided: SWOT Worksheet, the strengths and weaknesses, as well as identifying the opportunities and threats.

Step 2: write and copy the key conclusions from the SWOT Worksheet into the area provided (shaded in blue).

Step 3: For each combination of internal and external environmental factors, consider and identify the one greatest benefit.
### External

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities(O)</th>
<th>Threats(T)</th>
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<td>1.</td>
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### Internal

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<tr>
<th>Strengths(S)</th>
<th>SO</th>
<th>ST</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>&quot;positive-positive&quot; Strategy</td>
<td>&quot;positive-negative&quot; Strategy</td>
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<th>Weaknesses (W)</th>
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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>&quot;negative-positive&quot; Strategy</td>
<td>&quot;negative-negative&quot; Strategy</td>
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**Picture 1: the SWOT of self-care competency**

Strengths and Opportunities (SO) "positive-positive" Strategy that use strengths to maximize opportunities to use strengths to take advantage of the opportunities that helps to analyze in more depth options that hold the greatest promise.

Strengths and Threats (ST) "positive-negative" Strategy that use strengths to minimize threats to take advantage of strengths to avoid real and potential threats.

Weaknesses and Opportunities (WO) "negative-positive" Strategy that minimize weaknesses by taking advantage of opportunities to use opportunities to overcome the weaknesses you are experiencing?

Weaknesses and Threats (WT) "negative-negative" Strategy that minimize weaknesses and avoid threats to minimize your weaknesses and avoid threats.

The question guideline of the preliminary study on self-care competency through dominant body elements in spa managers, composed 5 statements

1. Competency problems in your entrepreneur
   1.1 How about the lack of self-care competency and problems.
   1.2 How about the prominent self-care competency.
2. How about the enhancing activities of self care competency.
3. The labor market expectation of self care competency in officers.
4. The guideline to develop self care competency with dominant body elements toward self care.
5. The opinions on self care competency impact toward health.

**Validation of the** question guidelines were proved on the content validity by 7 experts, who had experience in academic, problem based learning skill and Thai traditional medicine. The Index of Item – Objective Congruence (IOC) values were higher than 0.5. According to the experts’ recommendations, these question guidelines were modified and apply with 10 subjects.
Research Results

The results obtained by a small group of 10 subject of participant in spa manager through the research. The purpose of this study was to conduct self-care competency through dominant body elements with strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats, (SWOT) analysis. The SWOT analysis regarding model of self-care competency are presented in the following picture:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths (S)</th>
<th>Threats (T)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The trainee’s characteristic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Communication: coordination, communication, harmony</td>
<td>1. Curriculum does not cover the variety of Aesthetic health and spa service, that need own signature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Competence: multipurpose skill, agility</td>
<td>2. There are competitive trend of Aesthetic health and spa service.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Concern: learner, concentration, diligence, developer, service mind, adaptability, on time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Convincing: smart personality</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Courage: teamwork, sharing experience</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities (O)</th>
<th>Threats (T)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labor Market expectation</td>
<td>1. Curriculum does not cover the variety of Aesthetic health and spa service, that need own signature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Thailand is famous for Aesthetics health and spa</td>
<td>2. There are competitive trend of Aesthetic health and spa service.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Service mind is signature of Thailand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Aesthetics health and spa made income</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Aesthetics health service is 10 Top Attractions in Thailand</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weaknesses (W)</th>
<th>Opportunities (O)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The trainee’s characteristic</td>
<td>Labor Market expectation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Communication: lack of coping with colleague and job at the beginning, advice with out procedure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Concern: experiencing a supplementary food skills shortage, nonspecific body of knowledge, non-integrated though to provide best practice, academic insights in sufficiency</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Concern: learner, concentration, diligence, developer, service mind, adaptability, on time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Convincing: smart personality</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Courage: lack of Self-assurance</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SO</th>
<th>WO</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To extend Aesthetic health and spa service to international class</td>
<td>To boost the skills shortage, and careers advice to be available to Labor Market expectation</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>WT</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The trainee’s characteristic to solve variety and trend of Aesthetic health and spa service that lead to the signature</td>
<td>Provide hand out and provide a variety of continuous improvement training courses to maximize competency for organization.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Picture 2: the SWOT model of self-care competency
The strengths and weaknesses in the SWOT analysis found that both consisted of 5 competency. The strengths of participants were 1) Communication skill: coordination, communication, harmony; 2) Competence: multipurpose skill, agility; 3) Concern: learner, concentration, diligence, developer, service mind, adaptability, on time; 4) Convince: smart personality; 5) Courage: team work, sharing experience. The Weaknesses of participants were 1) Communication: lack of coping with colleague and job at the beginning, advice without procedure; 3) Concern: experiencing a supplementary food skills shortage, body of knowledge is non-specific, non-integrated though to provide best practice, academic insights in sufficiency; 5) Courage: Lack of Self-assurance.

Strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis is one of the most significant analytic tools to determine the most important components of SWOT matrix. The resulting components can be utilised for defining effective strategies, as the following:

1. The intensive strategy is based on extension Aesthetic health and spa service to international class.
2. The preventive strategy is based on solving variety and trend of Aesthetic health and spa service that lead to own signature with the trainee’s characteristic.
3. The correction strategy is based on a boost the skills shortage, and careers advice to be available to Labor Market expectation.
4. The Reactive strategy is based on providing hand out and providing a variety of continuous improvement training courses to maximize competency for organization.

The SWOT Analyses has a strong quality feature that permits a correct wording of the aspects regarding dominant body elements as a Aesthetic health and spa service that reflects strong points, weak points, opportunities, threats and formulated model of self-care competency through dominant body elements in order to eliminate or diminish them.

Summary and Recommendation

The SWOT analysis is an efficient method that is used in the Aesthetic health and spa service, especially when planning the strategy in order to identify the potentials and the priorities. The participants were a small group in spa manager; 10 subject, to brainstorm and summarize the information that cover self-care competence self-care competency through dominant body elements in our paper. So that the given answers will finalize the images of service providers, in order to achieve the purpose and applying on Thai Traditional Medicine, Supplementary curriculum.
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JAPANESE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS’ PERCEPTION OF GLOBALIZATION: CURRENT JAPANESE SOCIETY AND THE JAPANESE NATIONAL CHARACTER

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ABSTRACT

In this research, I have investigated Japanese university students’ perception of globalization as a first step towards making the Japanese society more global. Interviews and Visual Research methods are used in this research. Subjects are mainly four Japanese university students who have no experience of studying abroad. The semi-structured interviews were conducted in June 2014 in Japan. In addition, subjects were asked to take five photographs of things they thought best represent ‘globalization’. This research has two main findings regarding the attitudes of Japanese students towards globalization. The first is that attitudes towards globalization are strongly linked to the students’ impression of foreign languages. The second main finding is that the students do not think of globalization as a familiar matter. From these results, I suggest that the Japanese government and universities should firstly try to make Japanese students feel more familiar matters about the globalization in order to find an appropriate ways of making Japanese society global.

Keywords: Globalization, Japanese Student, Higher Education, National Character of Japan

