Journal of Institutional Research South East Asia

JIRSEA

Volume 11 Number 2
2013

ISSN 1675-6061

Editor:
Nirwan Idrus PhD*Monash*IQA*London*

All papers are refereed by two appropriately independent,
qualified experts and evaluated according to:

- Significance in contributing new knowledge
  - Appropriateness for the Journal
    - Clarity of presentation
    - Technical adequacy

JIRSEA is indexed with the Directory of Open Access Journals, SCOPUS, EBSCoHost (Education Research Index/Education Research Complete) and currently applying to INFORMIT (Australasian Scholarly Research). As provided in the Ulrich's Directory, all journals in the DOAJ are also indexed in the Ulrich's Directory

---

SEAAIR
SOUTH EAST ASIAN ASSOCIATION
FOR INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH

http://www.seaairweb.info

CONTENTS

Page

EDITORIAL BOARD

EDITORIAL

Welcome to the second edition of JIRSEA for 2013.

In this edition we have contributions from Jordan, The Philippines, Thailand and Malaysia. If you like the *theme* perhaps it could be simplistically categorized as being *macro-education* or *macro-IR* as the articles discuss more global issues and less on the details of teaching and learning as such.

Lee and Pang open this edition with a research report on adult learners' motivation and their observations on the differences between adult enrolments in a public and a private universities in Malaysia. Their results would be instructive for other Malaysian and universities in neighbouring countries that are embarking on adult and lifelong learning programs. We know of course that higher educational institutions generally and commencing recently in South East Asia, do have to fine-tune their teaching and learning styles and deliveries to ensure lifelong learning given the technology advances that impact on knowledge acquisition and application.

Laoingco et al researched the caring preparedness of nurses in The Philippines and contended generally that for a profession that is synonymous with care the care quality of the student nurses is a lot to be desired. Family background seems to be a critical factor as well as ethnic and cultural environments. Questions that arise from their findings would include whether Nursing Programs should require as an entry criterion a minimum level of care awareness and practice; whether the initial parts of a Nursing Program should include subjects on caring and perhaps a demonstration of the importance of caring attitudes as a necessary quality of a nurse. It seems only logical to do so.

Generally, awareness is a wise starting point for any endeavour including academic pursuit, research and even teaching. A sobering assertion on this in the case of teaching perhaps is encapsulated in a quote attributed to Einstein which goes as follows:

> "*School failed me, and I failed the school. It bored me. The teachers behaved like Feldwebel (sergeants). I wanted to learn what I wanted to know, but they wanted me to learn for the exam. What I hated most was the competitive system there, and especially sports. Because of this I wasn't worth anything, and several times they suggested I leave. This was a Catholic School in Munich. I felt that my thirst for knowledge was being strangled by my teachers; grades were their only measurement. How can a teacher understand youth with such a system? From the age of twelve I began to suspect authority and distrust teachers.*"

In a multi-ethnic society as in The Philippines it would seem inevitable that topics such as Lauingco et al's would beg questions also in the sociology, psychology areas as well as on cultural aspects. At the same time, Einstein's lament shown above would also be appropriate to be included, for the impacts of technology on our 'young' students are

indelible and understanding them in order to ensure teaching and learning effectiveness is increasingly an imperative that many universities in many South East Asian countries have yet to recognize.

Awareness in learning a language is discussed by Walaipun Puengpipattrakul in her paper entitled: *Applied ELT: Raising Language Awareness through hybrid writing*. I think it is a gross understatement to say things like English being the *lingua franca* of the world. Other sources had shown that about 1 Billion people in the world now are *English as a Second Language* speakers and that some 300 million Chinese on mainland China are currently studying English. That number is more than the total population of Indonesia the fourth largest (by population) country in the world and some twelve times that of Malaysia. Just imagine that, especially if you have met graduates from those English classes in China. What is proposed by Walaipun Puengpipattrakul in this paper would seem a very good start for the teaching and learning of English as a Second Language especially for South East Asians.

Luck Kee et al suggested yet another effective way of learning English through digital story telling. Perhaps the 'digital' bit here adds another dimension to what some would claim to be a typical Asian way of disseminating history or legend anyway. However, to now incorporate aspects of technology is in itself historical in my opinion. It actually does at least two things, namely, recognizing the pervasive impacts of technology and second recognizing the fact that our pupils and students were born into the computer age and have been exposed to computers since they were two or three years old. To deprive them of these would seem certain to make their learning derisory.

Assafeh and Al-Ebous basically wrapped up the discussions this time on the need to make learning effective, by reminding us of the importance of treating students' feedback about their lecturers' and teachers' relevance in their learning. From my experience having been involved in higher education in five countries, three of which in South East Asia, I have to say that there is an enormous need to retrain our lecturers. Only a few days ago a lecturer at a Malaysian university told me that "*...students don't know anything and we lecturers must fill their brains with knowledge from us...*".

The Opinion Page concludes this edition with a provocative topic on university ranking.

Nirwan Idrus

Editor

MOTIVATIONAL ORIENTATIONS IN ADULT LEARNING:
COMPARING A PUBLIC AND PRIVATE UNIVERSITY

Pei-Ling Lee and Vincent Pang
School of Education and Social Development, Universiti Malaysia Sabah,
Jalan UMS, 88400 Kota Kinabalu, Sabah, Malaysia
pang.ums@gmail.com

Abstract

Motivation to participate in learning programs among adult learners can be viewed in terms of motivational orientations. Understanding of motivational orientations in learning is crucial to all administrators, program planners and educators of higher education institutions for the development of adult learning. This study aims to investigate the differences of five motivational orientations in learning between adult learners in a public and a private university. The study involved 255 adult learners in the public university and 250 adult learners in the private university in Sabah. A 30-item questionnaire was used to collect data about their five motivational orientations in learning i.e. personal development, career advancement, social pressure, social and communication improvement, and escapism. Items in the questionnaire used to measure motivational orientations were adapted from Boshier's EPS and Neill's TUSMSQ2. Findings reveal that adult learners from both universities are most influenced to participate in learning programs by career advancement and personal development. However, adult learners in the public university possess higher motivation of personal development than career advancement; and vice versa for adult learners in the private university. Overall, it has been found that more adult learners in the private university are highly influenced by the five motivational orientations in learning as compared to those in the public university. Lastly, some implications and suggestions of further research are given in this paper.

Keywords: Motivational Orientations, Adult Learners, Learning

Introduction

Considering rapidly changing global trends which put emphasis on a knowledge-driven economy, adult learning is widely highlighted in government policies, business organizations, and higher education institutions. Consequently, access to higher education by adults is increasing continuously around the world (Faizah Majid and Hazadiah Dahan, 2010; Kasworm et al., 2000). In Malaysia, the number of working adults undertaking further education has also grown significantly over the past few years. (Tan, 2005).

It is believed that the high rates of participation in adult learning largely depend on motivation of adults to learn in order to meet their particular needs (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996; Abdul Razaq Ahmad et al., 2009). Motivation of learners can also be their reason for participating in learning programs (Garst and Ried, 1999). Bomia et al. (1997) state that motivation in learning is the learner's willingness, need, desire and obligation to be immersed in the learning process.

Therefore, motivation is the key factor in understanding adult learning. Motivation of adults varies in level according to either intrinsic or extrinsic motivational orientations (Gom, 2009; Tseng and Tsai, 2010). Their various forms of motivational orientations in learning can reflect their need for personal or environmental fulfilment (Boshier, 1991; Abdul Razaq Ahmad et al., 2009). However, the study of Abdul Razaq Ahmad et al. (2009) found that there were some adult learners who were not satisfied with the programs and courses offered by their higher education institutions. Moreover, there is still a lack of research concerning the issue of adult learning, particularly the motivation of adult learners to return to study (Knowles et al., 2011; Barnett, 2010; Parker, 2008).

Thus, an understanding of what motivates adults to participate in learning activities at higher education institutions has important implications for program planners and adult educators to identify needs when designing appropriate programs and teaching strategies (Fujita-Starck, 1996). With the proper adjustment and structure, programs which are compatible with learners' needs and preferences will be able to attract more adult learners and develop adult education of the nation. This is important to prepare a nation with a highly-skilled and knowledgeable human capital in order to thrive in this 21st century global market.

This paper reports on a study of five motivational orientations of adult learners for participating in further education learning programs at a public university and a private university in Malaysia. The mean differences of the five motivational orientations in the two universities are determined as well as their strengths between the two different groups of adult learners.

Related Literature

Houle's Typology

Houle's study (1961) in *The Inquiring Mind* interviewed 22 adult learners in Chicago and proposed that adult learners can be classified into three types:

- goal-oriented learners,
- activity-oriented learners, and
- learning-oriented learners.

Adult learners who undertake further education in order to achieve particular goals of life situations are categorized as goal-oriented learners. Those who participate in learning purposely to seek interpersonal relationships, to be recognized, or to comply with others' requirements are activity-oriented learners, and learning-oriented learners are those who are involved in learning purely for personal fulfillment.

Boshier's Congruence Model

Boshier investigated Houle's Typology in 1971 and created Education Participation Scale (EPS), which is the most enduring and frequently used instrument to measure motivational orientations of adult learners (Kim and Merriam, 2004). Boshier's (1971) EPS consisted of 14 factors and 48 items based on Houle's Typology.

Boshier (1973) set a congruence model which proposed that the motivation of adult learners to participate in educational activities is congruent with their perception of themselves and the nature of the education program or environment. Accordingly, adult learners are classified into growth-oriented adults and deficiency-oriented adults. Growth-oriented adults are motivated to learn by internal forces, they are independent, moving towards self-actualization, are open to new experiences and enjoy learning. Meanwhile, deficiency-oriented adults are motivated to learning by external factors.

Later, Boshier's (1991) new version of EPS was created (A-form) and it comprised of seven factors with 42 items. The seven motivational factors included communication improvements, social contact, educational preparation, professional advancement, family togetherness, escapism, and cognitive interest. The present study adapted Boshier's EPS (1991) in constructing the questionnaire items used to examine motivational orientations of adults participating in further education.

A Theory of Adult Learning: Andragogy

The theory of Andragogy brings understanding and consciousness about the different characteristics of adult learners and their specific needs via learning from *Pedagogical* learning for conventional young students (Knowles et al., 2011). The Andragogical model is based on six assumptions of adult learning i.e. the need to know, the learners' self-concept, the role of learners' experiences, readiness to learn, orientation to learning, and motivation.

Accordingly, adults need to know why they need to learn something before they involve themselves in a learning activity. They have a self-concept, thus they want autonomy over what to learn. The abundance of different life experiences becomes a learning resource for adults. This also implies that adults are heterogeneous in terms of background, characteristic, motivation, goals and needs (Knowles et al., 2011).

Adults are ready to learn the things that they need to know in order to cope effectively in real life situations. Therefore, they will only learn with the perception that learning is able to help them to solve their life problems. Adults are motivated to learn by some external factors such as career assurance. However, it may be asserted that internal motivation is more potent. As adults grow older, they become more self-directed and internally motivated to engage in learning activity (Knowles et al., 2011). Accordingly, Knowles' Andragogy of six assumptions about adult learning are important to bring understanding of various motivational orientations of adult learners with respect to their characteristics and needs.

Motivational Orientations of Participation in Adult Learning

Several past studies which utilized Boshier's EPS to measure motivational orientations of adults to participate in further education found that most adult learners were highly influenced by cognitive interest and career advancement, whereas they were least motivated by escapism when embarking in further education (Raghavan and Kumar, 2008; Joned and Lee, 2006; Mulenga and Liang, 2008; Garst and Ried, 1999). The study of Kim and Merriam (2004) found that older adult learners, aged 50 or above, ranked cognitive interest as the highest factor of motivation for them to engage in further education.

Barnett (2010) investigated four motivators for working adults to return to study and found that personal satisfaction or goal ranked as the motivator with the highest mean score, followed by career advancement, being an example for children or family, and lastly gaining more money. Ghani et al. (2008) conducted a study on a distance learning programs among adult learners in Malaysian public universities. Findings indicated that the main factor influencing adult learners to continue learning through distance learning was self-development. In addition, it was reported that social interaction was the next strongest motivator which led adult learners to continue learning through distance learning.

Motivational Orientations by Characteristics

Anderman et al. (2002) classified motivational orientations of adults to attend education programs, in several rural counties of Kentucky into four categories namely: for financial or job related reasons, for the sake of learning, for family-related reasons, and for no reason at all. Their study found that there were no differences in motivational orientations to attend adult education in terms of county, age, years of schooling, number of children, marital status, home ownership, receipt of public assistance, previous experience with adult education or current employment. Fujita-Starck (1996) who investigated the

motivation of adult students to participate in learning also found that the motivation of participants does vary from one curricular groups such as arts and leisure programs, personal development programs and professional development programs to another.

Boshier et al. (2006) found that adult learners aged 40 or below in Shanghai were most motivated by professional advancement in further learning. However, they were less motivated by escapism, social contact, family togetherness, and cognitive interest. This is vice versa for adult learners aged 41 and above. Findings further indicated that there were significant differences in mean scores of seven motivational orientations of EPS between adult learners aged 40 or below from those aged 41 and above. With respect to gender, it was found that there were no significant differences in the mean scores of communication improvement, family togetherness, educational preparation, and professional advancement between males and females. As for escapism, cognitive interest, and social contact, females are rated with higher mean scores for the respective three motivators compared to males.

Daehlen and Ure (2009) revealed that motivational orientations in further learning differ from group to group of adult learners. Adult learners with lower prior educational levels were found to be more motivated by extrinsic incentives rather than inner needs as compared with adult learners with higher prior educational levels. Specifically, they were highly motivated by obligation and socialisation needs to embark on further education. The study of Illeris (2003) indicated that motivation of adult learners to learn varies based on age. It was found that adult learners aged 30 or below were highly motivated to participate in adult education by internal forces, compared with those aged 31 and above. Adult learners with lower prior educational levels were found to be less motivated by inner forces; they participated in learning mainly for obligation and job-related reasons. Joned and Lee (2006) stated that there is a negative relationship between prior educational levels of adult learners with their motivation of family togetherness.

Bye et al. (2007) in their study found that non-traditional undergraduate students had higher levels of intrinsic motivation for learning than traditional undergraduate students. Non-traditional students were defined as those aged 28 and older who return to school after experiencing working and non-academic lives; whereas traditional students were those aged 21 or younger and entered university undergraduate programs immediately after high school. Their study implied that older students show greater interest and enjoy the educational process of mastering skills in learning as compared to younger students. On the other hand, the study of Parker (2008) revealed that different learning modes in higher education institutions would lead adults to encounter different barriers which might influence their motivation in learning.

Method

This study was carried out at a public university and a private university in Kota Kinabalu, Sabah. A 30-item questionnaire which was adapted from Boshier's (1991) Education Participation Scale (EPS) and Neill's (2004) The University Student Motivation and Satisfaction Questionnaire version 2 (TUSMSQ2). Data was collected from 255 adult learners in the public university and 250 adult learners in the private university who were selected by random sampling method. Boshier's EPS was considered useful in the study due to its high reliability, clarity, validity, and applicability in measuring motivation of adults to do further study (Joned and Lee, 2006; Mulenga and Liang, 2008). TUSMSQ2 was used as it was endorsed by Hassan Afzal et al. (2010) to investigate motivational orientations of university students to embark on higher education.

Respondents were asked to rate the influence of five motivational orientations for them in pursuing further education. Each of the five motivational orientations was measured by six fixed-response items. Each item in the questionnaire had five rates (1 = no influence, 2 = little influence, 3 = moderate influence, 4 = much influence, 5 = very much influence). The five motivational orientations of adult learners which were measured in this study involved personal development, career advancement, social pressure, social and communication improvement, and escapism. Personal development was categorized as intrinsic motivation whereas the other four motivational orientations were categorized as extrinsic motivation.

The data, which is based on the Likert five-point scale, was analysed using Quest (Adams and Khoo, 1996). This is an interactive computer analysis software using Item Response Theory (IRT) and Rasch Partial Credit Model (PCM) (Hambleton and Swaminathan, 1985; Wright and Masters, 1982). Quest analyses in this study mainly involved the interpretation of variable maps generated by the program based on fixed-response data of the adult learners. Effect size is the degree of difference between means in the form of standard score (Cohen, 1988; Carver, 1993; Hunter, Schmidt and Jackson, 1982). It was used to ascertain the means of estimates of two groups of adult learners in this study and the computation used the formula:

$$ES = \frac{x_2 - x_1}{s_p}$$

where x_1 and x_2 are the means of estimates of the respective groups and s_p is the pooled standard deviation which is calculated from

$$S_p{}^2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1{}^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2{}^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$

where n_1 and n_2 are the sample sizes, and s_1 and s_2 are their corresponding standard deviations (Glass et al., 1981). The interpretation of effect size in categories is suggested by Cohen (1988) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Interpretation of Effect Size

Value of Effect Size	Effect
ES < 0.2	Nil
0.2 ≤ ES < 0.5	Small
0.5 ≤ ES < 0.8	Medium
ES ≥ 0.8	Large

Findings and Discussion

Demographics of Adult Learners

Table 2: Comparison of Demographics of Adult Learners in a Public University and a Private University

		Public University N=255		Private University N=250	
Demographic Variables		**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**
Age	> than 25 years old	99	38.8	16	6.4
	25-30 years old	79	31.0	47	18.8
	31-35 years old	41	16.1	109	43.6
	36-40 years old	16	6.3	38	15.2
	> than 40 years old	20	7.8	40	16.0
Gender	Male	81	31.8	94	37.6
	Female	174	68.2	156	62.4
Status	Married	76	29.8	170	68.0
	Single	176	69.0	72	28.8
	Divorced	0	0.0	6	2.4
	Widowed	3	1.2	2	0.8
Prior Education Level	SPM/STPM	108	42.4	41	16.4
	Diploma	37	14.5	113	45.2
	Bachelor's Degree	110	43.1	96	38.4
Occupation	Unemployed	91	35.7	4	1.6
	Self-employed	10	3.9	40	16.0
	Private	49	19.2	65	26.0
	Government	105	41.2	141	56.4
Working Experience	Less than 2 years	112	43.9	20	8.0
	2-4 years	46	18.0	22	8.8
	5-7 years	45	17.6	104	41.6
	8-10 years	19	7.6	18	7.2
	More than 10 years	33	12.9	86	34.4
Current Level of Study	Bachelor's Degree	145	56.9	154	61.6
	Masters	110	43.1	96	38.4

From Table 2, it can be seen that the majority of adult learners in the public university (69.8%) are 30 years old or below, while the majority of adult learners in the private university (74.8%) are above 30 years old. In terms of distribution of adult learners by gender, more than half of the adult learners either in the public university (68.2%) or in the private university (62.4%) are female. As for marital status, it seems that the majority of adult learners (69.0%) in the public university are single while on the contrary, the majority of adult learners (68.0%) in the private university are married. With regard to prior education level, in the public university, 43.1% of respondents possess bachelor's degrees, while 56.9% of them are SPM (equivalent to O-level) or STPM (equivalent to A-level) and diploma holders. In the private university, there are 38.4% who possess bachelor's degrees, while 61.6% of the respondents are diploma, SPM or STPM holders.

Regarding occupation, 41.2% of adult learners in the public university are government servants, whereas 35.7% of them are unemployed, 19.2% of them are gainfully employed in the private sector, and 3.9% of them are self-employed. Meanwhile, 56.4% of adult learners in the private university are working as government servants, 26.0% of them are working in private sector, 16.0% of them are self-employed, and 1.6% of them are unemployed. In terms of years of working experience, the highest ranked percentage of range is less than 2 years of working experience which represented 43.9% of adult learners in the public university, whereas the highest ranked percentage of range in working experience is 5 to 7 years which consisted of 41.6% of adult learners in the private university. The distribution of respondents by current level of study indicates that more than half of adult learners both in the public university or the private university are studying bachelor's degree learning programs. In the public university, 56.9% of adult learners are undertaking bachelor's degree programs while 43.1% are studying in master's programs. In the private university, there are 61.6% of adult learners undertaking bachelor's degree programs and 38.4% studying in master's programs.

The Mean Scores of Motivational Orientations in Adult Learning

Table 3: Mean Scores based on Responses of the Five Motivational Orientations among Adult Learners in Public University and Private University

	Public University (N=255)		Private University (N=250)	
Motivational Orientations	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**
Personal Development (Intrinsic Motivation)	3.96	0.74	4.23	0.54
Career Advancement (Extrinsic Motivation)	3.84	0.72	4.28	0.61
Social Pressure (Extrinsic Motivation)	3.10	0.92	3.95	0.78
Social and Communication Improvement (Extrinsic Motivation)	3.26	0.83	4.01	0.94
Escapism (Extrinsic Motivation)	2.34	0.97	3.73	1.26

Table 3 indicates the responses of five motivational orientations for participating in learning programs among adult learners in the public university and the private university. Overall, it can be seen that adult learners in both universities are highly influenced by career advancement and personal development in learning as compared with other motivational orientations. Both groups of adult learners are less influenced by social and communication improvement, social pressure, and escapism. The findings concur with previous studies of Raghavan and Kumar (2008), Joned and Lee (2006), Mulenga and Liang (2008), and Garst and Ried (1999). However, adult learners in the public university seem to be more highly influenced by personal development than career advancement. In contrast, adult learners in the private university seem to be more highly influenced by career advancement than personal development. These findings can be further confirmed through the following variable maps and tables of mean estimates for personal development and career advancement.

Comparison of Five Motivational Orientations in Learning among Adult Learners in Public University and Private University

Variable maps in the following five sets of figures show the responses of items in personal development, career advancement, social pressure, social and communication improvement, and escapism among adult learners in the public university and the private university. Each of the five motivational orientations was measured by six fixed-response items.

Personal Development

```
pdpub
--------------------------------------------------------
Item Estimates (Thresholds)
all on all (N = 255 L = 6 Probability Level= .50)
--------------------------------------------------------
   4.0                          |

   3.0                  XXXXXX   |

          XXXXXXXXXXXXX          |
   2.0    XXXXXXXXXXXX           | 5.5
          XXXXXXXXXXX            | 6.5
          XXXXXXXXXXX            | 1.5   4.5
          XXXXXXXXXX             | 2.5
   1.0    XXXXXXXXXXXXX          | 3.5
          XXXXXXXXXX             | 5.4
          XXXXXXXXXXXXXX         | 6.4
            XXXXXXX              | 1.4   2.4   5.3
    .0      XXXXXXXX             | 3.4   4.4
              XXX                |
            XXXXX                | 1.3   2.3   4.3   5.2   6.3
               X                 | 2.2   3.3
  -1.0          X                | 1.2   3.2
               X                 |
               X                 | 4.2

  -2.0                           | 6.2

  -3.0                           |
--------------------------------------------------------
  Each X represents    2 students
--------------------------------------------------------
```
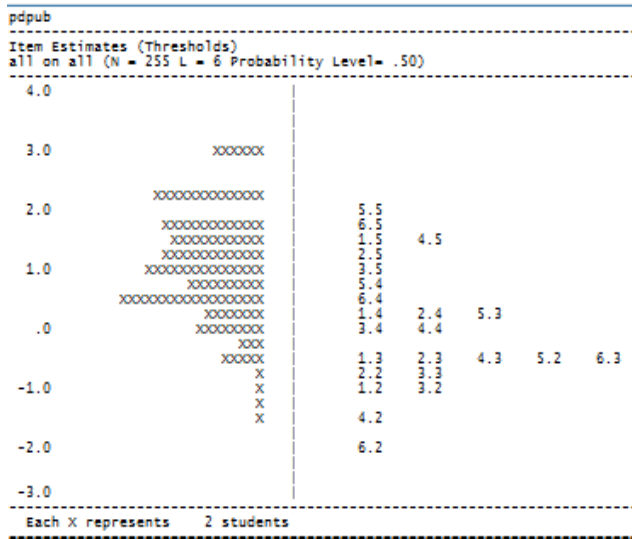
Key: each number set represents item number and response (e.g. 6.2 means response '2' for item number 6)

Figure 1(a): Variable Map of Personal Development among Adult Learners in Public University

```
pdpriv
--------------------------------------------------------
Item Estimates (Thresholds)
all on all (N = 250 L = 6 Probability Level= .50)
--------------------------------------------------------
   3.0            XXXXXXXXXXX    |

         XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX     |
   2.0                          | 5.5

         XXXXXXXXXXXXXX          |
                                | 4.5
         XXXXXXXXXXXXX           | 1.5
                                | 2.5
   1.0    XXXXXXXXXXXX           | 3.5

          XXXXXXXXX              | 5.4
           XXXXXXX               |
                                | 6.5
           XXXXXX                |
          XXXXXXX                | 1.4   2.4
    .0        X                  | 5.3
             XXX                 | 4.4
                                | 3.4
             X                   |
            XX                   | 6.4
                                | 1.3   2.3
                                | 4.3   5.2
                                | 3.3
  -1.0                          | 2.2
                                | 1.2
             X                   | 3.2

                                | 4.2

  -2.0        X                  | 6.3

  -3.0                           |
--------------------------------------------------------
  Each X represents    2 students
--------------------------------------------------------
```
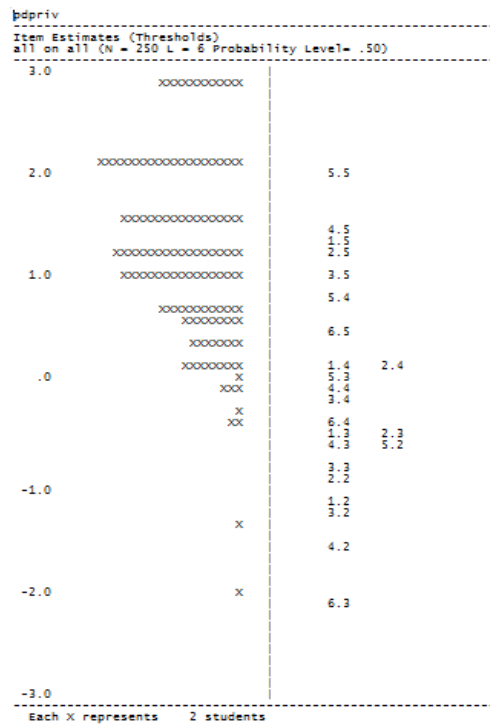
Figure 1(b): As in Fig 1(a) but in Private University

Figure 1(a) and Figure 1(b) show the variable maps of the items for personal development as a motivational orientation of adult learners to participate in further education in the public and the private universities respectively. The thresholds for response '4' (much influence) in both variable maps imply that the most influential item of personal development for both groups of adult learners is different. Most adult learners in the public university are highly influenced by item 3 'to upgrade my knowledge and expand my mind' and item 4 'to improve my thinking skills' when participating in further education for personal development. In contrast, most of the adult learners in the private university are highly influenced by item 6 'to discover and realize my potential'.

