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CONTENTS

Page

EDITORIAL BOARD

EDITOR'S NOTE

On behalf of the Editorial Board I wish you all a Very Happy New Year 2010 and trust that so far it has been a very good year for you. Let us hope that the rest of the year will continue to bring us all the good blessings and happiness.

I am happy to say that contributions to JIRSEA have continued to pour in. This allowed us to continue to improve this journal's quality and extend the coverage of topics in Institutional Research (IR).

That such pleasant development is occurring now is also fortunate for 2010 marks the first decade of the existence of SEAAIR although only the eighth year of JIRSEA.

In order to recount and remember such an important development, SEAAIR co-founder and ex President of the Australian Association for Institutional Research (AAIR) Dr Raj Sharma has kindly provided us a reminiscing look back on the development of IR globally in our *Comment* column in this edition.

Amin Zuhairi *et al* from The Open University in Indonesia provided us with a glimpse of the financial management of higher education institutions in Indonesia. Although not their focus in the paper, they also showed that in fact Indonesia had embarked on the difficult journey of reforming the very structure of higher education in the country by establishing what is called the *autonomous government-owned higher education institutions* (HEIs). Ten public universities have now been reformed into these autonomous institutions that appoint their own Presidents/Rectors when previously the government did that. Without a doubt this would revolutionize the way public Indonesian HEIs and their finances are managed.

Evelyn Khor *et al* from Malaysia dovetails Zuhairi *et al*'s paper above by scrutinizing the mission statements of public universities in Malaysia particularly from their ethical value considerations in order to evaluate the universities' commitment to their own mission statements.

Qudais from Jordan continues the theme set by Zuhairi *et al* and did a *Delphi* type survey of experts to establish the extent of government intervention in public universities in Jordan. In the process Qudais found that in fact the desire for university autonomy here is almost universal. Like the case in Indonesia perhaps Jordan may wish to explore the step by step approach to ease the transition towards full autonomy of Jordan's public universities.

Arumugam and Kaur from Malaysia introduced a transformation of a different kind in their paper on Co-operative Language Learning (CLL). In their paper they advocate CLL for its significant advantages in improving learning overall. They concluded from their

survey that CLL indeed has a significant potential in influencing the pedagogy in teaching English as a Second Language.

Khasawneh *et al* brings us back down to earth as it were with their paper involving spirituality at work. They basically propose a psychometric-based measure for spirituality that would help management of institutions in understanding various associated aspects of work and the training needs of staff as a result.

Last in this edition but not least, Obeidat *et al* reiterated the importance of running in-service training for teachers that addresses their field's practical needs rather than a preponderance of theory. As such, directive-based training instigated by the authority is considered ineffective and wasteful.

By way of this *Editorial Note* I wish to invite readers to join us at our SEAAIR Tenth Anniversary Conference in Tagaytay, The Philippines to be held in October 2010, both as speakers and attendees. More details are available on the SEAAIR website: http://www.seaairweb.info

In the meantime, please keep articles coming in for JIRSEA. Thank you again to those who have contributed.

Happy reading,

Nirwan Idrus

Editor

Raj Sharma[1]

Comments: Changing Perspectives on Institutional Research

As indicated in a previous *Comments* column on strategic alliances, Southeast Asia and indeed SEAAIR has an international perspective and can share its knowledge on institutional research (IR) and broader higher education issues with other parts of the world. Accordingly my observations here will provide some experiences on IR from mainly an Australasian perspective and those encountered in other regions.

When I first joined the IR field around 30 years ago in one of the Southern Australian states, the major emphasis of IR was external accountability through the provision of student statistical reports by public higher education institutions. A typical IR establishment was relatively small with only around 2.5 full-time equivalent staff normally reporting to an administrative manager. The IR unit at that time was considered probably as a distracting necessity to meet the relatively modest data requirements of the Federal Government so that the per student capita funding kept flowing in to sustain the higher education institution.

Today the typical Australian Higher Education institution's IR unit would have staffing varying from ten to thirty plus in the larger and more well-managed institutions. In most cases the Unit would report either to the Vice Chancellor's Office or Deputy Vice Chancellor (or sometimes the Vice President's Office). Typically the responsibilities of the Unit would cover a wide field including:

- Coordination of the strategic planning/management processes of the institution and ensuring that other planning levels are consistent with these plans and processes.
- Quality is also an important dimension of the broader IR unit.
- Managing and coordinating graduate and other student life cycle surveys.
- Provision of statistical analysis and internal and external accountability reporting.
- Resource allocation and planning.
- Undertaking research that will underpin policy development, enhanced planning or other related activities.

Most of the responsibilities included above will be familiar to many institutional researchers. The final one is interesting and requires further observations. In general it fits into the category "and anything else that may be required by the boss" in terms of

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[1] Dr Raj Sharma is a co-founder of SEAAIR and was instrumental in setting up this journal. He was the inaugural President of the AAIR and had worked in a number of universities in Australia setting up and managing their IR functions. He had also been a senior consultant to the Australian Government.

duty statements and the like. Often requests will come at short notice from the Vice Chancellor's Office or another senior University Executive requesting that research be undertaken on an issue and a paper is prepared within a few weeks' time for the consideration of the Executive Committee or another decision-making group. In the main this is a response to major external green or white papers released by State or Federal authorities. Therefore it constitutes an important responsibility of IR Units. Internally generated requests for such IR are also important to the University and indeed the IR Office. The following are some examples of such requests (not meant to be exhaustive):

- Examine the access, participation and academic performance of equity sub-groups. This has gained some degree of urgency and importance of late in Australia given the Federal Government's push to increase participation rates of the Low Socio-economic Status group in Higher Education with performance based funding being made available to the University system.
- Enhancing academic performance by rewarding the good performers. This requires the establishment of academic workplans, including learning and teaching and research performance targets, monitoring actual performance and rewarding the top X% of performers.
- Identifying low performing programs in terms of learning and teaching outcomes (such as on the Good Teaching Scale and/or Overall Student Satisfaction Index), key factors influencing these outcomes (for instance, it may be due to inadequate feedback to students), and facilitating the development of strategies to improve the future learning and teaching outcomes.

The IR movement is increasingly becoming international in focus. This is certainly true in terms of the Associations. AIR started the movement of formation of IR professional bodies over fifty years ago and with the migration of the concept world-wide with European AIR forming during the seventies, Australasian AIR in late eighties, Southern African AIR in the nineties, SEAAIR in 2000 and more recently an organisation covering the Middle East/ North Africa. These are truly multi-national and international bodies. There are some single country organisations too but in my opinion ought to affiliate with the international bodies in their region otherwise the IR movement will become very fragmented.

Looking to the future, I would like to see the re-emergence of a concept (I was involved in the Group with others such as *Hans Achermann* from EAIR providing important leadership) trialled during the early to mid-nineties, namely, the development of an International IR Committee with membership drawn from the multi-national IR bodies including AIR, SEAAIR, EAIR, AAIR, SAAIR and the Middle Eastern/Northern African groups. Their major focus ought to be the internationalisation of the IR movement, including the concept we were looking at in the early nineties with a world-wide IR Forum organised every three years to focus on international IR issues of emerging importance. Perhaps the more established groups such as AIR/EAIR can again provide some leadership in this area in the future.

An exploratory study of cost management and economics of higher education institutions in Indonesia

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Abstract

This research describes the cost management and economics of higher education institutions in Indonesia. There are currently more than 3,000 higher education institutions in Indonesia, which can be generally categorised as state institutions, private institutions and autonomous state-owned institutions as separate legal entities. The research involved case studies of 11 higher education institutions, including different kinds of institutions in terms of size, type, and legal status. Findings of the research address questions relating to cost management and economics of higher education institutions, i.e., sources of funding, budget allocation, and other cost management aspects of the institutions. There seems to be no clear pattern on the proportion of funding from various sources to higher education institutions. In terms of allocation, institutions use different methods of budget allocation, monitoring and evaluation mechanism.

Acknowledgement

Background and context of the research

The economics and cost management of higher education have become concerns of stakeholders in response to the changing public choices and pressures for effective use of financial resources. The government of Indonesia has attempted to expand access, improve quality and increase participation in higher education to ensure the nation's competitiveness by improving the autonomy and organisational health of higher

education institutions. In terms of legal status, higher education institutions (HEIs) are grouped into three different categories, namely

> (1) State HEIs,
> (2) Private HEIs, and
> (3) State-owned Autonomous HEIs (as separate legal entities)

State and State-owned Autonomous HEIs were founded and are legally owned by and receive funding from the government. Private HEIs are established by private initiatives usually in the form of foundations. They rely on users' and donors' contributions. The state-owned autonomous HEIs began to be established in 1999 with funding from the government as well as other sources including users, businesses, and savings (Kautsar, 2007).

Indonesia is the largest archipelago and fourth largest nation in the world with a total population of 224 million inhabiting over 4,000 of its 17,000 islands. Categorised as a medium human development country, it ranks 111th in the 2009 human development index, with a GDP per capita of US\$ 1,918, and an education index of 0.84 (UNDP, 2009). By the year 2009, the national higher education system includes 3,016 institutions, consisting of 83 state HEIs (including 7 state-owned autonomous HEIs, and one state open university, i.e. Universitas Terbuka [*Open University*]), and 2,933 private higher education institutions. These institutions are located in over 300 cities/districts in 33 provinces throughout the country. By organisational type of institutions, they include 460 universities, 1,306 schools of higher learning institutions, 162 polytechnics, 54 institutes, and 1,034 academies (Dikti, 2009).

In the Indonesian national higher education system there is a total of 3,611,705 students comprising 1,750,957 male (48.5%) and 1,860,748 female (51.5%). 910,879 students are in the state campus-based institutions, 490,661 in the open university and 2,210,165 in private HEIs. The participation rate in higher education is 18 per cent, and is expected to rise to 25% by 2014 (Dikti, 2009). In addition there are about 0.6 million students in HEIs owned by the government and managed by other government Ministries such as the Ministry of Religious Affairs, Ministry of Finance, and Ministry of Defence.

Although for a long time the Indonesian higher education system was made up of only state and private HEIs, legal and regulatory reforms to improve higher education quality enacted in 1999 allowed some state HEIs to become state-owned autonomous institutions as separate legal entities. Four top state HEIs were initially requested by the government to convert themselves and assume the new status. They were established under the Government Regulations 1999. As the national higher education system continued to evolve, the new "Law of Education as Legal Entity 2009" was passed. It requires all HEIs to transform themselves into legal entities within a maximum period of four years, or by 2012.

As global trends in funding higher education transform the way HEIs source their incomes (Tilak, 2005), manage their finances (Sanyal, 1998) and restructure themselves (Johnstone, Arora and Experton, 1998), Indonesian HEIs have had to do the same.

As HEIs are generally not-for-profit organisations, they employ cost management mechanisms to improve their efficiency and effectiveness. It is also recognized that HEIs are funded differently in different countries. In Switzerland, for example, government funding for higher education reaches 85 per cent (Liefner, 2003). In the Netherlands, up to two thirds of funding for higher education comes from the government. The so called "first income stream" provided by the Netherlands government is based on performance, one third of which is allocated for "teaching" while the remaining two thirds is allocated for "research" (Liefner, 2003). Overall, about 33.5 per cent of government funding in the Netherlands is linked to performance, while the remaining 66.5 per cent is provided by the government on a fixed cost basis. It is observed that government funding for higher education in the UK and the USA is following a downward trend (Liefner, 2003). A typical British university may receive up to 36 per cent government funding through the Funding Council. Three fifths of the budget is allocated for teaching, while the remaining two fifths is allocated for research. Other sources of revenues include research grants, contracts, and tuition fees (Johnes et al, 2005). In Indonesia, a typical state-owned autonomous HEI receives 20% of its funding from government, 60% from users, and 20% from other sources (Kautsar, 2007).

The purpose of this research is to analyse the economics and cost management of higher education institutions, including addressing their economic structure, sources of funding, budget allocations, and other relevant aspects. The economic structure is concerned with aspects such as fixed, variable, and investment cost components. Sources of funding reveal the proportions of funding from various sources. Budget allocation describes the processing and approval mechanism, proportion of budget allocation for various activities, disbursement, reporting, monitoring and accountability. The research also investigates other aspects of cost management such as impact of cost management on effectiveness and efficiency, attainment of institutional vision and missions, continuous improvement, and good practice as well as lessons learnt in implementing economics and cost management principles.

Research method

This research investigated case studies of 11 HEIs using an open ended questionnaire as the data collection instrument, followed by site visits to institutions and interviews with relevant administrators and managers. The identity of the institutions was derived from the guidebook *Panduan memilih perguruan tinggi 2008 (Guidelines to selecting higher education 2008)* which contains the profiles of major institutions (Tempo, 2008). The types of HEIs selected are limited only to universities and institutes, as they are institutions offering a comprehensive range of study programmes including sciences, social sciences, applied sciences, and professional programmes for a range of qualifications from diploma to bachelor and postgraduate programmes.

