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Revisiting Media Imperialism: A Review of the Nigerian Television Experience

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Abstract
This paper examines media imperialism as it affects television broadcasting in Nigeria. To achieve the set task, it adopts the historical approach to trace the evolvement of imperialistic tendencies in the Nigerian broadcast environment to the evolution of television in Nigeria. It contends that apart from putting the Nigerian broadcaster in a dilemma of some sort, the various forms of the phenomenon do not help in any significant way to integrate the rural populace into the mainstream of socio-cultural and socio-economic growth and development of Nigeria and thus the prognosis of the situation is precarious for the Nigerian television media. It further argues that as a phenomenon, media imperialism will continue to recur in the foreseeable future because an enabling ambience needed for its displacement by local television broadcasting is yet faltering. Therefore, it suggests that a deliberate and concerted effort should be made to change the situation. Such effort should include better funding, investment in the development of home-grown media technologies, investment in high manpower development, innovative programmes and more specialized programming with indigenous flavours by both the public and private television outfits operating in the Nigerian broadcast clime.

Key words: deregulated broadcasting, globalization, world media culture, mediascape, cultural imperialism, NBC.

Introduction

Although many scholars are wont to say that media imperialism is an unfashionable area of research in a 21st century world media culture, it is important to note that the issue is still very germane to Africans, particularly Nigerians because there is limited research and academic writing coming from scholars based in Nigeria (Africa) on it. It is in the realization of this drawback that this paper revisits media imperialism with specific attention on the Nigerian television (TV) experience, using historical approach to give a picture of the dilemma faced by Nigerian TV broadcasters. Deregulated broadcasting became a reality in Nigeria in 1992 with the establishment of the National Broadcasting Commission (NBC). The NBC's functions include the issuance of licenses to operators of TV and radio broadcasting, setting standards as well as upholding the principles of fairness, objectivity and balance in the broadcasting industry. The NBC was established through Decree No 38 of 1992 (Now Act No 38), promulgated by the regime of General Ibrahim Babangida. Thereafter, following applications by different...
organizations and individuals, General Babangida presented the first licenses for private broadcasting in June 1993. The establishment of the NBC was thought by many scholars and media professionals to be the panacea for the nagging problem of foreign broadcast of news and programmes that pervade Nigerian TV screens. Apart from setting standards for the technical areas, the NBC was expected to encourage TV stations to generate about 60% of their programmes for broadcast locally (Okhakhu, 2001). Standards ought to cover all facets of content as it affects socio-cultural development. But close to two decades after the establishment of the NBC, the Nigerian TV has not moved substantially away from the feature of programmes and news items whose origin and content is basically foreign. This is even besides the manufacture of media technologies which Nigeria is yet to find its feet in.

With regard to the general African situation, Omoera (2008) observes that imperialistic strictures have compelled most growing democracies in Africa (Nigeria, Ghana, Liberia, Burundi, Cameroun, among others) to tag along established Western democracies in virtually all facets of human endeavour. This portends a possible “arrested” development for most African countries, if not frontally addressed. This, perhaps, also explains why the TV as a form of media production in Nigeria has continued to grapple with the hydra – headed phenomenon known as media imperialism. Media imperialism discourse is particularly significant in Nigeria, the continent’s biggest country in terms of population and also home to one of Africa’s most vigorous media industries. Nigeria has also traditionally been exposed to American or Western media more than many other nations in Africa, aside South African, which in the context of this paper, is regarded as part and parcel of the Western/imperialistic media.

Media imperialism as a notional framework has been subsumed under the broader umbrella of cultural imperialism. According to White (2001), cultural imperialism has been used as a framework by scholars of different academic backgrounds and persuasions to explain phenomena in the areas of international relations, anthropology, education, sciences, history, literature and sports. He therefore reconsiders the concept of cultural imperialism theory as it relates to communication discipline. White (2001) contends that a review of the international communication literature will reveal different terms such as “media imperialism” (Boyd-Barrett, 1977); “media are American” (Tunstall, 1977); “structural imperialism” (Galtung, 1979); “cultural synchronization” (Hamelink, 1983); “cultural dependency and domination” (Link, 1984; Mohammadi, 1995); “electronic colonialism” (McPhail, 1987); “communication imperialism” (Sui-Nam Lee, 1988) “ideological imperialism” and “economic imperialism” (Mattleart, 1994) – all relating to the same basic notion of cultural imperialism.

These concepts and positions have been refigured and reformulated in the light of current debates on globalization, the public sphere, and the potential of the internet for empowerment to the effect that new
communication technologies and the opening up of global markets are transforming the world's media and cultural industries (Boyd-Barret & Thussu, 1993). While advocates of globalization contend that such change has brought greater freedom, opportunity, choice and diversity (Cowen, 2002), it is also clear that globalization has served the economic, political and cultural interests of certain parties more than others, raising concerns about a new era of American or Western imperialism and attendant cultural homogenization or standardization (Jameson, 2000). Colonizing the imagination of consumers worldwide, the virtual empires of the electronic age have a profound effect on national media systems and cultural sovereignty. For instance, about three decades after “Media are American”, Tunstall (2008) posits in “Media were American” that the American era of media dominance has passed. This is pretty much explained by the development of national, transnational and regional media over the past quarter century in China, Brazil, India, Iran, Australia and elsewhere. Similarly, Thussu’s “Electronic Empires” X-rays the effects of large transnational media corporations on national and regional media and one of the articles in the book (contributed by Boyd-Barrett) admits that there is no questioning the fact that there are emergent media “powers” in the ecology of media influence in contemporary world (1998). The painful scenario is that Nigeria is in the periphery of this emerging media “power” shift or expansion notwithstanding the much vaulted flow pattern of contents especially in the new media era and in particular the spread of Nigerian drama around African TV stations, foreign-based Africa-focused satellite TV and in the form of videos/DVDs among African diasporas.

Although so much redefinition has taken place, the dependency syndrome which this paper is referent on presupposes that imperialism itself implies a process of dominance and dependency between nations in which the identification of the role of the media in extending or containing given cultural orientations, conventions and influences is under focus. Perhaps that is why Golding (1977) earlier contextualized cultural imperialism as a problematic in the structural relations of dependence between advanced and developing societies and submits that the phenomenon includes the results of international media, educational and cultural systems. Consequently, scholars agree that mass media in Africa, Latin America and Asia have developed, almost invariably, as derivatives or appendages of those in the advanced industrialized countries. In a relatively recent work, some scholars sought to examine the interplay between cultural studies, media studies and Caribbeanist anthropology and how this interface has impacted on the consumption cultures of the Caribbean peoples. Perttierra and Horst (2009) observe that although media consumption has become a factor of everyday life in most regions around the world, there are several specific reasons why the Caribbean makes a particularly interesting case study for examining the
cultural practices, relationships, micro-political encounters and identities that surround the distribution and use of media systems and technologies.

In much the same way that John Sinclair (1999) has reported for the region of Latin America, the history of Caribbean media is inevitably entangled in a relationship of dependence on the economies and industries of the United States, such that by the 1980s the Anglophone Caribbean was measured as the world region most penetrated by foreign media (Brown, 1995). While countries in the Caribbean share some underlying features that could shape the possibilities for how mediascapes develop through local creation and appropriation of media content, the cheerless fact remains that virtually the entire Caribbean mediascape is a footnote to the United States of America’s and Britain’s media imperialistic hegemonies. In other words, Caribbean media content tend to rely a great deal on programmes, programming and information from the United States (and to lesser degrees from Europe and Mexico). Thus, media consumers in the region are simply passive recipients of the output of the global North (Dunn, 1995). For example, Pertierra (2009) captures the Cuban scenario where media content has not been particularly controversial, as the vast majority of citizens have had relatively free access to the categories of capitalist-produced media programming and programmes that they mostly desire, namely Hollywood films, Latin American telenovelas, international sporting events and popular music from around the world. Perhaps, this scenario has remained unchallenged because local programmes and programming are trite and too pedestrian for the growing Cuban population. Pertierra corroborated this view when she affirmed that the residents included in her study, especially younger people, did frequently complain that most Cuban television and radio programming is boring.

Boyd–Barrett (1977) had previously pontificated that any academic analysis of international media activities has two outstanding features of the “influence process”. The first, according to him, is the unidirectional nature of international media flow. He argued that whereas there is a heavy flow of exported media products/technologies/content from the United States of America to: say Asian, African and Caribbean countries, there is only a very slight trickle of Asian, African and Caribbean media products/technologies/content to the United States of America. Even where there may appear to be a substantial return flow, as is sometimes the case in news and Nigerian home video dramas, the apparent reciprocity only disguises the fact that those who manage or handle this return flow are primarily the agents of major Western media systems, whose criteria of choice are determined first by their domestic market needs. The operations and activities of Western media behemoths such as the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC World), Cable News Network (CNN), Sky News, Fox News, Voice of America (VOA), among others, in relation to, and with other regions of the world clearly exemplify the point being made. In the theorizing of
Boyd–Barrett, the second outstanding feature of the influence process which actually stems from the first is the very small number of “source” countries accounting for a very large share of all international media influences around the world. These countries are mainly the United States of America, then Britain, France, Germany, Russia, followed by relatively emergent centres of international media influence including Italy, India, China, Japan, Iran and Brazil. Eregare and Afolabi (2009) argue further that if “sources” are identified only by country of origin, however this obscures the fact that the real sources are even more limited, located as they were, in a handful of giant media conglomerates, then the rest of the world is under media iron-grip of some sort.

However, the concern here is not whether the idea of media imperialism in world media culture is desirable or has advantages or disadvantages. Rather, emphasis is on the historical development of the phenomenon, reasons for its prevalence as well as the obvious but regrettable fact that it will continue to be part of the African media arrangement, specifically the television system in Nigeria for some time to come. A good way to proceed further in this discourse is to examine the issue from the three perspectives enunciated by Fejes (1981). According to him, media imperialism should be analyzed with reference to:

(i) the role of the media in maintaining or changing a nation’s power structure and how it is tied to the international system of domination and dependence.
(ii) as a historical phenomenon; and (iii) under culture. The phenomenon is thus analyzed from these three perspectives. The different modes exhibited by the phenomenon are situated within them.

**Perspectives and Dialectics of Media Imperialism**

The term “media imperialism” connotes a situation whereby the media system of a particular area of focus is subjected to the dictates of the media system of another area. A concise definition of media imperialism is provided by Boyd–Barrett, however dated. According to him, it is the process whereby ownership, structure, distribution, or content of the media in any one country are singly or together subject to substantial external pressure from the media interests of any other country or countries without proportionate reciprocation of influence by the country so affected (1977). The pertinent issue here is culture. From the concept enunciated by Boyd – Barrett, it is obvious that the result of the pressure is acculturation. Ordinarily, the hardware of media systems (that is, the technology), which Nigeria is used to, is Western. The hardware is intended for use in aid of development. But when the hardware comes with all its cultural appurtenances, then whatever
development it would bring would be Western-tainted, if not a complete implantation of Western culture.

It must be noted that the country or countries that initiate this imperialism do so either inadvertently or as a deliberate or intentional policy or commercial strategy. On the other hand, the country so affected accepts or adopts the influence resulting from the invasion as a deliberate commercial or political strategy. It may otherwise absorb it, ignorant of its consequences. It is equally true that the country so invaded may just be powerless and is unable to resist the invasion even if it had wanted to do so. Several factors are responsible for the inability to resist, chief amongst which is poverty in all its ramifications, which may prevent an invaded country from evolving its own media system that is strong enough to resist imperialism. In this regard, Eregare and Afolabi (2009) rightly note that media imperialism is a critical theory regarding the perceived effects of globalization on world’s media. They contend that when a single company or corporation controls all the media in a country or countries, standardizing and commercializing products of one culture for the media consumption of another, media imperialism is in operation. For instance, the influence of the American media content only intensifies consumption values instead of production values in many countries which are compelled to depend and view the world through the prism of Western values, ideas and civilization. It is probably this dependency syndrome Boyd – Barrett (1977) envisaged when he identified four modes of media imperialism. These are: (i) the shape of the communication vehicle; (ii) a set of individual arrangement for the continuation of media production; (iii) the body of values about ideal practice; and (iv) specific media content.

To this could be added, language as distinct from the shape of the communication vehicle and specific content. A little explanation of these modes is germane to this discourse. The shape of the communication vehicle refers to the communication technology. The early advance of the developed nations of the West (France, United States of America, Britain and Germany) has given them the leverage to equally develop communication systems to link great distances just to enhance their business interests.

However, this has impacted quite negatively on the media systems of the developing countries as it ensures the perpetuation of the world information order that has consigned the developing world to a position of mere consumers of information, even when the information originates in their own environment. Ultimately, then, the early technological advance of these countries compels other countries in quest of the development of their media systems to follow the examples set by these countries. In Nigeria, emphasis is on transmission facilities just to keep pace with international broadcast standards as dictated by the global north and rural integration and development is paid lip service. Yet rural integration and grassroots
development ought to be the paramount focus of media operation in a developing nation like Nigeria (Ibagere, 2002; Omoera, 2006).

The industrial arrangement for the continuation of media production is linked to financial facilities which the media utilize for stability. Western countries have established a solid foundation that enables their media systems to be financially independent. This ensures their continuous production of content which they can dispose of to developing countries cheaply. The structure of Hollywood, for example, gives it an unassailable advantage that enhances the invasion of Third World cinema and television by American film and television products. The strong foundation of Hollywood is a development which was encouraged by the American government in various ways including the formation of the Motion Picture Export Association of America (MPEAA) in 1946 (Ekwuazi, 1991). This body was formed to regulate film making as well as deal with the exploration of films and garner whatever advantage was needed abroad. This ensured that America maintained the lead while others followed. Thus, Hollywood has been able to consolidate and intensify its grip on global distribution and exhibition of motion picture as a result of neo-liberalism on trade practices and terms (Hjort & Petrie, 2007).

The body of values about ideal practice refers to the codes or ethics of the profession of broadcasting. The compendium of ethics of broadcasting was first evolved by the developed countries. Because of this pioneering position, the code of ethics or its derivatives tend to ape their developed societies. Thus, it is what is conceived to be good television fare that must be the standard. It is what constitutes “good news” in the Western sense that should also hold for the rest, especially in Nigeria and other countries in the south of the Sahara. Moreover, in quest of attaining the appropriate professional standards set by the West, many African stations procure foreign programmes to fill their air time which local programmes cannot fill because of the prohibitive cost of production. Golding (1977) earlier made this point when he observed that the factors which have forced television into this situation include the demands of a largely elite population having cosmopolitan tastes and interests as well as the high cost of local production.

The reference to tastes and demands of the elite are equally relevant in the discussion of content as a crucial element of media imperialism affecting television broadcasting in Africa particularly in Nigeria. In the area of news, most television organizations depend on foreign news agencies such as Reuters, Associated Press, United Press, BBC World, to mention a few. And because these agencies view the world with their home country imperialist socio-political and cultural biases, Africans become inundated with news that is skewed in favour of stereotypes which Western nations have stamped Africa with. Correspondingly, when a news item about Africa gets into the broadcast circuits of these agencies, it is more or less carried to validate such stereotypes or it is about war, violent crisis or some uncanny event.
Language as an element of media imperialism in Nigerian television is quite significant. The major language of broadcasting is English. It is only in special programmes that indigenous languages are used. Most of the time indigenous languages are used for news translations. But the time allotted for such translations is not more than a few minutes per language. Thus, not more than one item of news is broadcast in the news translations. The inclusion of such translation, is therefore, not for any purpose of integration or grassroots development through communication, but merely to show that no language area is marginalized in a political sense. It must equally be noted that the use of English to broadcast news and other programmes has communication problems of its own, especially as regards the influence and integration of the rural and illiterate populace who may not understand the English language adequately.

From the foregoing, it is clear that, in concept, imperialism pervades the critical sectors of the Nigerian television. To further clarify the phenomenon, it is, perhaps necessary to show, in concrete terms, its pervasive extent.

Imperialism in the Nigerian Television Broadcasting

All the enumerated modes of imperialism exist in the Nigerian television broadcasting. The situation has become even more acute since the deregulation of broadcasting in the early 1990s. A careful look at the daily offerings of many of the TV stations would reveal the pervasive nature of the phenomenon. In terms of technology, Nigerian TV broadcasters are far behind their Western counterparts as lean finances incapacitate most of them in their bid to acquire up to speed equipment and technology needed by the medium. Stations’ broadcasts do not extend beyond a few kilometres. In other words, the area of signification of a majority of the stations is far less than what is expected. For instance, the broadcast signals of Edo broadcasting service (EBS) TV, a state owned TV in Nigeria is only received in the state capital, Benin City and a few areas not too far away. The implication of this is that a larger proportion of the people living in the state do not get EBS TV signals, needless to say those outside the state. This is the scenario in most of the federating states of Nigeria. This ultimately limits the options available to viewers. Needless to say that it also reduces the size of the audience as well as advertising range because the TV stations cannot boast of large areas of signification or coverage. Consequently, advertising patronage may not yield the fund needed for such stations’ expansion in terms of technology acquisition, transmission and area of news coverage.

Adeseye (1991) notes that at inception, television broadcast time was about 75% foreign programmes. Though the NBC is trying to change the situation by requiring that stations broadcast 60% local content in their daily transmission, it has not augured well for the industry as the small turnover
of most of the TV outfits does not allow for the production of programmes that can meet international standards. In fact, private stations are now involved in the broadcast of sponsored programmes which do not serve the interest of integration/rural/grassroots communication in Nigeria where over 70 percent of the people are rural dwellers (Omoera, 2006). Religious programmes take up the largest percentage of weekly broadcasts in the name of local content. Even when some other Nigerian stations, including HiTv pride themselves for bringing innovative solutions in television content and programming, it appears that they do so in crass ignorance, insensitivity and short-sightedness because many of the programmes ape foreign media without regard to the socio-cultural sensitivity and sensibility of Nigerians. A clear case is “Kokomansion” currently on HiTv which shamelessly copies the America’s “Playboy Mansion” with all its moral failings in the light of the Nigerian cultural mores, sense of decency and respect for motherhood and womanhood all in the name of commercial fortune and what Tony Subair of HiTv and other organizers of the reality show calls innovation and creativity. In fact, Ojo (2009) hits the nail on its head when he noted that the quest for fame, money and material pursuit drives Kokomansion.

Inadequate funding is another sore point that makes Nigerian television stations hook on to foreign stations to bring international events to viewers. Many stations even use such attachment to source for advertising from patrons because such events, especially sporting activities easily attract sponsors. A case in point is the European Football Champions’ league final played between Barcelona Football Club of Spain and Arsenal Football Club of England on Wednesday, May 17, 2006. The Nigerian Breweries sponsored the analysis of the match on Nigerian Television Authority’s (NTA’s) “Newsline”. But an important football match like the Nigerian Football Federation final is rarely aired. Notable is the finals of the African Women’s Football Championship, hosted by Nigeria and which Nigeria won for a record fifth time on November 11, 2006. It was only the local television station – the Delta Rainbow Television (DRTV) that aired the match and it is probably because it was the state (Delta State) that hosted the championship on behalf of the country. Other stations chose to broadcast the English Premier League matches played that weekend. About four years down the road the situation is now even direr as many conglomerates, including Guinness, Heineken now bankroll the broadcast of league matches from Europe to the dereliction of Nigerian league matches. Overtime, this and other programming activities of most Nigerian TV stations seem to have accumulatively influenced the attitude and behaviour of Nigerians, especially the youths. Today, it is rife to see Nigerian youths wearing T-shirts, rubber bracelets and caps with inscriptions such as “Chelsea FC”, “Arsenal FC”, “Man U for Life”, “New York Lakers”, to mention a few (Okhakhu & Ate, 2008). In fact, the average Nigerian football fan knows more about football players and their activities in the Spanish League (La Liga), German League
(Bundesliga), Italian League (Serie A), French League (Ligue 1), among others, than the Nigerian sporting scene. The point being made is that gradually but certainly the Nigerian television is being trapped in the web of subtle conditioning of the minds of the people to imbibe values which make their desire for foreign goods, services or ideas to increase (Udeze, 2005). And there is a strong connection between this consumptive social attitude and the globalisation agenda which continuously buoys up the economy of the producing nation and slows down the economic, industrial and technological growth of the consuming nation (Boyd-Barrett & Thussu, 1993).

Perhaps the most significant but regrettable development in encouraging media imperialism tendencies in the Nigerian media ecology is the gleeful announcement by the Federal Government of Nigeria of negotiations between the NBC and the English Football Federation (which holds the broadcast rights of the Premier League) on the broadcast of premier league matches by Nigerian stations. “Following the discussion between the NBC and the FA premier league as well as the follow-up by the Honourable Minister of Information and Communications, Nigeria has been set aside as a broadcast territory for the acquisition of FA premier league rights” (Aihe, 2006). This trend can only perpetuate media imperialism as is the case today where, there are now fans of notable English clubs like Manchester United, Arsenal and Chelsea going for thanksgiving in churches all over the country for their “success” while Nigerian clubs play to empty terraces in different stadiums with their matches not featured on television.

In the area of news, a majority of the Nigerian television broadcast outfits cull a large chunk of their broadcast materials from foreign news agencies. There are a plethora cases where international TV broadcasters such as the Cable News Network (CNN), Aljazeera, BBC World, South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC), to mention a few, had to report events on important national issues in and around Nigeria before Nigerian TV broadcasters would scurry to pick them as news items. For instance, it was Aljazeera that alerted the world, including Nigerians about the 2010 pogrom in Jos Plateau, north central Nigeria. It would also be recalled that some years back, while most of the Nigerian stations were busy playing pirated musicals, CNN was busy streaming the Lissa Plane Crash in south western Nigeria. Perhaps, the most embarrassing moment for Nigerian TV broadcasters was when the Nigerian president, Alhaji Umaru Musa Yar’Adua who had been incommunicado with Nigerians for several months, over health related issues, address Nigerians via the BBC Radio, a foreign media concern. Apart from leaving the country rudderless, the incendiary nature of the president’s continued stay in Saudi Arabia without letting Nigerians know what was wrong with him was palpably felt across the world. It probably would have been a different scenario if the president that went away without official leave (AWOL) addressed the nation via the Nigerian Television Authority (NTA) or the Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria.
(FRCN) and other TV or radio networks across the world hooked up to them for the reportage of that news item. This incident tells much about the information management system that obtains in Nigeria, which hamstrings the average Nigerian broadcast outfit and reduces it to a position where its Hobson’s choice is to tag along Western media behemoths due to some ethno-political and economic behests within the country. Needless to say that many of the TV stations continue to feature video clips of foreign TV stations anytime they broadcast international news under the demeaning rubric of “this was culled from CNN, BBC, SABC and so on”. At times it is even the complete audio-visual footage of the particular news item that is culled from the foreign TV station. Ibagere and Edosa (2006) earlier noted that Nigerian television at the turn of the new millennium, “resorted to acquiring culturally foreign programmes from TV Africa and other pay TV cable outfits with whom many stations seem to have signed a contract”. Imperialism then, seems to wear a new look. Rather than accuse Western nations (particularly America) of invading Nigerian screens with elements of their culture, the focus should now be on South Africa with its robust broadcasting through which Western culture continues to invade Nigerian culture, as signified by the programmes of such satellite stations as Channel O, E Entertainment, MNET and others.

As regards the code of practice for media operations, it is sad to note that Nigerian television appears not to have standards that are indigenous to it. To worsen the matter, viewers seem to have acquired Western tastes without commensurate financial power to satisfy such tastes. Also, the Nigerian television system does not possess the capacity to provide such fare comparable with Western standards. This is why satellite television has become more popular even though it is quite expensive. According to Anibeze (2006) while the cable TV stations broadcasting the world cup in Germany was charging 9.9 Euros (1,800 naira) per month, people were paying 9,000 naira for DSTV monthly in Nigeria, with additional 500 naira if one was paying through an agent. Despite this high cost, Nigerian viewers continue to yearn for foreign programmes. Thus, the economics of scale does not favour the average Nigerian TV broadcaster as it fights tooth and nail to keep hope alive in a hostile business environment where it is compelled to become a dependant of others because of the consumptive attitude of its people.

Attempt to allow viewers a peep into international events either results in a dismal imitation or outright replay of foreign stations’ broadcasts. One of such unsuccessful imitations is the introduction of the information bar which drifts from one end of the screen to the other during programmes. This was introduced by the NTA in 2006. The crudity of the imitation is glaring in the inadequate information thereby obscuring the meaning of the message. Again some messages are absurd and without relevance to viewers. For example, on December 6, 2006 on the news bar during the NTA telecast of the daily programme, “AM Express”, there were, among others, the
following: “Clooney mourns death of his pig”, “McCartney vies for Icon title”, and “Mary J. Blige wins big on billboard”. These news items are to say the least culturally irrelevant to the average Nigerian. Apart from Mary J. Blige who may be known to a handful of viewers by virtue of her musical popularity in the US, the other two characters are probably unknown to the viewers in Nigeria. The foregoing obviously point to media content that is inherently foreign. The fact of this is revealed in the emergence of programmes having no cultural relevance to Nigeria.

Yet specific media content betrays a worse scenario. With regard to specific media content, it is obvious that Nigerian screens continue to be buffeted with foreign media content. The so-called Digital Satellite Television (DSTV) continues to attract attention from Nigerian viewers despite the fact that they pay more for signals than anywhere in the world (Anibeze, 2006). This, probably, necessitated the need to break the monopoly of Multi-choice, the sole company with DSTV rights in Nigeria. This deregulation commenced with the rights to football matches of the English Premier League which are no longer the exclusive preserve of Multi-choice but now open for bids from other networks (Aihe, 2007). While subscribers are jubilant over the break of the Multi-choice monopoly because it has reduced subscription price, it is clear that imperialism is assuming a wider dimension. There has been a constant complaint of lopsidedness of broadcasting in particular and the world information order in general. While it is only a few stations such as the NTA and African Independent Television (AIT), among others, that engage in satellite broadcasting in Nigeria, Nigerians know so much about South African stations like SABC, Channel O, MTV Base and so on. It must be noted that imperialism is not only a feature of globalization it is a detrimental development that supplants indigenous media culture with the foreign one. The manifestation of this can be gleaned from the adoption of Western practice as could be seen in the content displayed in Big Brother Africa (BBA) show which was aired for the first time in 2007. This was an imitation of Big Brother America. Tagged as a reality show, BBA featured obscene scenes of inmates having their baths as well as amoral interactions. The Nigerian representative, Ofunneka was first, thought to be the most morally decent. She, however, incurred the wrath of viewers when footages of the show revealed that she was involved in an act with the eventual winner, Richard who was shown fingering her. Commenting on this development, Miebi Senge (2007) says: information is gotten faster on the Net now than from your next door neighbours and would actually put “amebo” to shame. (Amebo is a Pidgin English slang meaning, gossip). But that is the stuff that Nigerians are yet to come to terms with. In fact, it appears that anything goes on the airwaves in Nigeria in the name of TV programming.