The likelihood of ranking the six items of personal development as having strong influence' in descending order, is item 3 and item 4, followed by item 1 'to satisfy intellectual curiosity' and item 2 'to seek knowledge for own sake', item 6, and lastly item 5 'to learn just for the joy of learning'. Meanwhile, the items of personal development strongly influencing the private university adult learners to return to study, in descending order, are item 6, item 3, item 4, item 1 and item 2, and item 5. The adult learners' estimates and effect size in public and private universities are summarized as shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Difference in Personal Development between Adult Learners in Public University and Private University

|	*n*	Mean	SD	Effect Size	Difference
Public University	255	0.94	1.17	0.28	Small
Private University	250	1.23	0.85		

Table 4 shows the mean estimates of personal development for adult learners in the public university (0.94) and the private university (1.23). The effect size between the mean estimates of adult learners in the public university and the private university is found to be 0.28, implying that there is a small difference in mean estimates between adult learners in the public university and in the private university. It can be concluded that adult learners in the private university had slightly higher motivation of personal development (intrinsic motivation) which led them to participate in further education as compared to adult learners in the public university. The finding is probably due to the fact that the majority of adult learners in the private university are older than the public university adult students. This finding concurs with the assertion of Knowles et al. (2011) and Bye et al. (2007) which states that older adults are becoming more intrinsically motivated to learn for self-development and enjoyment rather than for extrinsic needs.

The finding is evidently confirmed with the comparison of adult learners' distribution and thresholds for the response '4' (much influence) through the variable maps in Figure 1(a) and Figure 1(b). Overall, the number of adult learners in the private university who are likely to rate the six items of personal development as having strong influence for them to further study is slightly more than adult learners in the public university.

 Figure 2(a) and Figure 2(b) show the variable maps of six items for career advancement as a motivational orientation of adult learners to participate in learning programs in public and private universities respectively. The thresholds for response '4' (much influence) in both variable maps indicate that the most influential item of career advancement among the two groups of adult learners is similar, and is item 11 'to gain valuable skills for my career'. This shows that adult learners who are motivated by career advancement to become involved in learning programs are mainly seeking to gain useful skills and knowledge to apply in their workplace.

However, it can be seen that all adult learners in the private university are likely to rate item 11 as having a strong influence for them to return to study. The other five ranked as having strong influence for adult learners in private university, in descending order, are item 9 'to fit my future career', followed by item 8 'to help me to get a higher pay', item 7 'to get a promotion and higher status in my job', item 12 'to fulfil my professional obligation', and item 10 'to comply with my employer's policy. Meanwhile, the items of career advancement ranked as having strong influence for adult learners in the public university to return to study, in descending order, are item 11 and item 9, followed by item 8, item 7, item 12, and item 10. The estimates and effect size of adult learners in public and private universities are summarized as shown in Table 5 below.

Career Advancement
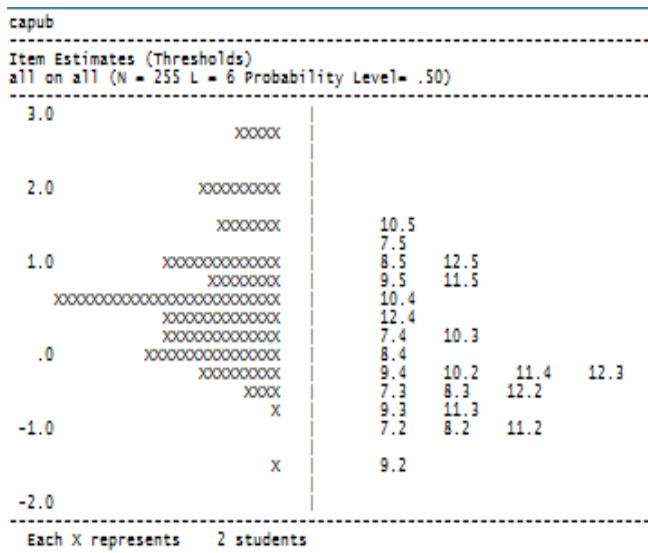
Key: each number set represents item number and response (e.g. 9.2 means response '2' for item number 9)

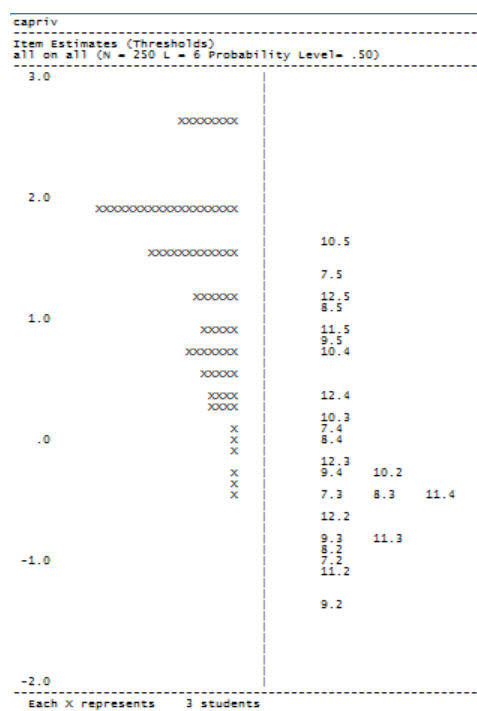***Figure 2(a): Variable Map of Career Advancement among Adult Learners in Public University***

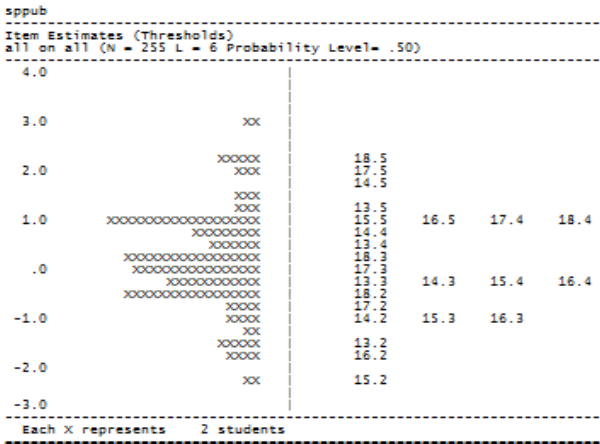**Figure 2(b): in Private University**

Table 5: Difference in Career Advancement between Adult Learners in Public University and Private University

	_n_	**Mean**	**SD**	**Effect Size**	**Difference**
Public University	255	0.64	1.04	0.67	Medium
Private University	250	1.27	0.84		

Table 5 shows the estimates for adult learners in the public university (0.64) and adult learners in the private university (1.27). The value of effect size between the mean estimates of 0.67 implies that there is a medium difference in mean estimates between adult learners in the public university and in the private university. Therefore, adult learners in the private university had moderately higher motivation of career advancement influencing them to participate in a learning program as compared to adult learners in the public university. The finding is probably due to more adult learners in the private university possessing lower prior educational levels as compared with those in the public university. This is supported by the studies of Daehlen and Ure (2009) and Illeris (2003) which found that low-educated adult learners engage in learning activity for job-related reasons.

The finding could be further confirmed with the comparison of adult learners' distribution and thresholds for the response '4' (much influence) through the variable maps in Figure 2(a) and Figure 2(b) in which more adult learners in the private university than those in the public university are likely to rate the six items of career advancement as having strong influence for them to participate in learning programs.

Social Pressure

Key: each number set represents item number and response (e.g. 15.2 means response '2' for item number 15)

Figure 3(a): Variable Map of Social Pressure among Adult Learners in Public University
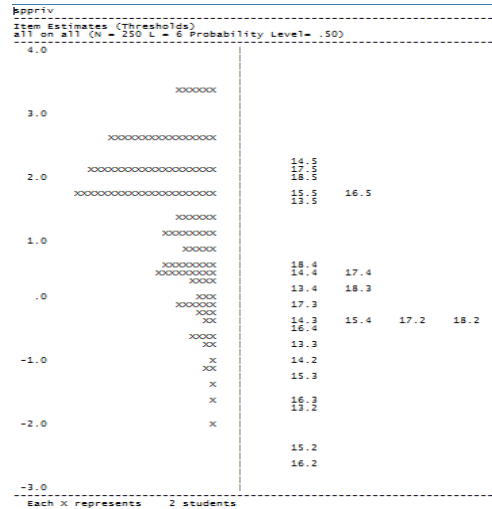
Figure 3(b): As for 3(a) but in Private University

The variable maps in Figure 3(a) and Figure 3(b) show the items of social pressure as a motivational orientation for adult learners to participate in further education in the public and the private universities respectively. The thresholds for response '4' (much influence) in both variable maps imply that the most influential items of social pressure for both groups of adult learners are same, being item 15 'to be recognized and as good role-model for others' and item 16 'my family members, employer, friends or colleagues encourage me to further study to obtain higher level of education'. This shows that most of the adult learners are motivated to further study due to the encouragement by others, and that they want to get recognition from others through the attainment of a higher education qualification.

The other four items of social pressure ranked as having strong influence among adult learners in the public university, in descending order, are item 13 'to keep up my academic qualifications on par with my family members, friends or colleagues', followed by item 14 'to prevail against others', item 17 'because others expect me to get a degree' and item 18 'because it would disappoint other people if I didn't followed'. As for adult learners in the private university, the following likelihood of being ranked as having strong influence for the other four items, in descending order, are item 13, followed by item 14 and item 17, and lastly item 18. The adult learners' estimates and effect size of social pressure in public and private universities are summarized as shown in Table 6 below.

Table 6: Difference in Social Pressure between Adult Learners in Public University and Private University

	n	**Mean**	**SD**	**Effect Size**	**Difference**
Public University	255	-0.04	1.65	0.90	Large
Private University	250	1.24	1.15		

The value of effect size of 0.90 in Table 6 implies that there is a large difference in mean estimates between adult learners in public university and private university. Therefore, adult learners in the private university had substantially higher motivation of social pressure to participate in learning programs as compared with adult learners in the public university. This is shown in the variable maps in Figure 3(a) and Figure 3(b) with the comparison of adult learners' distribution and thresholds for the response '4' (much influence) in which many more adult learners in the private university than those in public university are likely to rate the six items of social pressure as having strongly influenced them to participate in learning programs.

The reason behind this finding may be due to more adult learners with lower prior education levels in the private university compared to those in the public university. This is supported by studies of Daehlen and Ure (2009) and Illeris (2003) which revealed that low-educated adult learners engage in further education to comply with others' requirements and that they are forced to do so. Also, Joned and Lee (2006) indicated that

adult learners with lower prior educational levels possess higher motivation of family togetherness.

Social and Communication Improvement
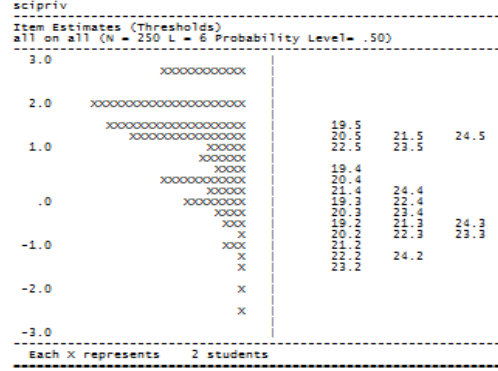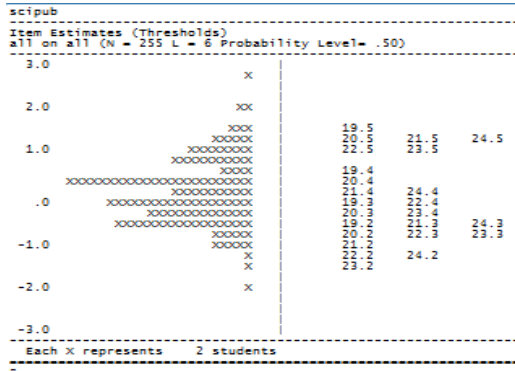
Key: each number set represents item number and response (e.g. 23.2 means response '2' for item number 23)

Figure 4(a): Variable Map of Social and Communication Improvement among Adult Learners in Public University **_Figure 4(b): Variable Map of Social and Communication among Adult Learners in private University_**

Figure 4(a) and Figure 4(b) are the variable maps of six items for social and communication improvement as a motivational orientation of adult learners to participate in further education in public and private universities respectively. The thresholds for response '4' (much influence) in both variable maps show that the most influential item of social and communication improvement among the two groups of adult learners is similar, that being item 23 'to enhance my skills for interpersonal relationship'. This shows that adult learners are motivated to engage in learning programs mainly to improve their skills for socialization.

It can be seen that the other five items ranked as having strong influence for adult learners in both universities to enrol in further education, in descending order, are item 22 'to communicate better with others', followed by items 21 'to participate in more social activities' item 24 'to enjoy the social life and social environment', item 20 'to meet different people', and lastly item 19 'to make new friends'. The estimates and effect size of adult learners in public and private universities are summarized as shown in Table 7 below.

Table 7: Difference in Social and Communication Improvement between Adult Learners in Public University and Private University

	_n_	**Mean**	**SD**	**Effect Size**	**Difference**
Public University	255	0.06	1.18	0.52	Medium
Private University	250	0.89	1.93		

The mean estimates of social and communication improvement for adult learners in the public university and the private university are 0.06 and 0.89 respectively. Therefore, the value of effect size between the mean estimates was found to be 0.52, which is considered as medium. This implies that adult learners in the private university had moderately higher motivation of social and communication improvement to participate in learning programs compared with adult learners in the public university. The possible reason for this finding is due to more adult learners in the private university possessing lower levels of prior education qualification as compared to those in the public university. This is in line with the study of Illeris (2003) which stated that low-educated adult learners are involved in learning activities mainly for socialization needs - particularly to meet people.

The finding also could be further confirmed with the comparison of adult learners' distribution and thresholds for the response '4' (much influence) through the variable maps in Figure 4(a) and Figure 4(b) in which more adult learners in the private university are likely to rate the six items of social and communication improvement as having strong influence for them to participate in learning program as compared to adult learners in the public university.

Escapism

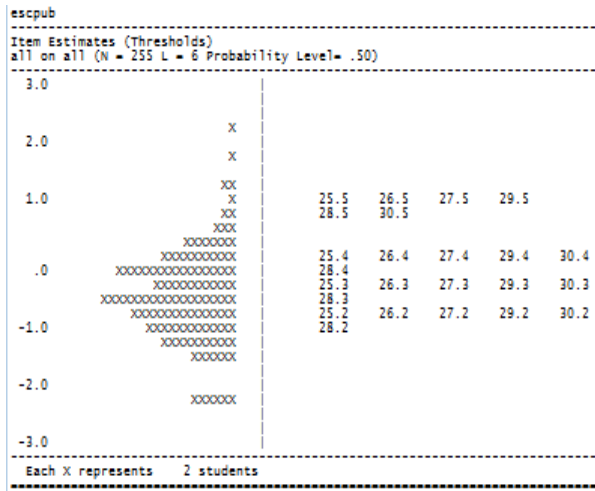Key: each number set represents item number and response (e.g. 30.2 means response '2' for item number 30)

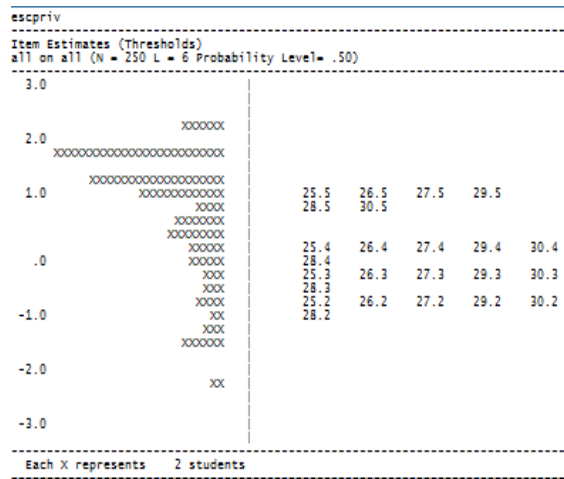**Figure 5(a): Variable Map of Escapism Adult Learners in Public University**

Figure 5(b): Variable Map of among among Adult Learners in Private University

Figure 5(a) and Figure 5(b) show the variable maps of six items for escapism as a motivational orientation of adult learners to participate in learning program in public and private universities respectively. The thresholds for response '4' (much influence) in both variable maps show that the most influential item of escapism among the two groups of adult learners is similar, that being item 28 'to do something rather than nothing'. The comparison of adult learners' distribution and the threshold for response '4' indicates that adult learners in both universities had the same degree of influence by item 25 'to get a break from the routine of home or work', item 26 'to get away from loneliness', item 27 'to get relief from boredom', item 29 'I have a lot of free time' and item 30 'I don't have any better options'. The estimates and effect size of escapism among adult learners in the public and private universities are summarized as shown in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Difference in Escapism between Adult Learners in Public University and Private University

	n	Mean	SD	Effect Size	Difference
Public University	255	-1.36	2.84	0.52	Medium
Private University	250	0.09	2.76		

The value of effect size of 0.52 in Table 8 implies that there is a medium difference in mean estimates of escapism between adult learners in the public university and the private university. Therefore, adult learners in the private university had moderately higher motivation of escapism to participate in learning programs as compared to adult learners in the public university. This could be further confirmed with the comparison of adult learners' distribution and thresholds for the response '4' (much influence) as seen in the variable maps in Figure 5(a) and Figure 5(b). Many more adult learners in the private university are likely to rate the six items of social and communication improvement as having a strong influence for them to participate in learning programs as compared to adult learners in the public university.

Five Motivational Orientations in Learning

Table 9: Differences in Five Motivational Orientations between Adult Learners in Public University and Private University

Motivational Orientations		*n*	Mean	SD	Effect Size	Difference
Personal Development	Public University	255	0.94	1.17	0.28	Small
	Private University	250	1.23	0.85		
Career Advancement	Public University	255	0.64	1.04	0.67	Medium
	Private University	250	1.27	0.84		
Social Pressure	Public University	255	-0.04	1.65	0.90	Large
	Private University	250	1.24	1.15		
Social and	Public University	255	0.06	1.18	0.52	Medium

Motivational Orientations		n	Mean	SD	Effect Size	Difference
Communication Improvement	Private University	250	0.89	1.93		
Escapism	Public University	255	-1.36	2.84	0.52	Medium
	Private University	250	0.09	2.76		

The comparison of five motivational orientations in further education between the two groups of adult learners is summarized in Table 9. In sum, there are significant differences in mean scores of all the five motivational orientations in learning between the two groups of adult learners. The findings are consistent with Daehlen and Ure (2009) who revealed that motivational orientations in continuing education vary based on different groups of adult learners. They further asserted that the differences in motivation can be explained according to typical characteristics of adult learners.

Overall, adult learners in the private university are more likely to possess higher motivation of participation in learning programs as compared to adult learners in the public university. The finding is probably due to more adult learners in the private university being married and older as compared with adult learners in the public university the majority of whom are single and younger. According to Barnett (2010), working adults who are older and married encounter many barriers in terms of work, time, money, commitment, family, and children problems, which may affect their motivation to return to study. Therefore, this is reasonable to suggest that adult learners in the private university are sufficiently and highly motivated to overcome barriers in order for them to embark on further education.

Conclusion and Recommendation

This study reveals that adult learners in both universities are most influenced by personal development and career advancement when participating in further education. They are however less influenced by social pressure, social and communication improvement, and escapism in pursuing adult education. Apparently, both groups of adult learners seem to be conscious that it is a necessity and obligation for them to further study, enabling them to survive in the knowledge-driven global market of 21st century which emphasizes a highly-skilled workforce (Faizah Majid and Hazadiah Dahan, 2010). In accordance with the most influential motivational orientations identified, it is suggested that higher education administrators and program planners should develop and offer adult learning courses and programs appropriately based on the needs of adult learners for personal development and career advancement (Abdul Razaq Ahmad et al., 2009)

Furthermore, this study concludes that adult learners in the private university possess higher motivation of participation in further education than those in the public university. More adult learners in the private university are highly influenced by the five motivational orientations in participating further education as compared to those in the public university. However, it is found that adult learners in the public university are more highly influenced by personal development than career advancement in continuing

education, and vice versa for adult learners in the private university. Therefore, this study suggests that motivation of participation differs based on different groups of adult learners, which can be explained by the typical characteristics of adult learners in the respective groups (Fujita-Starck, 1996; Daehlen and Ure, 2009).

This study highlights the importance of clear understanding on the differences of motivational orientations in learning between adult learners in different learning institutions who comprise of various background profiles, learning fields and programs, and learning settings. Subsequently, this enables adult educators to arrange and refine their lessons and delivery to be compatible with learners' needs and orientations to bring out maximum output (Gom, 2009). More importantly, low-skilled working adults can be attracted to participate in further education in order to create a fully knowledge-based society in Malaysia. This study draws attention to the need for on-going research into motivational orientations of participation in adult learning in Malaysia. It would be useful, in any future study, to access the relationship between motivational orientations of participation with the characteristics of adult learners.

References

Abdul Razaq Ahmad, Norhasni Zainal Abiddin, Jamaludin Badusah and Pang, S. W. (2009). Computer usage and achievement among adults in rural area Malaysia. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(1), 1-8.

Adam, R. J. and Khoo, S. T. (1996). *Quest: The interactive test analysis system*. Melbourne, Australia: Australia Council for Educational Research.

Anderman, E. M., Jensen, J., Haleman, D. and Goldstein, B. (2002). Motivation to improve adult education in under-educated adults in rural communities. *Research in Social-cultural Influences on Motivation and Learning*, 2, 183-206.

Barnett, D. R. (2010). *Adult education: Motivation and recruitment of working adults in pursuit of higher education.* Master Degree Thesis. Southern Illinois University Carbondale.