Data collection involved the use of questionnaires distributed to 11 institutions, comprising 4 state HEIs, 5 private HEIs, 1 state-owned autonomous HEI, and 1 state open university. These institutions were selected to include the smallest as well as the largest in terms of student population, budget, diversity of programmes, and the number of staff. They are located on the different islands of Java, Sumatera, Bali, Timor, and Kalimantan. The state Open University serves distance-education students nationally. The questionnaire was designed to get information about economic structure, source of funding, budget allocation, and other relevant aspects. Follow-up interviews were conducted with senior management of the institutions to clarify information and obtain qualitative data for further analysis. Descriptive statistical analysis and qualitative data analysis were used in this research, in which the institutions were compared and contrasted in terms of economics and cost management. The list of participating institutions, provincial locations and codes are given in Table 1.

Table 1 List of Participating Institutions, Locations and Codes

No	HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION	PROVINCIAL LOCATION	CODE
1	Institut Teknologi Adhitama Surabaya	East Java	P1
2	Universitas Mercu Buana Yogyakarta	Yogyakarta	P2
3	Universitas Nasional Jakarta	Jakarta	P3
4	Universitas Tarumanegara Jakarta	Jakarta	P4
5	Universitas Widya Mandala Madiun	East Java	P5
6	IAIN Raden Intan Bandar Lampung	Lampung	S1
7	IAIN Antasari Banjarmasin	South Kalimantan	S2
8	Universitas Nusa Cendana	East Nusa Tenggara	S3
9	Universitas Sriwijaya	South Sumatera	S4
10	Universitas Gadjah Mada	Yogyakarta	SO
11	Universitas Terbuka	Jakarta	SD

Notes on Code:
P = Private HEIs
S = State HEIs
SD = State Distance Education Institution
SO = State-owned Autonomous HEIs

Analysis and discussion

A. Cost Structure

The economic structure is described by fixed, variable and investment costs. The fixed cost component includes expenditure for acquiring land, physical facilities and buildings,

equipment for practicum, and libraries. The variable cost component consists of such things as staff salaries, maintenance of equipment, bonuses, electricity and telephone expenses, water expenses, tax, meal expenses, and general administration costs. The investment cost component comprises expenditure on capital, infrastructure and facility development, network capital, improvement of ICT facilities, teaching quality improvement, and human resource development. In this analysis, semi-variable costs are grouped into variable costs for reasons of ease of data collection and data provision by the institutions under investigation. Semi-variable costs comprise a mixture of fixed and variable components, such as costs of electricity, water, communication, and so forth.

It can be seen in Figure 1 that 7 institutions have variable costs up to 90%, 4 institutions have between 40% to 50%, and 1 institution has less than 10% of their respective total costs. It showed that variable cost is a significant component in higher education spending in Indonesia. Meanwhile for investment, most of institutions spend less than 20%. In general, there seems to be no clear pattern in terms of how institutions allocate budget for fixed cost, variable cost, and investment.
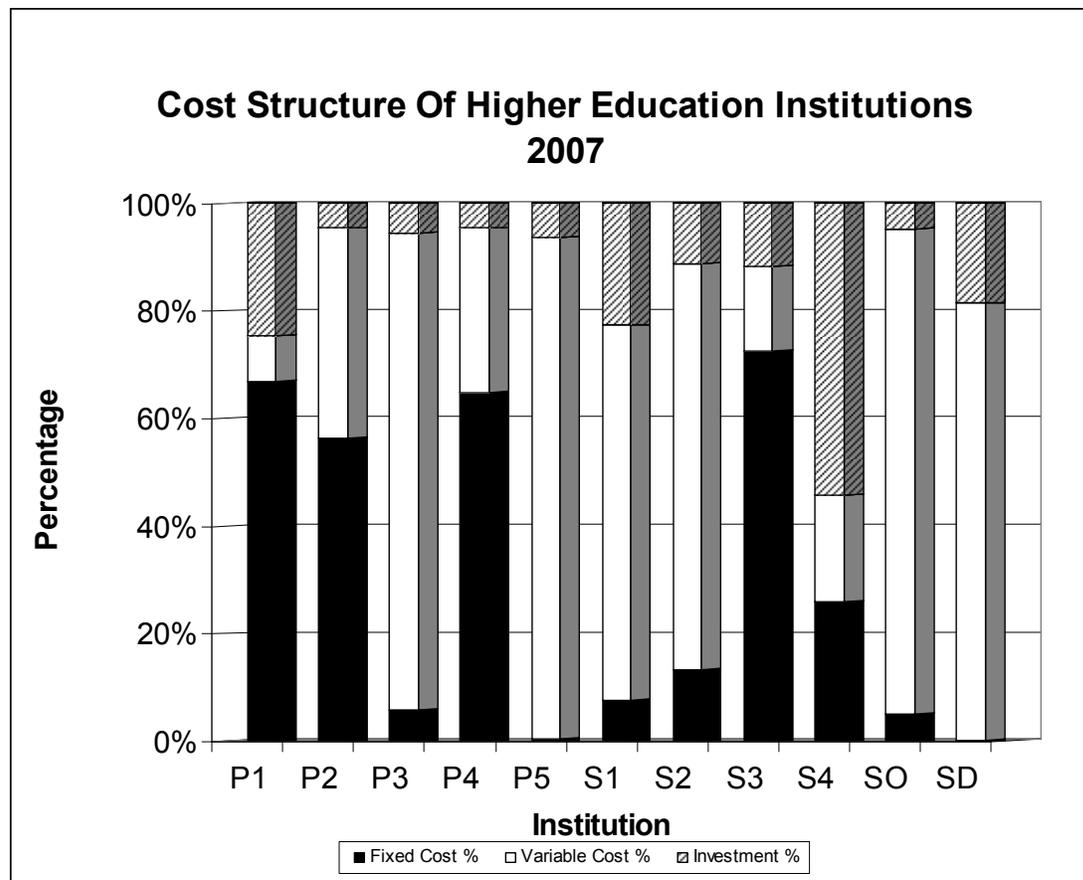
Figure 1 Costs Structure of Higher Education Institutions in Indonesia

B. Sources of funding

Sources of funding relate to the relative sizes of contributions from government, users, and other funding providers respectively. In state HEIs, the highest percentage of funding comes from government. The proportion of source of funding in terms of percentage can be seen in Figure 2.

Proportion of Source of Funding for Higher Education Institutions
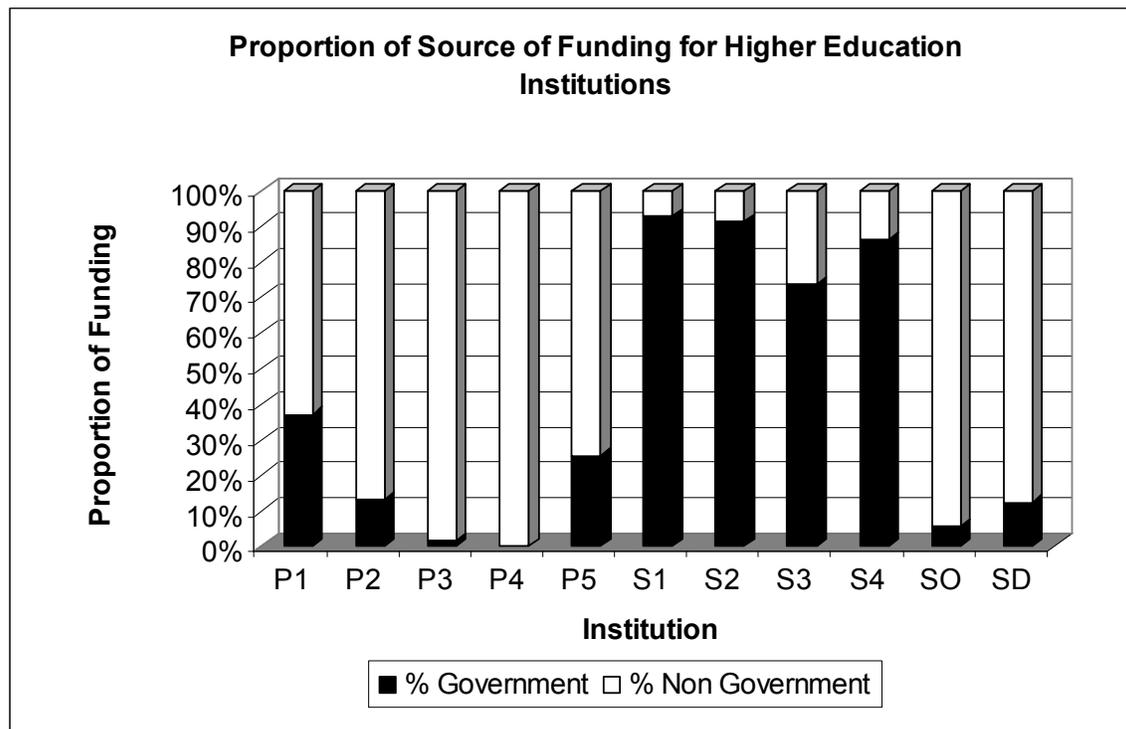
Figure 2 Proportion of Source of Funding for Higher Education Institutions

More than 60% and in some cases 100% of the funding of private HEIs comes from users. Some private HEIs also receive a small amount of government funding, ranging from 1.5 per cent to just above 30 per cent of its total budget. State HEIs with small student population receive over 90% proportion of government funding, reflecting the government's attention to smaller state institutions.

However, the government contributes only 12.5% to the state Open University's budget, with the remaining 87.5 per cent having to come from user contributions. Meanwhile, government contributions to the state-owned autonomous HEIs have even been lower at 5.6% so users contribute the remaining proportion of 94.4%.

Detailed results can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2 Students, Staff, Budget, and Percentage of Source of Funding for 11 Higher Education Institutions

No	UNIVERSITIES	CODE	Number of		Per Cent of Source of Funding	
			Students	Staff	Government	Non Government
1	Institut Teknologi Adhitama Surabaya	P1	4,055	374	37.2	62.8
2	Universitas Mercu Buana Yogyakarta	P2	1,468	197	13.1	86.9
3	Universitas Nasional Jakarta	P3	6,426	975	1.5	98.5
4	Universitas Tarumanegara Jakarta	P4	14,311	1,657	0	100
5	Universitas Widya Mandala Madiun	P5	653	123	25.6	74.4
6	IAIN Raden Intan Bandar Lampung	S1	3,060	428	92.7	7.3
7	IAIN Antasari Banjarmasin	S2	2,927	551	91.1	8.9
8	Universitas Nusa Cendana	S3	12,065	1,519	73.8	26.2
9	Universitas Sriwijaya	S4	20,235	2,253	86.3	13.7
10	Universitas Gadjah Mada	SO	40,088	4,359	5.6	94.4
11	Universitas Terbuka	SD	324,147	1,805	12.5	87.5

C. Budget Allocation

1. *Process*

In state HEIs, the budget is approved by the Ministry of Finance. The process of budget allocation is bottom-up on the basis of pre-determined guidelines, in which units and faculties are requested to develop their work plans and proposed budget. These proposals are combined and synchronised at the institution level following sets of guidelines and formats for submission to the Ministry of Finance and Ministry of National Education.

In state-owned autonomous HEIs, the budget is approved by their respective Boards of Trustees. The budgeting process for operational activity begins with the development of the Rector Policy Guidelines for the Planned Year. This is then used as an estimate to determine the proposed budget to develop the Annual Activity Plan and Budget by each Faculty and unit. Budget allocation is generally classified into routine and development budgets. Faculty and unit plans and budgets become the basis of the University Plan and Budget for approval by the University Board of Trustee.

For private HEIs generally, units submit plans and budget to top management for approval by the foundation. In one private institution, units develop plans for review by a Revenue and Budget Committee, whose members may comprise the Rector, Vice Rectors, Deans, Vice Deans, and Heads of Bureaus. This Committee then approves the integration of unit plans and budgets into the University Revenue and Budget Plan. This Plan will then be discussed in the University Senate and prepared for approval by the foundation.

In another private HEI, units propose budgets to the University for review by Vice Rector Finance and the Finance Division. At the institution level, the unit budget will be combined and synchronised into the University Revenue and Budget Plan for further review in the University Senate and subsequently for approval by the foundation.