According to Senge, there were already 4,584 clicks on the video of Richard fingering Ofunneka (2007). MNET (which transmitted the
programme) had earlier apologized to the Nigerian government over the sexually offensive video clips on the BBA reality show. It can therefore be seen that imperialism continues either through direct screening of programmes from foreign stations or by imitation as could be seen in the BBA which had a Nigerian equivalent (Big Brother Nigeria) in 2008. Some other Western programmes that have been shamelessly aped by Nigerian TV broadcasters are “Don’t Forget the Lyrics”, “Who Wants to be a Millionaire”, “Project Fame”, to mention a few.

From whatever perspective then, media imperialism continues to be a feature of Nigerian television broadcasting to the extent that the involvement in international affairs such as the carnage in the Darfur region of Sudan where Nigeria is an active participant in the search for peace can only be accessed through information from such international media organizations such as CNN, BBC, Fox News, Sky News and so on. A number of reasons account for the continued imperialism, and they are hereby stated.

**Reasons for the Prevailing Imperialism**

The first factor that accounts for imperialism is finance. The economy of the country is not in a good shape due to mismanagement and outright corruption. The financial crunch resulting from the bad economy acts like an incubus on television especially with regard to such programmes that involve huge financial stakes. Mid January, 2006, ten (10) broadcasting organizations (including some television stations) were closed down by the NBC for failure to fulfil their financial obligations to the commission, to enable the renewal of their broadcast licenses. According to Silas Yisa (then Director General of the Commission) “after a mutually agreed decision in which the affected broadcasters were to pay half of the amount owed, most of them still refused to pay their debt, some as old as the day the stations commenced operations” (personal communication, January 19, 2006). In a situation like this, television stations may find it impossible to do their own programmes. They make do with foreign programmes which are cheaper to obtain. They may also find it difficult, if not impossible to send correspondents to places to get news. It is no surprise then that the likes of CNN and BBC will continue to be the imperial sources of news for Nigerian television organizations. The fact of the paucity of funds to make programmes was acknowledged by Ben Murray – Bruce (then Director General of the NTA and now Chairman Silverbird TV) at the South African organized Sithengi Film and Broadcast Festival in 2000. In a remark to the Nigerian delegation to the festival, he said: But more importantly, let us see how we can work together to produce a full feature film, how we can produce programmes. You don’t have any problem with scripts and artistes. Your problems are in funding and equipment (Cited in Aihe, 2000).
This factor, noted in 2000, is still a significant factor in 2010. Another factor mentioned by Murray – Bruce is equipment. Virtually all foreign stations of note have adopted satellite broadcasting. Among the organizations (NTA, HiTv and AIT) involved in satellite broadcasting in Nigeria, AIT remains the most vibrant. Locally, signals from most stations cannot be received more than fifty kilometres from their transmitters. So they cannot even send correspondents to far places to gather news. And when they do, such news cannot be broadcast instantly. To obviate the problem of broadcasting stale news, resort has to be made to foreign stations whose news items are relayed without editing.

The above factor is closely connected with the quality of programmes which is far from the standards of the ones from foreign stations. The lack of funds compels stations to rely on obsolete equipment which may not enhance the production of good programmes capable of sustaining viewers’ attention. So, cheap programmes are purchased from foreign stations to fill their air time and most viewers, especially the urban dwellers rue this and respond by acquiring DSTV equipment to watch quality programmes. For example, the African Cup of Nations (Football Championship) hosted by Ghana in 2008 was seen by DSTV subscribers on Super Sports rather than any of the local stations in Nigeria. And as the financial crunch continues to restrict broadcasting to only urban areas, it makes it worthwhile for those in the rural areas who can afford the DSTV to acquire it for commercial use. It is now a common feature for advertising hoardings to be placed at strategic places advertising upcoming premier league matches to be viewed for a fee. This is a new dimension that may eventually render Nigerian local stations irrelevant, if not redressed.

The situation equally leads to indolence on the part of broadcasters who now hide under the façade of lack of funds to remain uncreative. Many of the stations lack the funds to train staff. So, the professionals become abjectly ignorant of current trends or latest equipment as a result. Training amounts to a few in-house workshops and seminars which are not adequate for the onerous job they perform.

Prognosis

From the foregoing, it is obvious that media imperialism will continue to be part of the Nigerian television system for some time. Although the NTA has tried to reduce the feature of foreign programmes on its broadcast menu, a horde of other TV broadcasters in Nigerian still depend on foreign TV stations for their operations. Apart from discussion programmes which seem to express personal opinions, the NTA does not seem to have adequate replacement for foreign programmes that have been yanked off the screen.

Again, the Federal Government has evolved a policy which tacitly encourages the proliferation of foreign satellite television systems. In 2007,
the Minister of Information and Communication came up with a government decision granting more licenses to organizations to commence retransmission of DSTV signals. This means there would be more options for willing subscribers. More subscribers will also emerge as the price of acquiring the facility will become cheaper due to competition, as well as the fee for monthly subscription. This is one of the effects of globalization as it encourages the uprooting of values and media systems of one place and supplants them with that of another. The effect in the circumstance is that while there is the increase in the number of subscribers to DSTV, a converse decrease in the number of viewers of local stations would result. Then to generate more interest and sustain subscription, satellite retransmission organizations will begin to focus on the Nigerian environment for new business fields. For instance, DSTV now has satellite channels dedicated to Yoruba and Hausa video films and the process of enlisting more indigenous Nigerian language movies on its broadcast menu is underway. This may eventually put paid to any modicum of interest in local stations as even advertisers would now use these foreign/satellite stations to pursue their ends. Ultimately Nigerians would begin to see themselves from foreign eyes and would become what foreign nations want them to be.

**Conclusion**

This paper has looked at the issue of media imperialism as it affects television broadcasting in Nigeria. It historically examined the various trajectories of the phenomenon in world media culture and traced the Nigerian experience to the evolution of television itself in the country. The paper further posited that as a phenomenon, the issue will continue to recur since an enabling atmosphere needed for its displacement by local broadcasting is yet faltering. Therefore, it suggested that it is high time stakeholders in the Nigerian television media made genuine and conscious effort to change the situation. Such effort should include better funding, serious investment in the development of home-grown media technologies, investment in high level manpower development, innovative programmes and more specialized programming with indigenous flavours by both the public and private television outfits operating in the country. These measures, this paper believes, would go a long way in reducing the media dependency syndrome that currently pervades the Nigerian television broadcasting space.
References


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Inclusive Teaching: An Approach for Encouraging Non-Traditional Student Success

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Abstract
It is a recurring complaint among North American university teachers that non-traditional students come underprepared to university. Both universities and individual faculty members have been taking measures to help non-traditional students improve their skills and performance. Most of these initiatives are remedial in nature, i.e., they aim at equipping non-traditional students with the academic skills and knowledge of mainstream students and teachers. Not surprisingly, these actions have proved inadequate to empower most non-traditional students to succeed, as these measures neglect to acknowledge and incorporate the diverse values, beliefs, and skills that non-traditional students bring to the classroom. This article discusses a research project that focuses on the relationship between teaching models and knowledge modes with respect to both mainstream and non-traditional students. It also proposes several strategies to promote inclusive teaching in the classroom.

Keywords: Inclusive teaching, Non-traditional student success

Introduction
It is a recurring complaint among North American university teachers that most of today’s students come underprepared to university (Côté & Allahar, 2007; Gabriel, 2008; Kuh et al., 2006; Weimer, 2002). The majority of these students are non-traditional, particularly mature, aboriginal, international, recent immigrant, first-generation, and visible minorities. Both universities and individual faculty members have been taking measures to help non-traditional students improve their skills and performance. These initiatives are remedial in nature, i.e., they aim at equipping non-traditional students with the academic skills and knowledge of mainstream students and teachers (Tinto, 2000). Not surprisingly, these actions have proved inadequate to empower most minority students to succeed, as these measures neglect to acknowledge and incorporate the diverse values, beliefs, and skills that non-traditional students bring to the classroom.

The pivotal thesis of this article is that students’ preparation reflects their own cultures, traditions, and beliefs. In other words, today’s students are not underprepared. Their preparation responds to a different notion of the world around them. So, instead of pushing non-traditional students to adopt mainstream academic skills, disciplinary perspectives, and processes, we should open our classroom doors to teaching diverse and non-traditional ways of approaching disciplinary content, and organizing and expressing thought. We should support this by including non-traditional pedagogies to help our students learn in a more inclusive way. This article is premised on
literature findings that show that faculty members are the ones that can have the major impact on student success (Bain, 2004; Bain & Zimmerman, 2009; Blose, 1999; Gabriel, 2008; Light, 2001). It recognizes, however, that students are more likely to succeed when in addition to inclusive classroom teaching, the college or university implements multiple programs and initiatives aimed at helping students strive in their academic endeavours (Kuh, 2006).

This article begins with a brief overview of the demographics of University students in the United States and Canada. Second, I briefly describe a project I conducted and its methodology.

Third, I examine the nature of programs and classroom strategies aimed at fostering non-traditional student success. Then, I analyze the relationship between teaching models and knowledge modes with respect to both mainstream and non-traditional students. Finally, I propose several strategies to promote inclusive teaching and to enhance learning opportunities for non-traditional students.

The New Demographic of Students

Most of the so called underprepared students are non-traditional students, particularly mature, aboriginal, international, recent immigrant, first-generation, and visible minorities. Increasing numbers of non-traditional students have been entering the world of higher education in the past two decades in the United States and Canada. There are approximately 700,000 full-time and 220,000 part-time undergraduate students in Canadian universities (AUCC, 2007). 100,000 full time students and 190,000 part-time students are mature; 70,000 full-time and 13,000 part-time students are international (AUCC, 2007). 16% of Canadian students identify themselves as visible minorities and 30,000 students are aboriginal (AUCC, 2007).

In the United States, nearly 75% of all undergraduate students in both 4-year and two-year postsecondary institutions are in some way nontraditional (IES, 2009). For example, there are 11.5 million community college students. 13% of these students are African-American, 15% are Hispanic, 6% are Asian Pacific, and 1% are Native Americans (IES, 2009). First generation students represent 39% of all students. International students are 8% of the total college population. And 58% of all students fall within the mature student category (American Association of Community Colleges, 2003).

Similar trends occur in US universities, although elite research universities have lower percentages of non-traditional students. While there is some overlapping among these categories, it suggests, nonetheless, that non-traditional students constitute the majority of today’s students in US and Canadian universities and colleges. And traditionally historic
mainstream students – white, Euro-Canadian, middle-to-upper class, Judeo-Christian, Western young students whose parents graduated from university are now minority (Bowe, 1999). This profile is radically different from the one two or three decades ago, when classrooms were more homogenous, and participation of non-traditional students was marginal.

The Study

I conducted a project aimed at identifying the measures needed to help non-traditional students succeed in higher education. The original hypothesis guiding the project was to examine the measures that contribute to change some of the individual pre-entry college attributes identified as determinants of success in the Tinto Model of retention/attrition (Tinto, 1994).

I started the project by examining the existing strategies followed to help non-traditional students succeed. Then, I conducted a series of focus groups with non-traditional students attending colleges and universities in Sault Ste. Marie, a US and Canadian border city. These focus groups included mature, aboriginal, first generation, international, recent immigrants, and visible minority female and male students. The focus groups were complemented by in-depth open-ended interviews to non-traditional students, teachers, and administrators in those colleges and universities. The interviews were video-taped, and a forty-minute DVD was produced with edited segments of the focus groups and interviews in order to provide feedback to the participants about the main ideas of the project. As a result of these focus groups and interviews, I adopted some classroom strategies which implement the main findings of the project, i.e., the need for inclusive teaching.

Predominant Classroom and Institutional Initiatives

Many teachers and institutions in the United States and Canada have been adopting a series of initiatives to deal with the perceived problem of teaching underprepared non-traditional students. The predominant approach to dealing with non-traditional students has been the adoption of remedial programs and remedial teaching strategies (Tinto, 2000). These initiatives are premised on the belief that non-traditional students lack some academic skills, and that they can succeed in university if they acquire these skills. So, remedial programs and teaching strategies aim at providing these students with the necessary skills and cultural processes to place them at a par with mainstream students. These programs and initiatives vary in format. At the institutional level, they include academic support services (Crockett, 1984; Seidman, 1993; Seidman, 1995) bridging, access, and mentoring programs (Williford et al., 2000; Zeegers & Martin, 2001). Classroom teaching
strategies include using visual information in the classroom (Rees-Miller, n/d), explaining a topic more than once in the classroom or office, providing additional tutorials and practice tests (Keller, Mattie, Vodanovic & Povronski, 1991), sitting international students apart during tests (Arkoudis, 2006), avoiding jargon, and being flexible with deadlines and assignments. These initiatives have proved to be ineffective (Tinto, 2000) as they reinforce a superior value of mainstream knowledge over non-traditional ones. These programs send a message to non-traditional students that they need to adapt to a better way of thinking and expressing thought. While Canadian universities and colleges eased access of non-mainstream students, attrition rates have also increased. This shows that the strategies followed by Canadian postsecondary education institutions have not been successful in helping non-traditional students thrive in their university studies (O'Donnel & Tobbell, 2007).

**North American Knowledge Modes and Academic Skills**

Most teachers in North American higher education institutions approach the teaching of disciplinary content, academic skills, and thought processes from traditionally Western and North American perspectives. For example, the predominant knowledge mode in North American is external, socially mitigated, and objectively measurable (Haigh, 2009) and thus subjective, relational, and non measurable approaches are considered unworthy of the mainstream university classroom. Teaching writing has been reduced to teaching disciplinary thesis-based writing, where students learn how to develop a thesis, pose questions, gather and weigh evidence, and construct arguments as members of a certain discipline (Bean, 1996). Critical thinking, which is conceived as a self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored, and self-corrective thinking mode in which the thinker analyzes, assesses, and reconstructs evidence, (Bok, 2006) displaced other forms of thinking, such as creative and integrative (Boyer, 1990; Clark, 2009).

These North American knowledge modes and thought processes are very particular, even elitist ways of interpreting the world around us. They are by no means universal. They do not coincide with ways of producing and expressing thought in other cultures. Furthermore, they have been criticized within North American academic circles for being patriarchal and for distorting the way of knowing (Bean, 1996).

These thought processes and academic skills are generally accompanied by teaching pedagogies such as lectures and seminar discussions that also reinforce this particular way of understanding reality. Again, these pedagogies are neither universal nor necessarily effective, and have also been attacked by mainstream western scholars (Bain, 2004, Biggs, 2003).
Non-Western Knowledge Modes and Academic Skills

Non-traditional students have a way of seeing themselves and understanding the world that derives from their own cultures and traditions. This differs from the perspectives that predominate in North American universities. Like for their mainstream colleagues, this different way of seeing the world has repercussions in most academic areas. They influence the way students think, express themselves, interact in the classroom, and think in the disciplines. For example, many non-traditional students tend to see things in a subjective, inward-looking fashion (Haigh, 2009). Other students from non-Western societies are holistic in their thoughts. They tend to emphasize and value how things are interconnected. They tend to give contextual and emotional information. Some even show a tendency to digress when writing. What is important in their writing works is “seeing, feeling, and being situated in the web of relations that surround the subject” rather than developing a thesis (Fox, 1994). The dynamic of the North American university classroom also clashes with the way in which many students, particularly Asian and aboriginal, are brought up. For example, Chinese students are educated not to ever question, evaluate, or challenge their professors (Sarkisian, 2006).

North American Teaching Model

The North American knowledge mode is neither better nor worse than other modes of knowledge. But, it is generally presented as the only “correct” way of generating, organizing, and expressing thought in our universities (Bowden & Marton, 2004). When a student or teacher from a certain tradition, who lacks experience and education in appreciating knowledge diversity, crosses knowledge and thought traditions, she tends to judge different knowledge modes in a very negative way (Haigh, 2009). Thus, non-traditional students tend to perceive North American academic writing as inferior, arbitrary, and disrespectful of the audience. For example, according to a Chilean student reported in Helen Fox’s (1994) book, when he “reads something written by an American it sounds so childish.” Other non-Western students consider that North American writers belittle their audience by making explicit their arguments and by making explicit connections between different arguments. Another example quoted by Fox shows that for non-North American students it should be the responsibility of the audience—not the writer’s—“to do the analysis, to draw meaning from the context. [The writer does] not [even have the] responsibility to make sense.” (Fox, 1994). In most cases, non-traditional students, particularly non Western, feel that
following North American conventions is against “what everything inside you is telling you to do” (Fox, 1994).

At the same time, mainstream teachers—and those minority teachers educated in mainstream Western higher education institutions—perceive non-mainstream student writing and other academic skills as signs of unpreparedness for university studies (Côté & Allahar, 2007; Gabriel, 2008). For example, when non-traditional students write an essay where they do not cite a few sentences they borrowed from an author, or when they digress instead of supporting the thesis with arguments and evidence, most teachers do not understand that these students are responding to the way in which they have been brought up to see and understand the world. Teachers tend to believe that these are signs of lack of academic preparation.

When students and teachers came to university from the same privileged and homogeneous social backgrounds, they shared similar values and principles. So, there was no difference of perspective between teachers and students (Bowden & Marton, 2004). The lack of success of individual students was interpreted as individual failures, generally explained in terms of lack of application and effort on the part of those students (Côté & Allahar, 2007). Since today, non-traditional students make up a large percentage of North American classrooms, what was once an explanation in terms of individual students, today is a generalization about underpreparedness.

**Strategies for Inclusive Teaching**

The deepest degree of learning—and the highest rates of student academic success—takes place when university teachers encourage, include, and value the cultures of both minority and mainstream students and incorporate them into their classes, i.e., inclusive teaching. As put by Bowden and Marton, “by becoming aware of other people’s ways of seeing various phenomena one’s understanding is enriched and therefore becomes more powerful: one can see one’s own way of seeing exactly as a way of seeing (rather than ‘seeing what something is like’) and individual awarenesses are linked to each other, forming a collective consciousness” (Bowden & Marton, 2004).

In practice, this entails teaching disciplinary content and academic skills from a wide array of diverse traditions so that every single non-traditional student will feel included and will see that her knowledge modes are acknowledged and recognized. In an inclusive teaching classroom, non-traditional students strive as their ways of understanding the world are a central part of the course. At the same time, they are more willing to learn mainstream North American ways of thinking and expressing, as these are presented as one among many alternatives of interpreting reality and creating and expressing thought (Bowden & Marton, 2004). For mainstream
students, learning about non-traditional values, skills, and processes also opens up new ways of apprehending reality, which enriches their academic experiences and skills at a level which cannot be achieved when being taught within a single worldview paradigm (Bowden & Marton, 2004).

While ideally inclusive teaching should be part of teacher’s education and development, there are some strategies which we as teachers can try in order to open up our classes to non-traditional views, values, and skills. The following are some suggestions which derive from both the literature and inclusive teaching practice, which I implemented as a result of the main ideas arising from this project.

Place student learning of diverse knowledge modes, and ways of generating, organizing, and expressing thought at the forefront of the curriculum. Include this within the course intended learning outcomes. And make explicit to your students that they will learn to approach the discipline and to generate, organize, and express thought from multiple traditions. For example, in a Criminal Law course, help your students interpret the notion of crime from different legal traditions, such as Islamic, Talmudic, Aboriginal, and Soviet. Help your students think and communicate about Criminal Law as scholars would do in these traditions.

Align your course so that the assessment and teaching and learning activities match your intended learning outcomes (Biggs, 2003). Teaching an aligned course means making your intended learning outcomes consistent with the teaching and learning activities and the assessment tasks. So, the teaching and learning activities will help your students engage in thinking and expressing in a wide array of knowledge modes. And the assessment tools will evaluate whether they have achieved these outcomes.

Change the preconception that non-Western ideas are exotic. Introduce non-Western knowledge modes, academic skills, and disciplinary content as something usual. For example, if you teach a course on Business, explain your students that Japanese businesspeople have a unique way of negotiation deals. Or discuss with your students the important societal consequences of Islamic attitudes about interest and usury.

Help your students see the intrinsic value of acquiring diverse, non-traditional ways of seeing the world. Include a wide array of non-Western and non-traditional worldviews and values, even if you do not have students from a certain culture. For example, even if you do not have aboriginal students, teach your students how to transmit knowledge through stories as is done in aboriginal communities (Charter, 1996).

Show your students how useful it is to be prepared to live and work in different cultures. In a globalized society, people have the opportunity to move to and live in other countries. Even if your students do not plan to move to another country they may have to work for foreign corporations or international organizations in their own city. These organizations and
corporations will have a different culture, which students need to learn about during their university studies.

Teach multiple ways of writing instead of restricting writing to North American academic styles. For example, teach your students how to organize thoughts and express ideas as is done in Chinese culture. Ask a Chinese graduate student who acquired his or her undergraduate education in China to show you how Chinese scholars write academic papers, or invite that student to your class to talk to your students. Then, ask your students to write a short paper in English following an academic Chinese structure and organization.

Vary pedagogical methods, i.e., teach as is taught in other cultures and traditions. For example, resort to story-telling, organize circles, potlucks in – or ideally outside- the classroom to acknowledge aboriginal traditions. Or base part of your pedagogy on notions of Dharma, which emphasize personal introspection, self-awareness, self-realization, and self-improvement (Haigh, 2009).

Include texts in foreign languages that some of your students speak as alternative or supplementary to texts in English. Even if you do not read in a foreign language, as disciplinary expert, you are probably familiar with the text and the author, or you probably read an English translation. Most foreign language journals bring an abstract in English. So, it is not very difficult to know the content of an article in your discipline even if you do not speak that language. Invite the students that read those articles to comment them in class. Unilingual speakers will see the value of reading the discipline in other languages.

Invite guests from non mainstream traditions, such as an aboriginal elder, a visible minority professional, or a foreign religious leader. They can discuss topics related to your course, and your students can gain insight into their worldviews. For example, if you teach a course on Political Science, invite an aboriginal elder and ask him to discuss with your students the way decisions are made in his community. Then, students can compare and contrast it to the other decision-making processes discussed in the course.

Organize student presentations where students discuss a problem from their own tradition. A variation of this activity is to ask students to present a topic from a tradition that is different from their own. As a way of illustration, you can ask students from a non Hispanic origin, to give a presentation following digressing communicative styles predominant in Latin America.

Discuss disciplinary content that interests diverse groups of students. For example, recent immigrant students want to see issues related to immigration, assimilation, and heritage discussed in class. If you teach US literature you can include Chicano authors’ short stories dealing with problems faced by Latino immigrant families, such as stories by Francisco
Jimenez. If you teach Contracts, you can include the notion and formation of contracts found in legal traditions outside North America.

Mature students have very rich life experiences. Make room for them to share their experiences with the rest of the class. For instance, in a Cognitive Psychology course, ask your mature students to discuss how they raised their children and what conceptions of learning underline the education they gave to their children.

Assess whether students can generate, organize, and express thought in a multitude of diverse ways. Assessment is the component in the aligned teaching system that most greatly influences the approach students take to learning (Gibbs, 1999). So, if your assessment actually evaluates whether and how well students have mastered a wide array of knowledge modes, diverse academic skills, and non-traditional disciplinary perspectives, students will be likely to achieve your intended learning outcomes (Biggs, 2003).

Design assessment tasks that are representative of different cultures and traditions. Do not restrict your assessment tasks to exams, multiple choice tests, research papers, and group presentations. Adopt assessment tools used in other cultures, such as informal dialogues, holistic evaluation of student performance throughout the course, or self-evaluation. Another alternative is to ask your students to gather evidence that is customary in their traditions to show how well they have achieved the intended learning outcomes. For example, students from South America can organize a dialogue between different teachers—not just the one that teaches the course—and students as is done in some universities in Argentina, Uruguay, and Chile.

Conclusions

The demographic of today’s classroom has changed drastically in the last two to three decades. Today, non-traditional students have significantly gained access to higher education in North America. This increase in participation has not translated into student graduation and success. Teachers perceive non-traditional students as academically underprepared. In fact, students’ preparation reflects their own cultures, traditions, and beliefs. Non-traditional students have been prepared to see the world and express thought in ways that differ from those of North American mainstream teachers and students. The predominant approach to dealing with this perceived lack of preparation of non-traditional students has been to provide these students with remedial strategies so that they can acquire the academic skills and thought processes of North American mainstream scholars.

Inclusive teaching is an alternative approach. It acknowledges and incorporates diverse knowledge modes, thought processes, and expressive styles into the classroom. It prepares both mainstream and minority students
to succeed as interculturally knowledgeable citizens in today’s globalized world.

References


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A Study on Schema Activation, Summarizing, and Critical Evaluation as Predictors of Writing Proficiency

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Abstract

The study was done to determine whether the three post–reading techniques — summarizing, schema activation, and critical evaluation — are predictors of writing proficiency. A sample of 104 students taking English at De La Salle University were administered a pre-test initially to determine their writing proficiency. Then, they were subjected to the usual reading phases. The students were next given specific prompts that focus on the three targeted post–reading techniques. Three different assessment tools were employed to check the three essay prompts. Using multiple regression, results indicated that the three are predictors of writing proficiency. Of the three, the technique that has the highest strength of relationship to writing proficiency is the technique of schema activation. This finding has pedagogical implications.

Keywords: schema activation, critical evaluation, summarizing, writing proficiency

Introduction

Reading for the purpose of gaining optimum benefit from the reading material is a communicative process that involves three phases: the pre-reading, the while reading and the post–reading phases. In each of the reading phases, the reader has, at his/her disposal, techniques to facilitate fuller comprehension. In addition, within the phases, the reader chooses various techniques. For example, in the pre-reading phase, the reader may skim, scan, read the title of the text and relate it to the main point, or read the initial and the final paragraphs alone to be able to infer from these readings what the message of the text is. The second phase of reading, the while reading has the reader providing an educated guess as to the meanings of difficult words by using contextual clues or analyzing reference words. Finally, according to Yu-hui, Li-rong, and Yue (2010), the reader may verify predictions made at the beginning of the reading process as well as check some inaccurate guesses in the post–reading phase. The reader may also decide what points in the text are important and what may be irrelevant in establishing the author's thesis. For comprehension check, the reader is encouraged to even re-read the text. The current study will focus on the strategies in the post reading phase. These post reading strategies are schema activation, summarizing, and critical evaluation.