Bomia, L., Beluzo, L., Demeester, D., Elander, K., Johnson, M. and Sheldon, B. (1997). *The impact of teaching strategies on intrinsic motivation.* Champaign, IL: ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education.

Boshier, R. W. (1971). Motivational orientation of adult education participants: A factor analytic exploration of Houle's Typology. *Adult Education,* 21(2), 3-26.

Boshier, R. (1973). Educational participation and drop-out: A theoretical model. *Adult Education,* 23(4).

Boshier, R. (1991). Psychometric properties of the alternative form of the educational participation scale. *Adult Education Participation Quarterly*, *41*(3), 150-167.

Boshier, R., Huang, Y., Song, Q. H. and Song, L. (2006). Market socialism meets the lost generation: Motivational orientations of adult learners in Shanghai. *Adult Education Quarterly,* 56(3), 201-222.

Bye, D., Pushkar, D. and Conway, M. (2007). Motivation, interest, and positive affect in traditional and non-traditional undergraduate students. *Adult Education Quarterly*, *57*(2), 141-158.

Carver, R. P. (1993). The case against statistical significance testing. *Harvard Educational Review*, 48(3), 378-399.

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences (2nd Ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Deahlen, M. and Ure, O. B. (2009). Low-skilled adults in formal continuing education: Does their motivation differ from other learners. *International Journal of Lifelong Education,* 28(5), 661-674.

Faizah Abd. Majid and Hazadiah Mohamad Dahan. (2010). *Strategies for Malaysian education in the 21st century.* Shah Alam: UPENA.

Garst, W. C. and Ried, L. D. (1999). Motivational orientations: Evaluation of the education participation scale in a Non-traditional Doctor of Pharmacy Program. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 63, 300-304.

Ghani E. K., Jamaliah Said and Noraini Mohd Nasir. (2008). Determinants of Malaysia adult learners' distance learning. *US-China Education Review,* 5(5), 17-26.

Glass, G. V., McGaw, B. and Smith, M. L. (1981). *Meta-analysis in social research*. London, U.K.:SAGE.

Gom, O. (2009). Motivation and adult learning. *Contemporary PNG studies: DWU Research Journal,* 10.

Hambleton, R. K. and Swaminathan, H. (1985). Item response theory. *Principles and Applications*. Boston: Kluwer-Nijhoff.

Hassan Afzal, Cheung, S W, Imran Ali, Muhammad Aslam Khan and Kashif Hamid. (2010). A study of students' motivation and its relationship with their academic perfomamce, *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(4), 80-89.

Houle, C. O. (1961). *The inquiring mind*. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.

Hunter, J. E., Schmidt, F. L. and Jackson, G. B. (1982). Meta-analysis: Culturing research findings across studies. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE.

Illeris, K. (2003). Adult education as experienced by the learners. *Journal of Lifelong Education,* 22(1), 13-23.

Joned, R. and Lee, L. H. (2006). Motivational orientations of teachers in the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) Programme, *Pertanika J. Soc. & Hum,* 14(2), 85-94.

Kasworm, C. E, Sandmann, L. RC., and Sissel, P. A. (2000). Adults learners in higher education, in Wilson A. L. and Hayes E. R., JOSSEY, *Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education.* San Francisco: BASS.

Kim A. and Merriam S. B. (2004). Motivation for learning among older adults in a learning in retirement institute. *Educational Gerontology,* 30, 441-455.

Knowles, M. S., Holton, E. F. and Swanson, R. A. (2011). *The adult learner: The definitive classic in adult education and human resource development* (7th ed.). USA: Elsevier.

Mulenga, D. and Liang JR, S. (2008). Motivations for older adults participation in distance education: A study at the National Open University of Taiwan. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 27(3), 289-314.

Neill, J. (2004). *The university student motivation and satisfaction questionnaire version 2*. Canberra: Centre for Applied Psychology, University of Canberra.

Parker, M. A. (2008). *The Relationship between personal, social and institutional factors and the academic outcomes of non-traditional students.* Ph.D. Thesis. University of Virginia.

Pintrich, P. R. and Schunk, D. H. (1996). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and application*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Raghavan, S. and Kumar, P. R. (2008). The need for participation in open and distance education: The Open University Malaysia experience. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education-TOJDE*, 9(4), 77-88.

Tan, P. L. (2005), *Approaches to learning and learning values: An investigation of adult learners in Malaysia.* Ph.D. Queensland University of Technology.

Tseng, S. C. and Tsai, C. C. (2010). Taiwan college students and motivation of learning in online peer assessment environments. *Internet and Higher Education,* 13(4), 242-247.

Wright, B. D. and Masters, G. N. (1982). *Rating scale analysis: Rasch measurement*. Chicago: MESA Press.

THE CARING PREPAREDNESS OF STUDENT NURSES

Jose Reinhard C. Laoingco, R.N., Ph.D.
Jasper Glenn B. Asper; Joshua E. Bugayong; Don Carlo L. Gregorio;
Dereck Martil L. Libao; Aphrille D. Alintog; Nikki S. Ancheta;
Frances Mei M. Beng-ad; Marrjhourie Rose B. Bringas; Emma Cherry O. Cadaweng
Marie Angeline B. Cleto; Gwen May Amor G. Elegores; Amie Joy D. Lanso-an;
Sheila Mae E. Nones
Saint Louis University-School of Nursing, Baguio City, Philippines

Abstract

This study measured the caring preparedness of B.S. Nursing students at University X School of Nursing using the Family Caring Inventory (FCI). It also investigated the difference in the FCI scores of these student nurses by Parental Set-up, Birth Order and Ethnicity.

Quantitative descriptive method was used and stratified random sampling was done to select participants. F-test was used to determine the significance in the FCI by Parental Set-up and Birth Order, while t-test was used to determine the difference in the FCI when grouped according to Ethnicity.

Findings revealed that these student nurses were very well prepared in caring. There was no significant difference in the FCI scores by Parental Set-up and Birth Order but exist when measured by Ethnicity.

Given the results of the study, perceptions that University X student nurses are uncaring toward their patients, indicate the existence of other factors that may prevent the student nurses manifest their well-prepared caring behavior.

Introduction

Student nurses are the future of quality health provision. The student nurses' education and preparedness must be given attention because what they learn in the clinical areas

and inside their classrooms bear significance to what they will practice as nurses in the future. Student nurses acquire the right attitude, scientific knowledge, and clinical skills during their academic years.

The knowledge and skills for Nursing practice are readily taught in Colleges and Schools of Nursing but the attitude depends on the environment of the nurse. While caring is the life-blood of the Nursing profession, caring itself and its subsequent values such as empathy and concern are dependent on the student nurses' surroundings, upbringing, personality type, family background and conditions, ethnicity, birth order and other intra and extra personal conditions.

The development of personality, characteristics and attitude of a person begins at home. What one observes and grows up into can be directly associated with one's family beliefs, culture and traditions. The care one receives and observes in the family affects the individual. According to Swick and Freeman (2004), parents and other significant family members are the architects of much of children's early learning, especially in relation to their emotional and social growth.

There is still a difference in the caring received by the child as to whether he/she grew up with either his/her mother or father as Hossain et. al. (2007) mentioned in their study "Fathers lag behind mothers in their levels of involvement in caring for children across most societies studied to date." Furthermore, there is a good deal of variability in men's levels of time involvement and in their care interactions directed toward young children across cultural and ethnic groups.

Janet Surrey (1991) explored in the self-in-relation theory, the gendered understanding of caregiving. This theory describes women's development in relation to others, beginning primarily in the mother-daughter relationship, and continuing throughout the realm of caregiving. While Sesan (1991) argues that self-in-relation theory suggests that women forfeit self-care for 'other-care'. As head and protector of the family, the father bears chief economic and social responsibility for individual family members. Because they work outside of the home for extended periods, fathers find limited time to be involved with their children. Thus, mothers play a greater role in the day-to-day care and socialization of young children and in nurturing strong familial bonds than fathers do.

Caring is one of the innate qualities human beings have. It is showing compassion and concern beyond people's appearance or race. In the Nursing profession, caring is the main function of nurses. It is the guiding principle of every independent clinical intervention carried out for the betterment of patients.

McGarry (2009) in her study entitled "*Nursing Students' Experiences of Care,*" concluded that positive learning environments should be developed to enable the students to retain clear caring values and to realize the potential of caring practice while reconciling its demands. The result of the study is evidence that pre-exposure of caring to student nurses can affect the way they care for their patients. Even though the student nurse had received adequate preparation to care from the family, the environment can be

a contributing factor in his/her caring behavior. The environment can decrease or enhance the caring behavior of the student nurse.

The school setting has a role in influencing the caring preparedness of the student nurse. The study conducted by Garett, Barr, and Rothman (2008), represents a shift in thinking from traditional behavioral models focused on teacher control to models that promote strong interpersonal relationships. This study uses the view that the building of a community is the foundation of a teacher's classroom management plan. These approaches are consistent with research on student's perceptions of "good teachers," which clearly demonstrate that one of the most important aspects of being a "good teacher" is the ability to develop caring relationships.

Teacher practices that stimulate active student participation and teachers who model positive interpersonal behavior are critical to building a sense of community among school students (Battistich, Solomon, Kim, Watson, and Schaps, 1995).

However, the setting of schools discussed here are rather different from the environment discussed by McGarry(2009).

Although caring in practice is given much importance in the school setting, the environment for the development of the student nurses' behavior is not entirely conducive. Student nurses in this study were even identified as "The lowest personnel in the medical jungle" (Agpasa, 2009). They were stereotyped as students who do not have a choice. They were branded as "robots" (Tattao, 2008). From these accounts, the student nurses of the said school of Nursing are given the impression that they do not have the ability to offer genuine care as they cannot give what they do not have.

According to Watson (1994), a strong liberal arts background is essential to the process of holistic care for clients. She identified that humanistic and altruistic values are greatly influenced early in life but can be greatly influenced by nurse educators later. The development of caring behavior of an individual starts within the family. Strong family caring background can influence a nurse's patient interaction ability. Parental set-up, birth order and ethnicity affect the formation of holistic and altruistic system of values which molds the person and effectively deliver Nursing care. The caring environment offers the development of potentials while allowing the person to choose the best action for him or her at a given time.

This study relays the importance of family guidance in the formation of a child's character, attitude and behavior. The researchers explored the relationship of the family background in relation to student nurses' caring preparedness in the clinical area; the study used the Family Caring Inventory (FCI) by Anne Marie Goff as a tool in measuring the caring preparedness of University X (UX) student nurses.

With these, the researchers measured the caring preparedness of UX student nurses for SY 2010-2011. They utilized the FCI tool and assessed if there is a significant difference in the FCI when these students are grouped according to parental set-up, birth order and ethnicity. Specifically, the study sought to answer the following:

(1) What is the FCI score of SLU student nurses?

(2) Is there a significant difference in the FCI scores when students are grouped according to:
   a. Parental Set-up
   b. Birth order
   c. Ethnicity

Methods

This study made use of the quantitative descriptive design. It was done between October to December 2010. There were 3125 student nurses who were officially enrolled at the UX-School of Nursing (SoN) for the 2nd semester SY 2010-2011. The respondents' age ranged from 16 to 21 years old. They are academically excellent as evidenced by passing the college entrance examination of UX and are continuously screened every year before entering the next year level.

The sample population was computed using the sampling formula:

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

Thus, out of 3125 total population, the sample population should be composed of at least 355 participants. The researchers selected the participants using the stratified random sampling.

The actual number of participants is 368 (100%). The profile of the respondents according to variables is presented as follows:

Under the variable *Parental Set-up*,

- there were 215 (58.42%) students living with both parents
- 65 (17.66%) living with either father or mother and
- 88 (23.91%) living with relatives.

Under the variable *Ethnicity*,

- 118 (35.6%) were Cordillerans and
- 250 (64.4%) Non-Cordillerans

Under the variable *Birth Order*, of 3 siblings

- 189 (48.91%) were first children

- 70 (27.17%) middle children and

- 109 (23.91%) last children

The range of FCI scores is categorized as follows:

- Poorly prepared= 36 - 64.7

- Fairly prepared= 64.8 - 93.5

- Satisfactorily/well prepared= 93.6 - 122.3

- Very well prepared= 122.4 - 151.1 and

- Excellently prepared= 151.2 - 180.

Results and Discussions

Table 1 shows that the UX student nurses were very well prepared in caring with a mean FCI over the four years of study of 141.01. The caring preparedness in the second and third years may have decreased due to the influence of the environment, when in fact, the environment should have enhanced their attitudes.

Table 1: Respondents' mean Family Caring Index (FCI)n = 368

YEAR LEVEL	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE	MEAN FCI	INTERPRE-TATION
1st year	105	28.53 %	141.83	Very Well Prepared
2nd year	90	24.46 %	136.95	Very Well Prepared
3rd year	85	23.10 %	140.84	Very Well Prepared
4th year	88	23.91 %	144.32	Very Well Prepared
TOTAL	368	100 %	141.01	Very Well Prepared

Table 2 shows that there is no significant difference in the family caring inventory of UX student nurses when grouped according to parental set-up.

Table 2: The Family Caring Inventory of UX Student Nurses
when grouped according to parental set-up

PARENTAL SET-UP	FREQUENCY	MEAN FCI	INTERPRETATION
Living with both parents	215	140.85	Very Well Prepared
Living with either father or mother	65	140.61	Very Well Prepared
Living with relatives	88	141.68	Very Well Prepared

TOTAL	368	141.01	Very Well Prepared
Computed F value= 0.089 Tabular Value= 3.02			
Accept Ho - There is no significant difference (p > 0.05)			

In the Philippine setting, it is known that most of Filipinos leave their families in order to work abroad. Some leave their children to their relatives. The responsibility of developing the child, including their caring ability, is then transferred to the substitute parents.

Filipinos have strong family ties and their customs and traditions are passed on to the next generation. Their caring attitude is also transferred to the next generations. Citing the Philippine Constitution Article 15 Section1, Senator Miriam Defensor Santiago (2005) stressed that in the Philippines, close family ties have always been recognized as one of the core values of families. There exists a strong mutual relationship bonded by love, understanding, and respect towards each family member. According to Cacho, et. al. (2005), Filipinos possess a genuine and deep love for family which includes not simply spouse and children, parents, and siblings, but also grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins, godparents, and other ceremonial relatives.

Kuyini, et. al, (2009) in "*Traditional kinship foster care in northern Ghana*" revealed that kinship foster care is a reliable and durable alternative to non-kinship care. It was also reported that young people in kinship care enjoyed close relationships, emotional support and consistency in being attached to family. Swick and Freeman (2004) contends that parents and other significant family members are the architects of much of children's early learning, especially in relation to their emotional and social growth. There is no emphasis that parents are the only architects of much of children's early learning.

The least prepared are those who live with either mother or father only. According to J. Walker, et. al. (2008), extended family and friends are significantly important in supporting many children, especially where the single parent is juggling work and care. Some single parent children spend a considerable amount of time in the care of adults other than their single parent, especially grandparents. Not only do extended families frequently provide the childcare that enables some single parents to work, they may also help alleviate some of the impacts of poverty on single-parent children. These statements revealed that the presence of other family members affects one's behavior, and mostly they are the ones who are usually present to guide the children whose parents are not present. Living with relatives is acceptable to be a factor in children's early learning together with their emotional and social growth even if there is no significance when the students have different parental set-up.

Filipino families are remarkably close. They are so close that their children, and grandchildren and even great grandchildren stay with them even after getting married (Barlongo 2008). As they live in one house, it is expected that their attitudes, beliefs regarding care affect all the members living in the house.

Table 3 shows that there is a significant difference in the family caring inventory of UX student nurses when grouped according to ethnicity.

Table 3
The Family Caring Inventory of UX Student Nurses
when grouped according to Ethnicity

ETHNICITY	FREQUENCY	MEAN FCI	INTERPRETATION
Cordilleran	118	138.33	Very Well Prepared
Non – Cordilleran	250	142.27	Very Well Prepared
TOTAL	368	141.01	Very Well Prepared
Computed T value= 2.022 Tabular value= 1.960			
Reject Ho - There is a significant difference (p < 0.05)			

The Philippines is a melting pot of culture and tradition, however each ethnicity has its own distinct characteristics that define their own individuality. In UX-SoN, students come from different cultures, particularly the Cordillerans and Non- Cordillerans.

Cordillerans are known to be less expressive of their care to other people and to their family as well. For them, showing care, such as expression of feelings through words or in action, is not commonly practiced. The results of the study show that Cordillerans score less FCI. However, according to Jenks (2004) Cordillerans nourish their children more with love and care but when they deal with other people; they do not usually express their caring behavior.

Table 4 shows that there is no significant difference in the family caring inventory when students are grouped according to birth order.

Table 4
The Family Caring Inventory of UX Student Nurses
when grouped according to Birth Order

BIRTH ORDER	FREQUENCY	MEAN FCI	INTERPRETATION
First	189	142.35	Very Well Prepared
Middle	70	138.68	Very Well Prepared
Last	109	140.16	Very Well Prepared
TOTAL	368	141.01	Very Well Prepared
Computed F value= 1.311 Tabular Value= 3.02			
Accept Ho - There is no significant difference (p > 0.05)			

This opposes the claim of Phillips et.al. (1988) that first born scored higher in the dominance measure in the California Psychological Inventory and also scored higher than

later born on the measure of type A behavior, which includes competitiveness and striving for success (1990). Thus, it might be expected that first born would exhibit greater interpersonal powers than later born. According to Argys, et. al., 2006), older siblings might also act as caregivers or authority figures, especially when one of the parents is absent in the family.

According to Simmonds (2007), the world of the first born child is very different from that of the second born. First borns are either academically excellent, have good leadership, are organized, dependable, accommodating and caring; or pessimistic, hard driven, ruthless and easily devastated by failure.

In conclusion, the student nurses of UX-SoN for the SY 2010-2011 are very well prepared for caring. Yet despite the results, student nurses are perceived by some to be uncaring towards their patients. Therefore, there might be other factors in the school setting which could have prevented the student nurses in manifesting their very well prepared caring behavior.

It is then recommended that the school administration should look into the manner of supervision of student nurses in the school environment. Likewise, it is also recommended that another study be conducted with regards to other factors, like school requirements, that are hampering the student nurses' expression of their caring behavior; Moreover, it is also worth looking into other variables such as gender, year level, socioeconomic status and religion.

The researchers also recommend that several self-awareness activities should be given to student nurses. Furthermore, families should be encouraged to treat their children equally and foster caring relationship inside their home as adduced by giving time to their children, provide their needs and guidance. Ethnicity has only two broad and generalized subgroups which are Cordillerans and Non-Cordillerans. It is recommended that specific ethnic groups will be considered and further studied about their caring preparedness. Given that the outcome of the study revealed that Cordillerans has the least FCI score, we propose that they should be encouraged to join Benguet-Ifugao-Baguio-Abra-Kalinga (BIBAK) Organization, which was formed to improve the relationship among all the said ethnic groups. In that certain organization, their programs are composed of activities such as team-building that will enhance one's social skills. We also recommend that a school outreach program be conducted. In the school setting, clinical instructors serve as the second parent of student nurses. They should be the one to guide and care for their students. They would serve as good role models who are therapeutic, and approachable. Moreover, the relationship between the student and the CI be enhanced in such a way that the CI serves as role model of genuine caring. Another is to provide an activity involving awareness of one's caring behavior such as film viewing and engaging in and joining organizations which have a good advocacy in caring (e.g. CriMSoN Club and Palliative Mission).

The researchers also recommend a comparative study on the caring preparedness of student nurses from other universities.

References

Agpasa, M. (2009). The Great Pandemic: Summon the Strangers. *White and Blue. 7*(2). 7

Argys L., Rees D., Averett S., Witoonchart B. **(2006).** Birth Order and Risky Adolescent Behavior. *Economic Inquiry. 44*(2), 19, 215-233.

Battistich, V., Solomon, D., Kim, D., Watson, M., Schaps, E. (1995). Schools as communities, poverty levels of student populations, and students' attitudes, motives and performance: A multilevel analysis. *American Journal of Educational Research, 32,* 627-658.

Battistich, V., Solomon, D., Watson, M., Schaps, E. (1997). Caring school Communities. *Educational Psychologist, 32*, 137-151.

Battistich, V., Watson, M., Solomon, D., Schaps, E. (1999). Beyond the three R's: A broader agenda for school reform. *Elementary School Journal, 99*(5)*, 415-432.

Davidson, A. L. (1999). Negotiating social differences: Youths' assessments of educators' strategies. *Urban Education*, *34*(3), 338-369.

Defensor-Santiago, Miriam (2005). *An act declaring the first Monday of Devember as Mothers' Day.* Retrieved from http://www.senate.gov.ph/lisdata/64895744!.pdf

Dozier, M., Storall, K., Albus, K., Bates, B. (2001). Attachment for infants in foster care: The role of caregiver state of mind**.** *Child Development, 72*, 1467-1477.

Garett, T., Barr, J., Rothman, T., (2009*). On caring in the classroom: Do they vary according to ethnicity or grade level? Adolescence* (Vol. 44, No.175 pp. 505-521). Libra Publishers, Inc.

Hastings R. P. (2002). Parental stress and behaviour problems of children with developmental disability. *Journal of Intellectual and Developmental Disability 27*, 140–160.

Hossain, Z., Roopnarine, J. L., Ismail, R., Hashmi, S. I., Sombuling, A. (2007). Fathers' and mothers' reports of involvement in caring for infants in Kadazan families in Sabah, Malaysia. *Fathering: A Journal of Theory, Research, and Practice about Teen as Fathers. 5*(1). 58-72.

Jenks, A.E. (2004) The Bontoc Igorot. Retrieved from http://www.fullbooks.com/The-Bontoc-Igorot.html

Kuyini, A. B., Alhassan, A. R., Tollerud, I., Weld, H., Iddi Haruna. (2009). <u>Traditional kinship foster care in northern Ghana: the experiences and views of children, carers and adults in Tamale.</u> *Child and Family Social Work, 14*(4), 40-49.

Mcgarry, J., Aubeeluck, A., Simpson, C., Williams, G. (2009). Nursing Students' Experiences of Care Nursing Older People; *21*. 16-24.

Phillips A., Bedeian A., Mossholder K., and Touliatos J. (1988) Birth Order and Selected Work-Related Personality Variables. *Individual Psychology: The Journal of Adlerian Theory, Research and Practice.* University of Texas Press, 44(4), 490-99.

Phillips A., Long R., Bedeian A. (1990) Type A Status: Birth Order and Gender Effects. *Individual Psychology: The Journal of Adlerian Theory , Research and Practice.* University of Texas Press, 46(3), 365-73.

Simmonds, R. (2007). The influence of birth order on our behavior and relationship. Emotional Wellness Matters.

Surrey, J. (1991). *The self-in-relation: A theory of women's development, in women's growth in connection*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Swick, K. J., Freeman, N. K. (2004). Nurturing Peaceful Children to Create a Caring World: The Role of Families and Communities. *Childhood Education. 81*

Tattao, J. (2008). Parental Guidance: Aqueo Amino. *White and Blue*. (12)1. 5

Torney, A.M. (1994). *Nursing theorists and their works* (3rd ed, pp 151-153). Missouri:WM.C – Brown. Inc.& Mosby – Year Book. Inc.

Walker, J., Crawford, K., Taylor, F. (2008). Listening to children: gaining a perspective of the experiences of poverty and social exclusion from children and young people of single-parent families. *Health and Social Care in the Community, 16* (4), 429–436.

Watson, J. (2005). *Caring as a sacred science.* Philadelphia: F. A. Davis

Watson, J. (2008). *Nursing: The Philosophy and Science of Caring.* Revised & Updated Edition. Boulder: University Press of Colorado.

Watson, J. (2009). Assessing and measuring caring in nursing health sciences (2nd ed.). Retrieved from http://books.google.com.ph/books?Id=bYHbIis-fmIC&-prinsec

APPLIED ELT:
RAISING LANGUAGE AWARENESS THROUGH
HYBRID WRITING

Walaipun Puengpipattrakul
Language Institute
Chulalongkorn University
Bangkok, Thailand
pwalaipun@yahoo.com

Abstract

Since Thailand's educational reforms, numerous teaching strategies and activities have been put more into practice to suit tertiary-education requirements for Thai learners' proficiency, particularly of writing, in English. In today's knowledge-based world, the perennial problems of the learners' English writing competence have, however, persisted. Those demanding strategies and activities will not be effective in enhancing writing proficiency without a focus on raising the learners' awareness of language learning. This paper presents hybrid writing practices derived from the applications of process-oriented, task-based, and focus-on-form approaches. Sowing the seeds of awareness-raising regarding the significance of English-language learning through these pedagogical practices is considered the core issue in stimulating learners' language learning and performance. This is intended to prepare the learners to become linguistically capable world citizens within the framework of the new outcome-based English-language curriculum in response to Thailand's international integration.