2. Allocation

For state HEIs, the use of government budget is decided by the university, while revenue from users is prioritised for use by the generating unit. There are differences between institutions as to the percentage of users' contribution for use by units and by the institution, and the principles used to allocate government funding. In general, state universities allocate budget on the basis of programme priorities, although some state HEIs declare that their budget allocation is based on actual expenditure the previous year. In the state-owned autonomous HEIs, state budget is allocated through the Ministry of National Education (MONE), while the use of students' fees is approved by the University Council.
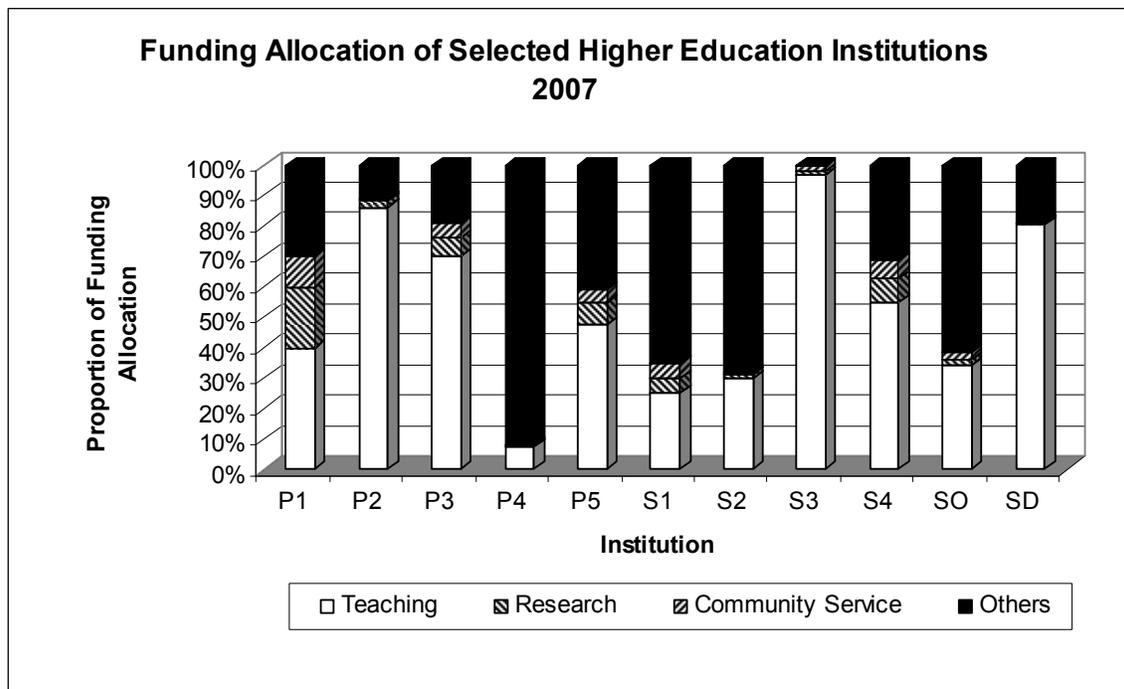
Figure 3 Proportion of Funding Allocation of Higher Education Institutions

As most private HEIs rely on student fees, budget allocation is prioritised on routine operational activities, using the institution's strategic and operational plans as reference. Budget allocation for other activities will be considered on priority criteria. For example, in one private HEI, its budget is mostly allocated for teaching activities. As there has

been a trend of declining revenue it therefore has had to depend on contributions from the foundation.

Budget for research and community service relies on external revenues. Generally, such budget is allocated to units based on their actual expenditures of the previous year, and the institutions' attempt to balance the budget.

3. Disbursement.

The mechanism for processing funds disbursement tends to be similar at all state HEIs as required by government directives. However, internal disbursement methods may vary.

The state-owned autonomous HEIs have a somewhat different method of disbursing funds. Government funding for staff salaries is disbursed directly to the recipients, while non salary payments are managed by the Bureau of General Administration and Finance. Units refer to Annual Activity and Budget Plan approved by the Board of Trustee for disbursement of funding from students' fees. Funding proposals are submitted by units to the Treasurer after approval by the Finance Director.

Private HEIs employ a range of methods of disbursing funds. Funding requests are submitted to the Finance Division for approval by the Rector or Vice Rector Administration and Finance.

4. Reporting.

For State HEIs the mechanisms and procedures for financial reporting use standard government regulations. Private HEIs use a range of approaches to financial reporting. For example, in one private HEI, units produce financial reports on daily and monthly bases for internal analysis by the Audit Office, whose analysis is forwarded to the Foundation for Annual Financial Report. In another private HEI, financial reports are produced on the basis of transaction reports by units. Expenditures are deducted from the budgeted post.

5. Monitoring.

State HEIs may establish a task force or an internal audit division to conduct audits of the budget and to monitor funding uses. This task force or audit division reports directly to the Rector. However, in other state HEIs the responsibilities for monitoring and evaluation of budgets rest with individual units and are administered by the Finance Division. Monitoring is also done on the basis of monthly financial statements. In regards of program implementation and budget utilization, evaluations are conducted periodically using evidence of outcome-based activity. In private HEIs a working committee may be established to perform monitoring and evaluation, although most private HEIs rely on the Finance division and individual units for the monitoring and evaluation functions. Generally, an internal audit team is established to supervise funding expenses.

Monitoring is done on the basis of physical evidence of expenses, while evaluation is conducted for possible budget revision on the basis of financial report.

6. Accountability.

To ensure accountability of State HEIs, the government uses the standard reporting application and mechanism, called the Institution Accounting System. Audit is conducted by Inspectorate General of the Ministry of National Education and the state Financial Audit Agency. The state-owned autonomous HEIs produce Financial Statements using the tailor-made accounting information system to ensure accountability through periodic audit performed by the institution's Internal Audit Unit. Performance of this Internal Audit Unit is evaluated by the Audit Council established to assist the Board of Trustee. External audits are conducted by the State Finance Audit Agency and independent Public Accountants. For private HEIs, audits are performed by independent auditors. In some private HEIs the internal audit performed by their respective finance division, the university and foundation is considered sufficient.

D. Other aspects

1. Effectiveness and efficiency.

In state HEIs, cost management has an impact on institutional effectiveness and efficiency, accountability and performance. Budget realisation is controlled in accordance with the requirements for institutional development. Government funding must be accounted for, to ensure the effective functioning of institutions, and implementation of their programmes and achievement of institutional missions and goals. Monitoring is done to ensure outputs and outcomes.

The autonomous state-owned HEIs use a performance-based approach with clear and measurable targets stated in their strategic, operational, and annual plans.

For private HEIs good cost management allows cross-subsidy between units, faculties and programmes. The use of revenue follows determined procedures and this as well as the expenditures are reported periodically soon after the completion of activities or projects. Financial control is a responsibility shared among relevant units to prevent inappropriate uses of revenue. Based on priorities, efficiency can be achieved by keeping expenses low. Savings from better use of facilities such as lifts, telephones, energy, water, and so forth are proposed in the budget plan. Various revisions to budgets, expenditures and revenues are continually carried out to ensure a balanced budget. Expenditures must be planned and budgeted, and unbudgeted expenditures must be appropriately and rigorously approved.

2. *Achievement of vision and missions.*

For state HEIs, the attainment of the institutional vision and mission is dependent on the availability of budget, infrastructure, facilities, and technology. Budget allocations are adjusted to activities through systematic, strategic, operational and annual plans. Cost management is done through coherent and integrated budget mechanism, and the budget is disbursed according to plans drafted by units relevant to the institutional vision and mission. As budget is limited, priorities are set to ensure effective and efficient use following certain mechanisms. For the state distance teaching institution, good cost management impacts significantly on the attainment of its vision and missions, even though long-term plans are developed systematically and translated into measurable annual plans. The autonomous state-owned HEIs employ cost management based on performance, which guides funding activities leading to the achievement of institutional vision and mission.

Private HEIs share a common belief that effective cost management leads to the attainment of their respective visions and missions. Based on their strategic plans, programmes are prioritised and funding is allocated accordingly. Having transparent financial systems, procedures and good control establishes trust and credibility in the institution's financial management, and this facilitates the achievement of budget allocation. The revenue and budget plan is developed jointly by the top management and units so that agreement is also facilitated.

3. *Continuous improvement.*

HEIs have attempted continuous improvement in cost management through supervision, monitoring, evaluation, budget control, and staff training.

In state HEIs, top management and heads of units implement preventive and corrective actions and improvement to ensure effective use of budget.

In state-owned autonomous HEIs, continuous improvement in cost management is assisted by *Help Desk* services which supply pertinent information on good practice and acceptable accounting standards. Internal audits are conducted by their Internal Audit Offices.

For private HEIs continuous improvement in cost management is conducted through control of budget and supervision, evaluation of programs, and assurance of accountability. Improvements of processes in financial transactions and reports, reminders for late reporting, reducing students' financial arrears and simplifying students' fees structure had facilitated continuous improvement in cost management. Benchmarking against comparable private HEIs is done in order to get inputs to decide on the level of fees to be charged to students as well as to understand the annual trends of enrolment.

4. Lessons learnt.

For state HEIs lessons learnt include continuous monitoring of the consistency of costs, outputs, administrative orders, allocations and time accuracies so that optimal effectiveness can be gained. Intrinsic benefits can be seen in terms of improved staff competency, accuracy, and consistency in financial management that comply with regulatory requirements. State HEIs must comply with the state Finance Law and Regulation, asset management, and taxation rules. Staff and management competencies are enhanced through updating knowledge in procedures and mechanisms for the use of state budgets. This would prevent the misuses of state budgets.

In the state distance teaching institution, cost management has positive impact on the attainment of the institution vision and missions through proper planning followed by consistent monitoring, evaluation, and continuous improvement in every cycle of the institution's activities.

In state-owned autonomous HEIs good practice starts from the development of the institution's online accounting system which is required to have efficient financial recording and reporting procedures for managing large and complex organizations. Some lessons learnt include the fact that the lack of *up to date/real time* financial record system at Faculty and Unit levels can have debilitating effects on the overall institution's financial reporting.

In private HEIs good practice embraces implementation of monitoring and evaluation system, standards in planning and management of programs and activities, and control in cost management. Other good practices include establishing trust, preventing discrepancies, reducing *mark up*, encouraging actual reporting, prediction of annual expense, and maintenance of budget consistency. Some lessons learnt include delays in annual reporting. These result in budget reporting different than scheduled during the year. The financial reporting model of institutions has not as yet fully met the needs for a comprehensive financial analysis of the institution. As a result, long range and short range financial predictions have not been conducted on the basis of analysis of financial reports. Good cost management must help institutions monitor revenue and budget plan based on the targeted revenues to achieve budget surplus. The short term drawback of this mechanism is that the Faculty and unit cannot develop study programs because of the control based on the attainment of target revenues.

Conclusions

Generally, state HEIs receive most if not all of their funding from the government.

The state distance teaching institution however, only receives 12.5 per cent of its funding from the government.

The state-owned autonomous HEI studied in this research receives only 5.6 per cent of its funding from the government.

Private HEIs receive between 60 to 100 per cent of funding from users.

There do not seem to be a clear pattern of funding proportions from various sources to higher education institutions. As earlier observed, there seems to be blurred vision in the development of public and private higher education in Indonesia (Welch, 2007).

In terms of allocation, institutions use different methods of calculation based on needs and priorities.

Processing mechanism for funding disbursement for state institutions defer to the government regulation.

Private HEIs use different approaches to financial and cost management.

State HEIs, including the state-owned autonomous HEIs, employ common mechanism and procedure of financial reporting format of the Ministry of National Education.

Private HEIs have varied approaches and formats in financial reporting.

Institutions also use different methods of monitoring and evaluating allocations.

State HEIs assure financial accountability through the established reporting mechanism and audit by the Inspectorate General of the Ministry of National Education and the State Financial Audit Agency. Private HEIs and the state-owned autonomous HEIs use independent auditors.

The majority of HEIs allocate a sizeable part, in some cases even the whole, of their budgets for teaching, while funding for research and community service is acquired from external sources. This is so despite the effort to distribute their budgets to cover all activities from teaching to research and community service.

Institutions have attempted to do planning, supervision, monitoring, audit, and continuous improvement to ensure the attainment of institutional vision and missions. A mechanism is applied to ensure efficiency and effectiveness in financial resource management.

Research of this type is rarely conducted in Indonesia. This research is an initial step towards understanding the economic structure and cost management of higher education. It should be noted that only 11 institutions served as case studies, and no generalisation can be drawn at this stage, so that further research should be conducted. This research has attempted to cover different kinds of institutions in terms of size, type, and legal status.

One limitation of the research relates to the sensitive issue of economic structure and cost management in Indonesian higher education institutions.   Such information is usually kept secret, particularly by private HEIs, even though state and state-owned autonomous HEIs are more open to meet accountability requirements. There are also difficulties in relation to collecting data with more detailed cost categorisation into fixed, semi-variable, variable and investment costs.