The reading techniques that were earlier enumerated are not entirely exclusive to one reading phase. For instance, schema activation, a technique usually associated with the pre–reading phase, also occurs in the while
reading and the post reading phases. The same observation is true for other techniques like skimming and scanning.

Currently, there is a growing interest in pushing forth the notion of reading as a skill useful in increasing the student’s writing proficiency. According to the reading–writing connection advocates, reading provides a perfect venue for potentially thought generating writing drills that the language teacher may construct to improve the students’ critical thinking skills (Shahan & Lomax, 1986).

Of the three phases in the reading process, it is the post–reading phase that demands the most from the learner particularly since he has to, after having read the text, display what he has learned from the selection by way of a written output. The post-reading phase, in short, determines the verity of the reading–writing connection.

According to Saricoban (2002), the post-reading phase will have the learner writing a summary of the reading passage. This phase will also require the learner a written evaluation of how the reading material is going to be useful as reference, for instance, for future readings. Finally, it is also important to note that the post-reading phase is a writing venue to showcase how well the learner is able to integrate what he already knows about the topic with the new information that he has learned from the text just read. Essentially, the written outputs that are produced from these writing tasks at the post-reading phase are summary, critical evaluation, and schema activation to name just a few.

Several literatures have identified specific areas of interest as regards the effectiveness of the reading strategies. Magno (2008) examined five variables to determine whether they significantly predict writing proficiency. Using multiple regression analysis, his study revealed that all five variables had high correlations with written proficiency. One of the variables he used, reading strategies, has been found to be the best predictor second to the metamemory strategy upon being subjected to semi partial correlations. In another area, Saricoban’s (2002) paper compares the reading strategies used by successful and less successful readers in all the three phases of reading. In this study, he raised two questions. The first one examines if there is difference in the reading strategies employed by the successful from the less successful readers. The second question determines whether there is significant correlation between the reading and the overall achievement scores of the participants. Data reveal that the there is indeed difference. Although there is not much significant difference in the strategies at the pre-reading phase since these strategies deal mainly with making speculations on the topic, the significant differences are observed both in the while reading and the post reading phases. Successful readers, for instance, use asserting, analyzing, and describing more than their less successful counterparts in the while reading phase. For the post-reading phase, successful readers use
evaluating and commenting more frequently compared to less successful readers. Another related study this time done by Ozek and Civelek (2006) focused on the use of cognitive reading strategies by 188 ELT students. Two methods were used to collect data. The first involved a questionnaire while the second used the Think-Aloud Protocol. Reading strategies were evaluated, much like in Saricoban’s study using the three reading phases. Analysis revealed that the pre-reading phase has the students using the relationship between the title and the text content strategy predominantly over other pre-reading techniques. For the while reading phase, those that were most effective are context clues, skipping unknown words, thinking aloud during reading as well as integrating prior with new knowledge derived from the text. No post-reading strategy was found to be used by the participants. Literatures may have dealt with the subject matter of reading strategies, including the examination of particular strategies in the three reading phases. However, there is scant study, if there is ever one at all, that looks into the different techniques within the reading phase. Also, since there is not enough literatures on the post-reading strategies, the purpose of this paper addresses that gap. The study aims to determine whether the three techniques of the post–reading phase–schema activation, summarizing, and critical evaluation–predict writing proficiency.

The study uses the Top-Down Model proposed by Goodman in 1970. This view is a reaction against the Bottom-Up Model which views understanding of the text to be based on morphemes, phonemes and other grammatical text features. In the Top-Down Model, the reader begins with meaning and sampling of information sources in the text. From there, s/he begins to make connections with his/ her own experiences to construct the meaning of the text. This Model holds that reading is not purely extracting meanings from the text. Rather, reading is a process of connecting the information in the text with the ones the reader brings into the act of reading. For instance, Ausebel (1968) initiated the concept that came to be known as advance organizers. Advanced organizers are pre-reading activities that aid student to connect his/her own pre-existing knowledge to the new information s/he will learn once s/he reads a text. Thus, the reader is able to bring his own intelligence to understand the text.

The Top–Down Model that served as the underlying theory behind the present study is observed to be associated with the schema theory, which, in turn, is the basis of the post–reading technique termed as the schema activation. The notion behind the schema theory was attributed to Barlette in 1932. This idea posits that people’s understanding and recall of events is shaped by their expectations or prior knowledge, and that these expectations are mentally presented in their schema frame. When applied into the reading act, the reader works his/ her way into a deeper, fuller understanding of the text by accessing prior knowledge. Because of this mode of making
sense of the text, the concept of coherence is observed to be attached not in language but in people (Yule, 1985).

Summarizing is a multidimensional writing skill (Garner, 1982) that combines in the writer various related skills involving organization, logic and accuracy. These features must be evident in the summary output, otherwise the summary text will come out as a poor copy of the original text. For instance, to achieve organization the summary writer needs to make the reader understand that his/her summary, although a much shorter version of the original, is complete in itself in the sense that it contains how the author of the text summarized, begins, establishes the main points, and ends the text. Also, logic is established in the summary if the summary writer is able to identify what the major and the supporting points are in the text. Accuracy is observed if that writer is able to restrain himself/herself from inserting his/her own comments or evaluation into the summary.

Critical evaluation is a post–reading technique that aims to engage the reader into thinking, then writing his/her thoughts in exploration of the arguments that the author of the text puts forth. Hulme (2004) claims that evaluation is substantial if the evaluator is able to determine the author's arguments in terms of whose interests are served by what is said, or what political, cultural, social, religious, pedagogical effects of the truths as claimed in the text are being promoted.

These three post–reading techniques–schema activation, summarizing, and critical evaluation–engage the learner to perform writing-directed skills not only aimed at achieving the desired written outputs but also tapping his/her own established knowledge so that he/she contributes to a fuller understanding of the text. The present study is thus initiated to examine the three post–reading strategies–schema activation, summarizing, and critical evaluation–to determine if the three are predictors of writing proficiency among learners.

Method

Participants

The study selected 104 Enlgcom (English One) students from four different classes at a private university in Manila in the first term of academic year 2010 – 2011. The first class was composed of 24 students from the College of Engineering. The second and the third classes had 25 and 27 students respectively from the College of Liberal Arts. The fourth class, from the College of Science, consisted of 28 students.

Instruments
The essay for the pre-test was checked using Holistic Rubric for Assessing Student Essay (Allen, 2004). The rubric assesses the students’ essays on a 1-4 scale. The criteria are sophistication (4), acceptability (3), developed competency (2), and inadequacy (1). The essay that addresses the schema activation used the 0-4 scale Rubric for Analytic Scoring of Writing (Alvarez, 1983). The rubric rates the essay of the participants as superior (4), proficient (3), essential (2), in progress (1), and no effort (0) based on four categories - purpose and audience, organization, development and, language. To assess the essay on critical evaluation, the study used the 1-4 scale of Holistic Critical Thinking Scoring Rubric designed by Facione (2009). The rubric rates the evaluation as strong (1), acceptable (3), unacceptable (2), and weak (1). For the essay on summarizing, assessment was done using the 1–4 level in Summarizing Rubric for Non–Fiction. The essay of the participants is assessed using three categories – knowledge and understanding, thinking and communication.

**Procedure and Data Analysis**

Before the actual study, the participants were subjected to a pre – test to determine their essay writing skills. At the start of the study, all 104 participants were given a text to read. They then underwent the usual pre-reading and while reading phases. For the post – reading phase, they were asked to answer three essay prompts, each one addressing the three different writing skills that the study intended to examine. Scores were encoded in the STATISTICA 7 spreadsheet. Descriptive Statistics was obtained to get the means and the standard deviations of the predictor variables. Also, Pearson correlation among the three variables was obtained to determine which variable significantly correlated with writing proficiency. The study was analyzed using multiple linear regression. Multiple Linear Regression is a statistical model that determines the relationship between several independent or predictor variables and a dependent or criterion variable. In this particular study, the predictor variables are schema activation, summarizing, and critical evaluation. Writing proficiency is the criterion variable.

**Results**

The means, standard deviations, and relationship among schema activation, summarizing, critical evaluation, and writing proficiency were determined. The multiple regression was done where writing proficiency was predicted among other variables as the predictors.
Table 1
Mean and SD Scores for Summarizing, Schema Activation, Critical Evaluation and Writing Proficiency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical evaluation</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schema activation</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. The mean score here reflects the average scores of summarizing, schema activation, critical evaluation and writing proficiency using the assigned scales.

Table 2
Correlation among Writing Proficiency, Summarizing, Critical Evaluation, and Schema Activation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Writing proficiency</th>
<th>Schema activation</th>
<th>Critical evaluation</th>
<th>Summarizing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing proficiency</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schema activation</td>
<td>.47*</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical evaluation</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.35*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.35*</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 2 shows the variables that are significantly correlated with writing proficiency. The technique of schema activation has the most marked correlation with writing proficiency when compared to summarizing, and critical evaluation. This supports the notion that schema theory suggests reading – writing connection (Xiao, 2008). Summarizing poses a low strength of relationship with writing proficiency. This is indicated by a .06 value. On the other hand, the strength of relationship between critical evaluation and writing proficiency is 0.0 indicating an absence of relationship. Among the predictor variables, summarizing and critical evaluation are correlated with a strength of .35 indicating a low relationship.
Table 3

Multiple Regression Table for predicting writing proficiency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Schema activation</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.48*</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical evaluation</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>-0.35</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $R=.47, R^2=.22$, Adjusted $R^2=.20$, $F(3,100)=9.9, p<.001$, SE =0.55
** $p<.01$

Table 3 displays analysis done by multiple regression using as regressors schema activation, summarizing, and critical evaluation. The regression was rather a poor fit ($R^2$ Adjusted=20%) but the overall regression was significant, $F(3,100)=9.9, p<.001$. With all other variables held constant, writing proficiency was positively related to schema activation and summarizing and negatively related to critical evaluation, increasing by 0.47 for every extra effort of schema activation, and by .05 for every extra effort of summarizing while decreasing by .03 for every extra effort of critical evaluation. The effect of schema activation was significant, $t(104)=5.39, p<0.05$ to writing proficiency. The regression analysis indicates that among the three post – reading strategies, it is only schema activation that proves to have the strongest bearing as predictor of writing proficiency. In short, frequent activation of schema appears to be linked with writing proficiency. However, as also reported in the regression model, the beta coefficient values for both summarizing and critical evaluation show a negligible and negative values respectively indicating an unremarkable relationship for summarizing and an inverse relationship for critical evaluation. This means that although the two are post – reading strategies, they do not as significantly predict the writing proficiency of the participants in the study the way schema activation does.

Discussion

The study was conducted to determine if the three post – reading strategies – schema activation, summarizing, and critical evaluation predict writing proficiency. Also, the study sought to determine the strength of each post – reading strategy as predictors of writing proficiency. The findings showed that schema activation made a substantial correlation with writing proficiency. The other two post – reading strategies showed a negligible correlation. According to Tomasek (2009), critical evaluation requires the reader to perform not only a summary of the text read but also an assessment of the reading material. In addition, an assessment skill asks the writer to read other related texts so that he or she can present a reasonable basis for his / her assessment. In short, this reading strategy may be considered as a more advanced level of writing output, greater than what is required when
students are simply called upon to activate their schema or to summarize a text. As far as writing about the students' personal experience in relation to the main idea of the text through a schema activation writing prompt and reporting the scope of the text read by way of a summary are concerned, there may not be a problem as regards the desired written outputs since the students will simply draw from what is immediately accessible – their own experiences and the text – to them. According to Becker (2006), the more frequent the activation of schema mechanisms, the better the writing output becomes. This is due to the fact that writers who are equipped with greater schema frames tend to produce almost automatically faculties that will make them more attuned to the needs of the writing prompt as well as provide for them sufficient resource to appropriate from their working memory details that are necessary to make their written texts more meaningful and content-loaded. Included in their schema frames are the interaction of their own personal experience with previous relevant reading material as well as access to appropriate to grammatical features. This interaction will thus facilitate better writing output.

In the case of the summary requirement, the student recalls the main point of the text and objectively reports it, keeping in mind how the author of the text begins, continues, and ends it. However, the writing of the critical evaluation expects the reader-writers to go beyond the text since as Hulme (2004) maintains, a substantial evaluation calls for arguments to be established and extensively discussed. Additionally, discussion of the arguments needs to be based on research. This may account for a negligible correlation between critical evaluation and writing proficiency.

The nature of workload required to come up with a writing output such as schema activation involves automatic access to appropriate schema frames and may best be suitable for students in the tertiary level who are just beginning to grapple with writing demands their college life as freshmen at the beginning term of an academic year. This, being the case, more writing drills that require these students to use their schema as a form of text substantiation is beneficial especially as far as enriching their reading-writing experience. However, writing drills that merely call for schema activation may be too limiting in terms of enriching writing proficiency. Thus, the students, who are beginning their term, need to go beyond by writing outputs that will enhance their ability to structure ideas in the text read or to assess the main point of the author. This movement, from schema activated writing prompts to prompts that require assessment of the text or its summary, however, must be done gradually and with proper supervision from the writing teacher so that the students can gain proficiency in the required written outputs. This gradual transition is also preparation for the students who will undergo the next stage of English writing through Englres (Basic Research), an ESP course that teaches the students the rudiments of
academic research writing through a research paper submitted at the end of the term.

References

Predicting Grades in Mathematics and English through Study Habits

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Abstract
The present study investigated study habits (delay avoidance, work methods, teacher approval, and education acceptance) as predictors of grades in mathematics and English in a path model. There were several assumptions in past reviews accounting on how study habits directly explain grades in the presence of other factors but the present study isolated the effect of four study habits. There were 259 Filipino high school students who were requested to answer the Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes (SSHA) and their grades in mathematics and English for the first quarter were also asked. The four factors of study habits were first tested using a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and the four-factor structure was proven having adequate fit ($\chi^2=47432.81$, df=8745, RMS Standardized Residual=.01, RMSEA=.01, NFI=.94, GFI=.95, PGFI=.97). Path analysis was used to test the prediction of the four study habits to grade in mathematics and English and the model also had an adequate fit ($\chi^2=366.48$, IFI=.98, NFI=.98, CFI=.98, and RMSEA=.09). The path analysis revealed that work methods significantly predicted both grades in mathematics and science. Work method was the only predictor for mathematics and only teacher approval did not significantly predict grades in English. Further implications of the findings are discussed.

Keywords: Study habits, delay avoidance, work methods, teacher approval, and education acceptance, grades, mathematics, English.

Introduction

It is a common notion that when students in the school setting study hard their grades would improve. Asian learners are expected by their parents to develop good study habits for the sake of learning as reflected in having favourable grades in school (Magno, 2010). Even poor students who have developed good study habits can perform well in school (On & Watkins, 1994). Study habits are “those activities necessary to organize and complete schoolwork tasks and to prepare for and take tests” (Robbins et al., 2002). It is recognized in the present study that the study behavior adopted by students ultimately brings about the desired performance such as grades in school.

Brown and Holtzman in 1969 developed the Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes (SSHA) that was used to assess the students’ attitudes and habits in studying. Despite being one of the oldest measures of study habits, it is the widest used instrument. The SSH measures specific study habit factors that includes delay/avoidance (related to delayed study habits and procrastination), work methods (student planning and work habits), teacher approval (students’ perceptions of teachers), and educational acceptance (students' general perceptions of their acceptance of academic tasks and educational endeavors). The following definitions of the factors were taken from Hurlburt, Kroeker, and Gade (1991):
1. Delay Avoidance - a measure of the degree to which a student is prompt in completing assignments and is efficient in time management
2. Work Methods - a measure of effective use of study skills.
3. Teacher Approval - a measure of student opinions about teacher classroom behavior and methods.
4. Educational Acceptance - a measure of student approval of educational objectives, practices, and requirements.

Several validity and investigation of the SSHA was conducted. Bray, Maxwell, and Schmeck (1980) found marginal coefficient alpha and the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) did not support the four factors. However, there were several promising results for the SSHA. Holtzman and Brown (1968) reported the validity coefficients consisting of correlations between the total SSHA score, study orientation, and GPA ranged from .32-.66. Correlations between the scholastic aptitude test scores and grades were higher, ranging from .19-.83. Goldfried and D’Zurilla (1973) was the further established that prediction-criterion validity of the SSHA and indicated that when it was used to predict grades, the highest validity coefficients were obtained. Wakefield, Alston, Yom, and Doughtie (1974) correlated the SSHA and Vocational Preference Inventory and they found that certain dimensions run from academic to non-academic orientations establishing its concurrent validity. Hurlburt, Kroeker, and Gade (1991) were able to establish the discriminant validity of the SSHA factors across gender and year levels (junior vs. senior high school). There is a need to further establish the factor structure of the SSHA and internal consistencies considering that there is a lack of follow-up studies on the measure in the last three decades.

There are several studies that points to the significant contribution of study habits on students’ grades. Robbins et al. (2004) reported in a metanalysis that there are over 109 studies investigating the effect of study habits on students’ school-related outcome and the most common index is the students’ grade. The students’ grade reported in most studies is the Grade Point Average (GPA) when using a college sample. In their study, the relationship of study habits is positively related to grades but not as strong as its relationship with the SAT scores. In another study by Robbins et al., (2006), they constructed the Student Readiness Inventory (SRI) which also measure some pattern of study habit behaviors (i.e., academic discipline, emotional control, study skills). In their results, the study behavior patterns such as academic discipline, commitment to college, academic self-confidence, and general determination had the strongest relationships with the academic performance outcomes. The SRI factors had the largest contribution to grades (30.1%) as compared to other factors (SES and race ethnicity). Other studies have also emphasized the importance of study habits contribution to student grades. Murray and Wren (2003) concluded that traditional academic skills like study habits (using SSH) accounted for a significant amount of variable in explaining students’ grades. Aluja and Blanch (2004) in their model found that study habits had a direct link on students’ grades. When study habits were
added as a predictor of academic achievement (GPA) in their study, the explained variable ($R^2$) increased with .4 points as compared when other predictors were added. The same results were found by Nonis and Hudson (2006) that when study behaviour was added in the regression predicting grades, there was a significant increment in the explained variance ($R^2$). A similar pattern was found by Svanum and Bigatti (2006) that when study behaviour such as study effort was entered as a predictor of grades, it accounted for the largest contribution to grades (37% of grade variation) as compared to the contribution of outside activities (21%).

The Preset Study

Most studies in predicting students’ grades do not account for the specific contribution of study habits. The focus of previous studies is explaining the contribution of study habits to grades with other psychosocial and general ability factors. The present study will look at the different effects of specific study habits on grades using the four factors of the SSHA: delay/avoidance, work methods, teacher approval, and educational acceptance. The SSHA was used to measure study habits because its results are more robust on grades as compared to other measures (see Murray & Wren, 2003).

Previous studies have looked at global and domain-general indicators of grades as an outcome. Much interest when specific subject grade are used such as domain-specific for Mathematics and English. Weissberg and Owen (2005) pointed that study skill factors in predicting school outcome may not be generalizable across heterogenous groups and institutional type. One possible source that might make a difference in the pattern of prediction is when grades are made specific to a particular subject area. Somuncouglu and Yildrim (1999) explained that study strategies have an important effect if it is based on a specific context or subject. The generalizability of study habits predicting grades might show a different pattern for domain-specific areas such as in Mathematics and English. In the present study, the four factors of study habits will be used to predict Mathematics and English grades of Filipino high school student in a path model.

Method

Participants

The participants in the study were 374 first year high school Filipino students. The ages of the students rage from 11 to 15 years. There were 115 public school students and 259 from the private schools. The schools that were selected all used the same grading system and curricular focus.
**Instruments**

The Survey of Stud Habits and Attitudes was used to measure the study habits of the participants (Brown & Hultzman, 1956, 1957). The instrument measure specific factors on delay avoidance (When I sit down to study, I find myself too tired, bored, or sleepy to study effectively), work methods (When reading a long textbook assignment, I stop periodically and mentally review the main points that have been presented), teacher approval (My teachers succeed in making their subjects interesting and meaningful to me), and education acceptance (I strive to develop a sincere interest in every course I take). There is a total of 100 items with 25 items for each factor. Murray and Wren (2003) reported that coefficient alphas for each subscale were For the current sample, internal consistency reliabilities on the four SSHA subscales were adequate (Delay/Avoidance=.92; Work Methods=.88; Teacher Approval=.87; and Education Acceptance=.84). Criterion-prediction validity with grades as criterion was established from previous studies (i.e., Holtzman & Brown, 1968; Goldfried & D’Zurilla, 1973). The factor structure of the four factors was further tested in the present study.

The students grades in Mathematics and English for the fourth grading period was used. All schools selected have components on quizzes, quarterly test, recitation, assignment, and projects in the computation of the grades. The grades were used to reflect the academic outcome of students study habits. The grades range from 65 to 100. Passing grade is 75 and above.

**Procedure**

The school administrators from both the public and private schools were requested to allot one and a half hour of classroom time for the first year students. This time was used to administer and answer the SSHA. Standard procedures in administering the instrument was followed as indicated in the test manual. The instructions were read to the students and they were reminded that there are no right or wrong answers and to answer all items. The students’ grades were requested from the mathematics and English teachers. The students were debriefed about the purpose of the study when they have completed the SSHA.

**Results**

The first part of the results presented the descriptive statistics of the SSHA factors and the grades. The second part confirmed the four factor structure of the SSHA using CFA. The last part tested a path model where the factors of the SSHA were used to predict grades in Mathematics and English.
Table 1
Means, Standard Deviation, Confidence Intervals, and Cronbach’s Alpha of the SSHA and Grades

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Delay Avoidance</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>26.24</td>
<td>25.42</td>
<td>27.05</td>
<td>8.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Method</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>25.24</td>
<td>24.53</td>
<td>25.95</td>
<td>6.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Approval</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>25.23</td>
<td>24.51</td>
<td>25.95</td>
<td>7.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Acceptance</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>27.23</td>
<td>26.53</td>
<td>27.93</td>
<td>6.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>78.66</td>
<td>78.16</td>
<td>79.16</td>
<td>4.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>79.34</td>
<td>78.88</td>
<td>79.81</td>
<td>4.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Confidence interval estimates for the factors of the SSHA were in close range which means that accurate results were obtained. Mean grades for mathematics and English were not very high considering that the lowest passing grade is 75. Large variation of scores was obtained as indicated by the standard deviations. The items of the SSHA were all internally consistent especially the factor on education acceptance.

Table 2
Intercorrelations of the Four Factors of the SSHA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Math</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Delay Avoidance</th>
<th>Work Method</th>
<th>Teacher Approval</th>
<th>Education Acceptance</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Math</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.73***</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.17***</td>
<td>.11***</td>
<td>.14***</td>
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<td>English</td>
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<td>---</td>
<td>.23***</td>
<td>.12***</td>
<td>.21***</td>
<td>.61***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delay Avoidance</td>
<td>.17***</td>
<td>.23***</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.50***</td>
<td>.61***</td>
<td>.66***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Method</td>
<td>.11***</td>
<td>.12***</td>
<td>.50***</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.71***</td>
<td>.71***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Approval</td>
<td>.14***</td>
<td>.21***</td>
<td>.61***</td>
<td>.66***</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.71***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Acceptance</td>
<td>.11***</td>
<td>.21***</td>
<td>.61***</td>
<td>.66***</td>
<td>.71***</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

When the factors of the SSHA were intercorrelated, all coefficients were significant with a positive magnitude. This indicates attainment of convergence among the four factors. The factor on work method had large correlations with other factors of the SSHA. All factors of the SSHA were significantly related to the grades in mathematics and English except for delay avoidance.

The four factors of the SSHA were tested using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The CDA allows to test the proposition that the SSHA is said to be composed of the four factors. The parameters in measurement model (factor pattern, factor correlation, uniqueness) were estimated by maximum likelihood (ML). The ML is asymptotically unbiased and converge more quickly to their population values than most other estimators if the hypothesized model is true. The goodness of fit of the factor solution to the sample is also assessed.

The results showed that the four factor structure of the SSA was confirmed. First, all parameter estimates of each 25 items under their latent factor was significant as well as the covariances among the four
latent factors, $p<.01$. Adequate goodness of fit was also attained, $\chi^2=47432.81$, df=8745, RMS Standardized Residual=.01, RMSEA=.01, NFI=.94, GFI=.95, PGI=.97. There was no need to compare the four factor solution to a reduced factor solutions because the items already attained acceptable fit.

Path analysis was conducted where each SSHA factor was used to predict mathematics and English grades. The path analysis provides estimates of the magnitude and significance of hypothesised causal connections between sets of directly measured variables. The relative sizes of path coefficients in the analysis indicate which effect is better supported by the data.

**Figure 1**

*Path Model of SSHA Predicting Grades in Mathematics and English*

The results of the path model using unstandardized estimates indicate that work method is a common predictor for mathematics and English grades. The contribution of work method is the strongest than other study habits factor on mathematics (.14, $p<.05$) and English (.19, $p<.01$) grades. Work method is the only significant predictor for mathematics grade. For the English grades, delay avoidance, work method, and education acceptance were significant while teacher approval did not turn to be significant. Intercorrelations were significant among the factors of study habits, $p<.001$. The path model also attained an adequate fit as indicated by $\chi^2=366.48$, IFI=.98, NFI=.98, CFI=.98, and RMSEA=.09. The goodness if fit indicates that the path solution fits the data supporting the prediction of each grade.
Discussion

The study used the factors of the SSHA delay avoidance, work method, teacher approval, and education acceptance as predictors for grades in mathematics and English. It was also found in the study that the SSHA is still a useful instrument considering the adequate internal consistencies obtained and the factor structure was further proven. Moreover, convergence of the factors and the items all had significant paths.