Keywords: ELT, hybrid writing, awareness-raising, focus-on-form, task-based, process writing

Introduction

The acceptability of English language use has been geographically spread from inter-region to intra-region. In terms of internationalization, the importance of English has been recognized in parallel with socio-economic globalization. International socio-economic integration leads to a rapidly increasing number of multinational corporations and investments and the worldwide use of interactive networking and technology. Thailand's membership of the ASEAN community and Free Trade Agreements (FTA) with other member countries, which encourages mobility of educational, cultural and professional skills among community members, is emerging features of Southeast Asian and the world's socio-economic integration. With the advent of globalization, English has become increasingly positioned as the official language of international communication, namely the principal *lingua franca* of world connectivity, particularly in non-native English speaking countries, thereby generating the potential for mutual sharing of knowledge through global education.

English in Thailand

In terms of localization, English has been a compulsory school subject since 1921 and from 1977 also at tertiary level in Thailand (Wongsothorn et al., 2002). Previous educational reforms of the national curricula in Thailand have shown a marked shift in accordance with socio-economic globalization by emphasizing English proficiency in communication for educational success and career advancement.

English-language education is recognized as an integral part of the academic and vocational curricula at tertiary levels in Thailand. The 2002 Educational Reform Act states that ELT shall promote not only learners' English-language literacy but also their communicative competence. The increased emphasis on English-language proficiency through a communicative teaching approach has led to the creation of communicative competence for comparing the qualifications of people from different countries (Ministry of Education, 2012).

Those who have a good command of English arguably have priority for positions in multinational corporations (MNCs) (Wiriyachitra and Keyuravong, 2002). In a study by Puengpipattrakul et al. (2007), career prospects appeared to correlate with TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) scores. Table 1 below lists some examples of job positions that are available in domestic and multinational companies in Thailand and the minimum TOEIC scores required.

Table 1: TOEIC-required positions in domestic and multinational companies in Thailand (Puengpipattrakul et al., 2007: 289)

Minimum Score Requirements	Positions
300-400	Hotel waiter/waitress/bartender, hotel room-service order taker, hotel head waiter, airport information clerk, bookkeeper, operations officer, shipping and receiving clerk
500	Aircraft maintenance engineer
550	Business service center agent, customs agent, and customer service representative
600	Assistant hotel manager, flight attendant, and sales manager
650-750	Accountant, engineer, system analyst, sales coordinator, cooperate secretary office, and logistics engineer
800	Executive manager, executive secretary, general manager, logistics coordinator, marketing manager, and senior accountant

Source: The Nation ('Jobs', pp. 4-10), Bangkok Post ('Classified', pp. 1-5), TOEIC Examinee Handbook (p. 39), and the Internet (http://www.jobbkk.com; http://jobstone.blogspot.com; http://www.jobpub.com/articles/showarticles.asp?id=500)

In Table 1, the higher the TOEIC score a test taker obtains, the more opportunities the test taker has in terms of types of positions at MNCs. Despite this, several studies have pointed out the problems of insufficient proficiency in English, as measured by TOEFL and TOEIC scores, in terms of international competiveness among Thai learners in both academic (Asian Scientist Newsroom, 2011) and occupational (ETS, 2005; Puengpipattrakul et al., 2007) roles. Table 2 shows the 2005 average TOEIC test scores of six ASEAN member countries.

Table 2: The 2005 average TOEIC scores of six ASEAN member countries (Puengpipattrakul et al., 2007: 289)

Average TOEIC Scores (2004-2005)	
Country	Average Score (Maximum possible score: 990)
Philippines	751
Singapore	628
Cambodia	606
Thailand	524
Indonesia	471
Vietnam	446

Source: The Weekly Manager ('Education', p. D6); ETS, 2005; and
http://www.nationmultimedia.com/2005/08/10/headlines/data/headlines_18305734.html

Among the ASEAN member countries, the Thai test takers' average score for English proficiency indicates that they have little chance of international careers outside lower level service roles. This data casts doubt on the quality of Thai education, particularly at university level.

Tertiary Education Reform: Outcome-Based Curriculum in Thailand

In addition to worldwide technological advancement and increasing socio-economic competitiveness, the principal reason why the Thai Ministry of Education needs to introduce an outcome-based or learning outcome-driven approach, particularly in the English language curriculum for tertiary education, is that Thai university students are not successfully learning English, and hence the lack of adequate proficiency in English (Wongsothorn et al., 2002; ETS, 2005). The Ministry of Education and the Office of the Higher Education Commission policies for the Thai Qualifications Framework for Higher Education (TQF: HEd) in 2009 require higher educational institutions in Thailand to develop existing curricula, design new curricula, or reform curricula to be outcome-oriented and provide an outcome-based education by the year 2012. In the TQF, there are five basic criteria for learning outcomes that graduates are expected to achieve as 'Quality Global Citizens': ethics and morals, knowledge, cognitive skills, interpersonal skills and responsibility, and numerical analysis, communication and information technology skills.

TQF may be simply stated, based on Michael Barber's equation which is a reformation of Howard Gardner's Five Minds for the Future (2007) as:

$$\textit{Well-educated students in the 21}^{st}\textit{ century = E (K+ T + L)}$$

To become well educated, students should have four standard components: 'Knowledge' (K) of the content of subjects they have learned; 'Thinking' (T) representing learning how to think critically; 'Leadership' (L) referring to the ability to influence people around them or to have interpersonal skills and responsibility relevant to the TQF; and 'Ethical underpinning' (E) or TQF'S ethics and morals. Noticeably, 'E' also includes values and beliefs which can influence 'K', 'T', and 'L' positively or negatively. It is a real challenge for teachers to develop individual students' TQF standards to achieve learning outcomes which subsequently lead to improvements in the quality of Thai tertiary education.

Up until the recent curriculum transformation of the Thai education system aimed at developing the potential of Thai learners to achieve English language proficiency and to become eligible for employment in communities like ASEAN, English language learning and instruction in Thailand's tertiary education was geared towards the 2012 outcome-driven approach. However, it is unlikely that the outcome-based reform can resolve current problems with Thai learners' lack of English-language proficiency.

In typical Thai classrooms, there are approximately 20-50 students. Such large class sizes frequently prevent language teachers from providing equal education to individual students, which affects their language learning outcomes and language proficiency. Prior to teaching learners how to become competent in English, it would be helpful for teachers to understand how learners learn a language.

Awareness-Raising of the Language Learning Process

Language learning processes can be applied and explained through the concepts of either the developmental learning sequences (Smith and Truscott, 2005; Larsen-Freeman, 2008) and/or U-shaped learning patterns (Brown, 2007; Gass and Selinker, 2008) as depicted in Figure 1.
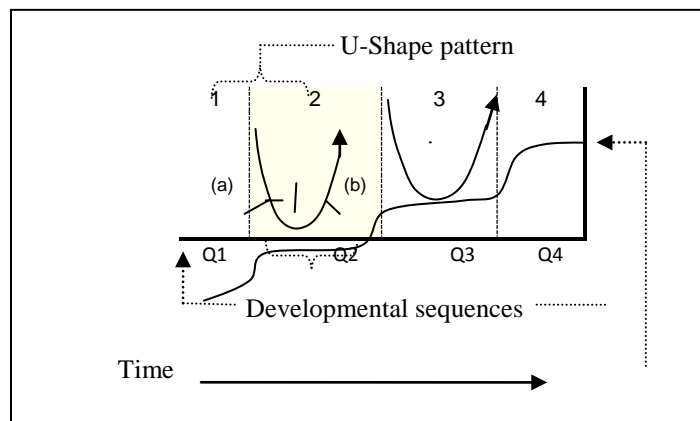
<u>Figure 1: Developmental Sequences (adapted from Smith and Truscott, 2005: 225)</u>
<u>and U-Shape Patterns (adapted from Gass and Selinker, 2008: 237)</u>

The shared patterns of developmental sequences and U-shape patterns in the highlighted second quarter in Figure 1 represent the order in which certain features of a language are acquired in language learning. The sequences help explain how language learning actually changes within individual learners. Smith and Truscott (2005) consider developmental sequences as a continuum in the acquisition of a language. They state that the movement from one stage to another occurs when non-native language learners move from never using a language point to regularly using it. That is, transition implies development through to the time of competence.

Similarly, as concluded by Brown (2007: 267), the learner's U-shaped learning patterns represent, in Figure 1, the phenomenon of moving from (a) a correct form to an incorrect form, and then (b) back to correctness over time. During a learner's transitional learning process, their learning performance is likely to deteriorate based upon existing detrimental learning factors like incomprehensible input (Larsen-Freeman, 2008) or interlanguage transfer (Brown, 2007; Gass and Selinker, 2008). However, whenever the input becomes comprehensible through the provision of corrective feedback—from either

teacher, peers, or the learners themselves—during the learners' learning process, this may motivate the learners to modify their output to more comprehensible and accurate forms.

In regard to the outcome-based criteria, a language teacher needs to set up the learning conditions and opportunities (e.g. the provision of teacher feedback and learners' self-correction) within a system which will enable and encourage all learners to achieve outcomes. In fact, although the teacher is expected to intervene in the learners' learning through instruction in the form of strategies and activities, the learners themselves will adjust their linguistic input to facilitate their learning process. Basically, this means that the learners do not learn all of what a teacher teaches.

For the utilization of the outcome-based curriculum to be successful, learners need to be supported in their learning processes (Figure 1) and needed to be encouraged by teachers and learning environments to be sensitive to language forms and functions in communication and be self-aware of their language learning. Since no single pedagogical approach fits all learners' language learning processes, this paper focuses on some feasible ways to encourage learners to be aware of language learning. These utilize applied instruction in process-oriented, task-based, and focus-on-form approaches.

Hybrid Writing: A Combination of Awareness-Raising Alternatives

Due to the shift from a traditional teacher-centered and product-oriented instruction to a more communicative and learner-centered approach, English language instruction is being focused more on a process approach, focus-on-form approach, and task-based approach. The common entities of the three approaches—process-oriented approach, task-based approach, and focus-on-form approach—to language instruction result in an applied ELT as shown in Figure 2.
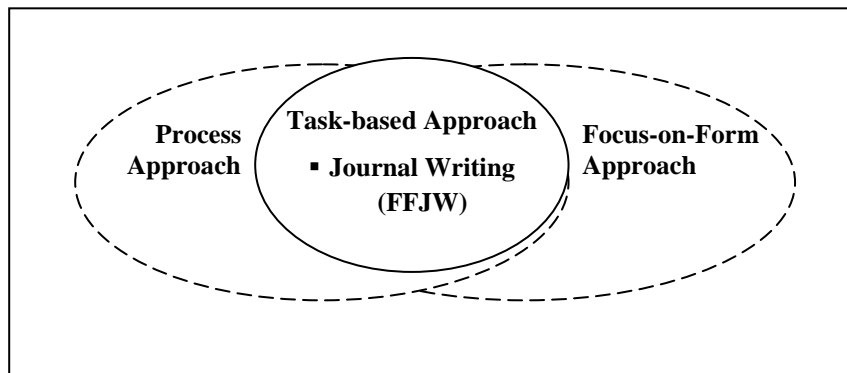

Figure 2: Hybrid Writing

The applied ELT (Figure 2) is extracted from the salient features of process-oriented, task-based, and focus-on-form approaches. One of the evident prototypes of the applied ELT matches 'focus-on-form journal writing' (FFJW).

The concept of communicative competence has been promoted in one of the educational curriculum standards for Thai university English Foundation Courses 1 and 2 since the year 2001. The term 'communicative competence' in both spoken and written communication suggests that language learners need to have the ability to apply English-language grammatical rules to form grammatically correct sentences (i.e. linguistic accuracy) and to know when, where and with whom to use these sentences (i.e. meaningfulness and appropriateness) (Larsen-Freeman, 2008). Grammatical accuracy is essential to ensure the learners' intended meaning is conveyed correctly thus avoiding communicative misunderstanding (Larsen-Freeman, 2008). The introduction of a more communicative language learning and teaching style in outcome-based curriculum in Thailand raises the question of how to integrate grammar instruction with communicative language teaching to enable language learners to develop their own language learning. To be more specific to the immediate concerns of communicative language teaching of English language skills, writing has been considered one of the most complex skill in both first language (L1) and second language (L2) acquisitions. These issues, in a nutshell, are on how teaching grammar can be undertaken in the context of authentic writing.

Focus-on-form instruction bringing grammar instruction into communicative language use is needed in EFL classroom contexts in that this approach facilitates learning processes (Figure 1) and contributes to the precision and the comprehension of learners' intended meaning in written communication (Long and Robinson, 1998). In this paper, the proposed focus-on-form journal writing (FFJW) is task-based and adapted to position grammar instruction into communicative language teaching in authentic written discourse. In the task-based approach, the main focus is on communication of meaning in an authentic activity. In general, the use of journal writing is for communicative idea fluency. Yet, FFJW, in this paper, possesses the writing accuracy-based feature through the implementation of process writing.

Cyclical writing processes—generating ideas, organizing, drafting, editing (or providing teacher feedback followed by learners' self-editing), and revising—are the key features of process writing. Process-approach instruction provides many opportunities for learners to think and then discover their learning processes (Bourke, 2008). In writing, learners can practice and evaluate their own writing skills such as the construction of ideas and the flow of content organization (i.e., fluency), and grammatical structure (i.e. accuracy).

In addition to the theoretical justifications previously provided, in order to optimize the usefulness of FFJW, concrete procedures of how to implement the FFJW are presented next.

Pedagogical Applications in Tertiary Outcome-Based Education

In the midst of global socio-economic changes, increased competitiveness and educational system transformations, language teachers' roles have been increasingly emphasized in policies on learner-centered pedagogies and learning outcomes specified in English language curriculum. FFJW appears to be a useful teaching-learning method

in the outcome-based English-language curriculum as presented in step-by-step pedagogical practices.

- **Exploring learners' immediate needs in English language learning:** To be able to raise learners' awareness, teachers need to understand the learners' needs in their language learning and English language skills by starting with the implementation of reflective journal writing. In the journal entries, teachers can observe the learners' record of how they reflect on their feelings, ideas and attitude about their own learning. This could assist teachers in planning their language teaching and in tailoring the learners' language needs. The study by Carroll and Mchawala (2001) suggests that the use of reflective journals could motivate groups of foreign students who were studying in EAP courses in Australian universities to write in English.

- **Presenting good and poor writing pieces and asking learners to judge the pieces:** To make this application more authentic, anonymous students' written tasks from different classes of the learners are recommended to be used as examples of writing pieces. The selected writing pieces should well represent good and poor writing tasks in the aspects of writing content, organization and language use.

- **Introducing FFJW with learners' self-selected topics of interest:** At tertiary levels, learners may feel bored if their journal entries are all about their daily experiences. A teacher needs to design additional writing themes to suit the learners' interests by letting learners generate their own writing topics (i.e. the first-step in the process approach to writing instruction). On the merits of learners' self-selected topics of interest, learners have freedom of choice in writing and this helps motivate the learners in the language learning process (Puengpipattrakul, 2009).

- **Promoting learners' cognitive tasks:** FFJW is a cognitive task using writing as a 'thinking' process that can develop learners intellectually and emotionally (Pritchard and Honeycutt, 2007). This step is to involve learners in the sequences of process writing. When learners can choose their writing topics, teachers can then encourage them to compose their writing. They can guide learners to make a writing outline by creating their initial writing ideas as sub-lists, writing a topic sentence, then developing the sub-lists to sentences and then paragraphs until a complete piece of writing is produced.

- **Cultivating collaborative work with learners by evaluating or reflecting on learners' FFJW:** In this step, a teacher provides corrective feedback on learners' FFJW organization and content (i.e. fluency-oriented), and language (i.e. accuracy-oriented). After the provision of teacher feedback, learners' self-editing is recommended to the learners. Since linguistic errors can occur when learners

do not master complete language knowledge in their learning process (Brown, 2007), the provision of written feedback is an essential part of English language writing. In the process of teacher feedback, learners can gain some confidence in their language learning through teachers complimenting them on their correct use of language and encouraging them to recognize their incorrect use of language (Pritchard and Honeycutt, 2007). While in the process of learners' self-editing, learners can be aware of their strengths and weaknesses in language use. Overall, the provision of teacher feedback and learners' self-correction could help the learners develop metacognitive awareness of their own learning processes through the strategies of write-to-learn and learn-to-write.

- **Recommending to learners other useful online sources relevant to their language learning:** This last pedagogical step acts as a portal to prepare learners for independent and life-long learning. Consistent with the characteristics of good language learners (Brown, 2007), learners become self-aware of their language learning, try to actively involve themselves in the language learning process and are willing to make a long-term commitment to language learning. Suggesting additional online sources to learners is another option to build motivation for learners' future learning. In the studies of several scholars, journal writing has been regarded as a pressure-free activity that encourages a desire for autonomous learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2008).

The study by Puengpipattrakul (2009) on the effect of FFJW on students' grammatical accuracy in the use of verb tenses showed that after the implementation of FFJW with 32 university undergraduates who were homogeneous in terms of first-year of studies, discipline, and lack of experience in journal writing, the students became more aware of their English-language learning and skills. The following extracts from interviews with two undergraduate students show how FFJW helped raise their awareness of language learning and skills:

- *"I think that the journal writing helps enhance my grammatical accuracy. And at least, I started to be more careful about the use of tenses in writing".*

- *"I think that the journal writing helps me more careful to grammatical accuracy such as subject-verb agreement and tenses".*

Additionally, FFJW in this study produced a significant positive effect on the grammatical accuracy of verb-tense use in English writing in a group of low achievers at the .05 level. Hence, with different levels of English proficiency, FFJW could promote language awareness-raising since it helps learners to understand their strengths and weaknesses, learning processes and development of their English-language skills.

The pedagogical applications of the implementation of FFJW suggested above help to nurture learners' awareness of their language learning, thereby developing independent learning and, subsequently, lifelong learning capabilities (Burton and Carroll, 2001; Vickers and Ene, 2006). With these benefits of journal writing, the use of journals as an

in-class or an out-of-class activity is suggested for inclusion as part of the course evaluation, as in the formative assessment in English-language courses at Thai tertiary levels. Learners are given a more realistic chance to practice English, which motivates them to be involved in independent and lifelong learning. Journal writing can be also applied in other subject courses to enhance awareness of the importance of those courses and their learning outcomes.

Basically, journal writing promotes the concept of Schön's (1983) *The Reflective Practitioner* in teaching and learning practices. Journal writing implicitly empowers learners with critical thinking. Whenever learners perceive the relevance of one course to other courses, they will move closer to independence and lifelong learning. Simultaneously, journal writing can be part of a teacher's professional development when used in a teaching-learning reflective cycle. A teacher can 'teach to learn' (i.e. introduce a learning activity to learners and identify whether it makes a change or improves their language learning and skills), and at the same time 'learn to teach' (i.e. learn if the situation is improved or the problem is solved, then introduce other learning activities into the learning processes). Within this reflective cycle, each of the processes can be repeated to bring about a refinement of knowledge and an understanding of ways to improve language learning.

The developmental stages of language acquisition are rationalized as theoretical justifications to explain why individual language learners have different language competence and performance. FFJW seems best suited as a means to facilitate learners' development of language learning and language learning awareness. Initially, journal writing offers a practical boost to learners' language skills in most ESL settings. However, when it is adopted for use in EFL settings, an EFL teacher needs to be keen on adapting journals to suit learners' learning styles. Thai learners who have been raised within a Thai cultural environment and educated within the Thai education system often find it hard to express their opinions on substantial issues or feelings in writing. In addition, making journal entries appears to be a time-consuming way for a teacher to teach analytical skills (e.g. critical thinking and problem solving) and for learners to master those skills. However, once learners begin to learn independently, which can easily be conducive to lifelong learning, the value of journal writing as a worthwhile alternative becomes apparent.

Directions and Future Prospects of Outcome-Based Policy

Under Thailand's outcome-based education program from the year 2012 onwards, teaching learners how to pass individual English-language course exams does not satisfy the so-called 'English proficiency attainment' requirement nor guarantee learners' lifelong learning. This means that most learners who have learned English since primary school may continue to have similar problems in English-language skills at tertiary levels as those they had as children. It seems that no matter how many educational policy reforms are undertaken, Thai learners still have relatively similar problems in English-language skills. The best way to implement educational reforms in Thailand is still a fairly controversial and challenging issue.

With the proposed awareness-raising alternatives, Thai learners will have chances to be exposed to the applied ELT through the implementation of FFJW. In addition to learners' improved learning outcome, the utilization of FFJW could build good learner-teacher rapport, allow a teacher to perceive learners' language learning transitions, and create learners' awareness of their full potential for language learning development. Raising the awareness of English language learning through the proposed FFJW to promote independent and eventually lifelong learning also appears to be a viable alternative in outcome-driven education.

Whether it is possible for Thailand to become a member of the so-called 'eligible' world community begs the question of how quality and success will be measured in learners' learning achievement and outcomes, teacher instruction, and the Thai education system. When Thai learners can autonomously learn English, the goal in a new phase of the 2009-2018 Education Reform Act that Thai learners will become 'qualified world citizens' will be achievable. This positive outcome will be counted as a success of the Thai education system. It is expected that the successful awareness-raising alternatives to Thai learners' English language learning and learning outcomes would be able to lighten the challenges of outcome-based English-language curriculum in tertiary education.

References

Asian Scientist Newsroom. (2011). *TOEFL: Singapore third worldwide in English proficiency test, top in Asia*. Retrieved May 12, 2012, from http://www.asianscientist.com/education/toefl-singapore-worldwide-english-proficiency-top-asia/

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th ed.). New York: Pearson Education, Inc.

Bourke, M. (2008). A rough guide to language awareness, *English Teaching Forum,* 1, 12-21.

Burton, J., and Carroll, M. (2001). *Journal writing*. Virginia: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. (TESOL).

Carroll, M., and Mchawala, C. (2001). Form or meaning? Academic writing with a personal voice. In J. Burton and M. Carroll (eds.) *Journal writing*: 47-58. Virginia: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. (TESOL).

ETS. (2005). *TOEIC report on test takers worldwide 2004*. TOEIC Report No. TT-04. Educational Testing Service.

Gass, S. M., and Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2008). *Teaching grammar for ESL/EFL.* Thomson ELT. Retrieved July 4, 2009, from http://eltadvantage.ed.2go.com/eltadvantage/

Long, M., and Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research and practice. In C. Doughty and J. Williams (eds.) *Focus on form in classroom SLA* (pp. 15-41). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ministry of Education. (2012). *Developing language and communicative skills*. Retrieved October 8, 2012, from http://www.bic.moe.go.th/fileadmin/BIC_Document/book/MOEleaflet/language-communication.pdf

Pritchard, R. J., and Honeycutt, R. L. (2007). Best practices in implementing a process approach to teaching writing. In S. Graham, C. A. MacArthur, and J. Fitzgerald (eds.) *Best practices in writing instruction*, 28-49. New York: The Guilford Press.

Puengpipattrakul, W., Chiramanee, N., and Sripetpun, W. (2007). The Challenge Facing Thai Graduates and Their Potential for English-Required Workforce, *The Kasetsart Journal: Social Sciences*, 28(2), 288-297.

Puengpipattrakul, W. (2009). *The Effects of Journal Writing on Grammatical Ability in English: A Case Study of First-Year Thai Undergraduates in the Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy, Chulalongkorn University*. Full Research Report. Bangkok: Chulalongkorn University Language Institute.

Smith, M. S., and Truscott, J. (2005). Stages or continua in second language acquisition: A MOGUL solution, *Applied Linguistics,* 26(2), 219-240.

Vickers, C. H., and Ene, E. (2006). Grammatical accuracy and learner autonomy in advanced writing, *ELT Journal*, 60(2), 109-116.

Wiriyachitra, A., and Keyuravong, S. (2002). A change in English language instruction in universities in Thailand, *ELTeCS Info*, 12-13.