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Ethical Values and Principles in the Mission Statements of Malaysian Public Institutions of Higher Education

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Abstract

As institutions of higher education are reshaping themselves to meet the demands of the Third Millennium, they continue to play an important role in the ethical education of their students. Recognition of this ethical function would generally be articulated in the mission or vision statements and code of ethics of a particular institution. This study investigates the ethical content of the mission statements of Malaysian Public Institutions of Higher Education (MPIHE) in order to determine the ethical values that these institutions subscribe to. The Bucharest Declaration (2004) on ethical values and principles of higher education in the Europe region was used as the framework for analysis. The findings of this research provide insights into the ethical stance and commitment of MPIHE as projected in their mission statements.

Introduction

Events and crises in past years relating to ethical issues and implications of corporate activities have been news highlights. The subprime lending crisis, scandals like Enron and Maddock's large-scale deception in the United States, the Lingam scandal on the appointment of judges and the Port Klang Free Trade Zone mismanagement of funds in Malaysia raise questions of violation of trust and ethical principles.

The increasing number of disciplinary cases in the Malaysian public service (*The Star*, 15 August, 2009) underscores the issue of declining ethical standards. In 2009, 484 officers were called up by the Public Service Department Disciplinary Board compared to 405 in the same period (April – June) in 2008. 156 were disciplined for misconduct and 143 were dismissed.

Questionable ethics among undergraduate students surfaced in a survey of a particular university, cited in *The Star* (July 30, 2009). It revealed that the students were open to

accepting and giving bribes. 30.5 % of those interviewed were willing to accept bribes if they had the power and the opportunity while 15% were willing to offer bribes to facilitate business deals while 23.7% would offer bribes in order to avoid actions that could be taken against them.

The increasing frequency of such large and small scale incidents reflects the changing face of Malaysia and the world. The last decades have seen a growing awareness of these ethical issues and particularly of the need to deal with them by "develop[ing] competence in ethics" (UNESCO, 2003, p.9) as described in the report of the working group on the teaching of ethics of the World Commission on Ethics of Scientific Knowledge and Technology (UNESCO, 2003, p. 9). This document details the ethical role of higher education institutions not only in the preservation and development of crucial functions through the exercise of ethics and the ability to speak out independently on ethical, cultural and social problems but also the active dissemination of universally accepted values.

In 2004, the Bucharest Declaration concerning ethical values and principles for higher education in the European region (henceforth known as the Bucharest Declaration) was published by the UNESCO-CEPES (2004) European centre for higher education. While acknowledging the changes in the mission and structure of higher education and research centres for the 21st century, this declaration emphasized the equally important ethical vocation of higher education institutions in that

> "... universities cannot be regarded simply as value-free institutions. The values and ethical standards they espouse will not only have a crucial influence over the academic, cultural and political development of their academics, students and staff, but also help to shape the moral contours of society at large. As such, they should accept explicit responsibility and take action for promoting the highest possible ethical standards.

> (Bucharest Declaration 2004, Preamble section, para. 5)

The declaration calls on these institutions for an active and diligent application of high ethical values and principles "through their mission statements, institutional charters and codes of academic conduct" (Bucharest Declaration 2004, Academic ethos, culture and community, para. 1).

Similarly, the ethical function of Malaysian institutes of higher education has been enshrined in the mission statement of the Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education (MMOHE) which declares that it aims:

> "To develop and strengthen the higher educational institutions that produce individuals who are competitive and innovative with high moral values to meet the nation's aspirations."

> (Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia)

In the development of a productive and effective workforce to meet the needs of society, formal training in ethics as well as ethical role models are seen as necessary to achieve high ethical values and principles among individuals of a society. Hence, the Bucharest Declaration (2004) on the ethical vocation of a university and the Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education's (MMOHE) mission statement challenge institutions of higher education in Malaysia about their awareness, acknowledgement and commitment towards their roles as centres for development of high ethical standards among university students.

The ethical role that a Malaysian Public Institution of Higher Education (MPIHE) should undertake could be embodied within its mission statement, charters and codes of ethics. Although opinions differ about the worthiness of mission statements, many acknowledge that mission statements do encapsulate the strategic expressions of an institution's distinctiveness (Morphew & Hartley, 2006). According to Tierney (as cited in Kreber & Mhina, 2007, p. 62), as mission statements of institutions are generally acknowledged as public statements of 'who they are as an institution and where they want to go', these statements would be appropriate indicators of an institution's awareness and emphasis of its ethical function. Also, according to Barnett (as cited in Kreber & Mhina, 2007, p. 62), institutions 'have a moral responsibility to identify the values and ideals by which they choose to orient themselves in their mission statements.' In order to ascertain whether MPIHE fulfil this ethical mission and function of its identity, this paper explores the mission statements of Malaysian universities for the ethical values and principles they articulate.

Review of Literature

The literature is replete with theoretical and empirical studies on mission statements focussing on the corporate sector but similar studies on the mission statements of institutions of higher education are limited(Atkinson, 2008; Kreber & Mhina, 2007; Morphew & Hartley, 2006). One recurring analytical approach used in this limited corpus of studies on the mission statements of institutions of higher education is value-related themes. Themes reflect "the value, characteristic, or element of an institution's purpose, or commitment, or mission" (Wang, Gibson, Salinas, Solis and Slate, 2007, "Constructs and Population"). The mission statement is one such statement of values and it follows, therefore, that the mission statement of an institution of higher education is also a means through which ethical values could be expressed.

While the focus of these existing thematic studies is not specifically on ethical content, the findings of these studies show that many of the mission statements of institutions of higher education express ethical values. A case in point are the studies carried out by Young (cited in Kreber & Mhina, 2007) which identified nine core academic values of which *service, spirituality, truth, human dignity, equality, justice* and *freedom* [emphasis added] are explicit ethical values. In their study using Young's framework of nine core academic values, Kreber and Mhina (2007) found that references to *service* and *truth* [emphasis added] in mission statements were the highest and second highest values respectively across all institutional types in the United States. Included under Kreber and

Mhina's (2007) references to truth are concepts such as *academic excellence, intellectual rigor, research, discovery* and *inquiry* [emphasis added]. This suggests that institutions of higher education are not only committed to ethical values but also express these values in their mission statements.

Other thematic studies on mission statements of institutions of higher education include Morphew and Hartley's (2006) study which focused on the rhetoric of mission statements. It found that across different institutional types, among the most predominant elements were those that made references to service which were articulated as *civic duty/service* and *serves local area* and *religious affiliation* (p. 463) [emphasis added]. From the study by Stemler and Bebell (1999), 10 major themes emerged that indicated significant ethical values are embedded within the themes, such as *responsible citizenship*, *ethical morality, spiritual development,* and *religious education* (p.18) [emphasis added]. The data showed a significant emphasis on spiritual development and religious education/environment, with *citizenship*, and *emotional* and *spiritual development* (p.19) [emphasis added] among the most frequent themes.

Embedded within the theme of citizenship in Wang et al.'s (2007) study are references to the pursuit of *truth*, the object of making students *responsible citizens and leaders* and a focus on *ethical development* [emphasis added]. The ethical value of good citizenship reappears in the theme of community focus wherein is embedded *good citizenship through its community service learning programs* [emphasis added]. Not unexpectedly, the Berleur (1996) study on the mission statements of Jesuit higher education institutions within and outside the US indicates a focus on the *development of ethics* (p. 9), *quality education with a faith response* (p. 9), and an orientation towards *liberty, justice, peace,* and *critical sense* (p.14) [emphasis added] . Atkinson (2008) forwards the idea from Kjaer and Pederson (2001) that through discourse, the concept of higher education institutions can be seen as "socially and contextually constructed" (p.385). Mission statements have a role in this construct in that they "are probably a good thing for symbolic representation of our connections to the universal academic community and the common good" (p. 385). In Berleur's (1996) study, the ethical value of "the common good" can be seen in the focus on *social consciousness, service of others, solidarity of human values,* and *peace through justice* (p.14) [emphasis added].

Despite the prevalence of ethical content in the values stated in mission statements thus far studied, there is limited empirical research focussing solely on the ethical values and principles themselves. Smythe, Malloy, Hadjistavropoulos, Martin, and Bardutz (2006) studied how the mission statements of hospitals explicitly articulated ethical content and discovered an emphasis on duty. Buff and Yonkers (2004) reviewed the mission statements of business schools using the keywords *ethics*, *values*, *morals* and *social responsibility* [emphasis added] and took note of expressions of religious affiliations. Their findings show that 64% of the statements studied have an explicitly stated ethical value. This relatively uncharted territory of ethical values in mission statements of institutions of higher education shows up the lack of a framework from which to study ethical values. Whether the focus on ethical values in the existing studies are deliberate or incidental, the fact remains that these studies are not comprehensive studies of the ethical

commitment of higher education institutions. The ethical stance of these institutions of higher education in the most complete sense as portrayed by the Bucharest Declaration (2004) has yet to be explored. If the Bucharest Declaration is seen as the definitive expression of the ethical commitment of institutions of higher education, then it is apt that the documents of these institutions, particularly the mission statement, be benchmarked against this declaration in order to determine the ethical stance of these institutions.

Methodology

Data source and selection

In Malaysia, there are public and private institutions of higher education. Public institutions are government funded and are directly under the jurisdiction of the Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education (MMOHE) while the private institutions are responsible to private stakeholders. Of the two institutional types, public institutions of higher education were selected for this study. All 20 Malaysian Public Institutions of Higher Education (MPIHE) constituted the data source.

As it is the mission statements of universities which 'reflect the values of an institution' (Young, as cited in Kreber & Mhina, 2007, p. 62) the analysis in this study focused only on the mission statements of MPIHE. These documents were accessed through the official websites of these institutions as the Internet would be the most likely means by which the latest versions of their mission statements are made available to the public.

The results of the Internet search showed that of the 20 MPIHE, 19 institutions had mission statements and one had a combined mission/vision statement. There were differences in the length of these mission statements which ranged from a brief seven words to 231 words. Differences were also found in the choice of language used to express the university's mission statements. Both English and the national language, Bahasa Malaysia, were used. Three institutions had only a Bahasa Malaysia version of their mission statements. Final selection of the mission statements for analysis was based on the language in which the mission statement was expressed. Mission statements written in Bahasa Malaysia which required translation into English were not selected to avoid pitfalls in translation. The final corpus was made up of 17 mission statements.

Framework and analysis

In order to benchmark the ethical values and principles encapsulated in the mission statements of MPIHE, this study adopted the Bucharest Declaration (2004) on ethical values and principles of higher education in the Europe region as its analytical framework. The reasons for selecting the Bucharest Declaration are: firstly, the ethical values and principles espoused in the Bucharest Declaration were drawn up specifically for institutions of higher learning and are based on the recognition that universities "…cannot be regarded as value-free institutions" (Bucharest Declaration, 2004, Preamble, para. 4) and the values they espouse will "…also help shape the moral contours of society at large' (Bucharest Declaration, 2004, Preamble, para. 4). In other

words, the ethical principles and values identified in the Bucharest Declaration clearly declare that institutions of higher education play a central role in the nurturing of ethical values.

Secondly, the ethical values and principles spelt out in the Bucharest Declaration are all encompassing in that the values which have been identified comprehensively cover the principal dimensions of the role of institutions of higher education. Thirdly, the ethical values and principles in the declaration were drawn up in light of the new roles and responsibilities of universities in the 21st century (Bucharest Declaration, 2004) which therefore have relevance to Malaysian public universities which are evolving to meet the needs of Malaysia in this 21st century.

The Bucharest Declaration encompasses four broad dimensions namely:

1.   Academic ethos, culture and community
2.   Academic integrity in the teaching and learning process
3.   Democratic and ethical governance and management
4.   Research based on academic integrity and social responsiveness

Within each dimension, specific ethical values and principles have been identified by UNESCO to guide institutions of higher education in their roles and responsibilities.

For the purpose of this study, the ethical values and principles were extracted from the text of the Bucharest Declaration and categorised as follows in Table 1.

Table 1: Dimensions and Categories of Ethical Values and Principles

Dimensions	Categories of ethical values and principles
Dimension 1: Academic ethos, culture and community	A. Respect for the dignity and for the physical and psychic integrity of human beings B. Life long learning C. Knowledge advancement and quality improvement D. Inclusive education E. Participatory democracy F. Active citizenship G. Non discrimination H. Autonomy of higher education should not be used as an excuse for evading responsibilities to wider society, should promote public good

Dimensions	Categories of ethical values and principles
Dimension 2: Academic integrity in the teaching and learning process	A. The key values of an academic community of integrity are honesty, trust, fairness, respect, responsibility and accountability. These values are not only good in themselves but they are also crucial for the delivery of effective and high-quality research. B. Honesty C. Trust D. Fairness E. Respect (Mutual) F. Responsibility and Accountability for free expression of attitudes, for actions in the face of wrongdoing
Dimension 3: Democratic and ethical Governance and management	A. Accountability and responsibility – adopting best practices B. Democracy in decision making – balance between effective leadership and management and participation of academic community C. Ethical leadership – institutional leaders be held accountable ; decision-makers have moral obligations to all stakeholders affected by decisions
Dimension 4: Research based on academic integrity and social responsiveness	A. Respect and promote key values of scientific research (intellectual freedom and social responsibility) B. Moral responsibility for research processes and outputs C. Have an ethical code of conduct in research D. Promote culture for peace through worldwide cooperation, assuring intellectual and moral solidarity, aiming for the welfare of mankind through sustainable development E. Freedom of expression (or withdrawal) pertaining to ethical challenges on research projects and application of their results.