The SSHA was supported in the study to be an adequate measure of study habits considering its index of reliability and validity found. The confidence interval at 95% are at close range which indicates that the mean score estimates (true score) are somewhat accurate. The items for each factor also showed to have acceptable internal consistencies (as shown by the Cronbach’s alpha). The Cronbach’s alpha value ranges from .78 to .90 indicating that the participants are consistent in their responses to the items under the same factor. Validity of the SSHA was shown in three ways, first is the convergence of the intercorrelation among the four factors of the SSHA which was also consistent with the covariances of latent factors in the CFA. Then, the items for each latent factor were significant indicating that they are still relevant measures of the construct. The four factor structure was proven by having an adequate fit. Previous studies have shown that major studies about the fidelity of the SSHA as a measurement tool were reduced starting in the 1980’s. The present study reestablished the factorial validity of the tool designating that it is still appropriate to use as opposed to the findings of Bray, Maxwell, and Schmeck (1980). The findings by Bray, Maxwell, and Schmeck (1980) used a young sample which made the findings unstable. The usefulness of a tool is shown when the appropriate sample to whom it is intended for should be used to assess the accuracy of results (Magno, 2009a). The instrument is still recommended for use in the educational and research settings in order to assess more its validity and reliability. This will provide further support in the stability of findings in the present study. These findings support the usefulness of the SSHA as an instrument and can be used as a good measure for study habits. These preliminary procedures also justify the use of the four factors as predictors of the grades in mathematics and English in the path analysis.

The results in the path analysis showed that work method is a common significant predictor for both mathematics and English grades. Work method also had the largest regression coefficient that increases grades in mathematics and English as compared with the other three factors. It also showed to have a potent effect on both mathematics and English grades. Work method is focused on the strategic aspect of studying such a planning and specific work habits that is more cognitive in nature. The items of the work method seem to have both cognitive, metacognitive, and self-regulation content enabling the learner to exercise control over the information processed (see Magno, 2009b). This recognized the idea that cognitive strategies as reflected in work methods
are useful in improving students’ grade when adapted well. Among other study habits, work methods is reflects the procedural aspect of studying that caters to more specific ways that student uses in processing information. This study habit seems to be very useful when studying for tests and other situations that require the mastery of specific materials. Work method being the strongest predictor among other study habits indicate the Filipino high school students in the specific setting included in the study make relies on their cognitive, metacognitive, and strategic thinking that applies best to learn and prepares them.

Given these findings two implications can be generated in the use of work methods: (1) Potential method that students find to be effective and (2) Further decomposition based on cognitive, metacognitive, and learning strategies.

Filipino students find work methods to be functional because of the specific cognitive, metacognitive, and dispositional strategies it provides them and perceived to work well in when studying. Specific work habits are found to be effective for learners because it targets the specific needs to students to be successful in different learning situations. The work methods are direct complements of the needs of students in learning. The work methods provide ways that makes the learner successful on school-related tasks.

Another implication is the further decomposition of work methods. Work methods reflect certain cognitive, metacognitive, and dispositional learning strategies that students use which they find as effective. This is inspired by contemporary studies like metacognition (i.e., Efklides, 2008; Veenman & Elshout, 1999) and self-regulation (Zimmerman, 2000) where specific methods for study strategies are decomposed. Work methods can be conceived as general ways of studying but the items show to have specific dimensions for studying that may include planning, monitoring, reviewing, memorizing, rehearsal, and others. What made work methods as a potent predictor in the study is the weight of all concepts integrated in it. It contains several methods, techniques, approaches, and strategies for learning that covered possible ways that the Filipino learner finds effective. Future studies may explore the components of work methods.

The study also found that work method was the sole significant predictor for mathematics and while other strategies significantly predict English grades except for teacher approval. This result further emphasizes the effectiveness of work methods as a predictor of grades and specially its usefulness in mathematics. There is a match between the content of work method items and the way Filipino learners process mathematics activities. This result further supports previous studies that specific work methods and learning strategies work well in processing mathematics (see Magno, 2009A; Ong, Liao, & Alimon, 2009).

The results also point the difficulty in using other study habits in explaining mathematics grade. Teacher approval, delay avoidance, and education acceptance do not seem to work well for mathematics but they do for increasing English grades except for teacher approval. Teacher approval did not predict both mathematics and English grades. One
implication is that mathematics may be perceived to be highly cognitive and participants may think that it is based on their effectiveness to perform well in mathematics and not on any other factors. But for English, it accounts for other factors like the value they see in English (education acceptance) and if they delay their work. This shows that students see mathematics as work driven while English, aside from work, needs acceptance on educational practices and being prompt in the submission of requirements. This also accounts for the differences in the requirements of the two subject areas that resulted to different pattern of predictors. Mathematics is cognitive based that strongly required work methods but in English several requirements needs to be considered because of the variety of task demands. For English courses, the Filipino learner struggles in learning the second language at the same time learns the content, syntax, rules, and applying the language to specific context which required more study habits.

Several learning components have been provided by reviews that could possibly increase students’ achievement but complications have risen, for example motivation variables were found not to be directly linked with grades. Considering that there is a strong foundation support that study strategies are directly linked with grades regardless whether students are poor or not, adapting study habits was still proven as a potent predictor. This area was made more specific because it was found that not all study habits would predict domain grades when made domain-specific or subject specific. However, a common predictor would be work methods. This shows the applicability and usefulness of adapting work methods by Filipino learners for both mathematics and English learning.

References


An In-depth Analysis of the Entrepreneurship Education in the Philippines: An Initiative Towards the Development of a Framework for a Professional Teaching Competency Program for Entrepreneurship Educators

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Abstract
This research paper is a descriptive study, which aims to identify the training needs of entrepreneurship educators and practices in entrepreneurship education in the Philippines. Focus Group Discussion (FGD) and one-on-one interviews are conducted using structured and unstructured interview guides, which revealed the respondents’ answers, thought patterns, expressions and insights on an array of questions pertaining to entrepreneurship education in the Philippines. The result shows that students assign the highest importance to the personal qualities of entrepreneurship educators (e.g. human and motivating, etc.) and teaching methodology and delivery (e.g. innovative and interactive) among other qualities (e.g. educational attainment). Entrepreneurship educators ascribe most importance on personalized, experience and project-based learning. However, they assert that this teaching practice should be complemented by a manageable class size, program support facilities and teaching skills enhancement (e.g., mentoring, etc.) among others. The school administrators play an important role in setting the direction and progression of the entrepreneurship program in their respective institutions against the background of numerous challenges in managing resources to support its needs. This study highlights that entrepreneurship education in tertiary level is best achieved through a well-designed curriculum, effective teaching model grounded on personalized and experience-based learning, and strong institutional support.

Keywords: teaching and learning needs, entrepreneurship education, and tertiary level.

Introduction

Entrepreneurship education is a recent trend in new course development as against the traditional courses that have gained formal recognition in higher-level institutions. Entrepreneurship courses are now finding their way into formal education as subjects or full degree courses in the tertiary level. Unlike traditional business courses, which have developed and evolved over many decades in universities all over the world in conjunction with active practicing business operations, formal entrepreneurship teaching in the tertiary level is a relatively young course.

Professional development of entrepreneurship educators, however, is not as institutionalized as the development of teachers for traditional business courses. MBAs and PhDs in general business and in management fill the faculty rooms of colleges and universities, but educators who hold masters and doctorate degrees in entrepreneurship are rare. Even teaching information and resources are not well known or are not available in many schools, making it difficult for budding entrepreneurs to find the sources they need.

Entrepreneurship education is, by nature, highly experiential and interactive. Course requirements are mostly output and result oriented,
prototype development, hands-on training and other practical applications that require mentoring and close monitoring of students’ progress at each developmental stage.

Teaching college teens to become entrepreneurs takes a different set of skills, insights or sensitivity and teaching approaches to connect, motivate and engage them to. The uniqueness of the student needs and the course requirements entails specific teaching skills to match both. One of the perceived tools to address and match these needs is to first conduct an assessment of the qualities, competencies, methods and techniques and other factors that are important to students, educators, and school administrators.

There are new challenges of the learning dynamics of emerging youth in the 21st century. Among them are the uses and matching of modern communication technologies with appropriate teaching methodologies, which the new generation is well adapted to but a good number of educators are not. These are only a few examples of the specialized skills and knowledge that are needed to upgrade entrepreneurship training in the tertiary level. Likewise, course management and its administration are also faced more than ever, with challenges and limitations that behoove everyone to deal creatively with.

The study is grounded on the premise that if the educational system is to breed entrepreneurs as the future economic movers, it is but appropriate that the learning source, or the educators should be well equipped and sensitive to their needs and learning dynamics who are “no-longer-children but not-yet adults.”

In the Philippines, the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) has pushed the formal integration of entrepreneurship education pursuant to Republic Act No. 7722 as embodied in Memorandum Order No. 17 (CMO # 17) Series of 2005 – Curriculum Requirement for Bachelor of Science in Entrepreneurship (BS Entrepreneurship). This document contains the new academic and developmental thrusts of the Entrepreneurship Programs and Courses in the Tertiary Level. It is also important to note that based on the CHED directory in the National Capital Region, there has been an increase in colleges and universities offering business and entrepreneurship courses. Some have indicated the integration of entrepreneurship in their schools, as a full course leading to a degree, a track, or as a major subject.

There are already concerted efforts in the government and the private sector to advance entrepreneurship education as a long-term solution to economic advancement. It follows then that the future offering of the course on entrepreneurship will increase, and programs will take on a newer form as it evolves and develops over time.

One of the concrete efforts to meet these new challenges is the formation of Entrepreneurship Educators of the Philippines (ENEDA). The main thrust of the organization is to assist all its members in accessing or actually developing for their immediate use all the relevant knowledge and skills needed in teaching college students to become
effective, efficient, morally and spiritually upright, and socially responsible entrepreneurs.

In ENEDA’s attempt to bring the organization to a national scale, ENEDA NCR was established. The First Roundtable Discussion of ENEDA NCR was participated by school administrators and educators discussed and presented concerns to better the educational program and its delivery to the students. One of the compelling needs that surfaced was the development of “a strong pool of professional and competent entrepreneurship educators in the tertiary level,” thus, the call for pioneering efforts to attain such through a continuing professional development program. One of the concrete action plans presented was a training program concept proposal titled “Professional Teaching Competency Program for Entrepreneurship Educators in the Tertiary Level.” The purpose of this study is to develop a framework that will serve as the foundation of this training program.

This research study employs qualitative tools of analysis to identify the training needs of the entrepreneurship educators and the practices in entrepreneurship education. Focus Group Discussion (FGD) engaged the research participants in a face-to-face discussion with the researcher. The discussions were more personal, unhurried, more in-depth, and consisted of mind mining questioning and drawing out the participants’ feelings about the topic or question at hand. This method of inquiry effectively revealed the respondents’ answers, thought patterns, expressions and insights on an array of questions pertaining to entrepreneurship education in the Philippines.

The result shows that students assign the highest importance to the personal qualities of entrepreneurship educators (e.g. human and motivating, etc.) and teaching methodology and delivery (e.g. innovative and interactive) among other qualities (e.g. educational attainment). Entrepreneurship educators ascribe most importance on personalized, experience and project-based learning. However, they assert that this teaching practice should be complemented by a manageable class size, program support facilities and teaching skills enhancement (e.g. mentoring, etc.) among others. The school administrators play an important role in setting the direction and progression of the entrepreneurship program in their respective institutions against the background of numerous challenges in managing resources to support its needs. This study highlights that entrepreneurship education in tertiary level is best achieved through a well-designed curriculum, effective teaching model grounded on personalized and experience-based learning, and strong institutional support.

This section presents a general overview of the study. The succeeding section discusses the conceptual framework and presents the review of related literature. The third section expounds the methodologies used in the study. The fourth section presents the interpretation of the results. The last section concludes and offers recommendation.

ENEDA NCR and its members play a vital role in the research since the study is within the context and milieu where the study was
drawn. While the immediate beneficiaries will be the ENEDA member educators, the teaching competency program developed does not limit itself to them. In fact, it is open to all educators who wish to enhance their professional teaching and personal competencies. This study was initiated as a volunteer work by the author, the incumbent lead officer of ENEDA NCR from 2007 to 2009.

The study was in part received some granting for the conduct of the focus group discussions by Mind Mover and Microdata Systems. And for office supplies and materials from international publishing companies Philippines office: Cengage Learning, McGraw-Hill - Higher Education, Pearson-Education, and Wiley and Sons.

**Later Adolescence and Learning Dispositions**

The works of Erik Eriksson (1950, 1968) and Jean Piaget (1969), both respected development psychoanalysts, state that late adolescence (ages 18 to 21) is “an important period in life span, a transitional period, a time of change, a time when the individual searches for identity, a dreaded age, a time of unrealism and the threshold of adulthood” (Balk, 1995).

Newman and Newman (2006) teach that this is the age of “heightened sensitivity to conjure up alternative scenarios about their own future... including possible kinds of work and various meaningful relationships” (pp. 348 – 388). Meanwhile, Feldman (2003) discussed that “considerable cognitive advances are taking place in the adolescent stage which most often may lead them to question figures of authority far more strenuously” (pp. 395 – 401).

This argumentativeness or assertiveness among late adolescents and its extreme opposite of displaying a seemingly uncaring or unquestioning stance actually play an important role in the adolescent’s process of change. However, they also have this capacity to look up to an authority as a role model, to form moral constructs, and to affirm genuine ideals of truth, justice, and even spirituality. Therefore, coping with their extreme behavioral and social changes can be challenging for teachers and other figures of authority.

Feldman (2003) further stressed, “This is what makes adolescents interesting, as they actively seek to understand the learning, values, justifications and other moral concepts they encounter in their lives” (pp. 395 – 401).

**Self-concept, Maturation, Distinct Personality Imprints, a Defined Lifelong Career Choice**

The researcher thinks that this is the phase of the late adolescents’ human development where they are more serious in learning and forming their self-concept or identity. This is the time when they define a self-concept through their choice of career (Gatchalian, 1998), as they seek to develop their skills and capacities whether to acquire more knowledge or
enhance their innate abilities. This is also the reason why they go up to the next stage of human maturity and development, that is, to have an education and generally take charge of their life as they pursue a lifelong career (Gatchalian, 1998).

The impact of a college education (to be an entrepreneur, for example) and the learning experiences of the individual take another form depending on the confluence of factors and conditions that are present in the late adolescent’s or student’s life. In the same manner, the learning outcome would rest on the student’s cognitive ability to reflect and respond to challenges to construct conditions or situations that he or she will resolve. On the other hand, performances vary depending on the mix of factors surrounding the controllable or uncontrollable decisions of the student.

In addition, students differ in their learning responses. While they have their own distinct personality imprints, the choice of career path provides the educators some general information to guide them in managing the learning progression of the student towards attaining his or her goal. A case in point is the entrepreneurship course (Serrano, 2008). Those who opt or qualify to take the course as a career choice present more or less similar dispositions and characteristics.

**Teaching Models that Work**

Various research studies present a full understanding of the psychology of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship as a new discipline in schools. The Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology compiled these studies in their book *Psychology of Entrepreneurship* (2007), which promotes the scientific status of the field, and which, according to accounts, is representative of the best the field has to offer.

Three interesting areas are very useful in the development of this study and in setting the framework of the training program for the educators.

The first is developed by Katz (2007) in Chapter 4 of Education and Training in *Psychology of Entrepreneurship*. Katz argued that startup businesses are highly risky and the mortality rate is rather high, about 50% of startups die in four years (Headd, 2003) or five years (Birch, 1987). However, when entrepreneurs underwent some interventions through entrepreneurship training programs or entrepreneurship majors in academic programs, the mortality rate significantly went down. This strengthens the position of the researcher that indeed, entrepreneurship training and education are important to the survival of startup ventures.

Integral to this discussion by Katz (2007) is the inherent nature of entrepreneurship education that requires specific structure, methods of teaching, and new academic standards. Katz suggests that the formation of a business plan, as well as a support system like peer and professional counseling, and the presence of competent mentors and educators increase the likelihood of success among startup businesses.
Katz points out that it is possible to teach entrepreneurship not necessarily by entrepreneurs themselves but by "trainers or educators that have been taught how to teach a model that works!" (p. 211). Likewise, Busenitz and Arthurs (2003) provided an understanding of entrepreneurial competencies and the thinking process that makes entrepreneurs, but not others, recognize opportunities, decide to start new ventures, exploit these opportunities, and make them grow. Further, effective teaching models with appropriate teaching tools like workbooks for student self-paced learning is good combinations to facilitate teaching and learning efficiency (Diaz, 1993). All of these discussions helped the researcher prepare the program module frame that would facilitate the development of the educators’ mentorship and counseling skills as they try to connect with the students effectively.

Competent Educator: To Match the Learning Needs of the Adolescent

This is the challenge for the school. At this point, the entrepreneurship educator should have a heightened sensitivity to the learning needs of college students. Equally important is to match these needs with the skilled, capable, and competent educators who can manage their classes meaningfully.

Salamanca (2009) gives a clear definition of the role of the teacher in the business of education and explains why a continuing professional development is necessary in this profession. Competence, ideal qualities, and values are important to develop and acquire effective teaching techniques. She says that the teacher “deserves to be enthroned at the center stage of any educational endeavor” (pp. 37-71) because the teacher provides the much needed direction, guidance and energy throughout the teaching/learning educational episode (p. 49).

In addition, Henderson and Nash (2007), authors of Excellence in College Teaching and Learning drove their point clearly: “The quality of instruction that college students need is too important to be left to inadequately trained teachers, no matter how small or large their number” (Preface). The advice is that “all colleges and universities should have professional development staff or at least adequate resources to assist their teachers to become better in their profession.” Lopez (2008), expounded this well as he calls for educators and administrators to find creative ways and means to build resources for teaching competencies and skills to educators.

Personal and Professional Impact of Communicating and Connecting

Teaching is synonymous to communicating. Communication begins with self. One can only relay what one has. Communication is relational and participatory (Pearson, Nelson, Chatsworth and Harter, 2008). Becket (2002) mentions how John Locke advocates, “Learning was essentially a matter of forming connections or associations between things that come together in time” (pp. 89 -90). Becket says this is more than a nurture
theory, “as it sees learning as originating from external environment... as well as a series of generalizations about how a behavior is learnt” (pp. 89 – 90).

The research work of Curran and Rosen (2006) support this need for the teacher as they exclaim, “What influences student attitudes toward a course?” The first and obvious answer is the “Instructor!” (pp 135-148). Conan and Rosen further extrapolated the other significant factors in addition to the instructor that are at work at shaping a student’s attitude toward a course.

Again, Henderson and Nash (2007) strongly stress this idea: “A teacher's influence, positive or negative, transcends the courses taught. Although a teacher’s career lasts usually 20 to 30 years, his or her influence may last for the lifetime of students or, in rare instances, centuries” (p. vii).

The researcher stresses the powerful impact of the role of the instructor in the teaching process. Indeed, teaching can only create value if the teacher who is communicating and teaching is able to make a connection with the students. This connection further creates a personal and professional impact on the learner. It is the connection, or the positive behavioral response that that the teacher consciously creates that makes learning engaging and meaningful.

It is then essential for the educator to understand the specific dispositions and what is going on in this developmental stage, who the students are, their needs, what they got from the lessons, and a good enough time to connect with them on a personal but professional basis. Cabrera (2008) in her reaction paper during the First Regional Conference of ENEDA NCR in Miriam College said that there should in fact “some form of training for entrepreneurship educators to develop certain level of sensitivity and nurturing skills as part of their mentoring engagements in project-based learning.”

This way, the educator is able to discern the workings in the mind of the students and their outer disposition as well. This way, the educator may be able to and draw out the innate intelligence that oftentimes these students in entrepreneurship are not fully aware they have – yet.

Method

Participating Schools and Locale

The setting of the study is in Manila and Quezon City. Both are within the National Capital Region, Philippines. The study identified six schools where the incumbent officers are from the ten ENEDA NCR active school members from 2007 to 2009. ENEDA NCR represents the entrepreneurship educators where the majority of the schools and tertiary educator-members are coming from. This study was actively participated by Miriam College and St. Paul University in Quezon City, and in the university belt in Manila by San Beda College Manila, San Sebastian College, University of Santo Tomas, and the Far Eastern University. Of
the six, four of them, namely Miriam College, St. Paul University, San Beda College, and the University of Santo Tomas, offer entrepreneurship course as a bachelor’s degree. The other two, San Sebastian College and Far Eastern University, offer entrepreneurship as a track or as major subject under their business administration program.

The participants were divided into three categories for each participating school: the entrepreneurship or business students, the educators, and the school administrators. Of the total of eighteen educators who participated, six were administrators (either as dean of the college or as chair of the department), while twelve are entrepreneurship teachers (three are on part-time contractual term and the rest are tenured and full-time.)

The number of participants in the students’ focus group discussion ranges from nine to thirteen Junior and Senior tertiary level students who have taken at least three major business management or entrepreneurship subjects. They are a mix of achievers and average students in their batch. All of the students are presently engaged in business venture projects as part of the course application following the theoretical preparation either in business or feasibility planning. All participating students in the batch have one way or another participated in various business exhibitions and selling. A total of sixty-two students participated in this study.

**Instruments**

The study used focus group discussions and one-one-interviews with the aid of both discussion guides and questionnaire developed primarily for the study. These instruments were pre-tested to determine its effectiveness, efficiency, length of time, and responsiveness of the participants. As expected, refinement in the questionnaire design, questioning techniques as well as in the in the way to engage the respondents to participate in the discussion were taken into consideration. The parameters set in the discussion are as follows:

1. Personal qualities and professional competencies students, educator and school administrators find important in teaching and learning entrepreneurship in college.
2. Teaching program design, model, practices, methods and techniques students, educators, and school administrators consider important in teaching and learning entrepreneurship in college
3. Other factors students, educators, and school administrators consider important in teaching and learning entrepreneurship in college.

Furthermore, the study utilized videotaping, photo documentation, recording, written notes, semi-structured interviews following a format, and guide questions derived from the objectives set in the study. There were also succeeding follow-ups and revalidation of some responses done through cellular phone or electronic mail.
Procedure

In the focus group discussion (FGD), the researcher engaged the respondents in a face-to-face exchange. The discussions were more personal, unhurried, more in-depth, and consisted of mind mining and drawing out the respondents’ feelings about the topic or question at hand. The researcher used descriptive techniques to present the results of the study.

The researcher used both structured and unstructured interview guides for the one-on-one interviews with respondents. She followed a set of discussion guides for the FGD to ensure that she can draw out the answers, thought patterns, expressions, and insights from the subjects. Although the mind mining questioning technique can lead to new areas that the researcher may not intend to explore, the guide questions reminded her to return to the area of discussion.

The time spent in the actual and separate FGD engagements and interviews for each category of students, faculty members and administrators’ range from one hour and a half to two hours. There were also succeeding follow-ups, validation, and clarification through phone calls and email. Report presentation, discussions and analysis were presented using the descriptive method.

Analysis

The researcher was able to determine the qualities and attributes in entrepreneurship education that students, educators and school administrators find most important using visible indicators present during the FGD and one-on-one interviews such as how candid and animated their responses are to a topic and how articulate they are in presenting their views and experiences with regards to a specific quality or attribute.

Results

The following tables show the personal qualities, professional competencies, teaching methodologies, and other factors that students, educators and school administrators deem important to them, respectively. The results shall be interpreted to highlight the differences on how each group ascribe importance to each quality presented to them.

From the results in table 1, we can see that students identify personal qualities as the most important as these are the key qualities they require for their educators to be effective. This is consistent with the result that entrepreneurship students most prefer experience and project-based learning since this kind of learning requires a more personal approach and one-on-one instructions. It is important to note as well that during the FGD, students are most responsive and opinionated in discussing the personal qualities they seek from entrepreneurship educators. This is in sharp contrast when the topic of educational
attainment of their educators is discussed. For this specific quality, students deem it important, however, they feel that it is more of the concern of the school.

Table 2 shows that students and educators find business experience and networking more important than educational attainment, though school administrators find this highly important as an academic requirement to comply for hiring, selection, and ranking and promotion.

Table 3 reveals that all participants find this program design, teaching delivery methods and techniques important and that which defines a good and effective teaching model for entrepreneurship education.

Table 4 shows other matters of importance to all participants. They may be considered as supplementary activities to regular classroom works and enhancement programs that make the entrepreneurship education dynamic and holistic.

Table 1
**Important Qualities on Personal Competencies According to Students, Educators, and School Administrators**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal qualities of entrepreneurship educators</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Educators</th>
<th>School Administrations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human and motivating; integrity in character; respectful; well-mannered; polished; clean; balanced personality; passion for teaching; nurturing; inspiring; motivating; considerate; pleasant disposition; good communication skills</td>
<td>Most important for students for their learning process. These are the key qualities that they require of their teachers to be effective educators</td>
<td>Important but must maintain professional distance</td>
<td>Important for personal and professional integrity as a requirement for hiring and in creating good working environment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2
**Important Qualities on Professional Competencies According to Students, Educators, and School Administrators**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional competencies of entrepreneurship Educators</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Educators</th>
<th>School Administrations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of educational attainment</td>
<td>The students are impressed with educational achievements, however they feel that these are the concern of the school</td>
<td>Important to meet hiring requirement but does not necessarily translate into effective teaching</td>
<td>Important and necessary to meet academic requirements of the school and to comply with the regulatory and accrediting bodies (e.g. CHED, PAASCU)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience and actual ownership of business; or exposure to business</td>
<td>Students find this important as it enhances the credibility of educators</td>
<td>Important but not necessarily translate into effective teaching</td>
<td>Important but must be complemented with professional teaching qualities of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Organizational memberships; business affiliations, training and other professional development programmed

in teaching entrepreneurship
Students find this important as it provides them with connections and linkages to agencies, industry and market to help develop their venture projects

Important for professional growth, however, the school’s financial support for professional training and development is inadequate

Important for evaluating competency, eligibility for promotion; Important for human resource development; Important for establishing linkages and network

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3</th>
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**Important Teaching Program and Practices; Techniques and Methods According to Students, Educators and School Administrators**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Program</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Educators</th>
<th>School Administrators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Program design, and management: Well-designed syllabus; updated resources; modular; paced progression; with good evaluation tools; well-coordinated and integrated curriculum design:</td>
<td>The students feel that the subject design is the concern of the educator and the school. However, they feel that it is important that there is proper coordination with the other related courses</td>
<td>Important to meet the standards set by the school and CHED and to respond to the learning needs of the students and their mastery of the course.</td>
<td>Important to meet the requirements of the regulatory body (e.g. CHED) and the accreditation agency (e.g. PAASCU); Important to set the program direction and progression to attain its mission and goals;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching methods and model practices: Innovative and interactive; paced progression of lessons; periodic student evaluation of student output; simulation exercises and activities; creative thinking workshops; use of technology in teaching; one-on-one mentoring for project-based learning; emerging models out of experience and resources</td>
<td>Students find this important for participatory and experience-based learning</td>
<td>Educators find personalized, experience and project-based learning important however, they say that it is equally important to have a small class size for effective teaching and learning</td>
<td>Important to evaluate the performance of the educators, students and the effectiveness of the curriculum; offering holistic education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4

Other Important Factors Identified By Students, Educators, School Administration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other Important Factors</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Educators</th>
<th>School Administrations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training and simulation activities; competitions; team building; spiritual retreats; outreach programs; events; leadership seminars; student organization; exposure trips both local and international etc</td>
<td>Students find this important for character building; personality development; networking; social responsiveness</td>
<td>Important for personal, professional spiritual and social development</td>
<td>As a matter of policy: Important for students and educators' holistic development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laboratory facilities for venture product experimentation and prototyping</td>
<td>Important to provide support for innovative and interactive undertakings; encourage creative thinking</td>
<td>Important to stimulate awe which make teaching and learning more engaging, experiential, meaningful</td>
<td>Important to create an ideal teaching and learning environment: school competitiveness and sustainability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

On the Importance of Personal Qualities and Professional Competencies

The focus group discussion spent much time in the area of personal and human qualities of an educator for effective teaching and learning. Students from all the participating schools were very candid in sharing their thoughts and feelings about the personal qualities they want to see in their teacher. They generally presume that to be able to handle the subject or the course, the teacher must be knowledgeable in their subject areas. However, more than knowledge and credentials, students look at how their teachers make them feel, deliver, communicate, and manage the course.