Introduction

Recently, globalization has played an important role in the world. The interaction between countries is more prevalent than before in such diverse fields as politics, economics and academia. Globalization has promoted the rapid development of science, economics, and technologies in a short time. On the other hand, globalization has contributed to a large number of problems such as environmental issues, disparity of wealth, and global problems including terrorism. Countries and individual people should consider the interdependence and complementarity of such issues in order to find solutions for global problems such as these. According to OECD (2011), in the past 20 years the global number of international students has dramatically increased. There were more than 3.9 million international students in 2009 and the upward trend in their number is expected to continue. At the University of Sheffield, I have met students from all over the world and started to check about the world news more than before. Unfortunately, I did not have any interaction with international students in my university in Japan, as there were no international students in my classes. Therefore, I had no chance to know whether interaction between other nationalities will make a difference in my life. Focusing on Japanese universities, the
The number of international students in Japan is increasing after the Ministry of Education started the “Project on welcoming 300,000 students from overseas” (Ministry of Education, 2008) and the number of international students in Japan eventually reached over 130,000 students in 2013 (Ministry of Education, 2013). However, compared to other G7 countries, the number of international students coming to Japanese universities and the number of Japanese students who study abroad is actually decreasing (Ministry of Education, 2013). I am interested in Japanese university students’ perception of globalization because of my experience. I feel that the situation of Japanese globalization is not advanced in many areas. For instance, as I mentioned above, I did not have any international students in my university classes or even in student organizations, despite attending a university that was actually has a somewhat international background (founded by an American in 1870). Moreover, if you see foreigners on the bus or train, Japanese people will recognize immediately that they are not Japanese. However, if I am in the UK, Europe, or other more international locations, it is much less clear who is a foreigner and who is local. In my opinion and from my experiences, globalization will include increased mobility of people. Focusing on this mobility, globalization in Japanese society and academic areas are not as advanced as in the business or technology fields. Therefore, I wanted to research the perceptions that Japanese students have of globalization as a familiar matter and if they have a positive opinion about globalization in university. Let us begin with a language as an example; Japanese people are generally not good at English. From data provided by TOEFL (2010), the average score of Japanese people in TOEFL is 27th place out of 30 in Asia. Japanese students have a strong awareness of reluctance for studying English and also using English (Ikeda, 2012). However, according to Nario (2011), the number of Japanese people who need English for work is less than 10%, and more than 90% of Japanese people do not need to learn English to improve their own job performance. This is perhaps a surprising circumstance for such an advanced country, and we may consider this situation to be influential on the perception of globalization of Japanese society. In addition, when I introduce my educational background to Japanese students words such as “you are smart, fantastic and marvellous” will come out just because I am studying abroad. It is true that, taking the world university rankings as example, there are only five Japanese universities in the top 200 Times Higher Education (2013). However, I know that there are many high quality universities in Japan and there are many good professors for research and educating the students. By contrast, when I talked with Japanese university students who came to the UK as exchange students, they always criticize the Japanese education system or their university in Japan. However, I understand this comparison with other countries will lead to an improvement for each country. Nevertheless, I regret the diffidence of Japanese university students. Thereby, the main points of this essay are to research the following:

2. How Japanese university students perceive the globalization of universities.

I will analyse the reasons for the opinions of these students by examining their cultural background.
Research Objectives

In light of these conflicting interactions between the government, universities, and Japanese society in general, I am interested in the attitudes and perceptions of Japanese university students towards the globalization of Japan. I suggest that it is potentially dangerous for the Japanese government to fail to resolve these conflicts. As mentioned earlier concerning the opening of Japan to international trade at the end of the Edo Period, the subsequent reformation was a difficult period because of rapid changes in the culture. Because of this, many wars between Japan and other countries broke out. I will say that the current methods of globalization of Japan, which produce very few international interactions for the general population, are probably not sufficient to globalize the society. Therefore, I want to examine how the younger generations understand ‘globalization’ and what they are hoping for, expecting, and suspecting about the globalization of Japan. Additionally, I want to look at whether they realize that globalization is a matter that can affect them personally. In the future, the younger generation will lead the society; it is worth researching how they understand globalization generally, and the globalization of Japanese society. This research will also explore the methods of globalizing Japanese society that might be effective in the future. I will also examine how Japanese university students understand the globalization of universities. However, even though the government has tried to make the education system global, it is unlikely to succeed as long as the current system remains satisfactory to students and to large employers. Moreover, I want to know how students feel about Japanese university and if they feel inferior during interaction with foreigners. The research questions explored here are novel, as there is currently no qualitative research on Japanese university students’ perceptions of globalization. Research will be conducted using interviews about the perceptions of Japanese university students regarding globalization as a first step towards making the Japanese society more global.