Source: Adapted from the Bucharest Declaration, 2004

A content analysis approach was adopted in order to identify the ethical values and principles articulated in the mission statements of MPIHE. Content analysis, broadly defined as 'any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages' (Holsti, as cited in Stemler, 2001), has been found to be useful in examining trends and patterns in documents, and allowing

researchers to discover and describe the focus of individuals, groups or institutions (Stemler, 2001). In this study, keywords or phrases that referred to ethical parameters were coded independently by four coders and inter-coder reliability ranged from 80-93.75%. These keyword or phrase references were quantified into the categories and dimensions drawn up in Table 1 for further analysis to answer the following research question:

What are the ethical values and principles reflected in the mission statements of Malaysian public institutions of higher education that are consistent with the Bucharest Declaration framework?

Results and discussion

There were a total of 55 keyword or phrase references to ethical values and principles found in 16 of the 17 mission statements of Malaysian public universities. These keyword or phrase references to ethical parameters were examined against the four dimensions of the Bucharest Declaration (2004) framework. The analysis reveals that from these 16 mission statements of MPIHE there were ethical values and principles for all four dimensions.

The keyword and phrase references to the dimensions were expressed in a variety of ways. Dimension 1 i.e. *Academic ethos, culture and community* [emphasis added] is captured in the mission statements with references such as "to achieve academic excellence in various fields", "...to enhance the quality of the nation's culture and prosperity of its people" or "...community services to achieve the vision of the nation". References from the mission statements to Dimension 2, *Academic integrity in the teaching and learning processes* [emphasis added], are such as "To advance knowledge and learning through quality…education", and "To lead and innovate…through instilling qualities that stress academic excellence and professionalism". Dimension 3, *Democratic and ethical governance and management* [emphasis added] was reflected in references such as "To nurture the quality of excellence...in the process of …. administration and student life" or "committed to…producing a society imbued with dynamic, learned and civil leadership". Finally, the references to Dimension 4, *Research based on academic integrity and social responsiveness* [emphasis added] include "excellence... in the process of…research, consultancy, publication..." and "... research work…based on moral values and professional ethics".

The distribution and frequency of the 55 keyword or phrase references within each of the four dimensions is as shown in Figure 1.
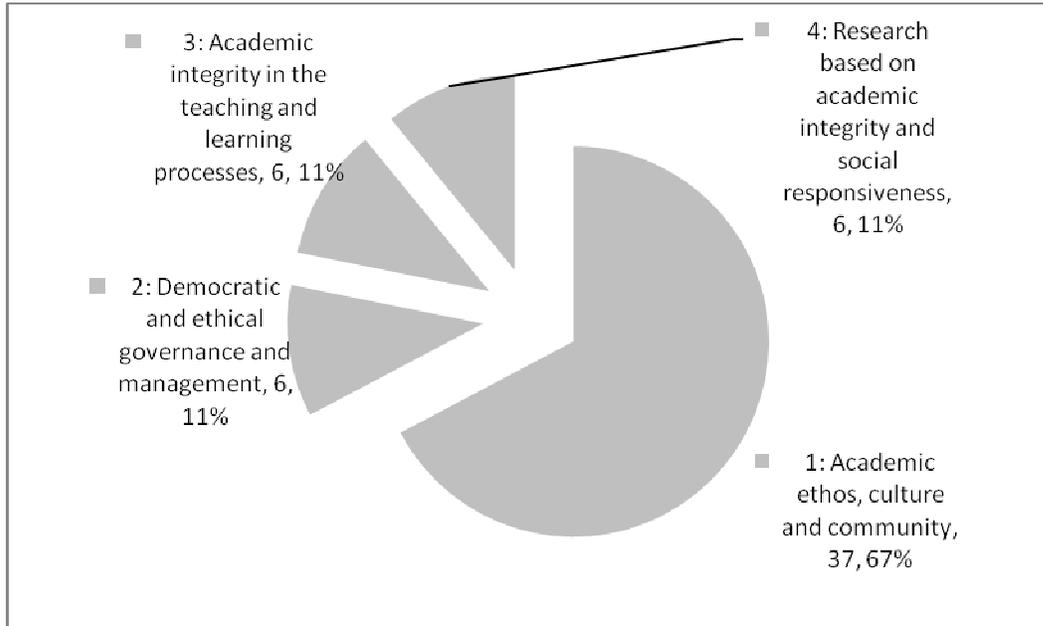
Figure 1: Frequency of references within each dimension of ethical values and principles

From Figure 1, it can be seen that a majority of the references (37 out of a total of 55 references) to ethical values and principles are within Dimension 1: *Academic ethos, culture and community* [emphasis added]. There are 6 references for Dimensions 2, 3 and 4, constituting a total of 32.7%.

A closer look at the categories within Dimension 1 reveals that out of a total of eight categories, the ethical values and principles identified in the mission statements of MPIHE are localised within categories A, B, C and F (Figure 2). The category with the highest number of references is category F: *Active citizenship* [emphasis added] with 18 references (48.7%) followed by category C: *Knowledge advancement and quality improvement* [emphasis added] with 14 references (37.8%). The other two categories are A: *Respect for the dignity and for the physical and psychic integrity of human beings* [emphasis added] with four (10.8%) references and B: *Lifelong learning* [emphasis added] with only one reference (2.7%).
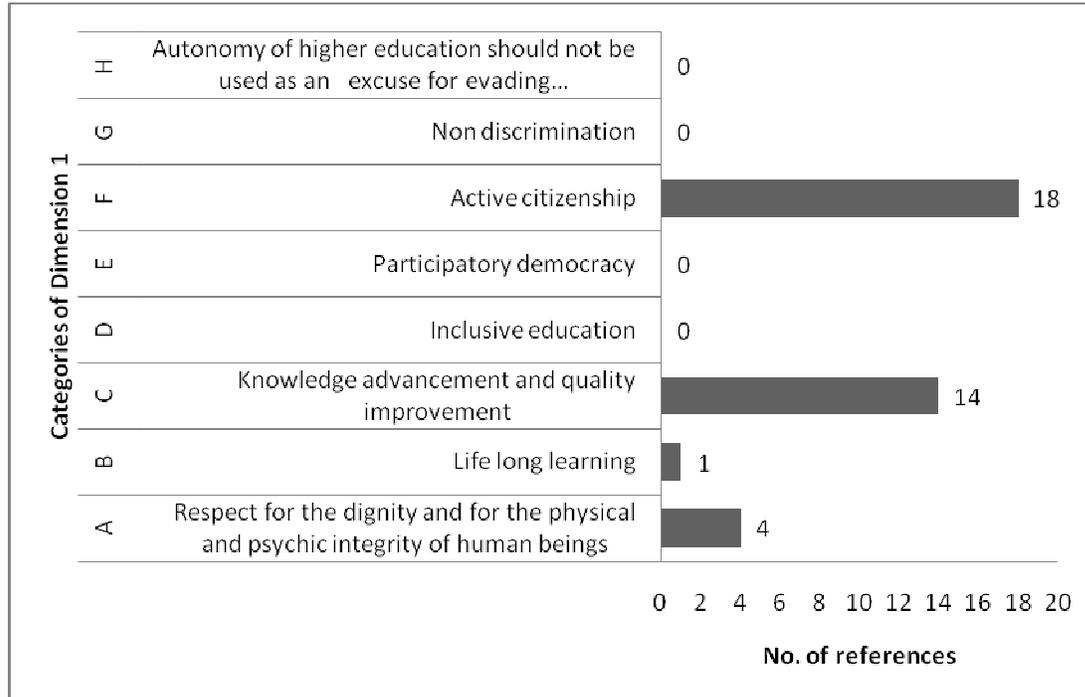
Figure 2: Distribution of references to ethical values and principles within categories of Dimension 1

The high number of references to category F reflects the universities' prioritising their ethical role in the dimension of *Academic ethos, culture and community* in the form of *active citizenship* [emphasis added]. This finding is congruent with various studies. Kreber and Mhina (2007) found that references to *service* [emphasis added] in mission statements was the highest value across all institutional types, and Morphew and Hartley (2006) found, also across different institutional types, that *civic duty/service* [emphasis added] was one of the three most common themes in mission statements. The theme of *citizenship* [emphasis added] is also significant in Wang et. al (2007), Stemler and Bebell (1999) and Berleur (1996). In addition, a close commitment to category C: *Knowledge advancement and quality improvement* [emphasis added] was observed suggesting that this is an equally important aspect of Dimension 1. The lack of references for categories D*: Inclusive education,* E*: Participatory democracy,* G*: Non discrimination* and H*: Autonomy of higher education should not be used as an excuse for evading responsibilities to wider society, should promote public good* [emphasis added] may reflect the educational policies of Malaysia in the governance of MPIHE.

All 6 keyword or phrase references to Dimension 2: *Academic integrity in teaching and learning* [emphasis added] fall under one category. The 6 references were to the category of *Key values for academic integrity crucial for the delivery of effective teaching and high-quality research* [emphasis added]. This finding suggests that MPIHE see academic

integrity as a holistic concept rather than focussing on the importance of each individual value such as *honesty, trust, fairness, mutual respect* and *responsibility and accountability* [emphasis added] as spelt out in the Bucharest Declaration. This perception of academic integrity as holistic was also not reflected in the literature reviewed.

Similarly, all 6 keyword or phrase references to Dimension 3: *Democratic and ethical governance and management* [emphasis added] fall under one category i.e. *Accountability and responsibility – adopting best practices* [emphasis added]. These references focus only on accountability and responsibility in the management of academic programmes. There were no keyword or phrase references to the other two categories of Dimension 3: *Democracy in decision making and ethical leadership* [emphasis added].

As for Dimensions 2 and 3, there were six keyword or phrase references to the categories of Dimension 4. The distribution and frequency among the five categories are presented in Figure 3.
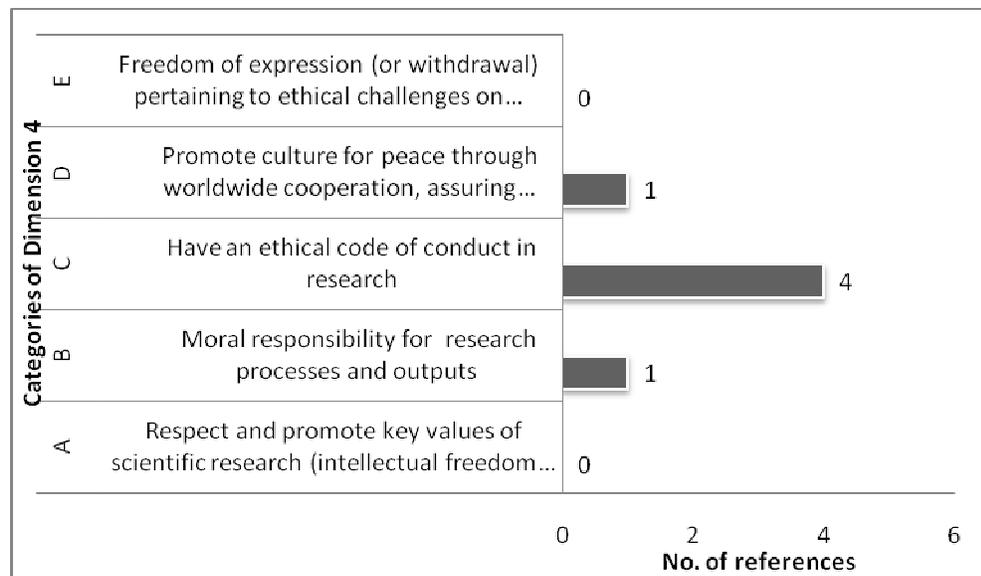
Figure 3: Distribution of references to ethical values and principles within categories of Dimension 4

As can be seen from Figure 3, four of the six references to ethical values and principles appear in category C: *Have an ethical code of conduct in research* [emphasis added]. There was one reference for *Moral responsibility for research processes and outputs* and one for *Promote culture for peace through worldwide cooperation, assuring intellectual and moral solidarity, aiming for the welfare of mankind through sustainable development* [emphasis added]. This finding concurs with Kreber and Mhina's (2007) study in which *research* was a concept under the theme of *truth* which was the second most significant theme in their study [emphasis added]. In the present study, *research* [emphasis added] as

a dimension is not given the same emphasis as academic ethos; however, when it is referenced it is expressed as a code of ethics. Having an ethical code of conduct in research seems important as an ethical value for research. The categories of Dimension 4 which are not found in the mission statements are: category A: *Respect and promote key values of scientific research (intellectual freedom, social responsibility)* [emphasis added] and category E: *Freedom of expression (or withdrawal) pertaining to scientific and ethical challenges on research projects and application of their results* [emphasis added]. Intellectual freedom and freedom of expression are not stated values of research based on academic integrity and social responsiveness.