They look for the ideal qualities that are generally human and motivating. These include the following: personal touch, approachable, understanding, being able to listen to the students’ concerns, inspiring and motivating demeanor, passion for teaching; pleasant disposition, with good values and positive attitude, balanced personality and sense of discipline, seriousness sprinkled with humor (being fun and not boring; being flexible as opposed to being too serious), nurturing behavior like being a second parent (helpful, with sincere intention, patient, and understanding), spends time with them as they go through the various stages of business venture development, being expressive enough to recognize their accomplishments and hard work, trustworthy, honest, fair, with sense of decency, good personality traits like being smart, confident, and charismatic; clean and properly attired; having good looks is a big plus.
The one-on-one interview results from educators and administrators validated the premise as presented in the conceptual development of the study, that indeed, educators teaching entrepreneurship are the product of traditional business education; they have earned MBAs, PhDs, or DBAs.

The entrepreneurship educators and administrators in this study are highly educated professionals with diverse areas of graduate and postgraduate disciplines ranging from family life, economics, finance, values education, business management, marketing, journalism, entrepreneurship, and even fashion and the arts. The span of time spent in studies place the educators and administrators at a wide age range, from 27 to 55 years, either as a teacher or as an administrator. Not that these qualifications are negative, but the situation points that high educational attainment which academic institutions put much emphasis, does not necessarily translate into effective and engaging teaching.

Administrators weigh the qualities and competencies of entrepreneurship educators by mixing those of academicians and practitioners/entrepreneurs. Many have argued that practitioners or entrepreneurs are the best ones to teach entrepreneurship. While this holds true in some ways, a good entrepreneur may not necessarily have the characteristics of an effective teacher and vice versa. The closest that a school can get to this is to define the qualities and competencies that it favors as drawn from the discussion with school administrators who decide whom to hire in the first place. The administrators disclosed that they would select someone who: has finished a graduate course (MBA and/or professional experience), has had entrepreneurial exposure or experience, has good character and family background, has professional integrity, has a pleasant disposition and an infectious positive attitude, has commitment and passion for teaching, is a team player and can work well with colleagues in the department, and the institution in general, has published researches and articles or books, and embodies an effective teaching model that engages students in the learning experience while in school.

The results further show that indeed, the importance placed by students on personal and human connectivity is reflective on the way the courses are handled as well. It must be noted that entrepreneurship subjects are heavy on experience and project-based learning. It is by far, learning business by doing business, hence, the importance of face-to-face, one-on-one, guided learning by teachers. This peculiar learning process engages the student to have close encounter with the teachers as they both engage each other from the birth of an idea into its actual business operation.

The educators under study do not lack knowledge to impart. Based on the information that was drawn out, the area of teaching that needs enhancing is in the communication and delivery strategies. The qualities that enhance the connection between the mature and knowledgeable professionals and the late adolescent students include the interpersonal nature of teaching, the affective communication techniques used by the
teacher, and the appropriateness of the teaching methods that considers the psyche of the students.

Students appreciate, admire and respond well to educators who has the following professional teaching qualities: the ability to draw out the best in the students, with professional integrity, being organized and punctual, respect for the students: “Hindi nanghihiya” (does not embarrass students) or “Hindi bastos” (not rude); broad and deep knowledge, with a wealth of experience as a mentor; good network with other educators who can provide additional resources, share experiences and help in specialized investigative processes, good communication and listening skills, teachers who are able to constantly communicate with them and knows how to use modern communication tools in various forms (by email, SMS, or other technological means) make the lessons worthwhile for most.

On the Importance of Teaching Program, Model and Practices: Techniques and Methods

Business management education in the undergraduate level has been in the education system for many decades in the Philippines. According to Dr. Heracleo Lagrade, Director of Programs and Standards of the Commission on Higher Education during the 7th National Conference of ENEDA held last February 26, 2008 in Bohol, Business Management and related courses still have the highest rate of enrollment. Eventually, the Entrepreneurship program will be among the standard courses offered in the business and management undergraduate program of institutions of higher learning.

What makes the Entrepreneurship Program a college course like no other? The traditional or regular business or management subject, track or program caters to students who will be future employees of corporations. The Entrepreneurship program and its curriculum, in contrast, develops students who will set up their own businesses, generate employment, and create wealth for themselves and for others, ethically and responsibly.

Crucial to the entrepreneurship program is the preparation of a new generation of students who can have the mindset to seek opportunities: to make sense of these opportunities: to create new ideas: to identify, gather and bootstrap their own resources into a business plan: and finally, to transform these resources into an ongoing, operational and profitable business venture. However, teaching and learning entrepreneurship courses is basically experience or project based and therefore is heavy on mentoring and coaching. This again puts the element of human connectivity of high importance.

Lamentably, teachers say that the educational institutions are still treating entrepreneurship courses in the traditional mold like having huge number of students per class, which limits consultation and mentoring time per team or student. It can be very frustrating to handle disengaged students but it is very fulfilling to work with the truly motivated ones. As
expected, there will always be slow and fast learners, active and inactive, motivated and unmotivated.

Teachers claim that the challenge now is how to make learning more engaging. The load can be very taxing on the educator. They added, however, that their creativity and resourcefulness turn up during the most trying moments.

For teachers, on the other hand, self-enhancement programs or seminars are too costly. Schools often put a cap on the amount they can provide for attendance to such self-development programs, even if school officials encourage attendance in such events.

It is only very recent that Entrepreneurship education is receiving a push and gaining ground in the collegiate level as a full course. It is very daunting for educational institutions to create and develop entrepreneurship courses. The task includes the selection and training of the pool of resources that will develop, adapt, and handle the program, the choice of teaching models, and course management. Therefore, a training program designed for entrepreneurship educators is very timely.

Emerging Program Models

Entrepreneurship as a relatively new college program with its foundation set by the agency for higher education evolved and emerged into one of the dynamic degree courses in college. Miriam College, for example, has evolved its program where students can choose their area of specialization. Their options are: Fashion and Design (in partnership with the Fashion Institute of the Philippines), Culinary Arts (in partnership with the American Hospitality Academy), and Product Design (in partnership with the Philippine Trade and Training Center). Quite recent, in 2009, St. Paul University Quezon City entered into a business skills training seminar agreement with the Technology Resource Center on Coffee Shop Operation as part of its student capability building thrust.

Again, the emerging teaching models are actually products of years of experience and the schools’ resolve to refine it according the needs of time, opportunities, and creative management of resources at hand. Therefore, teaching models and techniques now are more “tailor-fit,” (Lupisan, 2008) to meet these new challenges.

The list of subjects and courses taken by the students in the study shows the depth of knowledge they must acquire to prepare them to undertake actual ventures they have chosen individually or in teams. The practical part, done in real time prepares the students on the rigors of business operations. It is, learning business by doing business.

Teaching Methods and Practices that are Innovative and Interactive

Students find it important to have teachers who challenge them to do their best. This means conducting lessons that are innovative and interactive. Among the teaching techniques that they find important are:
critical questioning by the educator; creative and thinking workshops like 100 business ideas and mind-mining/mind-mapping, serendipity walk, and brainstorming; practical exposure/trips/observations in business operations for teachers and students alike; research/surveys/interviews/ analysis; internet research; program development, experimentation, prototyping and hands-on program management; individual and/or teamwork/team-building; consultations; coaching/mentoring/peer counseling; plant and observation visits; business games, cases and other simulation exercises; activity integration with other course requirements from other teachers; product presentation and defense; social entrepreneurship; leadership training for students and competitions; teacher's home/business venture visits; advising and moderating student on development programs and managing school business centers as their practicum venues; participation in fairs and exhibitions like EntrePinay in Galleria for Miriam College, Entrep Corner for other participating schools in Robinsons, and SM San Lazaro for San Sebastian; US and Asia tours of students.

Teaching Methods and Practices that are Paced, Progressive, with Practical Integration and Coordination

Students find it important that course expectations and requirements are presented and paced in a progressive manner so they know how they are growing with the course. Teaching in modular presentations is best for courses in venture development and business planning or feasibility study preparation. Likewise, use of learning tools like workbooks and guide sheets for self-paced learning helps in tracking progress as well.

There is validation of their performance in various stages when teachers pace the lesson, assess their output and sincerely work with them. They feel well managed when teachers sincerely guide them to make concrete resolutions in every stage of development even while committing mistakes along the way.

The practical integration of classroom lessons and activities for instance, showcasing their venture projects in fairs, joining competitions, exhibitions and presentations, despite being daunting, provides them the opportunity to face the reality of the challenges that go with operating the business.

Noticeably, these teaching and delivery techniques speak well of the nature and dynamism of the entrepreneurship program. The students while admitting their shortcomings for some reason on another acknowledged that they are equally responsible for their performance as expected in class.

On the Importance of other Factors

Among the important findings of the focus group discussions with the students and the educators regarding what they want as additional
prompts for an ideal teaching/learning model (aside from the pleasant human connectivity as expounded) are:

**Family atmosphere in school.** Students appreciate the attentiveness of the school and the faculty members in their program, especially when it feels like belonging to a family. The mindfulness, care, and concern of the teachers make them feel they belong to one family.

**Character and values formation, team building and other motivational techniques.** Breaks from regular schoolwork through alternative and experiential learning like motivational talks from successful entrepreneurs, team building activities, personality enhancement seminars, as well as retreats, immersions or outreach programs initiated by the school and student officers are seen by students as important components to their values and character building. They learn to be more human while having fun at the same time. It is also good to note that awards and recognitions motivate the students to put their best in their venture programs. It validates dedication and commitment to their goals in the course.

**Supplementary activities and enhancement programs.** Collaboration and cooperation among educators, schools and students, private or public institutions, establishing networks and linkages are considered important as it builds on a support system that when pooled create more impact as they mutually help advance entrepreneurship education like for example membership to the Entrepreneurship Educators of the Philippines, the Philippine Association of Colleges and Schools of Business, or the Philippine Center for Entrepreneurship.

The pool of support can collectively call for the government to create policies exclusive for entrepreneurship and business college students on their venture and incubation projects. These may be in terms of ease in business registration, licensing, fees, and provision for technical assistance from specialized government agencies like the Department of Trade and Industry, Department of Science and Technology, Bureau of Food and Drug Administration, other allied specialized agencies.

Likewise, support system comes in terms of access to modern reference books and materials; access to electronic tools and aids for self-paced learning and training; provision for laboratory for product experimentation and testing, more science and technology intervention for student programs. One interesting find is the “Ate system” or the “Big sister concept” in a women college. The “Ate” or my elder sister concept (composed of the junior or senior batch) takes time to assist in facilitating and coaching the sophomores on the numerous challenges and solutions to problems as they hurdle in refining and improving their venture projects. This win-win teaching and learning strategy of elder sister coaching system, also help the higher batch to develop their caring and nurturing nature, as well their tutoring proficiency as they journey towards honing
their entrepreneurial leadership qualities. Likewise, this strategy definitely helps the teacher manage and monitor the students and teams with ease.

**Involving more Parents’ Support within a Framework of Reference**

Teachers must understand that college students are still minors and would need some prescribed involvement of parents, particularly when it comes to venture investments and project operations. The teacher must then consider the extent of parental support in order to find its rightful place in the teaching and management of the course.

Perhaps more items can still be added to this. Nevertheless, one thing is certain: both educators and students have expressed their thoughts about what the “ideal” setting should be. Active orientation for both educators and students is what makes the entrepreneurship course work. This presents the issues and concerns that the school needs to consider in defining the overall design, execution, conduct, and evaluation of the course. Educators, administrators, and students should work together to bring the entrepreneurship program in the tertiary level in the mainstream and further its status as an academic discipline in the Philippines.

**Insights and Conclusions**

**On Students**

The findings show what students want in an educator and what human, personal, and professional competencies and qualities they respond well to or not. The student responses definitely should be given a serious look to find ways to enhance the faculty teaching delivery in order to be more sensitive to the “tetchiness” of most students today who are far beyond Bambi, Mickey, Barbie or Volte’s V. The present generation of students belongs to the iPhone generation: they fancy Animé characters, Heroes, or ball joint dolls (BJD).

Students do not like pure lectures, reading lessons on the board, or programming lessons directly from the book to the board! They declare no more of the pencil pushing, which they find most boring. They prefer lessons to be experimental, experiential, and interactive.

**On Educators**

The faculty should know who their students are, should be more sensitive to their needs and wants, and should appreciate the media and technology environment that surround their students. The faculty should bridge both the communication and generation gaps that may exist between them and their students.

The educators have shown and expressed the rich personal and professional experiences they can share with their students, the expertise
they have developed in handling their students, and their creative resolve to use what is available and doable within school policies. Although they have expressed their frustrations over certain deterrents, they still take an active role in their personal development. They strive to be innovative in their delivery; share their expertise and experiences among colleagues; they network, and they are active in organizations such as ENEDA.

Further, the wealth of knowledge, discipline and experience as seen in the background of educators as well as during the one-on-one interviews indicate an immense resource just waiting to be more effectively harnessed and further honed. (The researcher finds this just overwhelming – to see the innate yearning of educators to learn).

It is sad, however, that some educators cannot deliver the knowledge quite effectively to the students. This is not to say that students are lacking in appreciation of the teacher as a person, but rather they just do not understand the lesson because of inappropriate communication tools and the teacher’s delivery process. Effective communication, teaching delivery techniques, updated books and material resources, educational technologies, gadgets and equipment, and personality development will definitely help enhance the educator’s competency in this regard.

Lastly, one worthwhile find that surfaced is the call of educators and students on some government policy issues and on the student business incubation projects including its “proprietary” concerns. Specifically, the concern is on the numerous cash-out requirements of students on government registration fees, licensing, and on some scientific exploration and product testing expenses and fees. Perhaps some holidays on fees, registration payments and the like can be made exclusive to entrepreneurship and business students. This goes as well to some financial and/or technical assistance by specialized agencies to students with serious venture projects to make the entrepreneurial development landscape more encouraging and their business start-ups more attainable.

On School Administration

School administrations with their policies, rules, regulations, thrusts, directions, and various program implementations have always been sincerely working towards the betterment of all, particularly on faculty growth and development, while working within the range of their resources and limitations. On the other hand, there will always be room for improvement or change. Administrators and educators should tackle changing scenarios and problems, in whatever form, despite whatever limitations or difficulties, with a win-win perspective. The findings indicate that administrators must pay attention to students' concerns, likes and dislikes, as well as motivating and de-motivating teaching practices of the educators with a positive resolve at all fronts. Finally, it is worthwhile to note the question posed by Viloria (2008) during the First ENEDA NCR Regional Conference to educators and school
administrators, “is our school educating and producing entrepreneurs after graduation?”

Recommendations

The Professional Teaching Competency Program Development Frame

The development and progression of the training program on professional teaching competency for entrepreneurship educators starts with the core or the foundation of what entrepreneurship education is—how it is reflective of true human and economic progress. This gives then the entrepreneurship educator the proper values and perspective through which the entrepreneurship program should revolve. The program should then provide the educator a learning journey through which one may first look inwardly into self, specifically on the competencies that makes one an effective entrepreneurship educator. Next, the program spirals outward to the environment where the educator moves and works—the students who are “would-be entrepreneurs”, the teaching model that works, the school and administration mission, values and vision, the entrepreneur as a person in the business and social environment, and the confluence of all these factors will contribute in shaping the course.

By this date, the researcher and course designer will be embarking on designing the full program as a hybrid/blended online course as she seeks a financial grant and an agency partnership for its material and technical development, course presentation, and implementation. It will also seek the higher education regulatory body for endorsement and accreditation of the whole competency program starting from its pilot run.

Finally, the author is looking forward to helping get some government policies created and laws enacted to further develop the entrepreneurial education. Policies and laws that are conducive and encouraging for students to embark on venture incubation projects and business start-ups through resource matching and coaching from government specialized agencies, institutional collaboration for example with the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) and its allied and special agencies: Department of Science and Technology (DOST); and its special agencies like Food and Nutrition Research Institute (FNRI); Industrial Technology Development Institute (ITDI); Packaging Research and Development Center (PRDC); Philippine Textile Research Institute (PTRI) among others.
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Well-being and Interests of the Hearing Impaired

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Abstract
This study was conducted in preparation for the development of courses for the hearing impaired. Since occupational success is more highly correlated with EQ than IQ, we needed to identify the emotional needs of the hearing impaired in order to institute intervention strategies that would improve their chance for mainstreaming. Four schools participated in this study. The total number of respondents for the EQ was 359, with 189 males and 170 females. Respondents for the interest inventory were 100 with 52 males and 48 females. Using one-way ANOVA significant differences were found across schools on Interpersonal, Adaptability, and Total EQ scales while Univariate analysis revealed significant differences between gender across schools on Inconsistency Index and Adaptability scale. The most preferred occupations for males were Persuasive, Artistic, and Dramatics while for females Nursing, Saleslady, and Waitress were preferred. Intervention workshops on interpersonal relations will be developed to improve their social-emotional skills.

Keywords: Emotional skills, interest, hearing impaired

Introduction

In 2009 Southeast Asian Institute for the Deaf (MC-SAID) which was originally established in 1974 as a model school for the education of the deaf and teacher-training center for deaf education in the Philippines and the Southeast-Asian region joined Miriam College. Through the years, the school has expanded its programs, services, and structures to achieve recognition as a forerunner of the “Total Communication” philosophy for deaf students. The Total Communication philosophy focuses on the child’s abilities rather than disabilities and applies a multilevel approach to develop language competence and scholastic success. It includes all language modalities, child-devised gestures, formal language of signs, speech, speech-reading, finger-spelling, amplification of residual hearing, reading and writing.

MC-SAID, in coordination with the Research and Publications Management Office, embarked on a research study of the Emotional Quotient (EQ) and Occupational Interests of its students and students from partner schools: Philippine School for the Deaf, the Bible Institute for the Deaf, and Bagong Silang School participated. These schools responded to our invitation to join the survey in order to prepare Miriam Adult Education for a technical-vocational program for the hearing impaired.

The Philippine School for the Deaf (PSD) started in 1907 as School for the Deaf and Blind. It was the first school for the hearing impaired, the biggest among 15 private schools and approximately 34 centers showcasing educational services catering to the deaf population in the country. It has pre-
elementary, elementary and secondary education plus vocational education and apprenticeship program. It also has a speech and hearing clinic evaluating students and interested individuals. The school’s mission is to provide quality education for the hearing impaired to maximize their potentials and to become morally upright, globally competitive, responsive to the demands of a technologically-advancing world and ensure their integration in the mainstream of society. Their school philosophy upholds that the hearing impaired child is a child with a communication problem who is to be educated as an integral part of the hearing rather than apart from it.

The Bible Institute for the Deaf (BID) is a private school located in Valenzuela City. It has a pre-elementary, elementary, high school, ministerial, sign language classes and religious interpreting services. The school’s mission is to provide a balanced learning program for hearing impaired students and lead them to Christ. Its vision is to develop the hearing impaired holistically to become independent, productive, academically trained, skilled and confident enough to relate and make meaningful contributions to his/her family, church and community. While there is no mainstreaming for BID there is a three year tertiary level education for the ministry.

The Bagong Silang School (BS) is a regular secondary public school established in 1983. A nearby elementary school (Bagong Silang Elementary School) started a SPED center in 1990’s. The visually impaired graduates of the Center were mainstreamed to the regular classes with the assistance of a teacher with training in Braille. Many students were not able to enroll because of transportation expenses. That year a class of hearing impaired students was mainstreamed to the regular BSHS class. A remedial class was provided for them. Five teachers received free training in sign language at Link Center for the Deaf. In the school year 2002-3 the school started integrating its SPED Center graduates into Bagong Silang High School.

So among the four schools three believe in mainstreaming their students (MC-SAID, PDS & BS) while one doesn’t (BID), so the study is a validation of the practice of main streaming.

Ever-mindful of the hearing impaired’s well-being, and cognizant of the significance of the EQ for the psycho-social development of deaf children as well as its full commitment to develop vocational competence, MC-SAID spearheaded this endeavor to help increase hearing impaired students’ awareness of their skills and how to make use of these skills to develop their full potential. In the end, equipped with the necessary skills and competencies, they would be more confident, become more productive citizens, respectful of others’ values and beliefs. Moreover, the results of the study aim to pinpoint specific EQ strengths and weaknesses of the hearing impaired that may need interventions. And finally, specific career interests are identified to aid in designing educational programs for the hearing impaired.
Adams in 1997 described typical behaviors of children, hearing impaired and hearing alike, at specific ages. Two year olds are constantly active and curious about the world and about their environment (Peterson, 1982). Their energies seem endless, able to last at any activity for a long period of time. For hearing impaired children, the use of gestures and manual communication is an instrument of language because two-year-olds are able to express their basic needs and wants (Heimgartner, 1982). Also, these children develop an ability to use their limited language creatively by pretending and sharing their ideas with those around them (Dixon & Stein, 1992). However, the lack of ability to communicate may lead to frustration, which is frequently released through temper tantrums. Hearing impaired children from ages two through five were found to display temper tantrums much more often than hearing children (Brenner, 1983). These tantrums are often attributed to problems in early family communication (Gregory, 1976).

Set routines help all children, hearing impaired, hard of hearing, and hearing, to organize their world. At five, children are happy and content with the daily routine (Heimgartner, 1982). These structured periods set expectations in their minds that help bring order to their lives. Structure and routine is vital in establishing order and expectations.

Six year olds are full of energy, eager to learn and explore their environment. They always seem to be running, jumping, and continually falling down. They find it difficult to contain their energy and often display impulsive and excitable behavior. However, for the hearing impaired, this excess energy may at times cause frustration especially when they experience communication difficulties. So while sixes often are noisy and loud, hearing impaired six-year-olds tend to be even louder and noisier in interacting with their environment. They lack feedback because they cannot hear; this lessens their ability to “tone down” the noise they make. As they are learning to adjust to the demands of the environments at home and school, interactions with both hearing and hearing impaired children is more regular for the first time because they have started school (Adams, 1997).

Adams (1997) further stated that seven-year-olds are good listeners and are very sensitive, especially to the emotions and feelings of others. Hearing impaired children are extremely sensitive to the expressions and body language of adults. Reading nonverbal language is important for them especially in understanding the thoughts and feelings of others. Eight is an age when children are outgoing. For the hearing impaired children, it is an age when children recognize their hearing loss and begin to accept it. They also begin to realize more fully the difference between themselves and hearing children (Scheetz, 1993).

Eight-year-old hearing impaired children actively reach out to the hearing world for friendships (Heimgartner, 1982). A vital goal for
youngsters of this age is to effectively communicate with peers and adults. Since eights are also very dramatic, signs, gestures, and verbalizations are all exaggerated. Heimgartner (1982) stated that increased awareness of the ability to pantomime and its benefits in play and communication is likewise apparent. For hearing impaired children and youth, drama and acting in plays are natural activities. Engaging in role playing and family plays are common in homes with hearing impaired family members.

At nine years old, several important psychological changes take place. Self motivation begins to develop and new emotional patterns and mood changes occur often. Also, differences in personality are becoming apparent. For example, hearing loss, communication style, and sense of humor are becoming noticeable as unique to each child’s personality. At the same time, nines are more aware of how individuals within society can behave toward one another. They are aware of the prejudices of others, and hearing impaired children tend to get upset when excluded from games by hearing children.

Adolescence (or 11 to 18 years) is a time between childhood and adulthood. New problems develop, such as, the need for independence, social interactions, and understanding hormonal changes. For the hearing impaired, as well as the hearing, it is difficult especially among their peers and family members (Schlesinger & Meadow, 1972).

Higgins & Nash (1987) remind us that hearing impaired adolescents’ deal with isolation and lower self-esteem, than hearing adolescents because of their communication difficulties. A study of interpersonal relationships among family members and the way they deal with problems showed that hearing impaired adolescents with hearing impaired parents scored high on positive self-identity, while hearing impaired adolescents with hearing parents scored even higher. Perhaps this outcome is due to the success in academic and communication skills of family members. In 1992, Strong, Charlson, & Gold described the hearing impaired adolescents as isolated, mainly because of a lack of communication rather than from a feeling that they are basically different.

Social relationships among adolescents are essential and help create a lifelong self-identity and self-acceptance in social interactions with peers. According to Erikson (1956), “achieving an ego identity and a capacity for intimacy are the major interrelated tasks of late adolescence.” Identity formation involves identifying with groups and individuals, including parents, extended family, social class, racial group, school, and country (Strong, Charleson, & Gold, 1987, p. 262).

When adolescent peers show that they care, self-identity is automatically improved. This caring relationship provides a capacity for emotional support and also helps maintain personal self-worth. If the hearing impaired adolescent’s self-identity does not progress or if he feels limited and academically unaccomplished, his trust level plunges. Having
already felt rejected by society and his peers, he will prefer to be with and around other hearing impaired individuals for college, career and marital preferences (Schlesinger & Meadow, 1972). Hearing impaired adolescents who lack social skills among peers in the hearing world will suffer traumatically, their options in the workplace will be severely limited.