Wongsothorn, A., Hiranburana, K., and Chinnawongs, S. (2002). English language teaching in Thailand today, *Asia-Pacific Journal of Education*, 22

DIGITAL STORYTELLING AS A PROJECT IN AN E.A.P. COURSE: INSIGHTS FROM MALAYSIAN UNDERGRADUATES

Luck Kee Lin, Siew Ming Thang, Nurjanah Mohd Jaafar, Noraza Ahmad Zabidi

School of Language Studies and Linguistics,
Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities,
The National University of Malaysia

Abstract

The integration of technology into language pedagogy has led to the widespread use of technological tools in teaching and learning. One such tool is digital storytelling (DST) which combines the art of storytelling with a variety of multimedia tools to enhance learning. Research has shown that the use of DST has positive effects on student learning. Numerous such studies have been done in Western countries but they are less common in Asian countries. This study, undertaken at a Malaysian public university, draws upon the data derived from a questionnaire to gauge students' perceptions of DST as a project for an English for Academic (EAP) course. The findings revealed that the students generally felt that the project has motivated them and helped them in the development of soft skills, language skills and autonomy. Significant differences in opinions on the DST were evident across ethnicities and hometown origins.

Keywords: digital storytelling; English for academic purposes; motivation; soft skills; autonomy

Introduction

The advent of Information and Communication Technology (I.C.T.) and the rapid pace of improvements in communication in the world have found the way into language classrooms leading to the incorporation of technology into learning in the classroom. This is particularly pertinent in the tertiary education context as what we need in the globalised world of today are students who are technologically savvy and equipped with communicative and language skills at the same time. Thus, the use of technological tools such as Web 2.0 tools are necessary as research studies have shown that these tools are able to equip students with the skills required at the 21st century workplace. In the Malaysian context, statistics have shown the standard of English is on a continual decline (Kabilan et al., 2010). In view of the benefits of technology as portrayed in research studies, using technology as a platform to promote teaching and learning of English in Malaysian schools and universities may be a way to address this decline. Digital storytelling (D.S.T.) is one such tool as it has been shown in numerous studies to have the potential to help equip students with the necessary technological skills as well as collaborative, thinking and communicative skills (Mclellan, 2006; Schwienhorst, 2007; Sadik, 2008; Czarnecki, 2009; Hafner and Miller, 2011). However, most of these studies were undertaken in the Western contexts and very limited studies have been undertaken in Asian contexts particularly in the learning of English as a Second Language (E.S.L.), which thus makes this study that investigates the integration of D.S.T. into an E.A.P. course in a public university, timely and crucial.

Digital storytelling

Storytelling is not an uncommon practice in education. It has been extensively used as a valuable and imaginative educational tool especially in children's education (McKillop, 2004). Mclellan (2006: 66) defines digital storytelling as 'the art and craft of exploring different media and software applications to communicate stories in new and powerful ways using digital media'. The end product, which is a personal multimedia story, is a combination of a variety of digital content like photographs, voice, music and writing and conventional storytelling (Solomon and Schrum, 2007).

Many educational practitioners have acknowledged the D.S.T. as a promising teaching and learning tool. Mclellan (2006) for instance, proposes that digital storytelling can function as a valuable tool in subject areas and help promote skills needed for the 21st century such as visual literacy, collaboration, and mastery of technology. Additionally, it develops learners' creativity, problem solving, self-direction and personal initiative skills. Findings from previous research report that the D.S.T. also promotes self-efficacy and openness towards change in educational technology (Heo, 2009), motivation (Sylvester and Greenidge, 2009), independent learning (Hafner and Miller, 2011) and oral reading fluency (Kimura, 2012).

Digital storytelling, taking advantage of advancements in technology and instructional design, is a promising transformative technology-supported approach for enhancing learning, including subject matter content acquisition, critical thinking skills, motivation,

and information literacy. Since constructing a successful D.S.T. project requires instructors to pose problems that are deeply connected with the course content, students are challenged with thinking critically about effective combinations of content and multimedia elements while considering the audience's perspective. Each story challenges students to meticulously select and edit artifacts, from personal products to other multimedia resources that meaningfully support the story and learning goals, thereby developing technology and media skills (EDUCAUSE Learning Initiative, 2007).

The implementation of D.S.T. in the English for Social Sciences course

At The National University of Malaysia (U.K.M.), the D.S.T. project was introduced in English for Academic Purpose course, i.e. English for Social Sciences (E.S.S). All students at the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities are required to take the course. It has been taught mainly through the face-to-face mode since its introduction in 2002. The D.S.T. project was introduced as a component in the redesign of the course evaluation in Semester I, 2011/2012.

The redesign was implemented as course instructors became increasingly aware of the necessity to complement classroom based instructions with independent learning to allow for a more effective and continuous language learning. The course instructors also reported several issues that led to this move, one of which was the increasing occurrence of plagiarism in the assignments. One of the previous evaluation components which required students to upload a summary of articles onto a discussion blog had produced an unproductive outcome, with the tendency of students to cut and paste materials into their summaries. This resulted in non-interactive and non-critical discussions among the students doing the project.

Another issue that arose then was students' lack of motivation in following the course and learning the language, especially among those with low proficiency. This had led to problems such as poor attendance, inattentiveness and also passiveness in the classroom. The D.S.T. project, which has proven to be more engaging (Mclellan, 2006) and is seen as a relevant learning tool to shape students with the necessary attitude and skills for their future needs, was introduced to resolve the issues.

Students are guided to do the D.S.T. project using the Windows PhotoStory3 as the software to create any digital stories of their choice but within the scope of their Social Sciences discipline. This software was chosen mainly for its low threshold level of ICT skills requirement. Students are also allowed to use other softwares such as Windows MovieMaker if they chose to do so.

The D.S.T. is a group-based activity and adopts Robin and Pierson's (2005) approach for creating and integrating digital stories into learning. The approach consists of four steps: 1) define, collect and decide; 2) select, import and create; 3) decide, write, record and finalise; and 4) demonstrate, evaluate and replicate. At the end of the semester, the class instructor will evaluate the end product which is the digital story. Figure 1 provides a summary of the procedures that the students were required to undertake for this project,

based on Robin and Pierson's (2005) four-step approach in creating and integrating digital stories.

The study

The study was undertaken to investigate students' perceptions of the extent digital story has affected their learning experiences in terms of motivating them, enhancing their development of soft skills, language skills and autonomy in learning.

Soft skills are characteristics that foster individual's interactions, job performance and career prospects. Joubert et al.'s (2006) definition of soft skills include such skills such as ethics, attitudes, interpersonal abilities, communication and being a lifelong learner while Staden et al. (2006) limited the definition to interpersonal or social skills. Similarly, Fan et al. (2005) listed the following as soft skills: coordination, persuasion, negotiation, communication with supervisors, peers, or subordinates; communication with persons outside the organization, establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships.
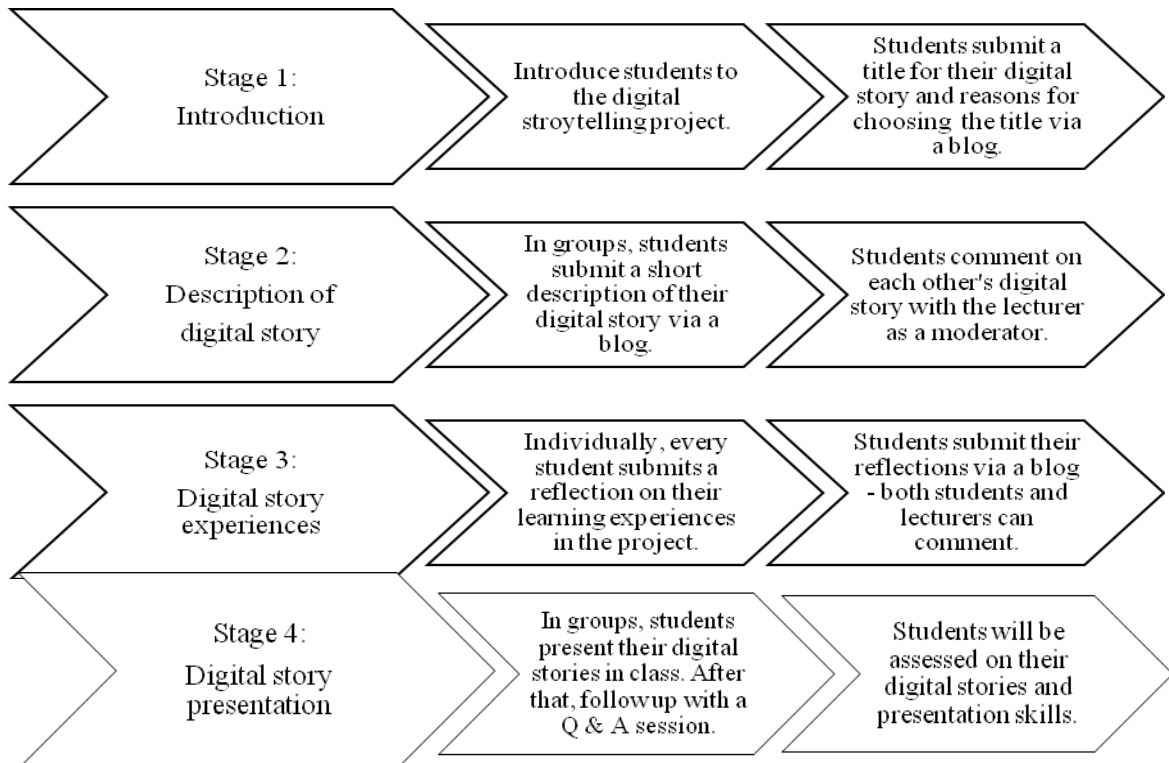
Figure 1: Description of the tasks and assessment involved in the project

Language skills in this paper refers specifically to the English language, and so the definition of language skills refers to the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English that one needs for communication. At the same time, other sub-skills such as pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and spelling all play a role in effective English communication and form part of the skills that students are expected to learn or improve in the process of doing the course.

Learner autonomy has been defined as the ability to take control over one's learning (Holec, 1988) and is also described as a 'capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action' (Little, 1991: 4). The development of learner autonomy, or in other words, learners' ability to control their own learning is an effort to develop learners to accept the learning process as occurring in and out of class (Holec, 1981). The learner must act as an active individual who brings prior experiences, beliefs and preferences to the lessons in the classroom. Learners are also deeply involved in the thinking process and socializing with others cooperatively. This is a contrast to methods of teaching in the past which involve dependence on the teacher to provide knowledge for the students.

The influences of variables such as proficiency level, gender, ethnicity and hometown location on their learning experiences were also taken in consideration. The students doing the course were from two proficiency levels, based on their performance in the Malaysian University Entrance Test (MUET) taken prior to their admission into the university. The MUET has six bands, with Band 1 for the lowest proficiency and Band 6 for the highest proficiency. In the study, all the students had obtained between Band 1 to Band 4 in the MUET. Thus, the two groups in the study comprise the lower proficiency students who obtained Bands 1 and 2, while the higher proficiency group comprises students who obtained Bands 3 and 4 in MUET.

As for hometown location, there were three categories of urban, semi urban and rural. Urban includes the cities and capitals of states with high density populations with characteristics of city life such as Kuala Lumpur, Penang, Johor Bharu and Shah Alam while semi urban refers to towns with characteristics between urban and rural, somewhat but not wholly characteristic of urban areas and somewhat close proximity to urban areas such as Muar, Batu Pahat, and Mantin. Rural refers to places which are characteristic of the country or country life such as Kuala Berang, Gurun and Tawau.

Specifically the study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. Are there differences in the perceptions of the students in terms of proficiency levels, gender, ethnicity and hometown origin for the development of the following?
   (a) motivation to learn;
   (b) soft skills;
   (c) language skills; and
   (d) autonomy in learning.
2. What are the interaction of the students in terms of proficiency levels, gender, proficiency levels, and hometown origin for the development of 1(a) to 1 (d)?

Research methods

With the introduction of the D.S.T. project in semester 1, 2011/2012, a questionnaire designed by the research team was administered to 203 E.S.S. students to investigate their attitudes and perceived benefits with regard to their participation in the project. The questionnaire consisted of two sections. Section A contained the students' demographic information such as their gender, ethnicity and hometown location. Section B comprised 31 items that investigated four components: students' motivation, soft skills, language skills and autonomy in learning in relation to the D.S.T. project. More specifically, these items investigated the students' perceptions on whether in the process of doing the D.S.T. project, they experienced any improvement interms of motivation to learn, soft skills, English language skills, and autonomy in learning. All items were rated on a four-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree to 4=strongly agree).

The questionnaire was administered to students in semester 2 of the 2011/2012 session. Altogether 201 E.S.S. students of diverse English proficiency levels responded to the questionnaire. 140 of them were female while 61 were males. As for ethnic composition, 173 students were Malays, 17 were Chinese, 4 were Indians and 5 were of other racial origins. Two students did not indicate their ethnic background, therefore their data were excluded. The composition of students in the sample population is a reflection of the student intake at U.K.M. hence it can be described as a normal population of U.K.M.

The questionnaire was distributed at the end of the semester, after the students had presented their digital stories in class. The digital story was a semester long project undertaken by the students in groups of three or four. The students chose a story of their own interest with a Social Science theme and once consent on the topic was given by their teacher, they worked on collecting the materials from a variety of sources (online and off line) to form the story. The product was an eight-minute digital story with narration by all group members. Students had to take on different roles including as director, producer, photographer, narrator, script writer and editor. The presentation at the end of the semester was evaluated as part of the course requirement.

Due to the very low number of Indian respondents and respondents of other racial origins, these two categories were excluded from the data as it would be difficult to determine significance with such small sample size. Altogether, 190 sets of questionnaire were subjected to data analysis using S.P.S.S. version 19. Descriptive and inferential statistics in the form of ANOVA were used to analyse the data.

Findings

First, division of the items into the four components namely motivation, soft skills, language skills and autonomy in learning was undertaken. Then the mean score of each component was calculated and this was followed by Cronbach's Alpha reliability test to find out whether the grouping for each component was reliable. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability values for the components are as follow: 0.784 for motivation, 0.546 for soft skills, 0.877 for language skills, and 0.490 for autonomy in learning. Since the internal

consistency for motivation and language skills is both above 0.7, the reliability of their classification is confirmed. The reliability values for soft skills and autonomy are considered acceptable, considering the fewer number of items in both components.

ANOVA analysis was carried out to see if each of the four variables, namely, proficiency level, gender, ethnicity and hometown location has an effect on the students' learning experience in terms of improvement in motivation to learn, soft skills, language skills, and autonomy in learning.

Proficiency level

Table 1: ANOVA analysis of proficiency and D.S.T. components

D.S.T. component	Proficiency	Mean	Std. deviation	df	F	Sig.
Motivation	Lower	3.1031	.37790	1	0.73	.787
	Higher	3.0870	.39411			
Soft skills	Lower	3.0940	.44174	1	1.750	.187
	Higher	3.0016	.46774			
Language	Lower	3.1354	.44522	1	.985	.322
	Higher	3.0703	.37218			
Autonomy	Lower	2.7231	.34511	1	.001	.973
	Higher	2.7213	.29926			

Table 1 reveals that there are no significant differences (p > .05) between the higher proficiency and lower proficiency students in their perceptions of the D.S.T. on motivation, development of soft skills, language skills and autonomy in learning. It further shows that the mean scores for the first three components (i.e. motivation, soft skills and language skills) for both proficiency levels are above 3.0 suggesting that they all agree that D.S.T. benefitted them in terms of improvement in these three components. However, the mean scores for autonomy is 2.72 for both proficiency levels indicating that majority of students regardless of proficiency levels felt that the D.S.T. is less helpful in promoting autonomy.

Gender

Table 2: ANOVA analysis of gender and D.S.T. components

D.S.T. component	Gender	Mean	Std. deviation	df	F	Sig.
Motivation	Male	3.0663	.43739	1	.570	.451
	Female	3.1117	.35654			
Soft skills	Male	3.0055	.51973	1	1.428	.234
	Female	3.0902	.41712			
Language	Male	3.0419	.43644	1	2.477	.117
	Female	3.1462	.41547			
Autonomy	Male	2.7011	.32856	1	.347	.556
	Female	2.7318	.33196			

Table 2 shows that there are no significant differences ($p > .05$) between the male and female students in their perception of the D.S.T. on motivation and the development of soft skills, language skills and autonomy in learning. The mean scores of the first three components are above 3.0 for both genders whereas it is only 2.7 for autonomy in learning. The findings suggest that both male and female students found D.S.T. more beneficial in terms of motivating them and development of soft and language skills and less so in promoting autonomy in learning.

Hometown location

Table 3 displays the differences in mean scores of the four D.S.T. components among students that came from the city, sub-urban areas and rural areas. A comparison of mean score using ANOVA demonstrated that the difference is only significant in the case of language skills. Post hoc Scheffe test shows that the mean score of the students from the rural areas is significantly higher than those from the cities. This suggests that students from the rural areas have a higher opinion of D.S.T. in terms of its potential to improve their language skills compared to those from cities.

A general comparison of mean scores across categories indicates that the scores of students from all locations for the first three components all inclined towards 3.0

suggesting that they felt that D.S.T. was beneficial. For autonomy the mean scores for all three locations are lower suggesting that they felt that D.S.T. was less beneficial in promoting autonomy.

Table 3: ANOVA analysis of hometown and D.S.T. components

D.S.T. component	Hometown	Mean	Std. deviation	df	F	Sig.
	City	3.0154	.40270			
Motivation	Town/sub-urban	3.0996	.40035	2	.861	.425
	Rural	3.1278	.35452			
	City	2.9420	.54327			
Soft skills	Town/sub-urban	3.0770	.45090	2	1.549	.215
	Rural	3.1222	.41458			
	City	2.9381	.48869			
Language	Town/sub-urban	3.1299	.40732	2	3.313	.039
	Rural	3.1742	.40068			
	City	2.7701	.30993			
Autonomy	Town/sub-urban	2.7500	.34371	2	.827	.439
	Rural	2.6889	.32397			

Ethnicity

Table 4: ANOVA analysis of ethnicity and D.S.T. components

D.S.T. component	Ethnicity	Mean	Std. deviation	df	F	Sig.
Motivation	Malay	3.1297	.36720	1	11.104	.001

D.S.T. component	Ethnicity	Mean	Std. deviation	df	F	Sig.
	Chinese	2.8145	.42138			
Soft skills	Malay	3.0924	.43667	1	7.429	.007
	Chinese	2.7843	.52333			
Language	Malay	3.1405	.42426	1	7.081	.008
	Chinese	2.8571	.35714			
Autonomy	Malay	2.7225	.33923	1	.001	.972
	Chinese	2.7255	.24254			

ANOVA test displayed in Table 4 reveals that the mean scores of the Malay students are significantly higher than the Chinese for the first three components namely motivation, soft skills and language skills. This suggests that the Malay students perceived the D.S.T. to be more beneficial to them in these aspects than the Chinese students. With regard to 'autonomy', no significant difference is found between the two ethnic groups.

To probe deeper, the relationship of the following pairs of independent variables, i.e. ethnicity and proficiency; hometown and proficiency; and ethnicity and hometown were investigated using two-way ANOVA.

Ethnicity and proficiency

Table 5: Two-way ANOVA analysis of ethnicity and proficiency and D.S.T. components

D.S.T. component	Source		Mean	df	F	Sig.
	Ethnicity * Proficiency					
	Ethnicity	Proficiency				
Motivation		Lower	3.108	1	1.805	.181
	Malay	Higher	3.188			
	Chinese	Lower	2.981			

D.S.T. component	Source		Mean	df	F	Sig.
		Higher	2.763			
	Ethnicity * Proficiency					
	Ethnicity	Proficiency				
Soft skills	Malay	Lower	3.096	1	1.315	.253
		Higher	3.082			
	Chinese	Lower	3.028			
		Higher	2.709			
	Ethnicity * Proficiency					
	Ethnic	Proficiency				
Language skills	Malay	Lower	3.142	1	.289	.592
		Higher	3.137			
	Chinese	Lower	2.964			
		Higher	2.824			
	Ethnicity * Proficiency					
	Ethnic	Proficiency				
Autonomy	Malay	Lower	2.725	1	.184	.668
		Higher	2.716			
	Chinese	Lower	2.667			
		Higher	2.744			

A two-way ANOVA was carried out to examine the effect of ethnicity and proficiency on the D.S.T. components. As shown in Table 5, there is no significant interaction ($p > .05$) between the effects of ethnicity and proficiency on any of the D.S.T. components. This indicates that while ethnicity has significant influence on students' opinion about D.S.T. components (as seen in 4.4), it however has no significant interaction with students'

proficiency. Thus, the Malays, regardless of their level of English proficiency level, still perceived D.S.T. as more beneficial with regard to their improvement in motivation, soft skills and language skills than the Chinese. It confirmed the earlier finding on proficiency levels (see 4.1) that indicated no significant difference in opinions between students of lower and higher proficiency on all four D.S.T. components.

Hometown location and proficiency

Table 6: Two-way ANOVA analysis of hometown location and proficiency and D.S.T. components

D.S.T. component	Source		Mean	df	F	Sig.
	Hometown * Proficiency					
	Hometown	Proficiency				
	City	Lower	2.990			
		Higher	3.123			
Motivation				2	.735	.481
	Town/sub-urban	Lower	3.106			
		Higher	3.041			
	Rural	Lower	3.028			
		Higher	3.168			
	Hometown * Proficiency					
	Hometown	Proficiency				
	City	Lower	3.048			
		Higher	3.133			
Soft skills				2	3.232	.042
	Town/sub-urban	Lower	3.063			
		Higher	2.844			
	Rural	Lower	2.909			
		Higher	3.233			

D.S.T. component	Source		Mean	df	F	Sig.
	Hometown * Proficiency					
	Hometown	Proficiency				
	City	Lower	2.933			
		Higher	3.167			
Language skills				2	.869	.421
		Lower	3.158			
	Town/sub-urban	Higher	2.943			
		Lower	3.019			
	Rural	Higher	3.204			
	Hometown * Proficiency					
	Hometown	Proficiency				
	City	Lower	2.786			
		Higher	2.768			
Autonomy				2	.616	.542
		Lower	2.667			
	Town/sub-urban	Higher	2.756			
		Lower	2.697			
	Rural	Higher	2.730			

Table 6 shows the results of a two-way ANOVA analysis that examined the effect of hometown location and proficiency on D.S.T. components. Significant interaction effects between both variables are found on 'soft skills' (p = .042). Simple main effects analysis shows that the higher proficiency students who come from the rural areas are significantly more convince that D.S.T. is beneficial for the development of soft skills than the lower proficient students (p = .017). However there are no differences between proficiency among students who come from the cities or towns. Additionally, there are no significant interaction effects between hometown location and proficiency on the remaining D.S.T. components.

Ethnicity and hometown location

An examination of effects between ethnicity and hometown location on D.S.T. components (shown in Table 7) reveals no significant interactions for all four components. This indicates that while ethnicity has significant influence on students' opinion about D.S.T. components (as seen in Table 4), it does not have any significant interaction with students' hometown location. Thus, the Malays, regardless of their hometown location, still perceive D.S.T. as more beneficial with regard to motivation, soft skills and language skills than the Chinese.

Table 7: Two-way ANOVA analysis of ethnicity and hometown location and D.S.T. components

D.S.T. component	Source		Mean	df	F	Sig.
	Ethnicity * Hometown					
	Ethnicity	Hometown				
		City	3.080			
Motivation	Malay	Town/sub-urban	3.121	2	.108	.897
		Rural	3.158			
		City	2.769			
	Chinese	Town	2.857			
		Rural	2.769			
	Ethnicity * Hometown					
	Ethnicity	Hometown				
Soft skills		City	3.009	2	.168	.846
	Malay	Town/sub-urban	3.095			
		Rural	3.131			

D.S.T. component	Source		Mean	df	F	Sig.
		City	2.685			
	Chinese	Town/sub-urban	2.873			
		Rural	3.000			
	Ethnicity * Hometown					
	Ethnicity	Hometown				
		City	2.975			
	Malay	Town/sub-urban	3.148			
Language skills		Rural	3.189	2	.046	.955
		City	2.786			
	Chinese	Town/sub-urban	2.918			
		Rural	2.905			
	Ethnicity * Hometown					
	Ethnicity	Hometown				
		City	2.768			
	Malay	Town/sub-urban	2.753			
Autonomy		Rural	2.690	2	.029	.972
		City	2.778			
	Chinese	Town/sub-urban	2.714			
		Rural	2.667			

An examination of effects between ethnicity and hometown location on D.S.T. components (shown in Table 7) reveals no significant interactions for all four components. This indicates that while ethnicity has significant influence on students' opinion about D.S.T. components (as seen in Table 4), it does not have any significant

62

interaction with students' hometown location. Thus, the Malays, regardless of their hometown location, still perceive D.S.T. as more beneficial with regard to motivation, soft skills and language skills than the Chinese.