Although there are keyword or phrase references in 16 of the 17 mission statements, there is one mission statement that does not seem to reflect any ethical content. The mission statement is expressed as *To be a world class technical university* [emphasis added] and does not seem to reflect any ethical content. Although the statement expresses an aspiration of the university, there are no specific references to any ethical values or principles as spelt out in the Bucharest Declaration. However it does not negate the possibility that the university has expressions of ethical values in other internal documents.

The literature shows that religious *affiliation* (Morphew & Hartley, 2006), *spiritual development* (Stemler & Bebell, 1999) and *education with a faith response* (Berleur, 1996) [emphasis added] are significant values in mission statements of institutions of higher education. This study found a similar inclination towards values and principles aligned with religious affiliations but they were specific to Islam, for example:

- with the view to making them more useful and more relevant to the Muslim Ummah [community of Muslim believers] for the well-being and harmony of society and Islam

Additionally, the data also showed that there are values and principles directed at specific groups, such as:

- to enhance the knowledge and expertise of Bumiputera [Malays and certain indigenous groups in Malaysia] in all fields of study ....

These values are not a precise fit within the categories of the four dimensions of the Bucharest Declaration by virtue of the fact that the values are directed at specific groups. However, these references can be considered ethical values and principles of Dimension 1: *Academic ethos, culture and community* [emphasis added] because of the values inherent in the references.

In order to determine whether the mission statements of MPIHE have articulated all 4 ethical dimensions of the Bucharest Declaration, it was necessary to establish the number and type of dimensions that the mission statement of each university reflected in their keyword or phrase references.

The total number of dimensions to which references were made for each university is presented in Figure 4. Not all the institutions have references to all four dimensions in their mission statements. Three have articulated explicitly their commitment to their ethical role in all the four dimensions (UIAM, USM, UTHM). Two institutions make references to three dimensions (UMT, UiTM). Three institutions express ethical values of two dimensions (UM, UTeM, UUM). Eight have references to only one dimension (UKM, UniMAP, UMS, UNIMAS, UPSI, UPM, USIM and UTM). One institution does not have any reference to any dimension (UMP).
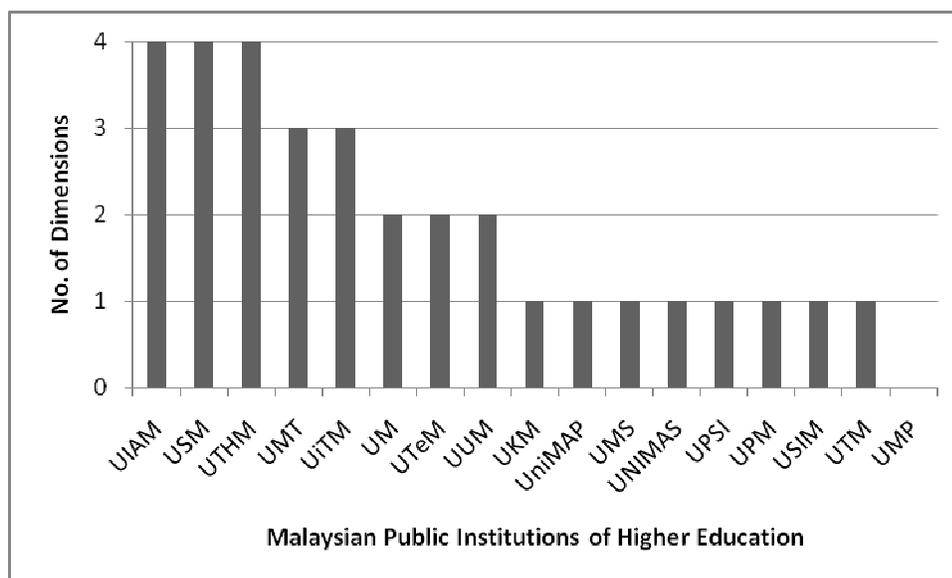
Figure 4: Total number of dimensions referred to for each MPIHE

The number of mission statements which referred to each dimension is shown in Table 2. Out of a total of 17 mission statements, 16 express references to Dimension 1, five have references to Dimension 2, six to Dimension 3 and five to the Dimension 4.

Table 2: Distribution of Dimensions 1, 2, 3 and 4 across MPIHE

Dimensio	UIAM	UKM	UM	UMP	UniMAP	UMS	UNIMAS	UMT	UPSI	UPM	USIM	USM	UTeM	UTM	UiTM	UTHM	UUM	TOTAL
1	√	√	√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	16
2	√											√			√	√	√	5
3	√		√				√					√	√			√		6
4	√						√					√			√	√		5

Based on the findings it can be seen that MPIHE are aware of and committed to their role in Dimension 1: *Academic ethos, culture and community* [emphasis added]. One third of the mission statements have articulated an awareness of and commitment to at least one other dimension i.e. either Dimension 2, 3 or 4. Although it is probable that the values are not explicitly stated in the mission statements of some MPIHE, they may be found in other descriptions of the institution's goals such as the institutional charters, codes of academic conduct and other institutional documents. However, as only three out of 17 MPIHE mission statements in this study have references to all four dimensions called for in the Bucharest Declaration, this suggests that most MPIHE do not reflect an awareness or commitment to their ethical vocation in their mission statements.

Conclusions

Mission statements are the most common means through which institutions of higher education communicate their organizational purpose, vision and values and are an essential component of forward-looking institutions. While other internal documentation may articulate an institution's purpose, vision and values, it is the mission statement that offers the most succinct summary of an institution's mission and future direction.

The mission statements for this study were drawn from Malaysian public universities which come under the purview of the MMOHE and would necessarily be aligned with its mission which is "to develop and strengthen the higher educational institutions that produce individuals who are competitive and innovative with high moral values to meet the nation's aspirations" (Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia).

There is an overall awareness of and commitment to academic ethos, culture and community meaning that Malaysian public universities are congruent with the MMOHE's mission that Malaysian universities be premier knowledge centres. The focus of the universities within this particular area is active citizenship wherein they see their role as public universities *vis- a- vis* the community. Knowledge advancement although articulated as important is seen as a means, secondary to service to the nation in the form of active citizenship. Malaysian public universities perceive their primary role as preparing students to meet the needs of the country in line with the aspirations of a developing nation.

The Bucharest Declaration however, calls for universities to recognize that the ethical stance of a university must permeate all aspects of the work of a university as reflected in the four dimensions spelt out in the declaration. The ethical role of the university is not limited only to outcome but also to its own identity. Only three universities in this study expressed awareness and commitment to all four dimensions in their mission statements suggesting they recognize that an institution's effectiveness and ethical responsibility is built on incorporating ethical values and principles in all aspects of institutional practice. This underscores a lack of awareness or articulation of the commitment of the other universities to the ethical vocation of institutions of higher education in areas of teaching and learning, governance and research and social responsiveness. The findings of this

study show that as Malaysian public universities evolve in the 21st century, there is a need to revisit and re-evaluate their mission and articulate their commitment and accountability to ethical practices in all dimensions of the vocation of an institution of higher education in their mission statements which are public statements of their identity and mission.

Suggestions for further research

The findings from this investigation of the mission statements of MPIHE have shown that the majority of these institutions emphasize the need to provide service to the nation for the greater good. This finding does not come as a surprise given the fact that the institutions studied are all publicly funded. On the other hand, the stakeholders of private higher education institutions are from the private sector which may adopt more business-oriented practices in the provision of higher education. Therefore, it remains to be seen whether these private institutions share a common agenda with the MPIHE or whether they have a different agenda altogether. A comparison of the mission statements of these institutions against those of the MPIHE would therefore be worth exploring.

Equally important would be a study on how these institutions, both public and private, actualize their mission statements. In other words, to what extent do institutions practice what they claim in their mission statements for instance in areas like teaching and research? What kinds of practices or operating procedures do institutions adopt in order to ensure commitment to their mission statements is not only actualized but also maintained?

The above issues are pertinent and therefore should be explored given that institutions of higher education, both public and private, are evolving in the face of globalization. It is further hoped that this initial study of the mission statements of MPIHE will lead to explorations of mission statements of other Southeast Asian and /or ASEAN universities, as the benchmarking of the mission statements of these universities against the Bucharest Declaration will serve to throw light on where education missions in this part of the world stand vis a vis the standards set by UNESCO for higher education institutions in Europe.

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The Degree of Government Intervention in Jordanian Public Universities' Affairs from the Point of View of Jordanian Experts in Higher Education

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to identify the degree of interference of Jordanian government in public universities' affairs in particular topics. The study addresses the following question**:** To what extent does Jordanian Government actually exercise influence in Jordanian public universities' affairs in the topics of academic and administrative staff, students, curriculum and teaching, academic standards, research and publication, governance, and administration and finance. A purposive sample of (66) Jordanian experts in higher education was the number who responded from (105) experts represent the population. The results of the survey revealed that none of the respondents considered the government intervention "Excessive in the extreme", and most of the study respondents range between the judgment of "Slightly excessive" and "Not unreasonable". The highest degree of interference of the Jordanian government in the study topics was in the "Administrative and Finance" topic with an average degree of 36 per cent of the maximum possible, while the highest issue in the study which frequently received positive response was the "Appointment of president" with the average rating of 85 per cent of the respondents, followed by the "Dismissal of the president" with average rating of 77 per cent. Some recommendations are suggested included future research based on the study limitations.

Introduction

Universities are supposed to be the one place in the world protected from political interference. Although this subject has been of much concern everywhere, there is nevertheless a lot of governmental interference in many aspects of a university's operation all over the world if to different degrees. Higher education institutions everywhere must be accountable, but at the same time, must have reasonable insulation from the government so scholars can work without worry or interference (Anderson & Johnson, 1998).

The purpose of this study is to identify the degree of interference by the Jordanian government in the country's public universities. The emphasis will be in particular on the extent of interference of the government in these higher education institutions' operations. The governance arrangements within the institutions is not targeted except insofar as these are connected with government/ institution relations. This study intends to detect the extent to which these universities are subjected to government interference in the specific areas selected. In other words, the study will try to detect the degree of autonomy of public universities in Jordan.

In Jordan, higher education is no longer regarded as an end in itself but as a means to economic growth. The policy is based on the human capital theory. In order to serve the country's economic policy, policy makers need to modernize the higher education system (Pechar, 2004). At the same time they are convinced that education and research have a high collective return on investment in addition to individual returns (Luce, 2004).

It is believed that the "autonomy" of Jordanian institutions needs to be clarified. The government has not yet established a transparent formula on, for instance, how to allocate public funds to universities, nor to select leaders or to decide on financial resources.

Many questions have been asked, especially nowadays. The typical questions are:

- Do public universities in Jordan have the freedom to run its own affairs without direction or interference from any level of government?
- Do public universities in Jordan honor their academic staff's rights to decide what to teach, what to research and to publish the results of that research?
- To what extent do government actually exercise influence in the study programmes, whether legally empowered to intervene or not?

Autonomy means being able to undertake activities without seeking permission from a controlling body (Harvey, 2004). It is often defined as one of the core values of the

Western universities' tradition, consisting of the freedom from state interference in the university's internal affairs (Hayhoe, and Zhong, 1997).

In higher education, autonomous institutions can establish their own programmes of study, have control over their own finances (once received) subject to normal auditing procedures, and grant their own degrees. However, it is argued here that the existing autonomy is only relative, rather than absolute.

Generally, the mission of a university is twofold. It must be both "responsible" and "responsive".   The former involves the long view of the university's mission and society's needs, while the latter addresses the immediate strategies for meeting the short-term economic and social requirements of the community. The intertwining of academia and officialdom is often perceived as a threat to university autonomy (Pan, 2007).

The definition of autonomy entails the freedom of a university to determine for itself on academic grounds only who should teach, what should be taught, how it should be taught and who should be admitted as students. Although this definition has later been found to be narrow, it still remains a useful guideline in demarcating the limits of legitimate autonomy. The limits of this autonomy are important, because some people have problems as to how an institution that is subsidised by the government can claim to be autonomous from the government. Is it not true that he who pays the piper calls the tune, they ask? (Luc, 2000).