On the other hand, Becker and Nadler in 1980 observed that hearing impaired students can benefit from a normal educational setting. It prepares them to deal with everyday problems such as, finding an occupation, vocational training and other common problems, associated with marriage, childbirth and family life (Higgins & Nash, 1997).

Several studies (Arnold & Tremblay, 1970 cited in Wachs & Sheehan, 1988 ; Levy-Schiff & Hoffman, 1985) indicate that children play spontaneously with peers within the same hearing-status group, hearing impaired children appear to have more success with hearing partners than with hearing impaired partners (Vandell & George, 1981).

Miriam College pioneered offering a mainstreamed program for the hearing impaired in the Philippines even prior to 2009, up to the tertiary level. Proponents of mainstreaming assert that educating children with disabilities alongside their non-disabled peers foster understanding and tolerance, better preparing students of all abilities to function in the world beyond school. Hence, this phase in the life of the hearing impaired students prepares them to be able to adjust well in school and in the work place in the company of hearing people. Bagong Silang started main streaming their students since 2002. Philippine School for the Deaf and Bible Institute for the Deaf do not mainstream their students. So the four schools vary in their practices and philosophies.

Gender is another concern. Since among hearing respondents, males are found to score higher than females in the way they perceive themselves (intrapersonal scale) and in their optimism about the future (general mood scale) we wanted to know if the hearing impaired males followed this general trend that has been reported in the EQ Manual (BarOn, 2002). Since we did not find any literature on the EQ skills of the hearing impaired we decided to include gender as an independent variable in the study. We wanted to determine whether gender had the same effect in the hearing impaired as in the hearing participants.

Female deaf children rated themselves higher on worry than the other three groups: deaf male, hearing female and hearing male (Watt & Davis, 1991) and college freshman hearing impaired female students report a significantly higher incidence of suicide attempts by comparison to hearing impaired male college students (Samar et.al., 2007). So it is important to understand how differently the male and female hearing impaired are doing.
Miriam College has the rare opportunity of creating an environment for the students where tolerance of differences can be lived and adjusting to the world of the hearing impaired is an adventure. The school accepts the hearing impaired at all levels of education. It is the only school in this sample with integration at all three levels of education. Some students are mainstreamed at the basic levels and some are integrated with the use of an interpreter at the tertiary level. In our attempt to provide a healthy environment for the hearing impaired we need to identify their strengths and weaknesses. And to provide for them we need to create programs that will strengthen their weaknesses. This research is an attempt to identify those strengths and weaknesses so social development can proceed and the students are better prepared to face the adult workplace. Though limited, this research is a first step in this direction.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study were hearing impaired students from MC·SAID, Philippine School for the Deaf (PSD), Bible Institute for the Deaf (BID), and Bagong Silang School (BS).

For the EQ, the total respondents were 359 (189 Males and 170 Females) from MC·SAID it was 91 (43 Males and 48 Females), from PSD it was 214 (114 Males and 100 Females), from the BID it was 22 (13 Males and 9 Females), and from BS it was 32 (19 Males and 13 Females).

For the Interest Inventory, the total respondents from MC·SAID were 41 (20 Males, 21 Females), from the Bible Institute for the Deaf (BID) it was 21 (13 Males, 8 Females), and from Bagong Silang School (BS) it was 38 (19 Males, 19 Females). Hence, the total respondents were 100, 52 males and 48 females.

Instruments Used

The instruments used for this study were the Bar-On EQ and Philpsycor·Geist Picture Interest Inventory (PGPII). The Bar-On EQ (2002) was designed to describe the emotional quotient of students with scales on Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Stress Management, Adaptability, General Mood and Positive Impression. An Inconsistency index was computed to tap the reliability of the responses obtained from the participants. There are ten items in the questionnaire that is part of this Inconsistency index. Inconsistency scores of 11 and above are indicative of carelessness or lack of seriousness in taking the questionnaire.

The Intrapersonal scale (self-awareness and self-expression) refers to being aware of self, understanding one’s strengths and weaknesses, and
being able to express one's feelings and thoughts, nondestructively. This component comprises self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization.

The Interpersonal scale (social awareness and interpersonal relationship) refers to being aware of the other’s emotions, feelings and needs, and being able to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive, and mutually satisfying relationships. The sub-components are empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship.

Stress Management (emotional management and regulation) refers to managing one’s emotions so that they work for one’s self and not against one’s self. The sub-components are stress tolerance and impulse control.

Adaptability (change management) refers to managing change realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation and effectively solving problems as they arise. The sub-components are reality-testing, flexibility, and problem solving.

General Mood (self-motivation) refers to being optimistic, positively and sufficiently self-motivated to set and pursue goals. The sub-components are optimism and happiness.

And finally, positive impression is a scale that measures the respondent’s attempt to create a positive image of one’s self.

Using a sample of over 5000 from private schools across the Philippines we established norms for the scales in this instrument. We standardized the scoring of the instrument so that 90 to 109 represent the average score. Anything below 89 would be low and anything above 110 would be high.

A validity study of the EQ instrument was also conducted at Miriam College where the high scorers and the low scorers on the EQ scales were identified and interviewed by a guidance counselor to determine if the low scorers did have emotional difficulties and if the high scorers were pretty much adjusted to their school and home environments. A research report on the validation is not yet published but it tends to validate the scales of the instrument.

Below is the interpretive guideline for the Standard Scores obtained for the EQ:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Guide</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>130+</td>
<td>Markedly High—atypically well developed capacity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reliability analysis was likewise done to measure the consistency of the responses to the EQ items. Cronbach Alpha was .790 which indicates that the respondents answered the EQ items reliably. External validity of the scale scores was conducted by Miriam College and preliminary interviews of high and low EQ scorers are very promising in establishing external validity of the scale scores.

The Philpsycor-Geist Picture Interest Inventory (PGPII) adapted by Aldaba-Lim (Geist, 1941) was used to assess quantitatively eleven male and twelve female general interest areas. It is an interest inventory for those with limited verbal abilities. The test contains picture triads of drawings, representing major vocations and occupations. Under each triad are questions which enable the examinee to think in terms of the drawing rather than in terms of conventions or status. The pictures reduce task monotony and avoid response repetition.

Interest areas are scored according to the interest scales. The sum of these scale marks for one key constitutes the raw score for that interest area. However the interest inventory proved to be too limiting, its choices of occupations, too old; but the advantage of this interest inventory is the choices are all drawn. In other words the options were non-verbal.

**Statistical Techniques**

For the EQ, the standardized scores for each of the 8 scales were based on a sample of over 5000 from a study for FAPE (Fund Assistance for Private Education) as part of the research on the acquisition and retention of learning competencies among Educational Service Contracting Students (Felipe & Acuña, 2005). The raw scores were transformed into standardized scores using a syntax program developed by the researchers. The statistical tests were performed on the standardized scores. One-way ANOVA with post hoc tests and Univariate analysis were done to find out significant differences across schools by gender. The independent variables were school group and gender of the respondents while the dependent variables were the scale scores on the EQ scales.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Range</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>120-129</td>
<td>Very High - extremely well-developed emotional &amp; social capacity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110-119</td>
<td>High - well-developed emotional &amp; social capacity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90-109</td>
<td>Average - adequate emotional &amp; social capacity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-89</td>
<td>Low - underdeveloped emotional &amp; social capacity with room for improvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-79</td>
<td>Very Low - extremely underdeveloped emotional &amp; social capacity, with considerable room for improvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 70</td>
<td>Markedly Low - a typically impaired emotional &amp; social capacity, with extensive room for improvement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For the interest inventory, the percentage distribution of a particular job under each interest area was computed to identify the preferred occupations or vocations of the students.

**Limitations**

The Philpsycor-Geist Picture Interest Inventory (PGPII) adapted by Aldaba-Lim (Geist, 1941) was not the best instrument for the study because the instrument is rather outdated. It did not include the new occupations that the hearing impaired could enter, but at the time it seemed like the best instrument for the purpose because it was non verbal. The literature is full of information about the advantages of IT courses for the hearing impaired and at Miriam College there is a two year computer course for the hearing impaired already in place since the late 90’s. This course was not among the choices in this interest inventory.

While the EQ scales were standardized using a Philippine sample of over 5000, but this sample was on hearing students in the different private schools all over the country, maybe we need to create new norms for the hearing impaired. However, we did not have the luxury of time. In a second phase of the study we intend to include more hearing impaired samples and improve survey administration with the help of MC-SAID teachers.

**Results**

Tables 1, 2, and 3 shows the significant mean scores of the EQ scales and the results of the one-way ANOVA by school, post-hoc tests, and Univariate analysis across schools by gender, respectively.

When one-way ANOVA with post hoc tests was conducted across schools significant differences were found on interpersonal, adaptability; and total EQ scale scores of the respondents. In the Univariate analysis, significant differences across schools by gender were found on the inconsistency index and adaptability scale scores of the respondents.

### Table 1

**EQ Mean Score and One-way ANOVA by School**
Table 1 shows that from among the EQ scales, *interpersonal*, *adaptability*, and the *total EQ* scores of the respondents revealed significant differences across school. These results indicate that social and emotional skills of the participants vary significantly from school to school. MC-SAID scored better in *adaptability*, while PSD got the highest mean score on *total EQ and interpersonal*; BID and BS scored below 90 in the three scales.

When post-hoc tests were conducted results in Table 2 revealed that the school with the highest mean score in each of the three scales varied, for the *adaptability* scale MC-SAID obtained the highest score, while PSD had the highest mean for *interpersonal* and *Total EQ*. However, the school with the lowest mean score on all of the three scales was BS. And BID is not significantly different from BS.

Looking at the three scales individually, it was on the *interpersonal* scale where the respondents from all four schools fell below 90. This result indicates that the respondents need improvement in establishing interpersonal relations with other people. The hearing impaired has a diminished capacity for interpersonal relations because of their infirmity.

**Table 2**

*Post-Hoc Tests by School*
This finding also holds true for *adaptability* for respondents from the BID and PSD. This result indicates that the respondents need improvement in dealing with stress and pressure.

On the *total EQ score*, MC SAID and PSD had mean scores of 91 which is at the lower boundary of 90 and above, and only the respondents from the BID and BS got averages below 89 (BID =86; BS =80). These respondents need intervention programs to improve their EQ.

When Univariate analysis was performed to find out the significant difference across schools by gender, results in Table 3 showed significant variation on *inconsistency index* and *adaptability* scale.

**Inconsistency** index shows that female respondents from the BID and PSD and male respondents from MC-SAID scored below 10. This result indicates that these respondents were responding reliably to the items compared to their counterparts who scored higher than 10. This would mean that hearing impaired females and the male respondents from MC-SAID answered the items in the questionnaire more reliably.

On the *adaptability* scale, only female respondents from MC-SAID scored above 90 while male respondents from MC-SAID and both male and female respondents from the other schools had mean scores below 90. This result suggests that female MC-SAID respondents are more flexible, more realistic, and more able in managing change.

On the other EQ scales there were no significant differences found. On the *interpersonal scale*, the mean scores of both male and female respondents across four schools fall below 90. This means that there is a need to address this area of emotional development if we aim to develop hearing impaired individuals to be emotionally and socially competent in dealing with life’s daily demands.
Table 3
Univariate by School and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inconsistency</td>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>460.994</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>65.856</td>
<td>4.01***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>19227.441</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19227.441</td>
<td>1171.01***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>29.316</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>29.316</td>
<td>1.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>School</td>
<td>156.718</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>52.239</td>
<td>3.18*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender * School</td>
<td>166.771</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>55.590</td>
<td>3.39*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Error</td>
<td>5763.218</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>16.419</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>45312.000</td>
<td>359</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>6224.212</td>
<td>358</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>5640.640*</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>805.806</td>
<td>3.01***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>1269095.365</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1269095.365</td>
<td>4742.49***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>761.395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>761.395</td>
<td>2.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>School</td>
<td>2220.522</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>740.174</td>
<td>2.76*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender * School</td>
<td>2181.606</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>727.202</td>
<td>2.72*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Error</td>
<td>93928.058</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>267.601</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2928439.181</td>
<td>359</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>99568.699</td>
<td>358</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: ***.00; **.01; *.05

Generally, female respondents tend to score better on the intrapersonal scale. Nonetheless, since most of the intrapersonal scores fall along the range of 90 and above, this result indicates that male and female respondents perceive themselves positively and are in touch with their emotions. They are able to express their feelings and communicate their needs to others. These are hearing impaired students and they have acquired a positive view of themselves despite their disability which is an important starting point for adapting to life in the workplace.

Moreover, on the stress scale, generally female respondents scored better than their male counterpart. This indicates that hearing impaired female respondents have more ability to tolerate stress and control impulses. They are able to relax, be calm, and work well under pressure.

On the general mood scale, female respondents also tend to score better than their male counterparts, except for BS where male respondents scored better than their female counterparts. From among the female respondents, BS female respondents had the lowest score, while from among the male respondents BID males had the lowest score. This result indicates that, generally females are more optimistic and have a more positive view of their future. On the other hand, there is a need to improve the attitudes of the low scoring groups to make them more optimistic and view their future more positively. Probably exposure to successful hearing impaired in the work force could help improve their optimism about their future.
On the *positive impression* scale, female respondents scored better than their male counterpart. From among the male respondents, BS male respondents had the lowest average. This result could be indicative of better self-acceptance by female respondents.

On *total EQ*, female respondents scored better than their male counterparts with scores falling above 90, while their male counterpart scored below 90. However, BID and BS female respondents also scored below 90. These results indicate that while generally female respondents tend to have better social and emotional skills in these two schools the females need some intervention to improve their emotional skills.

**Interest Inventory**

The tables below summarize the results of the interest inventory which were all in the average category for the interest areas. Tables 4 & 5 report the preferred occupations of the females and the males, respectively.

Results in Table 4 shows that varied preferred occupations are apparent across schools. However, the generally preferred occupations are Nurse and Saleslady.

A closer look, on the other hand, revealed that specific job interests are more apparent in some schools. For MC-SAID, being a nurse, a saleslady and being a cook were expressed. Students from BID mentioned being a nurse and waitressing. Students from BS mentioned being a nurse, a sales lady and a waitress. The majority of the respondents preferred jobs that allow them to help and serve others, or influence others through selling or promoting goods and services.

**Table 4**

**Female Interest Areas**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interest Areas</th>
<th>MC-SAID&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>BID&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>BS&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>94.7</td>
<td>97.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuasive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saleslady</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>89.5</td>
<td>93.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waitress</td>
<td>95</td>
<td></td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td>72.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cook</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. These are the three schools in this study.*

<sup>a</sup>Miriam College-Southeast Asian Institute for the Deaf
<sup>b</sup>Bible Institute for the Deaf
<sup>c</sup>Bagong Silang School

Table 5 shows varied occupational preferences of male respondents. The most preferred occupations across schools were Persuasive, Artistic, and
Dramatics. Specifically mentioned were salesman in shoes, hardware, jewelry, grocery stores; door-to-door delivery services; artist, painter; or actor in movies, TV, or stage shows. Also, mechanical and scientific interest areas, like, machinist and chemist were expressed by most respondents.

In addition, another interest area mentioned by MC-SAID and BS respondents was being an architect. While MC-SAID and BID expressed interest in being an accountant, BID and BS had interest in doing electrical jobs.

### Table 5

**Male Interest Areas**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interest Areas</th>
<th>MC-SAID&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>BID&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>BS&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Persuasive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salesman (Door-to-door, grocery, insurance, jewelry, shoe)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artistic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artist/Painter</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architect</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dramatics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor/Dancer (TV, movie, stage)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machinist</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>84.6</td>
<td>89.5</td>
<td>92.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrician</td>
<td>92.3</td>
<td>89.5</td>
<td>55.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computational</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architect</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accountant</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>53.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientific</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemist</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>84.6</td>
<td>73.4</td>
<td>78.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacist</td>
<td>73.4</td>
<td>73.4</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball Player</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>72.2</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policeman</td>
<td>73.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lifeguard</td>
<td>72.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postman</td>
<td>72.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*NOTE* These are the three schools in this study.

<sup>a</sup>Miriam College-Southeast Asian Institute for the Deaf

<sup>b</sup>Bible Institute for the Deaf

<sup>c</sup>Bagong Silang School

At a glance, specific job interests were appealing to each school. MC-SAID male respondents expressed interest in teaching as well as outdoor activities like baseball. BS was the lone school that had an interest in writing Poetry and Social Service-related jobs, like being a policeman, lifeguard and postman, while MC-SAID and BID respondents had less preference for these jobs. In addition, BS respondents had an interest in being a Pharmacist.
Nonetheless, though male respondents varied in interests, they shared similar interests with the females in jobs that deal with people. They also like those jobs that challenge their creativity.

**Discussion**

Diverse EQ results by gender across school groups showed that females in this sample apparently had better emotional skills. Males had a more difficult time honing their emotional skills, especially during the adolescent years. And both need help in developing interpersonal skills. This result is inconsistent with the hearing samples reported in the EQ Manual (BarOn, 2002). For both intrapersonal and general mood the males do better than the females, but for the interpersonal scale the females were doing better.

Among the hearing impaired sample, the females were doing generally better than their male counterparts on intrapersonal, general mood, positive impression, stress management, adaptability and total EQ. This is consistent with a study of attachment and individuation of deaf and hearing young adults (Weisel & Kamara, 2005). Gender, or sex, was significant for the scale on well being (F=7.00**). Female hearing impaired had a mean score of 7.65 and the male hearing impaired had a mean score of 6.31. For the hearing group the female scored 8.00 and male scored 7.04. Females described their well being better than their male counterpart for both the hearing and the hearing impaired subgroups. The results of our study validate the advantage of the females over the male hearing impaired respondents on six of the scales on emotional quotient.

However, both male and female mean scores overall were below 90 on the interpersonal scale. The immediate need of the hearing impaired seems to be on social skills training. When we analyzed the data further by educational attainment, there is a gradual trend of the mean scores of interpersonal scale towards 93 for college from 84 for elementary. It would seem that as the students move in their academic lives their interpersonal skills also improve. Their lack of skill in dealing with interpersonal relations could be just a lack of opportunity to deal with people, in general.

Two schools that did better than the other two were MC-SAID and PSD, one school practices mainstreaming (MC-SAlD), while the other believes in it (PSD). And they are both old schools. PSD, established in 1907, was the first school for the deaf, while SAID has been beside Miriam College since 1974. Mainstreaming helps in creating better social and emotional adjustment for their students.

Social isolation of the hearing impaired adolescent is not new. This is further evidence that the area of interpersonal relationships seems to be the area that needs special help. Working with students whose scores are below
90 should be strengthened and creation of remedial activities should be planned that will help them improve their present EQ performance. Providing them with the necessary skills is important to increase their chances of mainstreaming and ensure their well-being and the achievement of their full potential as human beings.

Varied occupations were preferred by both male and female respondents. Females enjoy Social-Service and Science related-jobs that allow them to help and serve others, as well as Persuasive and Clerical-related occupations, like selling or promoting goods and services. Male respondents preferred jobs that challenge their creativity (Artistic and Dramatics), and those that deal with people (Persuasive and Clerical). Unfortunately this is also the area that requires interpersonal relations or their ability to relate with others.

Scores on interpersonal relations for males and females in this sample were below 90, the average standard score. The most important need, therefore, of the hearing impaired is improvement in their ability to relate with other people, to be sensitive to their needs and emotional states, and to be aware of their own effect on other people. Programs to improve their interpersonal skills are sorely needed. We need to find innovative ways of teaching how best to relate with other people, to be sensitive to their needs and to establish good rapport with them. We need to teach them how to use fantasy play, role play, and how to predict other people’s future behavior. We must attempt to deal with the hearing impaired child’s problems in social interaction through social skills training.

Mainstreaming is an important strategy for increasing the interaction of the hearing impaired, but only in the context of complete acceptance of the disability among the hearing. This situation is established over time in the school. For Miriam College the hearing impaired has been part of the student population since the 70’s and integration has been a practice for so many years. The hearing impaired is an accepted part of the school population though they still tend to group together. With mainstreaming practice for social skills with the hearing is likely. Better ways of teaching interpersonal skills will have to be developed.

References

America.


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The Role of Teacher Assessment in a Community Welfare Training Service

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Abstract
The study investigated the structure of the subscales of a teacher performance assessment in a community service course. An instrument was constructed based on a synthesis of widely used teacher assessment measures and teacher assessment models. There are seven subscales identified that are appropriate for assessing teachers teaching the Civic Welfare Training Service Program: (a) organization and planning, (b) student interaction, (c) evaluation, (d) instructional methods, (e) course outcome, (f) learner-centeredness, and (g) communication. The joining tree clustering and multidimensional scaling techniques were conducted to determine further the structure of the factors that occur in the community service program. The results of these clustering techniques showed that the teacher assessment is a multifactor design. Three models were tested through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using the Structural Equations Modeling (SEM) approach. The results of the CFA indicate that a multidimensional scale with the seven factors have best model fit rather than a multifactor scale composed of sub-latent factors. The model in the CFA showed a rather good fit (RMSEA=.031). The recommendations regarding the use of the instrument are discussed in the paper.

Keywords: NSTP, teacher performance

Introduction

The performance of a teaching faculty being assessed by students in higher education is a common practice and is already accepted. There are numerous published studies on teacher performance and this construct is rated by the students who receive the instruction and peers who comes in and observes the teacher (Wachtel, 1998). The process of assessing a teacher varies in different methods from using rating scales to observations. But the main point remains, the assessment is meant to help the teacher improve the teaching and gain perspectives of the learning process (Ellet & Teddlie, 2003; Iwanicki, 2001).

The process on how teacher assessment is viewed has changed over time from its earliest practice to the recent period. In the current literature the issues of validity and reliability is no longer a question on instruments assessing teacher’s performance (Pike, 1998; Nuthal, 2004; Ellet & Teddlie, 2003; Greenwald, 1997). There is a call on the focus of teacher assessment directing more on student outcomes rather that teacher behavior alone (Ovando, 2001). Different evaluation models have also risen with the aim of improving teacher performance and arrive at standards on how teachers are evaluated (Isaacs, 2003; Magno, 2009).
The process of teacher evaluation has remained domain-general where a set of criteria are used that can be applied across different contexts (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). This advantage brings about the uniformity of quality teaching and uniform standards that can be used in different subject areas. Teachers may teach different subjects but the quality of teaching remains constant. The rational behind this is that teachers are not actually teaching the content but more importantly the skill (Arends, 2001). Having an assessment for teachers in a community service program or service learning uses the same set of criteria as to any other subject area because the standards on teaching is the same. There is a need to construct an instrument that assesses teacher performance in the context of a community service program (NSTPCW1 and NSTPCW2) because the programs in colleges and universities in the Philippines has been running for years and aspects of the teaching practices need to be monitored to see how well it is carried out. There are actually no published studies on teacher performance specifically teaching in a community service course. In fact, Gallego (2001) reports that according to Zeichner, Melnick, and Gomez (1996), the application of such service-learning activities is mentioned only once in the entire 900 pages of the Handbook of Research on Teacher Education. The studies are limited to the experiences of pre-service teachers on their in-service trainings. This study contributes in the field by analyzing the performance of teachers specifically in a community service course. The aim of the study is to establish the validity and reliability of an instrument measuring teacher’s performance in a Civic Welfare Training Service (CWTS) course.

Review of Related Literature

There is a need to clarify first the NSTP-CWTS program offered by the Commission on Higher Education to determine the context on how the evaluation is carried out. Previous studies explaining the pedagogy of community service courses are described to provide the grounds on how a community service course is taught. The research trends in teacher assessment will be presented to clarify the framework used in assessing teacher performance.

National Service Training Program

The Philippines through its Constitution expresses the need to develop the civic consciousness of the youth. It is indicated in the National Service Training Program Act of 2001 that starting Academic Year 2002-2003, all male and female students in the Philippines enrolled in any baccalaureate or at least two (2) year technical/vocational courses are required to complete the equivalent of two (2) semesters of any one of the NSTP components as a
requisite for graduation. The students go through the process of self-awareness which enables them to take a realistic view of themselves in relation to others such as family, friends and their country. Three dimensions have been identified which are deemed necessary in the goal of developing the self for the service of the nation.

(1) Citizenship – this will tackle the meaning of citizenship and the essence of being a Filipino citizen.

(2) Volunteerism – this is an integral part of the service to the nation as college students apply their education in the service of the nation.

(3) Career exploration and development – linking career to service to the nation will make the Filipino citizen realize what he can do for his country, how he can actualize or go about expressing what he wants to do for his nation. The career exploration allows them the opportunity to take a second look at their reasons for opting for a career field and either reinforce their choice or cause a change in their career plans.

**Civic Welfare Training Service (CWTS)**

One of the programs offered in NSTP is the CWTS. The CWTS Program aims to form students and become volunteers for the general welfare of the marginalized sectors/community specifically for the improvement of health, education, public safety, recreation and morale of citizenry and the protection of the environment and promotion of entrepreneurship (Ateneo National Service Program, 2003).

**Teacher's Performance in Community Service Courses**

There are actually no direct studies on the teacher's performance in the context of community service. The available published studies describe the connection of service learning to standards for teachers and students. However in the study of Magno (2006), when he evaluated the NSTP-CWTS program of DLS-CSB using Stakes Responsive Evaluation Model, teacher assessment is part of the transactions. The transactions are the encounters of students with teachers which is generally the succession of engagement which comprise the process of education (Stake, 1967). It was found in the study of Magno (2006a) that the performance of teachers in the NSTPCW2 have very high mean ratings in all the areas except for classroom evaluation. The assessment on each area shows that the teacher’s organization and planning (M=3.60), course outcome (M=3.83) and learner-centeredness (M=3.88) are outstanding. The rating for communication (M=3.10) and instructional method (M=3.46) are very satisfactory. Most of the areas in teaching performance are rated as high, whereas the total rating is very satisfactory. The very high ratings can be attributed to the kind of course the
NSTPCW2 is offering which is dominantly community and practical work for the students.

Cairn and Cairn (1999) described that there is a need to identify the specific curricular learning from a community project and assigning a formal grade is a challenge for teachers. Teachers who use service learning are pioneering methods of performance-based assessment to meet this additional challenge. Although the article they wrote did not describe how the teaching process is carried out. The study of Oh (2003) showed that pre-service teachers became more competent as teachers because the program that the teachers underwent includes community work. In the community work the pre-service teachers were directly given feedback by experts and they gain through this experience. This study describes the experiences of pre-service teachers and not on the actual teaching of the teachers handling students undergoing community work. Moreover, Butcher, Howard, Labone, and Bailey (2003) described that teachers in community service courses need to have an understanding of students' world and to be committed to social justice both within school structures and curriculum as well as in the life of the wider community. In this way they would be able to express fully the sentiments of the social reality.