Methodology

The purpose of this study is to examine Japanese university student’s perception of globalization in Japanese society and university. Interviews and Visual Research methodology are used in this study. As per Kvale: “Qualitative research interviews seek to describe the meanings of the central themes in the life world of the subjects. The main task in interviewing is to understand the meaning of what the interviewees say” (1996, p. 124). In addition, interviews are: “particularly useful for getting the story behind a participant’s experiences. The interviewer can pursue in-depth information around the topic. Interviews may be useful as follow-up to certain responses to questionnaires, e.g., to further investigate their responses (Herbst & Coldwell, 2004, p54)”’. Therefore, I believe that interviewing the students will shed more light on how Japanese university students think of globalization, compared to quantitative research.

Visual Research Methodology

Rose (2012) defines vision as “what the human eye is physiologically capable of seeing” (p. 6) and visuality as “how we are seen, how we are able, allowed or made to see and how we see this seeing and unseeing therein” (p.6). Rose sees visual culture as part of social life. Therefore, it can be said that visual perception and culture are
strongly related to the structure of society. In addition, I believe that visual social semiotics can help analyse and understand the images of and the relationship between globalization and the perception of Japanese university students. According to Lemke (1990), social semiotics is:

"a synthesis of several modern approaches to the study of social meaning and social action. One of them obviously is semiotics itself: the study of our social resources for communicating meanings. Formal semiotics is mainly interested in the systematic study of the systems of signs themselves. Social semiotics includes formal semiotics and goes on to ask how people use signs to construct an understanding of the life of a community" (p. 183).

Moreover, visual social semiotics has been defined by Jewitt and Oyama (2001) as "the description of semiotic resources, what can be said and done with images (and other visual means of communication) and how the things people say and do with images can be interpreted" (p. 136).

Therefore, I believe that taking photos could show the perception of Japanese university students and I would like to ask Japanese students to take photos that they feel represent ‘the global’ in their daily life in my research.

Research Results

In this research it was clear that globalization is not a familiar matter for these students. They have some impressions of globalization through politics, business, and daily life. Students who have had interactions with foreigners in Japan tend to see globalization as an interchange between people more so than students who have not had such experiences. I suspect that having actual interactions with foreigners makes foreign countries more realistic and familiar to the students. Recently, Sugino (2014) found that Japanese university students who studied abroad reported having more familiarity with foreign countries in general. The students who did not have interactions with foreigners tended to have more indeterminate images of globalization and foreign countries, and tended to feel that their surroundings were not global. All students had images of globalization that related strongly to language, especially English. Exposure to foreign languages in daily life creates a sense of globalization for the students. Because of the strong impact of English, the students also tended to feel that Japan is behind other countries in terms of globalization due to an awareness that the English skills of the Japanese population are generally considered to be poor. It should be noted that concerns about foreign language skill have a long history in Japan, beginning with governments strongly insisting that Japan should follow the Western world around 1870 (Graewe, 2014). As per Ishii (1998), this period was a beginning of a shift to the use of Latin script in Japan, especially for company names and in advertising. Despite this long history, language skills appear to still be a concern related to globalization. In terms of the globalization of Japanese society, all students positively indicated that it had the potential to improve both themselves and the nation. They mainly had good images for globalization, perhaps in part because it has long been promoted by the Japanese government (Cabinet of Japan, 2005). However, the students are not familiar with globalization themselves. They understand that it may have an advantage for businesses, but they do not think that globalization of Japan will change their own lives. In their university lives, the students indicate that they want to have interaction with
foreign students. Nevertheless, they are reluctant to initiate such interaction themselves. One of the biggest reasons is the language barrier. English is strongly related to the image of globalization for the students. Therefore, if they are poor at English, they avoid interaction with foreigners. The interviews also showed that the students have a clearly different images of Japanese and foreign universities. It is well known that Japanese students do not study particularly hard after entering university (Tsuji, 2013). 50% of Japanese students only study 1 to 5 hours per week, and 60% of American students study more than 11 hours per week (Tsuji, 2013). It is understandable that these students tend to have a positive image of foreign universities. Lastly, it was interesting that the students all expressed a fear of losing Japanese culture by the globalization of Japanese society. As reported in the Mainichi Newspaper (2011), university students became more conservative after the 2011 Tohoku earthquake and tsunami than in 2001. Perhaps because of the national disaster, the Japanese people may become more concerned with the identity of Japan, and with preserving Japanese culture and tradition (Mainichi, 2011). Simultaneously, it is notable that Japan faces large earthquakes approximately once every five years. These circumstances make it difficult for Japanese to change their national character or the society. Accordingly, efforts by the Japanese government to promote globalization must consider how Japan could be globalized based on this reality, and convey this to younger generation.