Discussion and conclusion

For innovative technology-supported instructional tools to be implemented successfully, students' responses to them need to be taken into consideration. This study investigates the perceptions of students of different English language proficiency levels, ethnicity, gender, and hometown origins towards development of motivation, language skills, soft skills and autonomy. The findings showed that while there were no significant differences in perceptions of students of different English language proficiency levels and gender in terms of development of motivation, language skills, soft skills and autonomy, there were some significant differences with regard to ethnicity and hometown origin. Specifically, those from the rural hometowns rated improvements in language skills higher than those from the urban ones. In the case of ethnicity, the Malays were more positive about the effects of the D.S.T. than the Chinese in terms of increase in motivation, soft skills and language skills.

The reasons for the above findings may be due to the digital divide factor with students in rural areas having less access to the Internet than urban areas (Norizan and Jalaluddin, 2008). Thus, rural students may find the technology used in D.S.T. more interesting as they are less exposed to such technology compared to the urban students who may find the technology too simple. The fact that many Malay students from U.K.M. are from the rural areas may also explain the more positive views of Malay students towards the D.S.T. innovation. This suggests the need to introduce more sophisticated technology to stimulate the interest of students with greater exposure to I.C.T. As Hafner and Miller (2011) pointed out it is necessary to consider the potential benefits of the technological tools and the environment we ask our students to engage with when choosing technologies to support our students' learning processes.

The generally higher mean scores of above 3.0 for motivation, language skills and soft skills given by male and female students of high and low proficiency levels suggest that they believed that D.S.T. had a positive effect on them in terms of development of the above three components. These findings strongly suggest that the introduction of the D.S.T. project in the E.S.S. course was a correct decision as it was well received by students of both gender and of all proficiency levels.

However, the students felt that the D.S.T. project was less helpful in promoting autonomy among them and this was the view of students from different genders, proficiency levels, ethnic origins as well as hometown origins. These findings contradicted that of Hafner and Miller (2011) who in their study on the construction of digital video revealed that students' reported practices and perceptions illustrated that the technological learning environment afforded opportunities for autonomous language learning. Their students reported two kinds of independent learning: independently practising and using English, and independently searching for information related to the content of the video or the use of technological tools. These behaviors were required of students of this study too but

the students did not see this as being of great benefit to them. A clearer understanding of the Malaysian students' mentally will help to shed more light on this matter. Studies by Thang and Azarina (2007), Thang (2009), Thang (2012) and Nurjanah and Thang (2013), showed that Malaysian students are generally more passive and have been brought up to respect their teachers and to think that teacher-centered approach to learning is much more effective. As a result, these students would be less appreciative of an approach that requires them to work on their own. Thus, it is postulated here that this "culture" is responsible for the less positive responses of the students of this study towards the effectiveness of the project in promoting autonomy among them.

It can be deduced from the above finding that the value of taking charge of one's own learning is a concept that needs to be understood by these students so that they can appreciate the value of such activities in order for them to be able to appreciate the value of D.S.T. as contributing towards fostering autonomy for more effective learning. This means that it is not sufficient to offer technology in the forms of a range of resources, tools, and environments for out-of-class learning (Motteram, 1997; Benson, 2001) by themselves to promote autonomy. Learner training that helps students learn how to learn autonomously with technologies (Reinders, 2006; Deepwell and Malik, 2008) and appropriate student-centered pedagogy need to be introduced too to harness the strengths of the affordances of the technologies offered (Schwienhorst, 2007). The findings of this study support those of previous studies undertaken in U.K.M. which showed that the use of I.C.T. has beneficial effects on students (Thang & Bidmeshki 2010; Zaini et al. 2010).

Acknowledgements

References

Benson, P. (2001). *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning*. Harlow: Longman.

Czarnecki, K. (2009). Technology leadership. *Teacher Librarian*, 37(2), 75-76.

Deepwell, F., and Malik, S. (2008). On campus, but out of class: An investigation into students' experiences of learning technologies in their self-directed study. *ALT-J, Research in Learning Technology,* 16(1), 5-14. doi: 10.1080/09687760701850166

EDUCAUSE Learning Initiative. (2007). *7 things you should know about digital storytelling*. Retrieved March 11, 2013, from http://www.educause.edu/ir/library/pdf/ELI7021.pdf.

Fan, C. S., Wei, X., and Zhang, J. (2005). "Soft" skills, "hard" skills, and the black/white earnings gap. *Discussion Paper Series*. Discussion paper no. 1804. Bonn, Institute for the Study of Labor.

Hafner C.A., and Miller, L. (2011). Fostering learner autonomy in English for Science: A collaborative digital video project in a technological learning environment. *Language Learning & Technology,* 15(3), 68-86. Retrieved March 13, 2013, from http://llt.msu.edu/issues/october2011/hafnermiller.pdf

Heo, M. (2009). Digital storytelling: An empirical study of the impact of digital storytelling on pre-service teachers' self-efficacy and dispositions towards educational technology. *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia,* 18(4), 405-428.

Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy in foreign language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Holec, H. (1988). *Autonomy and self-directed learning: Present fields of application*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Jonassen, D. H. (2000). Transforming learning with technology: Beyond modernism and post-modernism or whoever controls the technology creates the reality. *Educational Technology,* 40(2), 21-25.

Joubert, P. M., Krüger, C., Bergh, A. M., Pickworth, G. E., Staden, C. W. van, Roos, J. L., Schurink, W. J., Du Prees, R. R., Grey, S. V., and Lindeque, B. G. (2006). Medical students on the value of role models for developing 'soft skills'- "That's the way you do it". *South African Psychiatry Review,* 9, 28-32.

Kabilan, M. K., Ahmad, N., and Zainol Abidin, M. J. (2010). Facebook: An online environment for learning of English in institutions of higher education? *Internet and Higher Education,* 13(4), 179-187. doi: 10.1016/j.iheduc.2010.07.003

Kimura, M. (2012). Digital storytelling and oral fluency in an English reading class at a Japanese University. *International Journal of Computer Assisted Language Learning and Teaching (IJCALLT),* 2(1), 1-17.

McKillop, C. (2004). 'StoriesAbout... assessment': Supporting reflection in art and design higher education through on-line storytelling. Paper presented at the 3rd International Conference for Narrative and Interactive Learning Environments (NILE 2004), Edinburgh, Scotland. doi: 10.1.1.87.9503

Mclellan, H. (2006). Digital storytelling in higher education. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education,* 19(1), 65-79.

Motteram, G. (1997). Learner autonomy and the web. In V. Darleguy, A. Ding, and M. Svensson (eds), *Educational technology in language learning: Theoretical considerations and practical applications* (pp. 17-24). Lyon: INSA (National Institute of Applied Science).

Little, D. (1991). *Learner autonomy 1: Definitions, issues and problems*. Dublin: Authentik.

Norizan Abdul Razak, and Jalaluddin Abdul Malek (2008). Bridging digital divide in Malaysia: Cyber learning for the marginalized community. Paper presented at Distance Learning and the Internet Conference 2008. Japan: Waseda University, November.

Nurjanah Mohd Jaafar, and Thang, S. M. (2013). Revisiting autonomy and attributions: A case in a Malaysian university. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies,* 13(2), 41-64.

Reinders, H. (2006). Supporting self-directed learning through an Electronic Learning Environment. In T. Lamb, and H. Reinders (eds), *Supporting independent learning: Issues and interventions. Series: Bayreuth contributions to glottodidactics* (pp. 210-238). Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Robin, B., and Pierson, M. (2005). A multilevel approach to using digital storytelling in the classroom. In C.M. Crawford, R. Carlsen, K. McFerrin, J. Price, R. Weber, and D.A. Willis (eds), *Proceedings of Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education International Conference 2005* (pp. 708-716). Chesapeake, VA: AACE.

Roblyer, M. D., and Edwards, J. (2000). *Integrating Technology into Teaching* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Sadik, A. (2008). Digital storytelling: a meaningful technology-integrated approach for engaged student learning. *Educational Technology Research and Development,* 56(4), 487-506. doi: 10.1007/s1423-008-9091-8

Schwienhorst, K. (2007). *Learner autonomy and CALL environments*. London: Routledge.

Solomon, G., and Schrum, L. (2007). *Web 2.0: New tools, new schools*. Washington, DC: International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE).

Staden, C. W. van, Joubert, P. M., Pickworth, G. E., Bergh, A. M., Krüger, C., Schurink W. J., Preez, R. R. Du, Grey, S. V., and Lindeque, B. G. (2006). The conceptualisation of "soft skills" among medical students before and after curriculum reform. *South African Psychiatry Review,* 9, 33-37.

Sylvester, R., and Greenidge, W. (2009). Digital storytelling: Extending the potential for struggling writers. *The Reading Teacher,* 63(4), 284-295.

Thang, S. M. (2009). Investigating autonomy of Malaysian ESL learners: A comparison between public and private universities. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies,* 15, 97-124.

Thang, S. M. (2012). A critical view of Malaysian ESL undergraduates' readiness for autonomy and its implication for Malaysian education curriculum. In Y.L. Koo &

Hazita Azman (eds), *Language and literacy in multilingual contexts: Issues and challenges* (pp. 157-172). Bangi: Penerbit Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Thang, S. M., and Azarina Alias. (2007). Investigating readiness for autonomy: A comparison of Malaysian undergraduates of three public universities. *Reflections of ELT Journal,* 7(1), 1-18.

Thang, S. M., and Bidmeshki, L. (2010). Investigating the perceptions of UKM undergraduates towards an English for Science and Technology online course. *Computer Assisted Language Learning Journal,* 23(1), 1-20.

Zaini Amir, Kemboja Ismail, and Supyan Husin. (2010). Blogs in language learning: Maximizing students' collaborative writing. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Science,* 18(2011), 537-543. Kongres Pengajaran dan Pembelajaran UKM 2010.

Student Evaluation of Faculty Members: Faculty Members' Perspective

Sahail M. Asassfeh
Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Hashemite University, Jordan

Hana' Al-Ebous
Department of Biology, University of Jordan, Jordan

Abstract

Student evaluation of faculty (SFE) is used in almost every institution nowadays as the most important means for assessing faculty members' (FMs') teaching effectiveness. Since SFE targets the performance of FMs and the outcomes should be reflected positively on improving their teaching, comprehensive understanding of FMs' beliefs toward the entire evaluation process is quintessential. This study, descriptive in nature, is conducted on 166 FMs from the Faculty of Sciences and Faculty of Educational Sciences at a major public university in Jordan to explore their beliefs about the evaluation process in terms of: (a) paper-based vs. online-format preference; (b) the overall process; (c) the standards students adopt in evaluation; (d) the fruitfulness of previous evaluations; and (e) the evaluation instrument currently used at their institution. It also investigates any possible differences in their beliefs according to gender, experience, academic rank, and faculty. The results suggest that FMs hold variable moderate beliefs. Differences in beliefs attributed to each of the independent variables are also found.

Key words: evaluation standards, fruitfulness of evaluation outcomes, online vs. paper-based evaluation, student evaluation of faculty,

Introduction

One of the topics that have attracted scholars' attention, leading to the production of thousands of publications is student evaluations of faculty members (FMs) and their teaching performance (Marsh, 2007). SFEs are typically used to facilitate curriculum-related decisions, hence improving teaching effectiveness; to formulate personnel decisions related to tenure, and promotion; and to elicit information for students to use in future FM selection (Gray & Bergmann, 2003; Marsh & Roche, 1997; Seldin, 1993). The

significance of these purposes has made SFEs a worldwide phenomenon as a source of obtaining information about FMs' teaching in higher education institutions. Thus, gradually, SFEs that started as a voluntarily used tool by individual FMs to improve their teaching skills have become mandatory for all FMs (Stratton, Myers, & King, 1994). In the US, for example, whereas SFE was used by only 30% of higher education institutions in the 1970s, it is used in almost every institution nowadays as "the most important, and sometimes the sole, measure of a teacher's teaching ability" (Seldin, 1993; Simpson, 1995; Washburn & Thornton, 1996; Wilson, 1998; Yunker & Sterner, 1988).

SFE results constitute a major input to personnel decisions relating to academic staff (Liu, 2006; Pounder, 2007). Nonetheless, SFEs are neither universally accepted, nor are they viewed similarly by different FMs. Some FMs see them as unreliable, invalid, useless, and harmful. Others believe more or less the opposite whereas some others fall somewhere at a point in between (Kogan, Tacher, & Hellyer, 2010; Perry & Smart, 2007). Among scholars as well, some (Cashin, 1995; Cohen, 1981; Ramsden, 2003; Wilson, Lizzo, & Ramsden, 1997) believe that SFEs are a valid, reliable measure of teaching effectiveness. Others still believe that they represent "the newest weapon in the attack on tenure … taken as prima facie evidence of teaching ineffectiveness, thus justifying not awarding tenure to a faculty" (Haskell, 1997, p. 15). This variability has resulted in the emergence of different perspectives toward, if not myths about, SFEs.

This study attempts to explore the beliefs and perceptions held by FMs at a major public university in Jordan about the SFE process in terms of the preferred evaluation format, beliefs about the entire process, beliefs about the standards students use, the fruitfulness of SFEs, and perceptions about the instrument used in SFE at the setting of the study. It also investigates the impact of FM-related variables (gender, experience, academic rank, and faculty) on their beliefs. Addressing SFE from FMs' perspective is motivated by the understanding that even though students are the ultimate recipients of the outcomes of SFE, FMs' beliefs and perceptions about the entire process are of no less importance since FMs are the ones who should directly benefit from these outcomes to make the modifications deemed beneficial in their teaching performance.

As in many other institutions, in the institution where this study is carried out, students are informed prior to the final exams to log into their Student Portal at the university website using their ID to find the courses to be evaluated marked for them, typically the course with the highest enrollment rate. To ensure objectivity, students are reassured that FMs will not have access to the responses of a particular student, nor will the FM receive the results before posting students' final grades. Students indicate their responses on a 5-point Likert scale during a pre-set duration of no less than two weeks. After a short period of time, each FM can access the results of students' evaluation via his/her account at the Employee Portal at the university website. Each FM has access only to his/her ratings.

Literature Review

A review of previous research pertinent to SFE suggests that *multidimensionality* and *controversy* are two fundamental characteristics of this research (Kogan, Tacher, & Hellyer, 2010). Whereas multidimensionality is linked to the nature of what is being assessed, namely effective teaching, controversy is linked to the different perspectives from which SFEs are viewed. These two features can be gleaned from Aleamoni's (1999) seminal paper that summarizes the most widespread myths about SFE in light of a review of the research conducted between 1942 and 1998. These myths include that: (a) students are immature enough to evaluate their FMs; (b) research accomplishment is associated with teaching excellence; (c) ratings depend on FM-student warm, friendly relationship; (d) being still a student is associated with inability to make accurate judgment; (e) SFE is neither reliable nor valid; (f) SFEs are associated with each of: class size, gender, the time of day a course is offered, the type of course (requirement or elective) evaluated, student major, course level, FMs' rank, student received grades. Additional myths include that ratings are independent of disciplinary differences and that general items correlate with the accuracy of SFEs. One more myth is that SFEs are meaningless. Clearly, these findings point to the importance, trustworthiness, validity, and reliability of SFEs and lend no support to many of the variables generally misconceived as influential in shaping SFEs.

In addition to these diverse beliefs, an important theme in SFE research relates to preferences associated with the evaluation format (online or paper-based). In this regard, contrary to the general findings that some faculty do not prefer to be evaluated online to avoid receiving lower scores or lower response rates, research findings (e.g., Layne, DeCristoforo, & McGinty, 1999; Liegle & McDonald, 2005; Liu, 2006) report that FM effectiveness is independent of the evaluation format, and online evaluations may sometimes elicit a higher response rate.

Another theme amounts to student standards in evaluating their FMs. Pounder (2007) categorizes the factors that contribute to shaping SFEs into those that relate to: students, course, and FM. FM-related factors include gender, age, experience, rank, and behavioral traits. Whereas most early research suggests a positive correlation between evaluation scores and experience or rank, recent findings suggest otherwise (Addison & Stowell, 2012). As suggested by Feldman (1983), the scores reach the peak around seven-year experience and begin to drop gradually. Pounder (2007) reports findings suggesting that the behavior traits of FMs, which may not necessarily be educationally valuable, have a substantial impact on SFE results regardless of how well FMs know the subject matter, with some confirming that no less than 50-80% of the total variance of SFEs is attributable to personality factors.

Findings also suggest that students prefer a personable FM who takes interest in them and a type of instruction that combines both subject-matter competence and desirable personality traits (Hill & Christian, 2012). Students have also been found to assign value to a FM's communication, facilitation, organization, respect and concern, assessment of students' progress, interest in their learning, and stimulation of interest in the course (Pepe & Wang, 2012). Moreover, among the variables found reliable for SFE are course

organization, intellectual stimulation, enthusiasm, preparation, willingness to help, a conducive learning atmosphere, and clear presentation of content (Zhao & Gallant, 2012). Additionally, research reports a relationship between grade levels, expected grade levels, and actual scores with some sort of "mutual back patting"; students are given higher grades than they deserve so that they assign a higher grade to the FM (Pounder, 2007, p. 183). Contrary to this "oft-cited "leniency hypothesis," one possible explanation for this relationship is that students tend to perform better in classes taught by effective teachers" (Addison & Stowell, 2012, p.5).

Although the literature hosts a plethora of studies on SFE measures and the merits of their use, little research has focused on faculty beliefs about SFEs (Nasser & Fresko, 2002). Even when studies exist, generalizability of findings across different contexts is beyond reach (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2007). This necessitates making data-driven understanding of the entire SFE process, and this study is an attempt towards this end.

Research Questions

This study is guided by the following two questions:

1. What beliefs do FMs hold about SFE in terms of: (a) paper-based vs. online-format preferences; (b) the overall process; (c) the standards students adopt in evaluation; (d) the fruitfulness of evaluation; and (e) the evaluation instrument currently used at their institution?

2. Are there any statistically significant differences in FMs' beliefs attributed to:

    a. gender;
    b. experience;
    c. academic rank (instructor or lecturer, assistant professor, associate or full professor); and
    d. faculty (College of Educational Sciences vs. College of Sciences)

Method

Participants

Convenient sampling was used in this study for recruiting participants from two faculties at a major public university in Jordan. The sample comprised 166 FMs (43.4% female and 56.6% male) randomly selected to represent the college of Educational Sciences colleges (31.3%) and the College of Sciences (68.7%), holding Master's (36.7%) and PhD (63.3%) degrees with the ranks of: instructors or lecturer (42.8%), assistant professor (39.8%), and associate or full professor (17.5%). They were categorized

according to their teaching experience into two groups (7 years or below, 53%; 7 years or above 47%).

Instrument

This study, descriptive in nature, used a modified version of a valid, reliable survey (Asassfeh, Al-Ebous, Khwaileh, & Al-Zoubi, 2013) for assessing opinions about the evaluation process. Since the original survey was developed to assess students' beliefs about the process of their evaluation to FMs, it was adapted to elicit information about FMs' beliefs. The questionnaire had 71 items representing five subscales that aimed at comprehensive coverage of the themes prevalent in the literature pertinent to faculty evaluation by students. Thus, of the 71 items, 10 addressed FMs' preferences to either of paper-based or online evaluation, 19 elicited general attitudes and beliefs about the evaluation process, 24 assessed the standards FMs believed students use in evaluation, 13 covered beliefs about the outcomes of previous evaluations, and 5 elicited opinions about the instrument adopted at the institution where the study was carried out. The questionnaire used a five-point Likert scale: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), uncertain (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5).

Data Collection

The survey was administered to a sample of 200 FMs in their offices. The researchers explained the purpose of the study to each participant, ensured consent, and gave a copy to each FM who expressed willingness to participate. During the next week, filled-up surveys were collected for further analysis. Out of these, 173 questionnaires were returned among which 7 were incomplete, hence invalid for further analysis. Therefore, 166 filtered into analysis. The few missing responses were examined and found randomly distributed; therefore, they were neglected. Data from these questionnaires were checked and fed into and analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 20. Analyses were carried out using descriptive (mean and standard deviation) and inferential (*t* test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)) statistics.

Results

The first question was answered using descriptive statistics at the level of subscales as well as at the level of individual items under each subscale. FMs' mean responses on the different subscales of the survey were not high, with none exceeding 2.5. The highest mean response was associated with the items addressing the general beliefs about SFE (*M*= 2.50, *SD*=.46), followed by those addressing online evaluation (*M*= 2.46, *SD*= .97), paper-based evaluation (*M*= 2.29, *SD*= 1.05), current evaluation instrument (*M*= 2.25, *SD*= .93), fruitfulness of previous evaluations (*M*= 2.19, *SD*= .99), and the standards student use in evaluation (*M*= 1.79, *SD*= .52).

At the level of individual items under each subscale, responses associated with online evaluation (Table 1) indicate that online preferences are motivated most by the opportunity it gives for students to type as many comments as they might wish, which in turn yields more comprehensive evaluations through the integration of both quantitative

and qualitative input about FMs' teaching performance. Since students complete online evaluation at their own convenience, they have more time for reflection and ore freedom since it is harder for anyone to recognize a specific student's response due to anonymity, resulting in more reliable evaluations. Lower agreement, however, was associated with the privacy online evaluation has and the time-saving it provides. According the FMs interviewed in this study, this low agreement is motivated by the belief that students may complete the evaluation together with their friends at home or anywhere else in addition to the belief that students' familiarity with the items helps in responding to the evaluation instrument in no more than five minutes, which is not a long time to waste.

FMs' preference of online evaluation is mirrored in their responses associated with the items that elicited information about paper-based preference where their mean responses, as shown in Table 2, were relatively lower (the highest mean response is as low as 2.34). FMs' believed that students are familiar with the items on the evaluation instrument, hence need not waste time, especially as students rarely experience loss of power are arguably factors that de-motivate FMs to prefer being evaluated using the paper-based format.

Table 1–FMs' Preference of Online vs. Paper-Based SFE

I prefer my students use online evaluation since it …	M	SD
Gives students the opportunity to write more comments when they type	2.89	1.37
Gives students more time to think before they write	2.71	1.40
Gives students the chance to express their ideas anonymously (no handwriting)	2.43	1.24
Gives students the chance to complete the evaluation at their own convenience	2.32	1.19
Does not waste class time.	2.18	1.19
I prefer my students use paper-based evaluation since they		
are more familiar with bubble sheet format than online format	2.34	1.34
are more likely to complete it since they are right in class	2.32	1.10
it is sometimes hard for students to get online access	2.28	1.32
can ask for help if they don't understand something	2.19	1.38

FMs' general beliefs about the evaluation process (Table 2) indicate stronger beliefs compared to those associated with the evaluation format (four items on this subscale yielded mean responses higher than 3.00). FMs' strongest agreement was associated with the worthlessness of student evaluation and disapproval to the gender role in evaluation. They also believed in low usability of evaluation results by administrators in setting recommendations accordingly. This coincides with their belief that they need not be evaluated by students or that it is a student's right to complete evaluation.