In the reply adopted by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe on 26 September 2007 at the 1005th meeting of the Ministers' Deputies, it was decided that "the Committee of Ministers believes that academic freedom and university autonomy are among the indicators which measure how democratic a society is. It will continue, therefore, to pay particular attention to the implementation of these principles."

In the Academic Careers Observatory Conference in San Domenica (Weber, 2008) argued that in order to improve research and educational performance, universities should be given sufficient institutional autonomy – this includes financial and managerial autonomy, academic and scientific autonomy as well as organizational and staffing autonomy – and that the academic market should be open and competitive. It was explained in the conference that such claims raise many questions. For example, how do higher education systems differ in respect of their degree of autonomy and competition? Do differences in autonomy translate into differences in performance? How important are different forms of autonomy? How should public university academic contracts be determined? Which universities are successful examples of 'university autonomy'? How should 'autonomous public universities' be made accountable? Which policy reforms should be implemented in order to make universities competitive in a globalized academic market? Why is it so difficult to implement some of these policies? The conference focused on these issues with a special emphasis on the potential - and the limitations - of university autonomy to open-up and enhance academic careers in Europe, in the context of an increasingly organized academic market.

Snyder (2002) says that autonomy is always relative. What colleges and universities should seek… is reasonable, not absolute autonomy. He also says that total autonomy, total independence and separation from society, is simply impossible. He adds that the degree of an institution's autonomy varies according the nature of its relationships. Perhaps, then, it is most useful to think of multiple autonomies or degrees of autonomy.

This was what Stevenson (2004) tried to assure when he said that he believes that in all universities around the world we are all dealing with very important issues of how to strike the proper balance between universities and governments. It is intended to strike the proper balance between the autonomy of universities and the reasonable accountability of universities for the public funds that sustain much of their activity. Stevenson thinks that the problem of autonomy for the university is the intrusion by government that has less and less money to regulate outputs in its interest. From the other side, university accountability, in one sense, is an obvious and moral obligation of any institution which is heavily subsidized by public funds. In principle, there should be no objection to accountability. The problem is the way in which government handles the moral expectation that accountability entails. Government will intrude, or not intrude depending on how well the universities themselves establish internal accountability measures and frameworks.

In the Magna Charta Universitatum (1998): it was decided that "The university is autonomous institution at the heart of societies, and it will not become innovative and responsive to change unless it is given real autonomy". But at the same time, universities should accept full institutional accountability to society at large for their results."

Luc (2006) explained that the best universities according to recent rankings are very autonomous. It is important to decide that the emphasis is on the relationships between the government and the higher education institutions – in particular the extent of government influence on university operations. To investigate that in any country, some questions should be answered such as:

- What is the extent of government influence on university operations - university autonomy?
- Have the government a legal authority to intervene in a number of aspects of university management?
- To what extent do governments actually exercise influence in these aspects, whether legally empowered to intervene or not?
- What are the salient features of governance of higher education systems?

In any case, we must agree on the fact that the relation of a government to its universities is not static (Anderson and Johnson, 1998). In the last decade or so, there have been considerable changes and turbulence in higher education in many countries, most of which was to reform design that gradually transfers authority from government to institutions. They stated:

"The relation of a government to its universities is not static—a fact mentioned by most of our respondents. In the last decade or so there has been considerable change and turbulence in higher education in many countries. For example: Sweden has just completed far-reaching reforms designed to devolve authority from government to institutions; and the Danish government has been intervening with the objective of reducing the length of courses and time taken to graduate. Italy has recently granted budget autonomy and further legislation is being implemented giving institutions increased scope for taking decisions; and discussions are taking place over 'who owns the curriculum, government or universities or some intermediate agency'. Germany is amending the federal government's framework act for higher education which will lead to numerous changes that will have to be implemented by the states (Lander). The United Kingdom is in the middle of implementing the Dearing Committee recommendations, a number of which involve government initiatives. Australia and New Zealand are emerging from long periods of 'reform' in which governments have introduced 'user pays' and are exposing institutions to competitive market forces."

As Thorsten Nybom reminds us: one of the foremost challenges has been to deal with the following question: "How is it possible to construct and then secure the necessary autonomous institutional order, or framework, to modern science and the pursuit of qualified knowledge and, at the same time, prevent it from being corrupted or even destroyed by other mighty and legitimate forces in society such as politics, economy, and religion?" (Nybom, 2003). There is of course, no simple answer to such a question, but rather the forces in society battle this out. The battleground today can be seen as a conflict between those with an idea of higher education as a social institution and those who view higher education as an industry institution.

Previous Studies

In Their project entitled **"University Autonomy in Twenty Countries"** funded under the Evaluation and Investigations Program of the Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs in the Australian National University, Anderson and Johnson (1998) explained that their project used experts' perceptions to describe and compare the salient features of the governance of the higher education systems in a range of twenty countries relevant to Australia's situation organized in three groups. The emphasis was on the relationships between the government and higher education institutions—in particular the extent of government influence on university operations.

The study asked two questions: whether governments have legal authority to intervene in a number of aspects of university management, and the extent to which governments actually exercise influence in these aspects, whether legally empowered to intervene or not.

They found, as reported, that the Anglo-American group governments have less authority to intervene in university affairs and to be less inclined to exert influence. The European group occupies a middle position ahead of the Asian group. There are exceptions, however, particularly with respect to actual government influence.

In a discussion paper for the Commonwealth Higher Education Management Service (CHEMS) Richardson & Fielden (1997) conducted a study somewhat similar to the previous study amongst 22 universities in the Commonwealth countries and published their report. The report contains the results of a questionnaire distributed to 70 Commonwealth universities asking the views of some experts of higher education about governments' intervention in university affairs. The results were reported region by region along a continuum from "high degree of autonomy" to "government control". On this continuum the Caribbean countries come out as least intrusive, Canada next, then Britain and Australia; New Zealand is slightly more intrusive; then the African countries by a significant margin; then the Asian Commonwealth countries by an equal margin.

A case study of Tsinghua University, one of China's most influential universities, which has special national significance and strong political ties to the state, was conducted on 2007. The paper of (Pan, 2007) gives an interpretive understanding of how the intertwined relationship between academia and officialdom has acted as a double-edged sword in shaping the University's autonomy. It shows an interesting interplay between the university and the state, revealing the mechanisms of the state's control over the university, and the strategies adopted by the university to gain relative freedom. The article concludes by explaining how, in the context of China, an individual university can contend with the state's power to strive for its own autonomy.

This case study has showed that, despite working in different political and economic contexts, the influence of the university leadership's relationship with governmental officials generally helped Tsinghua break the restrictions of state policy and increased its right to make its own policy in pursuit of its own goals. Tsinghua's success suggests that the university can affect the government and gain relative freedom to make decisions in such situations. First, the university was willing to increase academic competence in domestic higher education. Second, the university had the capacity to help national economic development. Third, human relations between the university leadership and government officials created an opportunity for the university to affect the government's policy-making. Through Tsinghua's striving for autonomy, an interesting strategic interplay between the state and the university can be revealed. However, this paper showed that Chinese higher education institutions are not separate from the state, but are an integrated part of the national modernization project. The state controls the university through its control over the university leaderships' careers. To gain more autonomy than the state initially granted, the university cannot simply fight with the government, but needs to adopt strategies to play safely.

In his paper on 5-6th June, Browne (2008) stated these conclusions:

• University Autonomy is **necessary** in a complex fast changing world.

- University Autonomy **requires statutory support** and is best facilitated by a bicameral governance system.
- University Autonomy must be coupled with **adequate and transparent accountability systems**.
- The Autonomy – Accountability model is embedded in the governance and academic structures.

Marton (2006) provided an interesting case-study for trying to understand changes in university autonomy in Sweden and how academics and university leaders perceive these changes. The material for this case study was based primarily on long interviews with open-ended questions with academics and academic managers at universities throughout Sweden. In total, 65 interviews were conducted during the fall of 2003 and winter of 2004. The findings from the Swedish case study evidence that the "science-society contract" to protect university autonomy is under threat. He concluded that the challenge for Swedish universities in the future will be how to preserve an appropriate level of autonomy in a "modern" university system.

Methodology

For this study the researcher adopted one part of a questionnaire used by Anderson and Johnson (1998) from the Centre for Continuing Education in the Australian National University in their study "University Autonomy in Twenty Countries". In the first part of the study, they tried to distinguish between legal power and actual influence irrespective of legal power by asking, whether the government has the legal power to intervene in the university affairs in these twenty countries. In the second part, they asked whether the government in fact does exert significant influence in the affairs of these universities. This second question was the main question for the current study. To answer this question, seven main topics were surveyed and, within these, a total of 50 issues in the form of questions were used. These topics are: Academic and administrative staff, students, curriculum and teaching, academic standards, research and publication, governance, and administration and finance. After considering the 50 issues, respondents were asked at the end of the questionnaire to evaluate autonomy of the Jordanian public universities from the government intervention by responding to the statement:

> Given the mission of universities in Jordan, do you think that government intervention is: (1) Excessive in the extreme; (2) Somewhat excessive; (3) Slightly excessive; (4) Not unreasonable; (5) Insufficient?

The sample of this study was the Jordanian experts in higher education whom the researcher sought out to be knowledgeable of the government–institution relations and preferably with international experience in the year 2009. The researcher, as Anderson and Johnson said, do not pretend that all experts would agree on all of the issues, or indeed that the statement of issues is unambiguous or independent of circumstances that may be interpreted differently by different respondents. Reliability and stability of the original instrument were examined and were very high. The sample number was (105)

experts from which only (66) responded after a four months effort exerted to distribute and collect the survey.

Results

To rate the overall judgment of the sample about the degree of intervention of government in Jordanian Public Universities affairs, or in other words their autonomy, as a subjective judgment, the results of the survey revealed that none of the respondents considered the government intervention "Excessive in the extreme".

This is similar to the result of the original study of by Anderson and Johnson.   6.1% answered that it is "Somewhat excessive", 42.4% answered "Slightly excessive" which was the highest percentage followed by the modal "Not unreasonable" with 39.4% and finally the modal "Insufficient" with 12.1%.   In the original study, 80% of the respondents answered "Not unreasonable".   It seems that most of the current study respondents range between the judgment of "Slightly excessive" and "Not unreasonable". These results of the overall question were somehow different than the results of the twenty countries that Anderson and Johnson studied. The results of the overall judgment of the Jordanian experts compared with that of the original study are shown in (Table 1).

For the seven topics' issues of the study, respondents were asked to rate the 50 issues with respect to the extent that government does exert significant influence. Ratings could be "never = 0"; "only rarely =1; "from time to time = 2; and "often =3". Table 2 shows the ratings of experts in Jordanian higher   education administration for each topic expressed as a percentage of the total possible score (all 3s) for that topic. For example on the student topic there are 5 issues, so the range of possible scores is 0 to 15.

Table 1
The overall survey topics' judgment on the degree of "how much the government exerts significant influence" in Jordanian higher education affairs compared with the twenty countries

No.	Rate	Jordan %	20 countries %
1.	Excessive in the extreme	0%	0%
2.	Somewhat excessive	6.1%	Not mentioned
3.	Slightly excessive	42.4%	Not mentioned
4.	Not unreasonable	39.4%	80%
5.	Insufficient	12.1%	0%

Experts' ratings for the total of the five issues were 23 per cent of 15. After that the scores for all the issues within each topic were summed and expressed as percent of the total possible for each topic.

Results are shown in Table 2 where we can see that the highest degree of interference of the Jordanian government in the study topics was in the "Administrative and Finance" topic only to an average degree of 36 per cent of the maximum possible. The highest issue in the study which frequently received positive response was the "Appointment of president" with the average rating of 85 per cent of the respondents, followed by the "Dismissal of the president" with average rating of 77 per cent. Both issues are of the "Academic and Administrative" topic. The issue in the third place was the "Accreditation of institutions" from the topic of "Academic standards" with an average rating of 56 per cent of the respondents.