**Summary and Recommendation**

In this research, I have investigated Japanese university students’ perception of globalization. I have found that students who have no experience studying abroad form their image of globalization primarily through impressions of politics, business, and foreign languages. It was clear that globalization is mostly not a familiar matter for Japanese students and there is no sense that Japan will become more globalized in the near future. However, students also expressed a sense that Japanese culture is exclusive, and their attitudes about increased globalization were positive overall. They see Japanese society somewhat objectively and generally support increased interaction with other countries; they want to learn and broaden their view of the world. Moreover, each student indicated holding some stereotype of foreign universities as places where students are more active and study harder than Japanese students, possibly due to influence of the media and their experiences at Japanese universities. This research has two main findings regarding the attitudes of Japanese students towards globalization. The first main finding is that attitudes towards globalization are strongly linked to the students’ impression of foreign languages. A lack of language skills can create strong language barriers that may inhibit globalization. Due to these barriers, students are limited with regards to how open they are to having interaction with foreign people. Therefore, universities that wish to pursue globalization firstly must attempt to address issues with foreign language proficiency. For instance, Kougakuen University (2014), a university in Tokyo, started a ‘hybrid study abroad’ project in which university students study in a British university but take classes in Japanese. During the programme, they stay at the home of a British family and must speak English, but they do not need to achieve the level of English skills required for university courses. This type of programme appears to offer students who have a strong language barrier a chance to expand their view of the world while also continuing university studies. It is
conceivable that by plunging Japanese students into a foreign environment, they will have opportunities to have interaction with foreign people even if they have lectures in Japanese. Moreover, the experience of being a foreigner and an ethnic minority may be especially valuable experiences for Japanese, who otherwise may have only a limited view of the exclusive nature of the Japanese national character. They may discover how difficult it is to live as a minority in society. In addition, to help remove any inferiority complex in relation to foreign universities, Japanese companies and society in general should more carefully evaluate students based on their academic performance. This kind of change could make Japanese students more ambitious regarding their studies. Otherwise, students only do minimal studying, and the rank of Japanese universities suffers in world rankings. More serious students may have more ambitious aims and greater confidence in themselves, and may become more open to globalization. The second main finding of this research is that the students do not think of globalization as a familiar matter. Because they do not have interaction with foreigners and see globalization through objects, politics, and business, their image of globalization is limited to the language. Therefore, it appears that even though the government and universities insist strongly on a policy of globalization, it has not been implemented for students properly and the effects of globalization do not appear to apply to the students’ actual lives. It is better for the Japanese government and universities to consider the goals of students when shaping their aims for globalization. In future research, I hope to look at how Japanese universities can decrease the language barrier of Japanese students in order to help broaden their chances and opportunities in various ways. Japanese people should think about globalization of Japanese society more carefully and seriously. Nowadays, in an increasingly globalized world many problems can grow quickly, such as the Ebola virus. Increased global mobility and interchange between countries has made Ebola a severe global problem. On the other hand, recently in the southwestern Japanese city of Hiroshima, heavy rains caused a landslide that instantly killed approximately 100 people in a small area within the city limits. For Japanese, there is a delicate balance between having a global perspective and focusing on local issues such as protection from natural disasters. In order to live on the Earth, people should cooperate and understand each other. Therefore, the Japanese government and universities should try to set clear definitions and goals for globalization, so that Japanese university students can come to understand globalization as a familiar matter without feeling of inadequacy over language ability or Japan’s historical isolation. Japan can find appropriate ways of making Japanese society global, with benefits for both Japan and the global community that also preserves the aspects of language and culture that are unique to Japan.

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