Table 2– FMs' General Beliefs about SFE

I believe that …	M	SD
SFE is worthless	3.59	1.23
Female students tend to give higher positive evaluation to female FMs	3.40	1.12
Male students tend to give higher positive evaluation to male FMs	3.24	1.16
Students' evaluation is influenced by the FM's gender	3.15	1.17
Students' evaluation is influenced by other students' evaluation of the same FM	2.85	1.10
SFE is reliable and trustworthy	2.61	1.06
Students take FM evaluation seriously	2.41	1.08
Students are qualified to evaluate FMs	2.39	1.03
Students are keen on evaluating FMs objectively regardless of grades	2.36	1.02
Students feels regret after unjust evaluation of a FM.	2.34	1.09
Students discuss SFE process and its significance with peers	2.33	.98
FMs who receive high positive evaluation are not necessarily the best	2.26	.97
Students count on previous evaluations are them in choosing their course FM	2.26	1.04
Universities should publicize the results of evaluation	2.22	1.21
SFE must play a decisive role in FMs' contract renewal or promotion	2.17	1.01
Students have the right to evaluates their FMs	2.09	1.00
Students must evaluate all FMs, regardless of rank, in all courses	2.06	.94
Students must evaluate their FMs	1.90	.87
Universities must and set recommendations accordingly to SFE results	1.86	.89

Student evaluation standards

FMs' mean responses on this dimension, as shown in Table 3, were generally low--the highest mean response was 2.67. However, these results indicate FMs' belief that students' evaluation is based more on non-academic, compared to academic, standards. The three top-ranking items are related to student-FM relationship, lenient grading, and a FM's likeability. Academic-related variables such as exam clarity, mastery of the subject matter and instructional organization, and variability in the teaching methods used received FMs' lowest mean responses.

Table 3– FMs' Perceptions of the Standards Students Use in Evaluation

I believe students complete SFE based on M	SD

I believe students complete SFE based on	M	SD
Relationship (personal, social, tribal, etc.) with the FM	2.67	1.35
FM's lenience in giving grades	2.08	1.09
Students' love to the FM regardless of academic competence	2.03	1.07
FM's commitment to office hours	1.92	.85
FM's approachability outside classroom	1.92	.88
FM's punctuality in starting and ending lectures	1.90	.89
FM's easy exams	1.83	.85
FM's distribution of, and commitment to, the course syllabus	1.82	.78
Immediate feedback on students' test performance	1.80	.88
FM's neutrality, justice, and fairness in dealing with students	1.79	.88
FM's use of different assessment tools and strategies	1.76	.77
FM's effective use of teaching aids (e.g., maps, OHP, etc.)	1.75	.79
Transferability of learning outcomes to real life situations	1.73	.84
FM's exciting and interesting teaching style	1.69	1.68
FM's flexibility with students and understanding their conditions	1.68	.83
Providing students with feedback and areas of strength and awkwardness	1.68	.73
Giving students space for self-expression	1.68	.79
Alignment between course objectives, assignments, and exams	1.67	.70
Allowing them to discuss grades	1.64	.77
FM's effective use of a variety of teaching methods and strategies.	1.62	.77
Fair assignment of grades	1.59	.74
FM's mastery of instructional organization and content presentation	1.58	.75
FM's mastery of the subject matter	1.53	.75
Clarity of exam and test questions	1.51	.65

Fruitfulness of evaluation outcomes

SFE is a means towards the end of assessing FMs' teaching performance and, more importantly, the ultimate goal of improving instruction. In other words, the process aims at not only assigning a value for the performance level but also identifying where exactly intervention is required. FMs' mean responses on the items representing the fruitfulness of the outcomes of the SFE process (Table 4) are generally moderate. Relatively, the highest are associated with fair, objective treatment of students and using a variety of teaching methods whereas the lowest are related to enhancing student-FM mutual respect and democratic interaction as well as improving FMs' planning efficiency.

Table 4– Results of FMs' beliefs about the fruitfulness of SFE outcomes

Item	M	SD
Enhancing FM's fair, objective and professional treatment with students.	2.31	1.09

Item	M	SD
Enhancing FM's use of a variety of teaching aids and educational technology	2.28	1.16
Improving FM's ability to develop students' creative thinking	2.26	1.15
Improving FM's ability to implement planning professionally	2.25	1.07
Enhancing FM's ability to improve and use a variety of assessment methods,	2.25	1.12
Improving FM's performance and academic accomplishment	2.25	1.10
Enhancing FM's precision, accuracy, and fairness when grading students' performance.	2.20	1.10
Improving FM's ability in selecting appropriate content	2.18	1.17
Improving the effectiveness of lectures	2.18	1.09
Improving FM's ability to vary effective instructional methods and strategies	2.15	1.14
Enhancing FM's respect and appreciation of students	2.07	1.13
Spreading mutual respect and democratic interaction.	2.06	1.14
Improving FM's planning efficiency	2.04	1.05

The evaluation instrument

As in any evaluation process, the effectiveness of SFE is conditioned to the instrument used. The results of FMs' beliefs about the instrument currently used in their institution (Table 5) indicate generally moderate mean responses on the different items with some variability. Thus, whereas they reported relatively higher agreement that the instrument does not address issues they consider personal, their agreement was relatively lower concerning the instrument clarity and specificity.

Table 5- Results of FMs' Beliefs about the Currently-Used SFE Instrument

Item	M	SD
Considers FM's personal aspects	2.33	1.10
Considers behavioral and educational aspects	2.28	1.00
Considers the relative weight of different survey items	2.27	1.09
Comprehensive to the focal instructional dimensions	2.25	1.05
Clear and specific	2.14	1.10

The impact of demographic variables

Gender
The results of independent sample *t* test for the impact of FMs' gender on their beliefs associated with SFE (Table 6) indicated significant differences at the level of all the subscales except that of evaluation standards. For example females' (*M*= 2.70, *SD*= .93)

preference to online evaluation was higher than males' (M= 2.26, SD= .96), t (164) = 2.91, p<.05 whereas the responses of male FMs (M= 2.63, SD= 1.14) were significantly higher on the items representing paper-based evaluation compared to those of female FMs (M= 1.84, SD= .71), t (158) = -5.43, p<.05. Moreover, male FMs' general beliefs about the SFE process (M= 1.85, SD= .49) were stronger than females' (M= 1.71, SD= .54). And so were males' beliefs about the fruitfulness of evaluation outcomes (M= 2.39, SD= 1.05) and the level of satisfaction with the instrument currently used in evaluation (M= 2.46, SD= 1.02) compared to females' (M= 1.93, SD= .84 and M= 1.98, SD= .69, respectively).

Table 6–Results of t Test for Gender Effect on the Survey Subscales

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Diff.**	**Std. Error Diff**	**95% Confidence Interval of the Difference**	
						Lower	**Upper**
Online evaluation	2.92	164	.004	.44	.15	.14	.73
Paper-based evaluation	-5.12	164	.000	-.78	.15	-1.09	-.48
General beliefs	-2.50	164	.013	-.18	.07	-.32	-.04
Evaluation standards	-1.64	164	.103	-.13	.08	-.29	.03
Fruitfulness of SFE	-2.97	164	.003	-.45	.15	-.75	-.15
Current instrument used	-3.30	164	.001	-.47	.14	-.75	-.19

A comparison between the mean responses of female and male FMs at the level of individual items (the table is not provided for brevity) indicates a consistent pattern: the mean responses of males were consistently higher on 34 items, except on the items under online evaluation. The difference was clearest particularly with the items related to the fruitfulness of previous evaluations and the current evaluation instrument that elicited a difference in favor of male FMs at all items.

Experience

Previous research (Feldman, 1983) suggests that the critical point at which differences might emerge in FMs' performance is sometime between the sixth and eighth year of experience. Therefore, the participants were categorized according to experience into two groups (below 7 or 7 and more). The results of independent sample t test (Table 7) indicated some significance difference between the beliefs of the two groups pertinent to four subscales: Paper-based evaluation, General beliefs, Fruitfulness of SFE outcomes, and Satisfaction with the current evaluation instrument.

The results of t test at the level of individual items (Table 8) indicate that pertinent to their general beliefs about SFE, experienced FMs held stronger beliefs that students must evaluate their FMs and that students have the right to evaluate them. Similarly, they

believed more strongly that evaluations must include all FMs in all courses regardless of academic rank.

Table 7–Results of t Test for Experience Effect on Survey Subscales

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% Confidence Interval of Diff.	
						Lower	Upper
Online evaluation	.74	164	.462	.11	.15	-.19	.41
Paper-based evaluation	-3.29	164	.001	-.52	.16	-.83	-.21
General beliefs	-2.07	164	.040	-.15	.07	-.29	-.01
Evaluation standards	-1.59	164	.113	-.13	.08	-.29	.03
Fruitfulness of SFE outcomes	-3.78	164	.000	-.56	.15	-.85	-.27
Current instrument used	-2.71	164	.007	-.38	.14	-.66	-.10

Column header span: **t-test for Equality of Means**

Pertinent to the standards students adopt, experienced FMs held a stronger belief in the significant impact of: (a) providing students with feedback about areas of strength and awkwardness and (b) helping students transfer the learning outcomes to real life situations. In addition, probably the clearest differences were associated with the fruitfulness of evaluation outcomes. FMs with more than 7-year experience reported significant benefits from previous evaluation in terms of improving: planning efficiency, content selection, use of a variety of effective instructional methods and strategies, ability to develop students' creative thinking, use of teaching aids and educational technology, use of a variety of assessment methods, precision, accuracy, and fairness in grading students' performance. They also reported significantly higher benefits in enhancing their respect and appreciation of students and spreading mutual respect and democratic interaction. Their agreement was significantly higher that the instrument currently used in their institution is comprehensive to the focal instructional dimensions and considerate to the relative weight of different evaluation standards.

Table 8- Results of t Test for Experience Effect on Individual Items

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	S E Diff.	95% Conf. Interv.	
						Low	Up
General beliefs							
Student must evaluate FMs	-2.15	164	.033	-.29	.14	-.56	-.02

Column header span: **T test for Equality of Means**

	T test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	S E Diff.	95% Conf. Interv.	
						Low	Up
Student have the right to evaluate FMs	-3.16	164	.002	-.48	.15	-.78	-.18
Students must evaluate all FMs in all courses regardless of rank	-2.67	163	.008	-.39	.14	-.67	-.10
Evaluation standards							
Providing students with feedback	-2.45	164	.015	-.28	.11	-.49	-.05
Transferability of learning outcomes to real life situations	-2.55	163	.012	-.33	.13	-.595	-.07
Evaluation outcomes							
Improving FM's planning efficiency	-4.45	164	.000	-.69	.16	-1.00	-.38
Improving FM's ability to implement planning professionally	-4.14	164	.000	-.65	.15	-.97	-.34
Improving the effectiveness of lectures	-3.20	164	.002	-.53	.16	-.85	-.20
Improving FM's performance and academic accomplishment	-3.68	162	.000	-.618	.16	-.94	-.28
Improving FM's ability in selecting appropriate content	-3.71	164	.000	-.66	.18	-.99	-.30
Improving ability to vary effective instructional methods and strategies	-3.86	164	.000	-.66	.17	-.99	-.32
Improving FM's ability to develop students' creative thinking	-2.74	162	.007	-.49	.18	-.84	-.13
Enhancing FM's use of a variety of teaching aids and educational technology	-3.07	162	.002	-.55	.18	-.90	-.19
Enhancing FM's ability to improve and use a variety of assessment methods,	-2.81	162	.005	-.48	.17	-.82	-.14
Enhancing FM's precision, accuracy, and fairness when grading students' performance.	-2.98	163	.003	-.50	.17	-.83	-.17
Enhancing FM's respect and appreciation of students	-3.49	162	.001	-.60	.17	-.94	-.26
Spreading of mutual respect	-3.12	163	.002	-.54	.17	-.89	-

		T test for Equality of Means					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	S E Diff.	95% Conf. Interv.	
						Low	Up
and democratic interaction.							.20
Evaluation instrument							
Comprehensive to the focal instructional dimensions	-2.23	163	.027	-.36	.16	-.68	-.04
Considers behavioral and educational aspects	-2.52	163	.013	-.39	.16	-.69	-.08
Considers FM's personal aspects	-2.95	163	.004	-.49	.17	-.83	-.16
Considers the relative weight of different survey items	-3.07	162	.002	-.55	.18	-.90	-.19

Academic Rank

The impact of FMs' academic rank on their beliefs about SFE was tested using One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The results (Table 9) indicated significant differences at the level of all subscales except for online evaluation.

Table 9- Results of ANOVA for Academic Rank Effect on Survey Subscales

		Sum of Squares	df	MS	F	Sig.
Online evaluation	Between	4.33	2	2.166	2.32	.102
	Within	152.28	163	.934		
	Total	156.62	165			
Paper-based evaluation	Between	23.17	2	11.584	11.89	.000*
	Within	158.79	163	.974		
	Total	181.95	165			
General beliefs	Between	3.11	2	1.553	7.90	.001*
	Within	32.05	163	.197		
	Total	35.16	165			
Evaluation standards	Between	3.09	2	1.545	6.05	.003
	Within	41.63	163	.255		
	Total	44.72	165			
Fruitfulness of SFE outcomes	Between	27.22	2	13.609	16.40	.000*
	Within	135.26	163	.830		
	Total	162.48	165			
Current instrument used	Between	25.74	2	12.871	18.14	.000*
	Within	114.93	162	.709		
	Total	140.67	164			

* *p* value is significant at the .05 level

To shed more light on the source of these differences, ANOVA was run at the level of individual items. The results (Table 10) showed significant differences at the level of each of the following individual item.

Table 10–Results of ANOVA for Academic Rank at the Level of Individual Items

		Sum of Squares	df	MS	F	Sig.
Evaluation format						
It is sometimes hard to get online access.	Between	28.75	2	14.38	8.98	.000
	Within	260.94	163	1.60		
	Total	289.69	165			
Students are more familiar with the bubble sheet format.	Between	18.65	2	9.33	5.41	.005
	Within	280.78	163	1.72		
	Total	299.43	165			
Students are more likely to complete paper-based evaluation since they are in class.	Between	17.62	2	8.81	7.86	.001
	Within	182.81	163	1.12		
	Total	200.43	165			
Students can ask for help if they don't understand something.	Between	31.58	2	15.79	8.97	.000
	Within	286.86	163	1.76		
	Total	318.44	165			
Students must evaluate FMs	Between	6.69	2	3.34	4.51	.012
	Within	120.96	163	.74		
	Total	127.65	165			
Students have the right to evaluate FMs	Between	29.30	2	14.65	17.26	.000
	Within	138.35	163	.85		
	Total	167.65	165			
Students are qualified to evaluate FMs	Between	9.10	2	4.55	4.46	.013
	Within	166.44	163	1.02		
	Total	175.55	165			
Student's evaluation of FMs is reliable and trustworthy	Between	10.09	2	5.04	4.61	.011
	Within	177.09	162	1.09		
	Total	187.18	164			
Students must evaluate all FMs in all courses regardless of FMs' academic ranks	Between	18.56	2	9.28	11.78	.000
	Within	127.70	162	.79		
	Total	146.27	164			
Students are keen on evaluating FMs objectively regardless of their grade in the course	Between	7.54	2	3.77	3.73	.026
	Within	164.77	163	1.01		
	Total	172.31	165			
My university must look into evaluation results and set recommendations	Between	8.18	2	4.09	5.34	.006
	Within	124.91	163	.77		
	Total	133.08	165			
When previous evaluations are available, Students count on them	Between	8.64	2	4.32	4.09	.018
	Within	171.15	162	1.06		

		Sum of Squares	df	MS	F	Sig.
Evaluation format						
in choosing the FMs to register courses with	Total	179.79	164			
Students' evaluations must play a decisive role in FMs' contract renewal or promotion	Between	16.01	2	8.01	8.49	.000
	Within	151.86	161	.943		
	Total	167.87	163			
Standards adopted in evaluation						
FM's mastery of instructional organization and content presentation	Between	5.49	2	2.75	5.03	.008
	Within	88.48	162	.55		
	Total	93.98	164			
FM's flexibility with students and understanding their conditions	Between	7.01	2	3.51	5.36	.006
	Within	106.70	163	.66		
	Total	113.71	165			
FM's easy exams	Between	6.54	2	3.27	4.62	.011
	Within	114.71	162	.71		
	Total	121.25	164			
FM's punctuality in starting and ending lectures	Between	5.48	2	2.74	3.50	.033
	Within	126.97	162	.79		
	Total	132.45	164			
FM's distribution of, and commitment to, the course syllabus	Between	6.27	2	3.14	5.31	.006
	Within	95.63	162	.59		
	Total	101.90	164			
FM's fair assignment of grades	Between	7.08	2	3.54	6.78	.001
	Within	85.07	163	.52		
	Total	92.15	165			
FM's mastery of the subject matter	Between	5.13	2	2.57	4.73	.010
	Within	87.94	162	.54		
	Total	93.07	164			
FM's alignment between course objectives and exam questions	Between	4.45	2	2.23	4.66	.011
	Within	77.98	163	.48		
	Total	82.43	165			
Clarity of exam and test questions	Between	6.09	2	3.04	7.57	.001
	Within	65.12	162	.40		
	Total	71.21	164			
Immediate feedback on test performance	Between	4.46	2	2.23	2.95	.055
	Within	123.37	163	.76		
	Total	127.83	165			
Allowing students to discuss their grades	Between	5.63	2	2.82	4.85	.009
	Within	93.98	162	.58		
	Total	99.61	164			
Providing students with feedback and areas of strength and awkwardness	Between	3.34	2	1.67	3.15	.045
	Within	86.37	163	.53		
	Total	89.71	165			

		Sum of Squares	df	MS	F	Sig.
Evaluation format						
Transferability of learning outcomes to real life situations	Between Within Total	11.15 105.12 116.27	2 162 164	5.57 .65	8.59	.000
Fruitfulness of previous evaluations						
Improving FM's planning efficiency	Between Within Total	35.29 149.42 184.71	2 163 165	17.64 .92	19.25	.000
Improving FM's ability to implement planning professionally	Between Within Total	29.75 159.62 189.37	2 163 165	14.88 .98	15.19	.000
Improving the effectiveness of lectures	Between Within Total	21.45 175.13 196.58	2 163 165	10.73 1.07	9.98	.000
Improving FM's performance and academic accomplishment	Between Within Total	27.31 171.44 198.75	2 161 163	13.66 1.07	12.83	.000
Improving FM's ability in selecting appropriate content	Between Within Total	33.86 192.72 226.58	2 163 165	16.93 1.18	14.32	.000
Improving FM's ability to vary effective instructional methods and strategies	Between Within Total	36.12 179.12 215.24	2 163 165	18.06 1.10	16.43	.000
Improving FM's ability to develop students' creative thinking	Between Within Total	24.48 193.24 217.73	2 161 163	12.24 1.20	10.20	.000
Enhancing FM's use of a variety of teaching aids and educational technology	Between Within Total	26.46 196.63 223.10	2 161 163	13.23 1.22	10.83	.000
Enhancing FM's ability to improve and use a variety of assessment methods,	Between Within Total	26.71 178.04 204.75	2 161 163	13.35 1.11	12.08	.000
Enhancing FM's precision, accuracy, and fairness when grading students' performance.	Between Within Total	28.03 172.37 200.40	2 162 164	14.02 1.06	13.17	.000
Enhancing FM's fair, objective and professional treatment with students.	Between Within Total	18.28 176.76 195.04	2 160 162	9.14 1.11	8.28	.000
Enhancing FM's respect and appreciation of students	Between Within Total	27.25 181.88 209.13	2 161 163	13.62 1.13	12.06	.000
Spreading mutual respect and	Between	26.96	2	13.48	11.60	.000

		Sum of Squares	df	MS	F	Sig.
Evaluation format						
democratic interaction.	Within	188.43	162	1.16		
	Total	215.39	164			
Evaluation instrument						
Clear and specific	Between	28.20	2	14.10	13.31	.000
	Within	171.59	162	1.06		
	Total	199.79	164			
Comprehensive to the focal instructional dimensions	Between	25.93	2	12.97	13.56	.000
	Within	154.88	162	.96		
	Total	180.81	164			
Considers behavioral and educational aspects	Between	29.07	2	14.54	16.10	.000
	Within	138.54	162	.86		
	Total	167.61	164			
Considers the relative weight of different survey items	Between	26.93	2	13.47	13.04	.000
	Within	167.34	162	1.03		
	Total	194.27	164			

These differences were followed up using Scheffe. The results indicated that the general pattern is that the difference was consistently between the mean responses of the group of associate and full professors, on the one hand, and the group of instructors and lecturers, on the other, whereas the mean responses of assistant professors were almost consistently in between--sometimes involved in the difference, other times not. For instance, the mean response on the item *a student is qualified to evaluate FMs* for instructors and lecturers, assistant professors, and associate and full professors were 2.25, 2.32, and 2.90, respectively. At the level of paper-based evaluation format preferences, for example, associate and full professors reported a stronger belief that students prefer traditional paper-based evaluation due to familiarity and higher chance for both completion and asking for help when needed. Pertinent to their general beliefs as well, senior professors held stronger beliefs that students have the right to, are qualified to, and must evaluate FMs.

Interestingly, the responses of associate and full professors were significantly lower on the items addressing the standards students adopt in evaluation. For example, their mean response was lower (*M*= 2.46, *SD*= .92) on the item related to students' rating of professors based on (personal, social, tribal, etc.) relationship with the FM compared to that of instructors and lecturers (*M*= 2.74, *SD*= 1.36) or assistant professors (*M*= 2.61, *SD*= 1.40). This result extends to their mean responses on students' adoption of lenient grading and easy exams as evaluation standards compared to the responses of lower-rank FMs. Moreover, their mean responses on the subscale of fruitfulness of evaluation outcomes were all higher than those reported by instructors and lecturers and, sometimes, assistant professors. This result also extends to the mean responses on the items addressing the evaluation instrument currently used with higher satisfaction reported by senior professors.

Faculty

Differences in FMs' beliefs associated with the type of college in which they teach (College of Sciences or College of Educational Studies) were tested using independent-sample test. When the results indicated significant differences at the level of subscales, independent sample *t* test was run at the level of individual survey items. The results (Table 12) indicated that Sciences FMs believed more strongly that online evaluation gives students a wider chance for reflection before completing the evaluation form, saves class time, and keeps students' anonymity. They also reported stronger agreement that students can write more comments in online evaluation and can complete this evaluation format at time of convenience. Education FMs, whose preference was associated with paper-based evaluation, reported significantly higher beliefs that this format is better since online access is not always guaranteed, students are more familiar with it, and it provides students with the opportunity to ask for help when needed.

Pertinent to their general beliefs about SFE, Sciences FMs held a stronger belief that all FMs must be subjected to evaluation. Similarly, they reported less agreement on the association between high ratings and excellence. On the other hand, Education FMs believed more strongly that gender plays a role in shaping SFE ratings and that students' evaluations are influenced by those of other students.

At the level of evaluation standards, Sciences FMs held stronger beliefs that students rate FMs according to the space given for self-expression, clarity of test questions, and the transferability of learning outcomes to real life situations.

As to the contribution of previous evaluation outcomes to developing FMs' performance, Education FMs believed more strongly that it helped in improving the effectiveness of lectures, enhancing the use of a variety of teaching aids and educational technology, enhancing their respect to students, and spreading mutual respect and democratic interaction. On the other hand, Sciences FMs held stronger beliefs that they benefitted from previous evaluation outcomes in enhancing their use of a variety of assessment methods, precision, accuracy, and fairness when grading students' performance, and their fair, objective and professional treatment with students.