In the study of Spencer, Cox-Petersen, and Crawford (2005) they clearly described the kind of teaching that occurs in a service learning class. Analysis of the students' reflections indicates that the teaching in a community service class is less restrictive as influenced by choices made by students. In a service learning class there is the opportunity to connect theory with practice. One good practice in a service learning course is the opportunity for student reflection. This process allows students to become aware of their own thoughts and monitor their own thinking process. This thinking activity that ties theory with practice should be facilitated by the teacher and incorporate in the community service class (Eyler & Giles, 1999). Spencer, Cox-Petersen, and Crawford (2005) explained that the teachers' presence in the community work allows them to get to know each of the students on a much more personal level much quicker than in a typical classroom with a considerably larger group of students. Because of the small size of the group, the pace of the instruction can be geared toward the learning ability of the individual student. They also found in the study that teachers viewed working with their students as a team as being both problematic and beneficial. They need to correct students directly about their performance and working as a team offered them opportunities to learn from and support one another.

**Teaching a Community Service Course**

There are marked differences in the teaching experience between community service courses and other classroom-based courses. Service
learning is said to be an inductive approach to education in direct contrast to the more traditional "information-assimilation model" (Coleman, 1977). Direct, personal experience counters the abstractness of the "information assimilation model" by providing concrete examples of facts, theories, and principles. The pedagogy underlying service learning is firmly based on experiential learning pioneered by Kolb (1984). Experiential learning represents one of the most widely accepted approaches to understanding action-based individual learning.

According to Eble and Gaillet (2004) that moral humanism courses including rhetoric, ethics, and moral philosophy provide an effective foundation for reconfiguring existing pedagogy in the field and offer insights for nurturing community intellectuals. Courses offering community and service learning enhance the functional literacy of students. By integrating functional literacy, students engage with local communities by relying on service-learning and activist research pedagogies (Bowdon & Scott, 2003; Cushman, 1999; Deans, 2000; Dubinsky, 2002; Miller, 1979).

Krain and Nurse (2004) described the pedagogy of teaching human rights through service learning. It begins with an overview of human rights education, followed by thoughts on the benefits and challenges of a service learning approach. The article concludes with an assessment of the effectiveness of the activity. Service learning provides all of the advantages of the "at-arms-length" teaching techniques of case analysis, interactive technology or simulation approaches, but with the added advantage of even greater immediacy and relevancy for students. Service learning allows students to move beyond textbook examples and participate in actual cases. Students taking part in service learning projects can put names and faces to the anonymous people affected by human rights issues. Immersing themselves in a real world environment helps them to see the complexity of situations faced by the people with whom they interact. Acting within their own community while learning about broader and less proximate issues helps students see the relevance of human rights issues globally and locally, in theory and in practice. Despite these obvious advantages, however, there have been few if any service learning exercises designed to teach human rights at the college level (Krain & Nurse, 2004).

An example of a course that carries out community service is the “urban connectionism” by Dardig (2004). Dardig (2004) structured a course capitalizing on the intellectual challenge and practical advantages of forging connections between different courses. Most undergraduate curriculum consisted of many courses in different disciplines that are unrelated to each other. The course designed gave the opportunity to help students explore important links among academic disciplines and to encourage them to take a more holistic and integrated view of their studies and the world. The course does not use traditional textbooks. Instead, a diverse set of reading materials, including corporate annual reports, scientific studies, current newspaper
articles, publicity materials, legislation, event calendars, theatrical programs, trade organization newsletters, journal articles, and mission statements, was selected by each field site host. The students are assigned to field sites for a four-hour period each week. Each trip was a combination of a tour and a presentation, often by a panel of experts representing different aspects of the organization. At each site, students had the opportunity to ask questions of the panelists based on their prior assigned readings and on new issues that emerged during the tour and the presentation. The student evaluations of the course were positive. Students reported that they gained deeper understandings of community resources. The teacher who implemented commented that the course was enjoyable to teach.

Another example is the community service activity designed by de Carvalho and Magno (2006). They describe that students learn cognitive and metacognitive skills in community service work using a project-based learning. Project-based learning (PBL) is one kind of a learner-centered educational approach in which students construct new knowledge and acquire new skills while engaging in a particular educational project. They showed in the article that the knowledge acquired in an educational project can be put into practice to encourage social participation and promote responsible citizenship among young students. Part of the project consists of a participative learning activity that is organized and implemented by small work teams composed of teachers and students. The project organizer, through a network of assistants, provided direct and periodic orientations to the work teams whenever needed throughout the seven distinct phases that constitute the third part of the project. The active and meaningful participation of the learner in the learning process allows them to better elaborate information received and to deepen the understanding of the topic being studied. In addition, a greater appreciation for the intrinsic rewards of knowledge construction process becomes possible and commitment to further self-regulation of learning experiences might as well be achieved.

There is a growing call on new initiatives to develop undergraduate education that holds great promise for student learning and even for changing the culture of higher education. These initiatives are learning communities, community service-learning, intergroup dialogues, interdisciplinary courses, diversity, assessment, first-year seminars, writing across the curriculum, global studies, and undergraduate research opportunities (David, 2002). Increased interest also is being expressed in a return to the long-standing values of the scholarly community—such as giving more emphasis to the development of a deeper sense of community and collegiality among faculty and between faculty and students—but today the notion of diversity as part of the scholarly community also is included.

Service learning and community service are being incorporated into different courses such as teaching writing (Novek, 1999), sociology (Shostak, 2000), human development (Stone, 2000), nursing course (Nakhnikian,
Wilner, & Hurd, 2002), physiology (Tong, 1999), medical education (Hen, 1997), geriatric (Gleason-Wyn, 2002), and business courses (Ruth, 1999). Given its wide application, the benefits remain at its potent level of enhancing personal accountability and social responsibility where learning takes place effectively. By combining formal study of a traditional discipline with substantive community service, the student's learning process is enhanced while the service agency benefits from the fresh ideas and work of students (Rudell, 1996). As a teaching and learning method, service learning adds an active, exploratory dimension to the classroom and this does not establish a way of documenting the teaching process. Although its integration is widely used, the pedagogy on the process is still limited in literature.

The reviews on community service courses mostly describe the development of the design of the course and lacks detail on how teaching takes place. Mostly these programs are stand alone and the awareness of social conditions is not realized. Schoem (2002) further noted that when administrators think about curricular change, it should be able to move beyond exclusive consideration of new intellectual developments in a single discipline to the bold thinking that is taking place across disciplines. Discussion of curricular change should set in motion conversation about instructional innovation, and consider pedagogical approaches and dynamics in the classroom, it should be able to include in that conversation consideration of student learning and academic achievement, as well as the diversity of the students and faculty. And when learning and diversity is thought of, what ought to come to mind are notions of the scholarly community, learning communities, service-learning, university-community partnerships, and so on.

**Issues in Community Service Courses**

Kolenko, Porter, Wheatley, and Colby (1996) analyzed nine management courses and arrived with critiques on the implementation of the community service. The critiques arrived at are meant to improve the implementation of the courses. They were able to arrive at the following critiques:

1. When the goal is exposure, in order to understand the issues and gain personal insight, service learning can be successful in a required course. But when the goal is to apply skills directly toward social or ethical issues, service learning can be successful as an elective course.

2. Many faculty members will resist or flatly refuse to participate in service learning projects or programs because they become skeptical and reluctant given the pressures of balancing publishing and teaching responsibilities.

3. If the community service project is not well accepted and viewed favorably by the university as a whole or if the projects fail or have negative
consequences, it could adversely affect participating faculty members’ tenure and promotion decisions.

4. Inadequate funding and the lack of institutional support create the second major barrier to community service success.

5. Institutional concerns center on insuring the student's safety and the potential liability of the school.

6. If students perceive that the faculty member has a vested interest in a particular service agency or outside commitments to that agency (e.g., board member, etc.) they may feel coerced into working in that agency especially if they believe it is a faculty member's pet project.

In the study of Magno (2006a), he identified the weaknesses of a community service program based on content analysis of students' responses. Four clusters were formed on the weaknesses of the course: (1) structure, (2) activities, (3) additional strategies, and the (4) outreach area. Examples of structure include “more sessions with lesser orientation” and “more time for the community service.” The activities concord with the structure such as “field trips” and “more time with the children.” Additional strategies include “seminars” and “more information about the area.” The outreach area includes some comments about the place such as “shelter’s head should always be present” and “the center should be organized” and “the venue chosen should be safe.”

The study of Kolenko, Porter, Wheatley, and Colby (1996) also provided different ways of maximizing the success of service learning. They suggest to: (1) find, develop, or become a service learning champion by having a committed leader; (2) build networks and structures which support service learning in the community; (3) develop learning contracts with students, and (4) build lifelong commitments to community service.

Functions of Assessing Teacher Performance

In a study by Magno and Tangco (2006), they summarized the two most common use of teacher evaluation: improvement of teaching and personnel decision. The feedback gained from the assessment of students of the teacher help improve their performance. Mckechie (1996) in his study found that when student ratings were returned to the faculty, it made some improvements in their teaching. There was also substantial improvement when they discussed with another teacher. The latter is personnel decision where teachers are tenured, promoted and received merits based on high ratings on evaluation. This system calls for the instrument to be valid.
Factors of Teaching Performance

The trend in the development of teaching performance assessment has decreased at the onset of the 21st century because the components on effective teaching have been saturated and most are conducting research synthesis (Greenwald, 1997). Current studies on developing scales on teacher performance are outside the realm of education and psychology such as business and economics (e.g., Li-Ping Tang, 1997; Kalke, 2006; Saeed, Bashir, & Gondal, 2005; Alafita, 2003; James, 2000; Bohlander & Blancero, 1999). Arriving with the components of effective teaching is generally applicable to almost any setting, so the concern in determining effective teachers lies not on the criteria but the epistemological beliefs that teachers hold about teaching. The selection of criteria or components for assessing teachers will depend on what the context is asking for which is grounded on the schools philosophy, mission, vision, and directives (Palma, 1992). In selecting a set of criteria it is important to note the factors on what the teachers need to know to become effective in teaching (Bernardo, 1996; Anderson, ; Blumenfield, Pintrich, Clark, Marx, & Peterson, 1995; Turner & Myer, 2000).

In a review of 12 widely used instruments that assesses teacher performance (Pike, 1998; Allison-Jones & Hirt, 2004; Howard, Helms, & Lawrence, 1997, Centra, 1998; Scriven, 1994; Li-Ping Tang, 1997; Marsh & Bailey, 1993; Young & Shaw, 1999; Heckert, Latier, Ringwald, & Silvey, 2006; Stringer & Irwing, 1998; and Wanous & Hudy, 2001) there are 10 common factors that are used:

1. Presentation of content and its clarity;
2. Relevance of course that includes the assignment of topics, value, coverage, integration;
3. Organization covering planning, preparedness and classroom management;
4. Knowledge of course content;
5. Faculty and student interaction including responsiveness to student needs, student effort, student involvement, student accomplishment, teaching enthusiasm, rapport with students, stimulation, student interest, thinking skills, and helping;
6. Instructional design including delivery, pedagogical skills, teaching quality, and atmosphere;
7. Assessment such as assignments, exams, grading, and giving feedback;
8. Communication;
9. Professionalism and duties; and
10. Course difficulty/workload.

In reviewing the 12 instruments, the general characteristics are intended to measure teacher performance. Most teacher evaluation questionnaires are multidimensional having several components because
many aspects are measured in assessing the performance of teachers as a whole. Given its nature as multidimensional, construct validity is commonly used where factor analysis is employed in arriving at sources of variation. The Cronbach’s alpha is commonly used measure of reliability (Magno, 2006b).

The Learner-Centered Component in Teaching

Academic success for students is achieved through a comprehensive teacher evaluation system. There is a growing call from researchers that teacher evaluation is a mechanism for improving the teaching and the learning process (Ovando, 2001). Iwanicki (2001) mentioned that teaching should be analyzed on the basis of student learning and this should be integrated on teacher assessment. According to the ASCD (1999) that the trend in teacher evaluation is toward self-evaluation and expanding one’s repertoire. In order to transform the viewpoint to this idea, Danielson and McGreal (2000) explains that there should be reform and restructuring initiatives such as (1) understanding how adults grow; develop and learn, (2) increase awareness of the importance and complexity of teaching, (3) increased focus in the development of teacher expertise, (4) new understanding of staff development and (5) appraisal of traditional supervision. Integrating student-centeredness in teacher assessment fosters these initiatives. In the study of Ovando (2001), the findings indicate that the learner-centered teacher evaluation system is effective in some extent if it is implemented properly. Some of the effective means in the learner-centered system include walk-through observation, professional growth, feedback, self-evaluations, and learner-centered dialogue.

Conceptual Framework

The model used to assess teachers’ performance in a community service course is anchored on Danielson’s Components of Professional Practice (2000), The Basic Skills and Knowledge of Faculty Education from the University of Alberta (as cited in Aoki, 1984), and McCombs Principles of Learner-centeredness (1997). The components included in the teacher assessment are shown in Table 1.

The components selected for teacher assessment are appropriate in the context of community service. Organization and planning, and communication are included since they show to be the most domain-general and present in widely used teacher assessment forms (Magno, 2006b; Aoki, 1984; Li-Ping Tang, 1997; Mateo & Fernandez, 1992). Student interaction is necessary in almost any classroom situation. This component includes both classroom management and responsiveness of the teacher. A community service class as explained by Spencer, Cox-Petersen, and Crawford (2005)
needs the flexibility of the teacher and close proximity with the students in the actual community work. The evaluation needs authentic kinds of assessment that is appropriate in the setting because most of the work is accomplished in the field and various techniques such as portfolios and performance assessment are used (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). The kind of instruction that takes place in a community service class should adhere to more experiential type (Kolb, 1884), connecting theory with practice (Dardig, 2004; Magno & de Carvalho, 2006; David 2002) moving to more authentic pedagogy where students are engaged in learning and there is teaching for understanding (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). Course outcome is necessary in a community service course since the impact of the values, social awareness and volunteerism should be developed among the students (Magno, 2000a). Learner-centeredness needs to be focused in a community service class not only because it leads to effectiveness in teaching (Magno & Sembrano, 2006) but it facilitates the flexibility that students need in a community work which calls for a low social structure of control.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization and Planning</td>
<td>Development of skills in relation to goal setting, writing lesson objectives, lesson and unit planning, motivation of students, and selection of appropriate materials and aids (Aoki, 1984).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student interaction</td>
<td>Engage students in a culture of learning, respect, rapport, demonstrate flexibility and responsiveness, manage classroom procedure and student behavior (Danielson &amp; McGreal, 2000).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Observation and listening skills, providing feedback, tests, other diagnostic skills and record keeping (Aoki, 1984).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional methods</td>
<td>Providing examples and opportunities to practice different skills related to the presentation and discussion that occurs (Aoki, 1984).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course outcome</td>
<td>Ability of students to perform at a level after undergoing a program (Cohen 1996).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner-centeredness</td>
<td>Focus on individual learners such as their experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities and needs; focusing also on learning, the best available knowledge on learning and how it occurs, and about teaching practices that are most effective in promoting the highest level of motivation, learning and achievement for all learners (McCombs, 1997).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Clear and accurate communication with students and parents (Danielson &amp; McGreal, 2000). Coherent orchestration of discrete elements, such as vocabulary, discourse structure and gestures, to communicate meaning in a specific context (Vecchio &amp; Guerrero, 1995)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Method

Search for Content Domain

Several teacher assessment measures were reviewed such as the Hudson's Teaching Evaluation Form (Pike, 1998), Nursing Clinical Teaching Effectiveness Inventory (Allison-Jones & Hirt, 2004), SIR II (Centra, 1998), Duties of a Teacher (Scriven, 1994), Student Evaluation of Faculty Performance (Li-Ping Tang, 1998), Students’ Evaluation of Educational Quality (SEEQ) Scale (Marsh & Bailey, 1993), Measure of Teacher Effectiveness (Young & Shaw, 1999), Teaching Effectiveness Items (Heckert, Latier, Ringwald, & Silvey, 2006), Teaching Effectiveness Survey (Stringer & Irwing, 1998), Student Evaluation of Instruction (Wanous & Hudy, 2001), and the Outcomes for Course and Instructor Evaluation (Landrum & Dillinger, 2004). The common factors for each of these measures were synthesized and they were used as basis on how to define the components that will be included in the test. A survey was constructed with open-ended questions asking about the best practices of teachers in teaching the NSTPCW1 and NSTPCW2 courses. The responses of the teachers were likewise used in constructing the items.

Item Writing

In the initial phase of item writing, 40 items were constructed and categorized under 7 subscales. The seven subscales are organization and planning, student interaction, evaluation, instructional methods, course outcome, learner-centeredness, and communication. The 40 items reflect the activities, processes and techniques used by teachers in teaching the NSTPCW1 and NSTPCW2 courses.

Scaling Technique

The scaling technique used as a response format for the items is a 4-point Likert scale. This technique is chosen because students using the measure will assess the extent of their agreement on how well the items are shown by the teachers in their teaching performance. Numerical values are assigned for the scales (4=strongly agree, 3=agree, 2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree), wherein the higher is the rating given, the better the item is delivered by the teacher.

Item Review

The items were tabulated with their conceptual definitions and a scale whether the item is accepted, needs revision or rejected were judged by experts. The experts were given a copy of the items and they reviewed it
whether the items are within the scope of the definition, some revisions if needed, and its appropriateness to the NSTPCW1 and NSTPCW2 courses. The items were reviewed by three experts in scale development, teachers in NSTPCW1 and NSTPCW2, and the head of the social action office. In the item review, three items were removed and some items were transferred to other subscales having a total of 37 items for the final form. The length of the test was also considered because of the attitude of students who will be using the measure. The distribution of items is presented in Table 2.

**Table 2**

**Table of Specifications**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>No of items</th>
<th>Item numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization and Planning</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student interaction</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12-15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional methods</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16-22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course outcome</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>23-28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner-centeredness</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29-33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>34-37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pilot Testing**

The 37 items were laid-out in a form and it was pilot tested with 481 students belonging in both NSTPCW1 and NSTPCW2 classes. The sample of students belong to 17 classes and prior to the administration a letter was sent to the teachers informing them about the schedule of the administration of the teacher assessment. Ten test examiners were trained on how to administer the teacher assessment. A script was constructed for them so that the instruction and conditions of administration would be constant in all 17 classes. The assessment was administered during the first 30 minutes of the class. The examiners first introduced themselves and the students were informed that the questionnaire gives them the opportunity to express their views on how instruction is conducted in the course. The instructors’ name, course code, section and date were asked in the assessment form. The task of the students is to shade the circle corresponding to the degree to which they agree or disagree with the statements as they apply to the teacher using the 4-point Likert scale. The students answered from 20-25 minutes. Other conditions that occurred inside the classroom were recorded by the examiners.
Data Analysis

The means, standard deviations, standard errors, confidence intervals, estimates of kurtosis, skewness, and tests of normality were used to arrive with the description of the distribution of scores. The normality of the distribution is tested for significance using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks test.

To determine the reliability of the scale, the cronbach’s alpha and item-total correlation is reported. The Cronbach’s alpha determines the internal consistency of the items in the scale. The item-total correlation also indicates the internal consistency of items, but the alpha is recomputed when each item is deleted.

To determine the construct validity of the test, the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is used rather than the Principal Component Analysis. The CFA is more appropriate because the components of the teacher assessment for NSTPCW1 and NSTPCW2 are already established and widely used. The CFA tests the entire model of the scale. It reports the goodness of fit of the test as a model comprised with subscales. The index for goodness of fit used is the Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA). Noncentrality fit indices are also used such as the Population Noncentrality Parameter, Steiger-Lind RMSEA Index, McDonald Noncentrality Index, Population Gamma Index, and Adjusted Population Gamma Index. Single sample fit indices are also used such as Joreskog GFI, Joreskog AGFI, Akaike Information Criterion, Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion, Browne-Cudeck Cross Validation Index, and Independence Model Chi-Square.

To further establish the construct validity of the scale, the subscales of the instrument was intercorrelated, and the pattern of magnitude and strength of the subscales were investigated.

To further explain the structure of the components of the scale, the joining tree clustering was used. Tree clustering provides verifiable explanation on the factor structure of the subscales of the teacher assessment. This method uses the dissimilarities or distances between factors of teacher performance to further form the order of clusters. It also shows the distances of the factors using the Euclidean estimate. These distances are based on a single dimension or multiple dimensions.

The Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) was used to view the distance of the subscales of the teacher assessment. This technique enables to show the proximities between the factors under study in a two or three dimensional plane. This proximity quantifies the degree to which the factors are alike. This will show that the factors that will cluster closely are the ones that have most likely have the same nature.
Results

Score Distribution

The total mean score when summated is 121.59 (M=3.28) with a standard deviation of 16.22. The minimum score for the sample is 37 and the maximum score obtained is 148 (M=4.00). The kurtosis value of the distribution is 2.11 indicating that the scores are peak and compressed. The skewness is –0.90 indicating that the distribution is negatively skewed. The normality of the distribution is tested using the Kolmogorov Smirnov (D=0.06) and it reached significance, \( p<.05 \). Likewise the Shapiro Wilks Tests was also used (W=0.96) and consistent with the results of the Kolmogorov Smirnov, the distribution was significant, \( p<.05 \). Figure 1 shows the distribution of scores.

Figure 1

*Distribution of Scores for Teacher Assessment*

The means and standard deviations of the scores for each subscale is reported in Table 3.
Table 3  
**Mean and Standard Deviation for each Subscale**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>M/no. of items</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization and Planning</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.15</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>15.90</td>
<td>16.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Interaction</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.19</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>18.88</td>
<td>19.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.20</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>11.98</td>
<td>12.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Methods</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.37</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>20.97</td>
<td>21.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course Outcome</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.29</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>18.98</td>
<td>19.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner-centeredness</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.90</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>15.60</td>
<td>16.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.05</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>12.82</td>
<td>13.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* 1.00 – 1.49: Needs Improvement, 1.50 – 1.99: Poor, 2.00 – 2.49: Moderately satisfactory, 3.00 – 3.49: Very satisfactory, 3.50 – 4.00: Outstanding

The mean levels of the teachers’ performance on each of the subscales are all very satisfactory. The highest subscale rated is communication (M=3.26) as well as organization and planning (M=3.23). These two subscales also show accurate mean rating as indicated by the confidence interval values with low standard errors. The lowest mean ratings were on evaluation (M=3.05) and the use of instructional methods (3.05). The mean rating for evaluation subscale shows to have the most accurate and have least error.

Reliability

The overall reliability of the scale using Cronbach’s alpha is .96 indicating that the items are highly consistent. The Cronbach’s alpha for each subscale is shown in Table 4.

Table 4  
**Internal Consistency of Each Subscale**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscales</th>
<th>No. of items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization and Planning</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Interaction</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Methods</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course Outcome</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner-centeredness</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The individual internal consistency for each subscales show that learner-centeredness (.85) and communication (.85) obtained high reliability even though there are only few items. Course outcome is one of the subscales with a large pool of items and the internal consistency is marginal (.80). However all the subscales even when treated separately still showed high reliability.

Item total-correlation was also conducted and the change in Cronbach’s alpha if an item is deleted is also shown.

**Intercorrelation of the Subscales**

To establish the subscale of the teacher assessment, the subscales were intercorrelated to see the pattern of their magnitude and strength. The correlation matrix is shown in Table 5. The results show that there is a moderate to high correlation coefficient values among the subscales and all are significant even at .01 alpha level. The strength of the relationship does not really indicate very high correlation coefficients indicating that the subscales are not multicollinear. To a certain degree the scale measures different aspects of the teachers’ performance.

**Table 5**

*Correlation Matrix of the Subscales of the Teacher Assessment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Organization and Planning</th>
<th>Student Interaction</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>Instructional Methods</th>
<th>Course Outcome</th>
<th>Learner-centeredness</th>
<th>Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization and Planning</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.76**</td>
<td>.64**</td>
<td>.67**</td>
<td>.65**</td>
<td>.70**</td>
<td>.63**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Interaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.68**</td>
<td>.69**</td>
<td>.67**</td>
<td>.69**</td>
<td>.61**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Methods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course Outcome</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner-centeredness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** n

The pattern of the correlations shows that all factors are highly correlated with learner-centeredness. This means that as the teacher becomes learner-centered, all other aspects of the teacher’s performance increases as rated by students. Moderate degree of relationship occurred between communication and evaluation and high degree for organization and planning with student interaction.
Tree Clustering

The correlation matrix does not say much about the structure of the factors. A tree analysis was conducted to further look into the hierarchy of the factors and identify the subsets that will be formed. The formed subsets were tested through CFA. The tree diagram is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1
Tree Diagram of the Subscales of Teacher Performance

The tree clustering shows that three pairs of subsets are formed: (1) organization and planning with learner-centeredness, (2) evaluation and communication, (3) student interaction and course outcome. However, these pairs are also linked creating two subsets. The first subset is composed of organization and planning, learner-centeredness, evaluation and communication. The other set is composed of student interaction, course outcome, and teaching methods.

In the correlation matrix, not so high relationship exists between communication and evaluation; however in the tree clustering, their distance is close. For the rest of the pairs, the Euclidean distances are consistent with the tree clustering.
Multidimensional Scaling

To confirm the distances formed in the tree clustering, the multidimensional scaling procedure is conducted to see the distances of the factors in a two dimensional plane. The distances are shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2
Two Dimensional Plot of the Distances among the Subscales of Teacher Assessment

![Two Dimensional Plot of the Distances among the Subscales of Teacher Assessment](image)

The results of the tree clustering are very much consistent with the multidimensional scaling. The same pairs of subscales are together in each quadrant. However, what is interesting to note is the degree that can be interpreted along the X and Y axis of the two dimensional plane. The subscales vary within the Y axis where teaching method is in the highest region and student interaction at the lowest. The Y axis tells about the occurrence of teacher performance in a community service course. The strategy that the teachers use is the one given prime importance about the teacher and less with the interaction since in a community service class less interaction occurs. In a community service class, most of the work is in the field so the teachers’ use of methods, communication, and evaluation count largely during the encounter.

Along the abscissa, the highest point is evaluation and the lowest is teaching method. This continuum can be interpreted according to the degree of effect on the students. Students are likely to receive the effect of the course through the grades and feedback that they receive in class. This also shows
that the techniques used by the teachers may not have that potent effect on students.