Table 12–Results of t Test for Faculty Effect on Individual Items

	T test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	S E Diff.	95% Conf.	
						Low	Up
Online evaluation							
More time to think before evaluating	4.20	164	.000	.94	.22	.50	1.39
Class time saving	3.40	163	.001	.66	.20	.28	1.05
Anonymity	2.48	164	.014	.51	.20	.10	.91
More comments	3.33	164	.001	.75	.22	.30	1.19
Completion at time of convenience	3.32	98	.001	.75	.22	.30	1.19

	T test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	S E Diff.	95% Conf.	
						Low	Up
Paper-based evaluation							
Absence of online access	2.89	88	.005	.59	.20	.18	1.00
More familiarity	-4.07	144	.000	-.75	.18	-1.11	-.38
Asking for clarification	-3.40	132	.001	-.67	.20	-1.06	-.28
General beliefs about SFE							
Students must evaluate FMs	-3.65	131	.000	-.74	.20	-1.14	-.34
FMs with high positive evaluation are not necessarily the best	-2.31	162	.022	-.38	.16	-.70	-.05
Male students tend to give higher positive evaluation to male FMs	3.02	163	.003	.58	.19	.20	.95
Female students tend to give higher positive evaluation to female FMs	3.68	162	.000	.68	.18	.31	1.04
Students' evaluation is influenced by other students' evaluation	2.38	163	.018	.44	.18	.07	.80
Evaluation Standards							
Giving students space to express themselves	-1.04	81	.302	-.15	.15	-.44	.14
Clarity of exam and test questions	-2.26	90	.027	-.30	.13	-.57	-.04
Transferability of learning outcomes to real life situations	-2.42	161	.017	-.45	.18	-.81	-.08
Fruitfulness of previous evaluations							
Improving the effectiveness of lectures	-2.86	162	.005	-.54	.19	-.91	-.17
Enhancing FM's use of teaching aids and educational technology	-2.25	163	.026	-.43	.19	-.80	-.05
Enhancing FM's ability to improve and use a variety of assessment methods	-2.10	106	.038	-.37	.18	-.72	-.02
Enhancing FM's precision and fairness when grading students' performance	4.20	164	.000	.94	.22	.50	1.39
Enhancing FM's fair, objective and professional treatment with students	3.40	163	.001	.66	.20	.28	1.05
Enhancing FM's respect and appreciation of students	2.48	164	.014	.51	.20	.10	.91
Spreading mutual respect and democratic interaction.	-2.10	106	.038	-.37	.18	-.72	-.02

Discussion

Overall, the results of this study indicate that FMs' beliefs reflect a wide range of responses toward SFEs in terms of: (a) paper-based vs. online-format preferences; (b) the overall process; (c) the standards students adopt in evaluation; (d) the fruitfulness of evaluation; and (e) the evaluation instrument currently used at their institution. These responses can generally be described as relatively moderate. Pertinent to the evaluation format, our sample prefers online evaluation. Previous research suggests that more than two-thirds of faculty prefer paper-based evaluation (Dommeyer et al., 2002) motivated by the beliefs that: (a) online SFEs elicit a higher response rate; and (b) students assign higher ratings when their identity is identified (Brewer, 2002). However, FMs' preference to paper-based evaluation seems to be no longer the case given findings suggesting that

online SFE elicits responses that may reach up to 92% with an increase in the response rate linked to the number of reminder messages students receive. Also, research suggests that students' ratings of FMs collected using online evaluation do not differ significantly from those elicited using the paper-based format (Layne, DeCristoforo, & McGinty, 1999). Probably a strong motive behind the online is the wider chance it provides students to add comments and reflect on their ideas before they complete the evaluation. FMs are less convinced with the importance of the privacy students enjoy in online evaluation. A lower percentage of FMs, who prefer paper-based evaluation, attribute this to familiarity and the higher likelihood of completion. Whereas the first motive (familiarity) is diminishing, the second seems to play a marginal role when evaluation-completion reminders are frequently sent to students.

FMs' beliefs about SFEs, our results indicate, are not without misconceptions. Their strongest beliefs suggesting the worthlessness of evaluation and the overestimation of the gender role not only contradict research findings but are, more importantly, less likely to motivate them to learn lessons from SFE outcomes. Their least agreement on the subscale of *general beliefs about the SFE process* indicates that they do not agree with the necessity of assigning a role for SFE in making decisions related to contract renewal or promotion, nor do they consider SFE completion as a student right and an obligation to fulfill. Moreover, they do not believe they must be evaluated or that the university should come up with recommendations based on SFE output analysis. These results indicate a negative attitude toward SFEs that can be attributed to more than one factor that include, among others, the evaluation process itself, students, and the FMs themselves.

It our impression that FMs have not been convinced that SFE outcomes are for, compared to against, them. It rarely happens that a FM is invited to discuss the results with a department head or with other colleagues, and the results are viewed as a document to be kept in case of applying for promotion or other official affairs. Thus, whereas the principle of SFE implementation is one that FMs may approve, the way it is handled might be a reason behind the negative attitudes. Students also and the extent to which they can be entrusted is another thorny area; some FMs, which this study exposes, hardly believe in students' right to evaluate FMs, let alone their ability to do so as perceived by FMs. Additionally, some FMs seem to be under the impression that SFEs bring them under scrutiny, which they are unlikely to approve. FMs, therefore, are not divorced of some misconceptions about SFEs. This assumption goes in concordance with Nasser and Fresko's (2002) finding that only few FMs support direct sending of SFE results to college administrators or publishing them for student.

FMs' beliefs about student-adopted standards in SFE completion are indicative of some misconceptions manifest in, for example, their strongest beliefs associated with such ideas as (personal, social, tribal, etc.) relationships, lenient grading, FM likeability regardless of academic competence, commitment to office hours, approachability, punctuality in starting and ending lectures, and easy exams. These results indicate a clear tendency to overestimating rapport-related rather than knowledge-related aspects, reflecting FMs' beliefs in some of the myths about SFEs (Aleamoni, 1999). On the other hand, important standards such as mastery of instructional organization, content presentation, and knowledge-ability are believed to be less significant standards. These

findings mirror those Brewer (2002) reported about students in the Middle East; they value personal-social aspects at the expense of cognitive-intellectual ones. A major negative consequence of the belief that SFEs are indicative of factors that do not relate to teaching effectiveness is the higher likelihood of FMs tendency to attempt to manage their ratings through adopting lowering standards and assigning inflated grades (Morgan, Sneed, & Swinney, 2003).

With these findings in mind, the results pertinent to SFE fruitfulness suggest that FMs are aware of the way students perceive evaluation but seem to disapprove such standards. FMs' benefits gained from previous evaluations lean more toward professional and academic orientations. For example, they reported a beneficial role for SFE outcomes in enhancing the use of a variety of teaching aids and educational technology and developing students' creative thinking whereas social aspects such as enhancing respect and appreciation of students and spreading democratic interaction were the areas in which SFEs were the least beneficial. One possible explanation for these findings is that aspects of the teaching performance that relate to values are less subject to modification compared to those related to the teaching performance procedures per se. Such value-laden dimensions as respecting students' personalities and ideas and spreading a democratic atmosphere require prescriptions that are different and usually more complex than those related to "procedural" teaching dimensions.

Our results suggest an important role for FM-related variables. Considering gender, our results lend support to previous findings suggesting that males and females not only receive but also react to SFEs differently (Kogan, Tacher, & Hellyer, 2010). Several interpretations might be helpful in interpreting this finding. Overall, female FMs appear to be more negatively impacted by student evaluations than male FMs. This might be one of the reasons why females prefer online evaluation, shaded with more secrecy compared to paper-based SFEs. It is documented that males are less impacted by negative evaluations since their self-perception tends to be influenced by positive rather negative evaluation. This is not the case for females, who are more willing to make modifications in their self-image in light of others' feedback.

Additionally, the extent to which interpreting negative evaluation as being so is not independent of gender differences; females assign a higher level of *negativeness* to negative feedback compared to men who enjoy more coping strategies. Male FMs' defensive approaches, in light of this understanding, might be one of the factors that make them less worried about the outcomes of evaluation when negative (Kogan, Tacher, & Hellyer, 2010). In some cases as well, male FMs receive higher ratings than female peers (Fandt, & Stevens, 1991). It is also argued that females' socialization stresses others' feelings compared to males whose focus is on impersonal criteria, which makes men more autonomous and resistant to others' influence (Lungren & Rudawsky, 1998) whereas females shy away from competition whereas males embrace it (Niederle & Vesterlund, 2007).

Another probable factor is that females, according to Kogan, Tacher, and Hellyer (2010), believe more in the impact of gender on SFE outcomes but believe less in the usefulness of the outcomes since they believe it is no more than a popularity contest. They also

believe that high ratings are not necessarily a reflection of teaching excellence. They also believe that SFEs undermine student-FM relations. Males, on the other hand, have a stronger belief that SFEs reflect teaching quality and contribute positively to the improvement of instruction as well as to helping instructors improve treatment of students.

One more avenue for looking at gender differences is associated with the gender role, rather than gender per se (Freeman, 1994). Findings support female FMs' feeling that students have different expectations of them (Bachen, McLoughlin, & Garcia, 1999). One manifestation of this gender-based disparity lies in that students attribute a higher level of formal education to male graduate students viewed as "professors" whereas a lower level of education is attributed to female peers viewed as "teachers" without consideration to the actual positions or the credentials a FM or a graduate student instructor has (Miller & Chamberlin, 2000). Put differently, whereas male FMs are viewed as faculty, women FMs are viewed as women faculty (Basow, 1992; Street, Kimmel, & Kromrey, 1996). This factor is worth consideration especially in countries where females have not yet claimed the right to occupy high-rank positions. Their fear might be that their efforts will be undervalued and their performance will be viewed far from professional.

Experience as well, our results indicate, is an important factor in shaping FMs' beliefs about SFE.
Confirmatory to previous research (Feldman, 1983) suggesting that FMs' performance is subject to critical changes sometime between the sixth and eighth year of experience, our results show that more experienced FMs lean more toward acknowledging students' right to evaluate the teaching they receive as a duty they believe students must fulfill. They are less hesitant in accepting the idea that SFEs should be comprehensive to all FMs whatever their rank is. In terms of evaluation standards, the lesson they have learned is the importance of providing students with feedback and helping them to transfer what has been learned in real life contexts. Their exposure to previous evaluation results, they reported, has impacted not only their overall teaching performance but also specific aspects such as planning, content selection, etc. Their responses suggest gaining lessons that relate to developing rapport with students as well. Their level of satisfaction with the measurement instrument is also higher than less experienced fellows. One probable interpretation for these results lies in the teaching effectiveness of less, compared to more, experienced FMs. Still, however, we should not be tempted to believe that the majority of FMs will change their instructional behavior in light of SFE results (Nasser & Fresko, 2002).

These findings are in concordance with findings suggesting that less experienced FMs usually receive lower ratings. For example, Centra (2009) found that the ratings of first-year FMs are lower than the ratings of those with two years and considerably lower than those of FMs with three or more years of teaching. These results, Centra cautions, should not be viewed as evidence of bias as much as a reflection of less-experienced FMs' lower quality teaching that can improve as FMs gain more experience. It should be noted that there might be a gap between the actual effectiveness of less-experienced FMs and students' perceived effectiveness. That is, if students link longer experience to

knowledgeability or more effective teaching, even high-performance yet less-experienced FMs may still receive lower ratings.

Despite some findings indicating that academic rank plays a more important role in SFE ratings compared to experience (Feldman, 1983), our results pertinent to the impact of academic rank are not independent of those on experience. This is not very surprising given the association between the two variables, for typically the higher the experience, the higher the rank. An interesting observation on our results is the consistency in the increase of positive beliefs with the advancement in the academic rank. Whereas it can be argued that longer experience hardly guarantees better teaching performance or improves SFEs (Marsh, 2007), nor does rank influence FMs' perception about SFEs (Morgan, Sneed, & Swinney, 2003), our findings suggest otherwise, lending support to Aleamoni's (1987) finding. According to Aleamoni, the relation between academic rank and SFEs is close to statistical significance and "on the whole, full professors are rated more positively than the lecturer or the assistant professor (p.29). This may partially justify higher-rank FMs' positive beliefs about SFEs.

Additionally, it is typically the case that occupying administrative positions is associated with higher academic ranks. Looking from an administrative perspective, therefore, professors might find themselves inclined more towards endorsing SFEs as a quick measure of FMS' performance, let alone their less-perceived threat from SFEs due to the higher job security they enjoy. This stated, Morgan, Sneed, and Swinney (2003) found that compared to assistant and associate FMs, professors hold a stronger though insignificant belief that ratings are not influenced by the type of course or the workload required. These differences were attributed more to occupying an administrative position than to obtaining promotion and the less severity of SFE consequences.

The faculty to which a FM belongs might be an important factor as well. Pertinent to this dimension on which scant research is available, a distinction has been made between applied science students who look for information in contrast to social science students who look for stimulation (Smithers, 1970, cited in Brewer, 2002). According to this distinction, findings suggest slightly higher ratings for humanities FMs. For example, Centra (2009) reports that the average mean of SFEs for FMs scientific disciplines (e.g., natural sciences, mathematics, engineering, and computer science) was about a third of a standard deviation lower than in humanities courses (e.g., English, history, languages), with subject fields falling in between. However, our findings suggest otherwise; sciences FMs' beliefs were more in favor of SFEs. One probable explanation for our results is the impression among some humanities FMs that their role in students' learning is less vital than the role of sciences FMs. Some have expressed in unofficial meetings that students in humanities believe they can study some courses on their own without FMs' help or contribution. When this is the case, humanities FMs might develop the fear that students may give lower ratings to them.

Conclusion

This study aimed at multidimensional assessment of FMs' beliefs about SFE. The study is based on the premise that unless FMs possess strong, positive beliefs about SFEs as a

prerequisite for coming up with lessons from these evaluations, the contribution of these evaluations to progress and development in the teaching performance will be minimal. The findings suggest a clear need for developing FMs' attitudes towards the entire process with particular attention to the standards they believe their students adopt in evaluation. Regular discussion panels should be held at this and other comparable universities to raise FMs' awareness of the negative implications of the misconceptions they hold about SFE on their teaching performance. FMs are also invited to share the responsibility in spreading academic values within their departments, colleges, and universities towards establishing, reinforcing, and maintaining only the values that can foster the learning process. Whereas the recognition of the human capital has been recognized as a major source for economic development, it has to be overemphasized particularly in countries with limited natural resources at an era of knowledge-based economy.

One important component that is missing in SFE in the institution where this study is carried out is the relationship between students' achievement and SFE results. The teaching activity is essentially human-interaction based, and is inextricably tied to FMs' identification of the effective personal and academic qualities. If the ultimate goal is developing the teaching performance, and students' learning follows, FM evaluations should be tied to students' results, whether on achievement or performance-based assessment.

This study is not without limitations. First, the number of participants is not high enough for generalization purposes. Additionally, given the multidimensionality of the teaching/learning process, the scope of coverage in this study that covers several dimensions related to SFE might have come at the expense of depth. Future research, accordingly, is invited to seek balance in the breadth and depth of the scope of coverage to the essential teaching dimensions. Additionally, this study has fallen short behind covering many colleges, which might have impacted its results. More comprehensive research that addresses differences in FMs' beliefs about SFE across different colleges is certainly needed.

References

Addison, W. & Stowell, J. (2012). Conducting Research on Student Evaluations of Teaching: A guide for faculty and administrators. In M. E. Kite (ed.), *Effective evaluation of teaching: A guide for faculty and administrators* (pp. 1-12). Retrieved November 5, 2012 from: http://teachpsych.org/ebooks/evals2012/evals2012.pdf.

Aleamoni, L. M. (1987). Typical faculty concerns about student evaluation of teaching. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 31*, 25–31.

Aleamoni, L. (1999). Student rating myths versus research facts from 1924 to 1998. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education, 13* (2), 153-66.

Asassfeh, S., Al-Ebous, H., Khwaileh, F., & Al-Zoubi, Z. (2013). Student faculty evaluation (SFE) at Jordanian universities: A student perspective. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Bachen, C. M., McLoughlin, M. M., & Garcia, S. S. (1999). Assessing the role of gender in college students' evaluations of faculty. *Communication Education, 448*(3), 193-210.

Basow, S. A. (1992). *Gender stereotypes and roles* (3rd Ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing.

Brewer, K. (2002). *Student evaluation of teaching effectiveness: An introduction*. Essex: Orsett Psychological Services, UK.

Cashin, W. E. (1995). Student ratings of teaching: The research revisited. IDEA paper No. 32.

Centra, J. (2009). Differences in response to the student instructional report. SIR II, Listening, Leadership, Leading. Retrieved February 5 from: http://www.ets.org/Media/Products/SIR_II/pdf/11466_SIR_II_ResearchReport2.pdf

Cohen, P.A. 1981. Student ratings of instruction and student achievement: A meta analysis of multi-section validity studies. Review of Educational Research 51: 281-309.

Dommeyer, C. J., Baum, P., Chapman, K. S. & Hanna, R. W. (2002). Attitudes of business faculty toward two methods of collecting teaching evaluations: paper vs. online, *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 27(5), 445–462.

Fandt, P. M., & Stevens, G. E. (1991). Evaluation bias in the business classroom: Evidence relating to the effects of previous experiences. *Journal of Psychology, Interdisciplinary & Applied, 125*(4), 469-78.

Feldman, K. A. (1983). The seniority and instructional experience of college teachers as related to the evaluations they receive from their students. *Research in Higher Education*, *5*(3), 243-288. doi: 10.1007/BF00991967.

Freeman, H. R. (1994). Student evaluations of college instructors: Effects of type of course taught, instructor gender and gender role, and student gender. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 86*(4), 627-630.

Gray, M., & Bergmann, B. R. (2003). Student teaching evaluations: Inaccurate, demeaning, misused. *Academe, 89*(5), 44–46.

Haskell, R. E. (1997). Academic freedom, tenure, and student evaluation of faculty: Galloping polls in the 21st century. *Education Policy Analysis Archives, 5*(6), 8-32.

Hill, J. S., & Christian, T. Y. (2012). College student perceptions and ideals of teaching: An exploratory pilot study. *College Student Journal, 46*, 589-602.

Kogan, L. R., Tacher, R. S., & Hellyer, P. W. (2010): Student evaluations of teaching: Perceptions of faculty based on gender, position, and rank. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 15(6), 623-636. Retrieved online March 20, 2013 from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2010.491911.

Layne, B. H., DeCristoforo, J. R. & McGinty, D. (1999) Electronic versus traditional student ratings of instruction, *Research in Higher Education*, *40*(2), 221–232.

Liegle, J. & McDonald, D. (2005). Lessons Learned from Online vs. Paper-based Computer Information Students' Evaluation System. *ISEDJ, 3* (37), 3-14.

Liu, Y. (2006). A comparison of online versus traditional student evaluation of instruction. *International Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning*, *3*(3), 15-30.

Lungren, D.C., and Rudawsky, D. J. (1998). Female and male college students' responses to negative feedback from parents and peers. *Sex Roles, 39*, 409-29.

Marsh, H. (2007). Do university teachers become more effective with experience? A multilevel growth model of students' evaluations of teaching over 13 years. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *99*(4), 775-790.

Marsh, H. W. & Roche, L. A. (1997). Making students' evaluations of teaching effectiveness effective: The critical issues of validity, bias, and utility. *American Psychologist, 52*(11), 1187-1197.

Miller, J., & Chamberlin, M. (2000). Women are teachers, men are professors: A study of student perceptions. *Teaching Sociology, 28*(4), 283-298.

Morgan, D. A., Sneed, J., & Swinney, L. (2003). Are student evaluations a valid measure of teaching effectiveness: Perceptions of accounting faculty members and administrators. *Management Research News, 26* (7), 17-32.

Nasser, F. & Fresko, B. (2002). Faculty views of student evaluation of college teaching. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 27*(2), 187-198.

Niederle, M. & Vesterlund, L. (2007). Do women shy away from competition? Do men compete too much? *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 1067-1100. Retrieved online November 21, 2012 from: http://qje.oxfordjournals.org/content/122/3/1067.full.pdf

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Witcher, A. E., Collins, K.M., Filer, J., Wiedmaier, C. D., & Moore, C. W. (2007). Students' perceptions of characteristics of effective college teachers: A validity study of a teaching evaluation form using a mixed-methods analysis. *American Educational Research Journal, 44*, 113-160. DOI: 10.3102/0002831206298169.

Pepe, J. W., & Wang, M. C. (2012). What instructor qualities do students reward? *College Student Journal, 46*, 603-614.

Perry, R. P. & Smart, J.C. (Eds.). (2007). The scholarship of teaching and learning in higher education: An evidence-based perspective (pp. 93–143). Secaucus, NJ, Springer.

Pounder, J. (2007). Is student evaluation of teaching worthwhile? An analytical framework for answering the question. *Quality Assurance in Education, 15* (2), 178-191.

Ramsden, P. (2003). *Learning to teach in higher education*. London: Taylor & Francis.

Seldin, P. (1993). The use and abuse of student ratings of professors. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, *39* (46), A-40.

Simpson, R. D. (1995). Uses and misuses of student evaluations of teaching effectiveness. *Innovative Higher Education, 20*, 3-5.

Stratton, R., Myers, S., & King, R. (1994). Faculty Behavior, Grades, and Student Evaluations. *Journal of Economic Education*, *25*, 5-15.

Street, S., Kimmel, E., & Kromrey, J. D. (1996). Gender role preferences and perceptions of university students , faculty, and administrators. *Research in Higher Education, 37*:615-632.

Washburn, K., & Thornton, J. F. (Ed.). (1996). *Dumbing down: Essays on the strip-mining of American culture*. New York: Norton.

Wilson, R. (1998). New research casts doubt on value of student evaluations of professors. *The Chronicle of Higher Education, 44* (19), A12-A14.

Wilson, K. L., Lizzo, A., & Ramsden, P. (1997). The development, validation, and application of the Course Experience Questionnaire. *Studies in Higher Education, 22*, 33-54.

Yunker, P.J. & Sterner, J. (1988). A survey of faculty performance evaluation in accounting", *Accounting Educators' Journal*, *Fall*, 63-71.

Zhao, J., & Gallant, D. J. (2012). Student evaluation of instruction in higher education: Exploring issues of validity and reliability. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 37*, 227-235.

Opinion Page

WILL THE PURSUIT OF UNIVERSITY RANKING HELP?

Nirwan Idrus[1]
Multimedia University
Malaysia
nirwan.idrus@mmu.edu.my

Our competitive nature seems to have preoccupied many people even in higher education. Undoubtedly arguments can and have been advanced to rationalize the resources spent on these.

Organizers of these undoubtedly profitable ranking ventures are most probably laughing to the bank for a lot of the tools are generally already available. Skeptical look at these might entice us to say that "…*we do all the hardwork for this and yet have to pay for it in the end some more…*"…. in many ways… firstly in real money because the preparation of the information that are sent to the ranking organizers has to be collected, inputted in the required formats, analyzed either partly or fully, and then double or triple checked before being forwarded to the ranking organizers.

Perhaps a worse cost is the fact that the result of all that hard work will be publicly displayed in comparison to those of others'. If the comparison surpasses our expectations then we would be elated, but if not we would vouch not to waste our resources again… ever. Of course evidence shows that only very few actually pulled out from this exercise.

In fact, scanning around I noticed that quite a number of universities are stating rankings in their Vision and Mission statements, for example, "*XYZ University aspires to be within the top 100 university world ranking by 2020*". It is unknown if that university has a Quality Strategic Plan that will help it deliver the Vision by the year stated. Of course the public will not be privy to what that university plans to improve itself to a stage that would push up its world ranking to the aspired level.

---

[1] Professor, Faculty of Engineering & Technology and trainer with the university's Centre for Teaching and Learning in the Professional Academic Development Programme (PADP). He has held senior academic, industry and government positions in Australia, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, Indonesia and Malaysia.

As one would expect, in addition to the world rankings, regional and national rankings began to appear. These may offer 'consolation' prizes to those universities disappointed by their world ranking as they would be placed at a much higher digital order here than in the world ranking. But the basic question remains. Is it worth it?

It is true of course that in some countries, the university rankings would help them get more students. But we should ask if parents who pay their children's university fees are so gullible? In Malaysia such fees may range between RM 70,000 and over RM 100,000, a substantial outlay for average Malaysians. Those who could afford higher fees of course would send their children overseas anyway. After all, many local and international recruitment agencies have publicly said that they will not recruit Malaysian graduates for their clients, an indictment of local universities' quality both public and private.

There are other evidences that point perhaps to a less ambitious Vision and Mission but will significantly improve their quality despite their public rankings.

There are many ways of enrolling more students and there are many types and calibers of students to recruit. If these universities are "septically" focused on numbers then experiences in some developed countries particularly at the beginning of opening their higher education to full-fee paying overseas students, were detrimental to the quality standing the universities enjoyed beforehand.

Now, thirty years hence, countries like Malaysia that invited overseas students to study in their universities, are experiencing the same thing say Australia or New Zealand experienced some thirty years ago. In many cases the enforcement of Immigration laws and procedures is not effective, thus allowing various types of abuses of Student Visas for example. From these problems, one learns that Quality must be sustained and this means student entry criteria, assessments and academic management quality must not and cannot be compromised.

Oftentimes, to be kind is to be tough.

It is my contention that lecturers and teachers must be well prepared with creative and innovative teaching and learning solutions, something I found difficult to find in Malaysia and other neighbouring countries over the last 15 years or so.

Will the pursuit of university ranking change all these?