**Confirmatory Factor Analysis**

Three models were tested using the structural equations modeling approach. The CFA distinguishes which is the best and suitable model for teacher assessment in a community service class. In the first model, the subscales are all entered as major components of teacher performance. In the second model the subscales are clustered in two major subscales as common factors. In the third model, the subscales are clustered in three sets also as common factors. Figure 3-5 shows the parameter estimates of the models.

**Figure 3**

*Multidimensional Seven Factor Model*
Figure 4
Two Multifactor Model

Figure 5
Three Multifactor Model
The value of the Standardized Residual RMSEA of the three models is 0.031 which did not change. This shows that the three models show a rather good fit because the obtained value is less than .05. However when the Steiger-Lind RMSEA Index was used, a variation occurred on the goodness of fit for the three models. Model 1 has the least error (RMSEA=0.126) as compared to Model 2 (RMSEA=.131) and Model 3 (RMSEA=.144). The pattern in the residual mean square error shows that teacher’s performance is best viewed as multidimensional rather than multifactorial (Models 2 and 3 are multifactorial with larger RMSEA values). The Noncentrality Fit Indices are shown in Table 6. The confidence intervals of the point estimates are also reported.

### Table 6  
**Noncentrality Fit Indices**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noncentrality Fit Indices</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Point</td>
<td>Upper</td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Point</td>
<td>Upper</td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Point</td>
<td>Upper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90% CI</td>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>90% CI</td>
<td>90% CI</td>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>90% CI</td>
<td>90% CI</td>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>90% CI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population Noncentrality</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>0.224</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>0.228</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameter</td>
<td>Steiger-Lind RMSEA Index</td>
<td>0.106</td>
<td>0.126</td>
<td>0.147</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>0.153</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McDonald Noncentrality Index</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.895</td>
<td>0.925</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.894</td>
<td>0.924</td>
<td>0.857</td>
<td>0.892</td>
<td>0.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population Gamma Index</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.957</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.957</td>
<td>0.919</td>
<td>0.939</td>
<td>0.956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted Population Gamma Index</td>
<td>0.841</td>
<td>0.881</td>
<td>0.914</td>
<td>0.827</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.907</td>
<td>0.793</td>
<td>0.844</td>
<td>0.887</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the measures of noncentrality fit indices, Model 1 shows to compensate more for model parsimony because of the low values in the Population Noncentrality Parameter (0.222) and Steiger-Lind RMSEA (0.126). In using the McDonald Noncentrality Index, Model 1 is still the best fitting model having the highest value. However in using the Population Gamma Index and its adjusted value, Model 2 had the highest fit (.957, .907). Table 7 shows the estimates of the single sample goodness of fit to see other ways of comparing the three models taking into consideration their parsimony.
Table 7

**Noncentrality Fit Indices**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Single Sample Fit Indices</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joreskog GFI</td>
<td>0.933</td>
<td>0.933</td>
<td>0.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joreskog AGFI</td>
<td>0.866</td>
<td>0.856</td>
<td>0.830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akaike Information Criterion</td>
<td>0.301</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>0.313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion</td>
<td>0.423</td>
<td>0.436</td>
<td>0.461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Browne-Cudeck Cross Validation Index</td>
<td>0.302</td>
<td>0.306</td>
<td>0.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model Chi-Square</td>
<td>2722.45</td>
<td>2722.45</td>
<td>2722.450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model df</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index</td>
<td>0.957</td>
<td>0.957</td>
<td>0.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index</td>
<td>0.943</td>
<td>0.938</td>
<td>0.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bentler Comparative Fit Index</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>0.961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James-Mulaik-Brett Parsimonious Fit Index</td>
<td>0.638</td>
<td>0.593</td>
<td>0.501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bollen's Rho</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td>0.931</td>
<td>0.918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bollen's Delta</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>0.961</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The values obtained for the population fit using the Joreskog (.933) shows a slight goodness of fit because they are close to .95. However, when adjusted for population equivalence, the values became lower (Model 1=.866, Model 2=.856, Model 3=.830). In using the Akaike Information Criterion, Model 1 showed to have the best approximation of data because it has the lowest value (.301) as compared to Models 2 and 3. The Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion value is consistent with the Akaike Information Criterion where Model 1 tends to be the appropriate according to the sequence of models with its low value (0.423). To cross validate the model using the Brown-Cudeck, the value from model 1 to model 3 are increasing where model 1 shows to be the best fitting model. The large chi-square value for the three models ($\chi^2=2722.45$, df=21) indicates a rather good fit. The other single sample fit indices such as the Bentler-Bonnet and James Mulaik and Bolen’s show that Model 1 is the best fitting model which is consistent with the other measures of fit. However, every time the values are calibrated to account for model parsimony the values change as indicated in the Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index, James-Mulaik-Brett Parsimonious Fit Index. The Bollen’s rho shows a relative decrease in the discrepancy function of the data as the model becomes complex.

It can be observed that when the subscales are further clustered into latent factors, the goodness of fit becomes less. The latent factors in Model 2 and Model 3 when correlated showed not to be significant. This pattern provides evidence that the factors are not multicollinear.
Discussion

The instrument assessing teacher’s performance in the NSTPCW1 and NSTPCW2 resulted to have high reliability index. Having significant intercorrelations among the factors proves the concurrent validity of the subscales. The goodness of fit based on the Confirmatory Factor Analysis proved the factor structure of the assessment tool as a model. What makes the measure appropriate to be used in a community service course is the ability of the subscales to encapsulate and describe the process that occurs in the elements of the course as shown by the pattern of proximities in the multidimensional scaling. The patterns that occurred in the multidimensional scaling describe the kind of teaching that takes place in a community service course, as shown the continuum in the Y axis which places teaching method in the highest region and student interaction in the lowest. This pattern describes what is currently happening in a community service course where the factors on student interaction, organization and planning, learner-centeredness, and course outcome are less shown because the students have a limited time with the teacher. The students only meet at the beginning and at the end of the course. As compared with the study of Spencer, Cox-Petersen, and Crawford (2005) the teachers’ presence in the community work allows them to get to know each of the students on a much more personal level much quicker than in a typical classroom with a considerably larger group of students. Another dimension is the continuum of effect on students. As indicated, students are affected highly by the evaluation or feedback and learner-centeredness obtained in the course and less on the other factors such as teaching method and course outcome. This supports the findings of Ovando (2001) where the learner-centered teacher evaluation system is effective in some extent if it is implemented properly, includes walk-through observation, professional growth, feedback, self-evaluations, and learner-centered dialogue. This further supports the study of Magno and Sembrano (2006) that learner-centered practices affect directly teachers’ effectiveness.

The structure of the assessment measure of teacher performance shows that it is better to have a multidimensional scale than a multifactorial scale. Having a multidimensional scale puts equal emphasis on all factors of teaching performance rather than reducing it further to clusters. The structure supports the frameworks of Danielson’s Components of Professional Practice (2000) and The Basic Skills and Knowledge of Faculty Education from the University of Alberta (as cited in Aoki, 1984). Majority of the widely used instruments that assess teacher’s performance are also multidimensional (Pike, 1998; Allison-Jones & Hirt, 2004; Howard, Helms, & Lawrence, 1997, Centra, 1998; Scriven, 1994; Li-Ping Tang, 1997; Marsh & Bailey, 1993; Young & Shaw, 1999; Heckert, Latier, Ringwald, & Silvey, 2006; Stringer & Irwing, 1998; and Wanous & Hudy, 2001). The advantage of
having a multidimensional scale enables teachers to see what specific areas they need to improve or maintain. This also aids in the conferencing phase of the assessment with the supervisor where much can be discussed because every aspect of the teaching perspective is represented by a global score.

**Recommendations**

1. It is recommended to use the instrument on a regular basis so that the psychometric properties will be further established across time. The estimates of validity and reliability are only taken at one point in time and it is influenced by the sampling behavior of the students. The reliability may change depending on the characteristics of the sample. Having a regular assessment of the teachers in NSTPCW1 and NSTPCW2 are helpful for the teacher in the improvement of their teaching.

2. It is recommended that the instrument be tested in both community service class and a regular classroom-based class. This will show the emerging difference that is unique for the kind of teaching that occurs in a community service class and investigate further which subscale are domain-general and domain-specific to teaching.

3. It is recommended in the actual practice of community service that once in a while the teachers monitor their students in the field. This will enhance the impact of the teacher on students.

4. The results of the multidimensional scaling need to be coupled with qualitative data to accurately explain the continuum where the subscales are placed.

**References**


Investigating Effects of Anxiety and Perfectionism as Predictors of Adolescent Career Indecision

Ryan Jim Sy
De La Salle University, Manila, Philippines

Abstract
The study investigated the effects of anxiety and perfectionism on career indecision. It was hypothesized in the study that anxiety and perfectionism simultaneously occurs, thus, making an individual difficult to commit and decide to a career. Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, Self Rating Anxiety Scale, and Filipino Adolescent Career Indecision Scale were administered to 354 university students. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used wherein two models were tested: (1) the first model had a bad fit (RMSEA = 0.93, GFI = .914, NFI = .743 and CFI = .728) and that perfectionism is no relationship with anxiety. (2) second model, (RMSEA = .027, GFI = .989, NFI = .966 and CFI = .993) perfectionism scale factors were compressed to parental control and self-criticism, and one factor from career indecision was deleted from the model, it showed that anxiety has significant path to perfectionism but not significant to career indecision, and perfectionism has a significant path to career indecision at p<.05. The second model has a better goodness of fit as shown by the RMSEA and other indicators of fit indices.

Keywords: Adolescent Career Indecision, Anxiety, Perfectionism

Introduction
Counseling psychologists and counselors alike are long researching for the different factors and facets of career indecision. What leads to this focus is the difficulty among adolescents to choose and execute proper career decision-making. No doubt, that it has been one of the most researched themes in the field of adolescent development, and counselor education. Theories in vocational behavior had expanded to capture the different phases and experiences of career from puberty to old age. It is good to note that career indecisions among adolescents and now even managers and workers are being investigated to both the interpersonal and intrapersonal facets of an individual.

Individuals who are confused about their career options are said to be experiencing developmental issue. Persons like that may not experience too severe problems as compared to depression or phobic disorders. Roe (1975) was one of the career development theorists who had the first efforts in investigating effects of family influence on career, but it failed to show ample empirical support from the literature. There are studies that identified factors of career indecision, which helps researchers, and counseling psychologists to provide better career intervention for the youth. There are
studies on career indecisions that aim to provide a family-systems view and parental behavior dynamics. Efforts are also made by investigating variables in complex patterns to generate more information about career indecision. Dietrich and Kracke (2000) mentioned that the quality of parent-adolescent relationship are important in career development but there are still gaps as to how certain negative parental behaviors are seemed to be connected to career indecision, most Asian adolescents are showed to be anxious in achieving the demands of their parents to be the best in their chosen field. Thus sometimes it leads them to push for more. No doubt that Asian adolescents’ perfectionism are rated higher compared to other adolescents such as Caucasians and Africans.

**Career Indecision**

Studies on the differences between career indecision and indecisiveness were clarified by Salomone (1982) arguing that indecision in a career context is a developmental issue while individual’s indecisiveness is a general personality trait. Early studies of Holland and Holland (1977) clearly presented adolescent’s career indecision as those who have no particular decision for the moment, next, is the immature and slightly dependent and personality-weak adolescent, and the last is the anxious and incompetent type, the typology of Holland was not the first effort to create typology for career indecision. Larson, Heppner, Ham and Dugan (1988) identified four typologies of career indecision with the use of cluster analysis, they found out that there are adolescents who are planless avoiders, informed indecisive, confident and uninformed, and the last is the uninformed. Another typology research was done by Germeijis and De Boeck (2003) by using the decision theory in conceptualizing the three factors of career indecision.

In the efforts to provide a more culturally-defined measure of career indecision San Diego (2010) devised an instrument based on the theory of Rojewski (1994)) that career indecision can be seen among adolescent in three types, namely, transitional, tentative, and chronic undecided. In the study, San Diego used exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis to test the responses of 250 college students. Results of the measure provide a good Cronbach’s alpha of .85, but a bad fit of \( RMSEA = 0.07 \) and \( PGI = 0.81 \) and \( AGFI = 0.82 \) which is in need of model re-arrangement. Table 1, provides the factor and the definition for each career indecision factor. In the study of Rojewski (1994), it is clear that there is a presence of chronic undecidedness which is not present in the four factor model of San Diego. It is also worth mentioning that in the exploratory factor analysis result there were no chronic undecidedness revealed but scant traces of items leading to chronic undecidedness. Instead, assertive undecidedness which is also similar to confident and uninformed of Holland and Holland (1977) were supported.
Table 1
Factors of Career Indecision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transitional undecided</td>
<td>Adolescent who feels and think that he needs to shift to another course or program, or feels overwhelmed about not able to satisfy his needs and wants in the future due to so many interests and abilities. A commitment-fragile adolescent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tentative undecided</td>
<td>Adolescent is informed of his/her own abilities and interests, and able to decide properly and do sequential steps to achieve future goals, and in the process of working with his or her plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertive undecided</td>
<td>Adolescent who is well motivated to seek help, anxiety driven, get most information about future career, and do necessary help-seeking procedures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uninformed undecided</td>
<td>Adolescent who is less motivated to do preparations for the future career goals. Dependent on others decisions and does not explore his or her career options well.</td>
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</table>

Perfectionism

Despite the growing trends of research regarding perfectionism, there is still lack of clarity as to how perfectionism is related to career indecision. Hewitt and Flett (1991) analyzed dimensions of perfectionism and found out that it has three factors namely, self-oriented, other-oriented, and socially prescribed. In line with this Frost, Marsten, Lahart, and Rosenblate (1990) used a multidimensional perspective in studying perfectionism. Compared to the early works of Hewitt and Flett, the multidimensionality of perfectionism span into six factors, such as personal standards, organization, concern over mistake, parental standards, parental expectations, and parental criticism. Johnson and Stanley (1996) mentioned that a typical perfectionist has a character disposition of being self-critical and found to be related to anxiety.
There are several studies associated with the multidimensional features of perfectionism and adolescent academic achievement. Sue and Okazaki (1996) used cultural and social view in explaining academic achievements among adolescents. In the study, Asian Americans are said to be pressured because of high parental expectations and may experience parental criticism if goals are not met. Chang (1998) continuously defined behaviors of Asian American as more doubtful about their actions, and conscious of making mistakes as compared to Caucasian adolescents. In addition, parents of Asian American students placed emphasis on achievement, and strivings compared to Caucasian students, this would result to guilt feelings in the long term process. Okazaki (1990) reiterated that it is best to look at perfectionism on how Asian values influenced it.

A significant portion of the Frost Multidimensional Scale of Perfectionism was placed on parental interaction and demands. Studies suggest that perfectionism can influence career indecision in decomposing the factor of parental control. In the study of Schultheiss, Kress, Manzi, and Glasscock (2001) adolescents who reported controlling parents tends to become passive in their career development process. Parents who are demanding and imposed their demands on their youth are more likely to not to participate in self-efficacious career decision-making. At the same line, parental interference (enmeshed with relationships, overly controlling) as what mentioned in the study of Dietrich and Kracke (2009) are positively correlated with problems of decision-making. In addition, Kinier (1990) found support that adolescents who are independent are more decided in their career and more stable of their career options.

Potent information can be gathered from the study of Page, Bruch, and Haase (2008) on the relevance of perfectionism in organizational and industrial setting. The researcher hypothesized that neuroticism and maladaptive perfectionism are inversely related to career decision-making, and adaptive perfectionism are directly related to career decision making. The result of the study supported the first hypothesis that maladaptive perfectionism is associated with less self-efficacy in decision-making. It was also clarified that maladaptive perfectionism was associated with less commitment to career. It is also important to note that neuroticism, maladaptive perfectionism and self-criticism are necessary in the dynamics of career indecision.

Anxiety

Hardin, Varghese, Tran, and Carlson (2006) hypothesized that anxiety is associated with career exploration and commitment. In the study concerning 161 samples, it showed that those with higher anxiety tend to exhibit lower vocational commitment. In addition to the result of their study, gender and self-construal interact with anxiety. To support the claim that
further, Fuqua, Newman, and Seaworth (1988) made substantial evidence that leads to the relationship between career indecision and anxiety, their study focus on the identification of the factors of career indecision and the relationship of anxiety factors for each, only the fourth factor of career indecision with features of multiple interest are not related to anxiety. Same researchers (Fuqua, Newman & Seaworth, 2004) did a personality-related research to support anxiety’s presence in career indecision research a canonical correlation analysis and factor analysis was utilized in examining the relationship of a set of four dimension anxiety scale and equally four dimension career indecision factor, results revealed that there is a one-dimensional relationship between the two latent variable.

McGowan (2004) investigated if career indecision and indecisiveness is related to variables such as anxiety and vocational development maturity. He found out in his experimental study that career indecision an indecisiveness is not differentially different when it comes to the two latent variable’s relationship to anxiety and career maturity.

The aim of the present paper is to provide a model that seeks to predict career indecisions among adolescents, specifically the researcher identified perfectionism, and anxiety as mentioned in literature that is well correlated with career indecision.

Method

Research Design

The design of the study is predictive and cross-sectional research, as mentioned by Johnson (2001) that base on time the researcher tested the sample once and the aim of the study is to pursue a predictive pattern if variables such as perfectionism and general anxiety are both related to career indecision. Another purpose is to provide a model that can explain the experience of career indecision among Filipino adolescents.

Participants

In the study, there were 354 university students in various colleges and universities around Metro Manila. Course programs are well represented (Education, Business, Engineering, Psychology, Sociology, Politics and Legal Studies, Communication, Sciences, Computer and Technology, as well as Vocational Education). The participants’ age ranges are from 16 to 24 years old. Inclusions criteria are set that that participant who are currently enrolled in their college or university and is a non-graduating student can take and answer the questionnaire.

Materials
Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS). The FMPS is an instrument designed by Frost (1990) to assess perfectionism. It is a 35-item scale to tap dimensions of perfectionism. Perfectionism is perceived to be as showing individual standards of behavior accompanied by critical behavior. The scale can be used for both research and clinical setting. The subscale was derived by adding the item scores per dimension. FMPS is divided into 6 major dimensions such as parental control, parental criticism, parental standards, doubts about action, concern about mistakes and organization, a higher score suggests high level of perfectionism. The scale has fair to good reliabilities, alpha ranges from .73 to .90 for the subscales. FMPS is has good concurrent validity, correlating significantly with other tests of perfectionism.

Filipino Adolescent Career Indecision Scale (FACIS). The FACIS is an instrument design by San Diego (2010) to assess college student’s career indecision. The scale use to measure the student’s level of indecision after the theory of Rojewski (1994). It is a likert-type scale which has 4 major dimensions namely, tentatively undecided, uninformed undecided, assertive undecided, and transitional undecided. The whole scale cronbach’s alpha is .84, which is good, and subscales range from moderate to good Cronbach’s alpha of .61 to .90. The scale can be used for research and career counseling and vocational interventions.

Self-Rating Anxiety Scale (SAS). The SAS was devised by Zung (1971) to measure symptoms of anxiety both for the psychiatric and non-psychiatric population. The scale consists of 5 affective symptoms of anxiety, and 15 somatic symptoms of anxiety. Reliability data are not available in known research databases but SAS has a fair concurrent validity and has fair correlation values with the Manifest Anxiety Scale.

Procedure

The FMPS, SAS, and FACIS were administered to university and college students around Metro Manila. They took around 25 minutes to finish the questionnaires. After answering, students are requested to give the questionnaires to the research assistants for data sorting, encoding, and further analysis.

Data Analysis

Means, standard deviations, and Cronbach’s alpha were computed for the FMPS, SAS, and FACIS to differentiate total scale and subscale reliability. Structural Equation Modeling with the use of Amos 16 was chosen to check the hypothesized model fit. The goodness of fit model was indicated
using the chi-square, discrepancy function, Root Mean Error Approximation (RMSEA), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), and Adjust GFI (AGFI) and other goodness of fit indices.

**Result**

Descriptive statistics of the three variables, perfectionism, anxiety, and career indecision were reported and the respective Cronbach’s alpha.

**Table 2**

*Sample size, Means, Standard deviations, and Cronbach’s alpha*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Indecision</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitional</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>122.05</td>
<td>16.42</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tentative*</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>36.07</td>
<td>10.99</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uninformed</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>47.01</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertive</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>22.34</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16.61</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Affect</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>34.09</td>
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<td>.77</td>
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<tr>
<td>Somatic</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>7.42</td>
<td>2.24</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>26.68</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>.70</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perfectionism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Parental criticism (PC)</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>108.48</td>
<td>14.92</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parental expectation (PC)</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>9.77</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>.66</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parental standards (PC)</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>15.51</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.65</td>
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<tr>
<td>Doubts about action (SC)</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>24.16</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern about mistake (SC)</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>12.26</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization (SC)</td>
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<td>21.18</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>22.50</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Tentative* was deleted from the last model study, PC (Parental Control), SC (Self-Criticism) where used in coding for the last model study.

The Mean score of 354 for career indecision is 122.05 with a standard deviation of 16.42. It shows that Career Indecision subscales have moderate to excellent reliability, having Transitional undecided with the highest reliability among the subscale. Anxiety with a Mean score of 34.09 and standard deviation of 6.97 that is composed of Affect and Somatic symptom items are also moderate in reliability. Perfectionism with a Mean of 108.48 and standard deviation of 14.92 and its subscale are showed with moderate to good reliability. Adequate internal consistency was presented for each variables using Table 2.
Figure 1 showed anxiety and perfectionism in predicting career indecision. Perfectionism has six factors, while anxiety has two factors and career indecision with four factors.

**Figure 1**  
*Effects of Anxiety and Perfectionism on Career Indecision*

In model 1 chi square = 205.85 and with a degrees of freedom of 51 which is not significant, \( p < .05 \). RMSEA showed a poor fit with a value of .093, other measures of fit indices such as the GFI (.914) showed a good fit but the other fit indices tells otherwise, the AGFI (.868) and the PGFI (.598) are not good fit. NFI (.743), RFI (.668), IFI (.794), TLI (.728), and CFI (.789) are all not good fit. AIC (259.85), BCC (261.91), BIC (364.32), and CAIC (391.32) all reflecting the same as what the GFI showed. ECVI (.736) which is too small for the independence model (2.338) the Hoelter’s default model is 118, which does not exceed 200, means the first model is a bad fit.

**Figure 2**  
*Anxiety Affecting Career Indecision and Perfectionism*
In model 2 chi-square is 13.87, with degrees of freedom which is equivalent to 11, is significant $p > .05$. In this model, I combined all the factors in perfectionism into two distinct categories, first that deemed to be parental in nature, I clustered the parental criticism, parental standards, and parental expectations and named the factor as parental control. On the other hand, factors that deemed personal such as concern about mistake, doubts about action, and organization are clustered into one factor named as self-criticism. The averages for each factor are summed to get another average for parental control and self-criticism. I did another model arrangement by redirecting of path arrow from perfectionism-anxiety in model 1 to anxiety-perfection in model 2. In career indecision, I deleted the tentative undecided subscales which seem to have a negative parameter in model 1. After all of the necessary model fitting arrangement I run Amos 16 for model 2 and found out that GFI improves (Model 1 = .914 to Model 2 = .989) NFI best fits at (Model 1 = .743 to Model 2 = .966) while IFI (Model 1 = .794 to Model 2 = .993) CFI with a best fit from Model 1 which is .789 and Model 2 which is .993. On the other hand, RMSEA values specified a good fit from the first
model with values of .093 and second model value of .027. The AIC (47.87) and BCC (48.65) showed that model 2 is the best fitting model.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Single Sample Goodness of fit Indices</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goodness of fit indices</td>
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<td>--------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
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<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGFI</td>
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<tr>
<td>PGFI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
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<tr>
<td>RFI</td>
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<td>IFI</td>
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<td>TLI</td>
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<td>CFI</td>
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<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
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<tr>
<td>AIC</td>
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<td>BCC</td>
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<td>BIC</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAIC</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECVI</td>
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<tr>
<td>HOELTER</td>
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</table>

Discussion

Does anxiety have effects on career indecision?

Model 2 showed that Anxiety is not related to career indecision, but associated with perfectionism. An anxiety measure that was used was a general symptom based scale compared to a multidimensional scale of anxiety. SAS (Zung, 1971) which is a self rating only identified anxiety in its symptom, affective (based on how the person experience anxiety) and somatic (based on how the individual experience physiological manifestation of anxiety. It is good to note that among Filipino adolescents, it is not directly the general feeling of anxiety that leads them to experience career indecision but most likely the presence of another latent variable, that which, in this study, perfectionism. The presence of a general anxiety among the samples is normal anxiety feelings and not the severe level of anxiety. Anxiety propels the adolescent obey and even drive themselves to follow certain rules and principles based on tradition and culture out of guilt and shame.
On the contribution of perfectionism to career indecision

In support of the findings of Okazaki (1990) that influence of Asian values should be considered in this kind of study, when model 2 was tested for fit it showed that the clustering of perfectionism scale into 2 factor model namely, parental control and self-criticism gave the model a best fit. This is also to support the idea that Filipino adolescents give importance to family/systemic values, and likewise consider such as a big portion in career decision-making process. In addition to the influence of the family, self-criticism is also one factor in choosing a suitable career or course. We can point several ideas from the results and categorize it to dimensions such as negative parental control with positive self-evaluation, positive parental control and negative self-evaluation, negative parental control with negative self-evaluation, and positive parental control and positive self-evaluation.

A Filipino adolescent is most likely to commit to a career or course if parents showed career-related positive behavior and experience less anxiety in the process of career decision-making. As showed in the compressed second model, that career indecision only happens when adolescents are not well informed, having less guidance from their parents or teachers and are less motivated to explore his or her options. This feature has been shown in the restructuring of the career indecision in model 2 wherein, deletion of tentative indecision contributes to the structural model fit.

It is also best to consider for parents to minimize criticisms, high standards and expectations so that adolescents may have a healthy time crystallizing their chosen careers or course programs. It is believed that self-criticism is learned from parents, and the environment, given that adolescents’ ego development are also in the process of maturity it is also appropriate that a more systemic approach in career intervention such as involving the parents or guardians because they have a bigger impact on the adolescent’s career development and also the teachers so that they can accompany their students’ identify their career related interests and abilities.

References


**About the Author**

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