Table 2
The degree of government intervention in Jordanian Public Universities' affairs in respect of the 50 issues included in the 7 topics of the survey from the point of view of Jordanian experts in higher education

[Please see Table 2 on the next page]

N o.	Figure	Never		Only rarely		From time to time		Often		Each Topic %
		No.	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	%
A.	**Academic and Administrative Staff**									**24**
1	Appointment of president	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**9**	**14**	**56**	**85**	
2	Dismissal of president	**1**	**2**	**3**	**5**	**11**	**17**	**51**	**77**	
3	Appointment of professors	**7**	**11**	**31**	**47**	**25**	**38**	**3**	**0**	
4	Dismissal of professors	**12**	**18**	**42**	**64**	**11**	**17**	**1**	**2**	
5	Appointment of other academic staff	**13**	**20**	**33**	**50**	**19**	**29**	**1**	**2**	
6	Termination or discipline of academic staff	**14**	**21**	**39**	**59**	**13**	**20**	**0**	**0**	
7	Academic tenure	**48**	**73**	**17**	**26**	**1**	**2**	**0**	**0**	
8	Appointment or dismissal general staff	**16**	**24**	**36**	**55**	**13**	**20**	**1**	**2**	
9	Academic pay and conditions	**34**	**52**	**17**	**26**	**9**	**14**	**6**	**9**	
B.	**Students**									**23**
10	Entry standards	**13**	**20**	**12**	**18**	**21**	**32**	**20**	**30**	
11	Methods for selection and admission of students	**7**	**11**	**8**	**12**	**25**	**38**	**26**	**39**	
12	Quotas for minority groups	**2**	**3**	**8**	**12**	**25**	**38**	**31**	**47**	
13	Pass and failure rates	**45**	**68**	**15**	**23**	**3**	**5**	**3**	**5**	
14	Discipline of students	**19**	**29**	**24**	**36**	**18**	**27**	**5**	**8**	
C.	**Curriculum and Teaching**									**9**
15	Methods of teaching	**53**	**80**	**10**	**15**	**3**	**5**	**0**	**0**	
16	Methods of examination	**54**	**82**	**11**	**17**	**1**	**1.5**	**0**	**0**	
17	Language of instruction	**34**	**52**	**22**	**33**	**9**	**14**	**1**	**2**	
18	Introduction of new teaching fields	**15**	**23**	**29**	**44**	**17**	**26**	**5**	**8**	
19	Termination of teaching fields	**22**	**33**	**24**	**36**	**16**	**24**	**4**	**6**	
20	Curriculum within fields	**32**	**48**	**19**	**29**	**15**	**23**	**0**	**0**	
21	Selection of text books	**45**	**68**	**17**	**26**	**4**	**6**	**0**	**0**	
D.	**Academic standards**									**29**
22	Entry standards of students	**16**	**24**	**11**	**17**	**18**	**27**	**21**	**32**	
23	Graduation standards	**35**	**53**	**17**	**26**	**7**	**11**	**7**	**11**	
24	Srandards in particular subjects	**28**	**42**	**25**	**38**	**11**	**17**	**2**	**3**	
25	Quality audits	**18**	**27**	**22**	**33**	**18**	**27**	**8**	**12**	
26	Accreditation of institutions	**6**	**9**	**11**	**17**	**12**	**18**	**37**	**56**	
27	Accreditation of courses	**14**	**21**	**18**	**27**	**17**	**26**	**17**	**26**	
E.	**Research and Publicaton**									**21**
28	Whether a university may teach at postgraduate research level	**17**	**26**	**31**	**47**	**14**	**21**	**4**	**6**	
29	Research priorities	**25**	**38**	**17**	**26**	**18**	**27**	**6**	**9**	

30	Particular research topics	25	38	20	30	21	32	0	0	
31	Approval of publications	31	47	26	39	6	9	3	5	
32	Restrictions on public statements by academic staff	5	23	29	44	20	30	2	3	
F.	**Governance**									**24**
33	Membership of the governing councils of institutions	5	8	21	32	23	35	17	26	
34	Control of governing councils	7	11	23	35	29	44	7	11	
35	Membership of academic boards	27	41	24	36	12	18	3	5	
36	Control of academic boards	27	41	24	36	12	18	3	5	
37	Control of student associations	26	39	26	39	12	18	2	3	
G.	**Administration and Finance**									**36**
38	Student numbers	10	15	15	23	32	48	O	0	
39	Student numbers in particular fields	15	23	13	20	17	26	21	32	
40	Closure or amalgamation of institutions	8	12	12	18	35	53	11	17	
41	Titles of awards	26	39	31	47	9	14	0	0	
42	Length of courses	46	70	12	18	6	9	2	3	
43	Duration of the academic year	37	56	13	20	10	15	6	9	
44	University rules and regulations	12	18	26	39	22	33	6	9	
45	Financial audit	12	18	20	30	19	29	15	23	
46	University budget	7	11	15	23	23	35	21	32	
47	Approval of commercial or money making ventures	13	20	23	35	21	32	9	14	
48	Approval of major capital expenditure	18	27	20	30	17	26	11	17	
49	Level of tuition fees	8	12	17	26	20	30	21	32	
50	Financial aid to students	7	11	28	42	19	29	12	18	
	 									
Total weight of all topics										**166**

Table 3 shows the results of the study topics' rating for the Jordanian public universities compared with what Anderson and Johnson found in their study about the twenty countries (Results of Jordan are on the first line of the table).

Table 3
Government does exert significant influence: Sum of ratings of the study as a per cent of total possible rating for each topic compared by Anderson and Johnson study results (20 countries) beginning by Jordan

C Country	Staff	Stud	C&T	Stand	R&Pu	Gov	A&F	Total	%
Jordan	**24**	**23**	**9**	**29**	**21**	**24**	**36**	**166**	**24**
Australia	16	45	20	34	40	37	52	244	35
Canada	16	20	20	10	25	20	38	149	21
Chile	37	53	33	83	60	27	62	355	51
France	41	30	35	60	51	20	62	299	43
Germany	37	35	20	18	20	16	42	188	27
Indonesia	45	50	40	50	33	48	77	343	49
Ireland	12	7	10	18	33	34	35	149	21
Italy	15	47	14	44	33	35	72	260	37
Japan	19	20	33	18	20	14	65	189	27
Malaysia	52	20	14	28	67	33	50	264	38
Netherlands	19	40	29	28	20	20	69	225	32
New Zealand	15	40	20	49	20	13	46	203	29
Russia	7	27	38	64	33	38	51	258	37
Singapore	32	67	38	100	40	39	59	375	54
South Africa	7	36	34	72	47	37	36	269	38
Sri Lanka	37	59	23	39	25	37	51	271	38
Sweden	7	47	10	61	33	25	54	237	34
Thailand	33	45	10	50	12	17	37	204	29
United Kingdom	15	5	18	13	7	13	33	104	15
United States	30	17	11	27	15	51	36	187	27

Staff = Academic and Administrative Staff; Stud = students; C&T = **Curriculum and Teaching; Stan** = Academic standards; **R & Pu = Research and Publication; Gov = Governance; A& F** = Administration and Finance.

Table 3 shows that the topic of "Administration and finance" was the highest among the seven topics since the Jordanian government interference was in an average rating of 36 per cent of the maximum possible according to the study scale. Next was "Academic Standards" with an average of 29 percent of the maximum possible, followed by the topic of "Academic and Administrative Staff" and the topic of "Governance" with an average of 24 per cent of the maximum possible for each. In the fifth place comes the topic of "Students" with average rating of 23 per cent, followed by the "Research and Publication" topic in the sixth place with 21 per cent average rating, and finally the topic of "Curriculum and Teaching" in the seventh place with an average rating of 9 percent of the maximum possible. In the original study, the highest rating of topics was also for the

same topic "Administration and finance" in a range of 50 per cent for the twenty countries, while in a range of 69 for Netherlands (the highest) and 33 for United Kingdom (the lowest).

Table 4
Rank order of the survey topics on "Government does exert significant influence" in "Jordan" and the "Twenty Countries"

Name of Topic	Rank Order in Jordan	Rank Order in the Twenty Countries
Administration and Finance	1 high	1
Academic Standards	2	2
Academic and Administrative Staff	3	7
Governance	3	5
Students	5	3
Research and Publication	6	4
Curriculum and Teaching	7 low	6

These three countries are The United Kingdom, Canada and Ireland, while it is less in total score on exert of influence than the other 17 countries. According to the original study scale, the result gained from the current study shows a relatively low influence which is almost close to the result of six countries of the twenty, while seven of them considered with medium influence and the other seven with high influence. It seems that the total score of influence that the Jordanian government exerts is higher than only three of the twenty countries in the original study. Table (4) shows the rank order of the survey topics on "Government does exert significant influence" in "Jordan" and the "Twenty Countries".

Conclusion

The study sample rated the Jordanian government interference in the public universities' affairs similar to the other scientific scales in some of the intended topics, while different in others.   Topics in the study which received the highest average ratings are "Administration and finance" and "Academic Standards". This is not unexpected since public universities in Jordan have no financial source except students' tuition in addition to funds from the government.

Nowadays, these universities began to increase tuition in order to decrease its dependence on the government. This decision however was received with resentment by most people.   It is hardly surprising that conflict about the level of public funding for the public universities continue to be one of the dominant higher education policy issues in Jordan.   The topics that received intermediate average ratings are "Academic and Administrative Staff", "Governance", "Students", "Research and Publication", while the topic with the lowest ratings is "Curriculum and Teaching".

Within the study, the highest frequently received positive response was the "Appointment of the President" followed by the "Dismissal of the President".   Both issues are categorized under the "Academic and Administrative" topic.

This result is not surprising since appointments and removals of university Presidents in Jordan occurred frequently at the whim of the Ministers of Higher Education over time. It is also not surprising as the higher education system in Jordan is undergoing reforms. The new Act of higher education that gives the university's Board of Trustees the right and power of appointment and dismissal of the university president, may change this result in the future. The academics see this as a success although it is too early to see the results of its implementation. It is also too early to say as the university's Board of Trustees itself have not had the chance yet to prove its capacity and ability of making decisions without direct or indirect governmental influence.

Results of the " Curriculum and Teaching" topic with its overall lowest rating indicates that universities in Jordan can already determine for itself academic-related matters only such as, who should teach, what should be taught and how it should be taught.

 Despite the overall result of this study which revealed a low interference by the government in the university affairs, academics are convinced that there is much more interference than shown by this result.   Their answers to the open-ended questions revealed their perception that there is in fact a higher level of intervention than actually happens.

It is recommended that future research might be conducted on the extent to which the Boards of Trustees in Jordanian public universities are able to exercise and implement the new laws of higher education governance on their own.   Financial allocations, financial and managerial autonomy of these universities might be subjects of other studies and research in the future.

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Instructors' Perceptions of the Efficacy of Cooperative Language Learning in Tertiary ESL Classes

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Abstract

This study investigated the use of Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) in English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom at an institution of higher learning. It took a closer look at the importance and efficacy of CLL strategies in teaching writing skills as perceived by instructors with regard to their expectations of student performance. Mixed-design approach was employed via questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The results indicated a favourable view of CLL as tertiary instructional approach as it engenders a risk-free environment that promotes language learning. Conversely, CLL is perceived to be time-consuming and tedious which add to an already heavy teaching load. Formal training in CLL is desired to make a distinction between its application and the group work assigned to students. This paper concludes that CLL has much potential in higher education and is an adept pedagogical approach in providing invaluable insights into meaningful ESL at higher learning.

Introduction

It is acknowledged that learning, particularly language learning is a social enterprise and the true direction of the development of thinking is from the social to the individual (Vygotsky, 1978). It is believed that language learning approaches which incorporate all learning modalities can enhance learning (Hirst & Slavik, 2005; Lim, 2002). Following this line of thought, Cooperative Language Learning (henceforth CLL) is acknowledged as a set of pedagogical practices in which students are grouped and encouraged to work together to facilitate active participation in discussing different perspectives on a common topic (Chapman, Meuter, Toy & Wright, 2006; Hirst & Slavik, 2005; Johnson &

Johnson, 1999). CLL works on several key concepts which are positive interdependence, face-to-face promotive interactions, group processing, social skills and individual accountability. It is believed that when students in a group pool their efforts to achieve a common goal, mutual dependency will motivate them to contribute for the benefit of the group. CLL is thus, espoused to provide students with many opportunities to interact and learn from peers (Chen, 2004; Johnson & Johnson, 1997; Coelho, 1992). Besides, CLL also creates meaningful interaction among learners which helps accelerate language learning (Chen, 2004). The acceptance and encouragement of the peer group provides ESL learners with many opportunities for student-directed talk, a more stimulating environment for group involvement, and a sense of community (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002). This student-centred approach thus enables students to have better control over their learning, resulting in increased comprehension. Several studies, namely by Kreie, Headrick and Steiner (2007), Mason (2006), Nason and Woodruff (2004) and Iwai (2004) have reported that CLL provides confidence, self-esteem, enhanced social skills and a sense of 'We' instead of 'Me' among students with limited language proficiency.

Language acquisition is challenging, to say the least. Out of the four basic language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), writing is often regarded (by instructors and students alike) as the most difficult and tedious skill to teach, learn and acquire (Kim & Kim, 2005). Writing tasks in ESL classes often require personal reactions rather than text responsible responses where students are required to pen down what they have grasped (Hayes, 1996; Leki & Carson, 1994). There is, therefore, a pertinent need for effective writing skills in the English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms. Lim (2002) has argued that CLL has a positive impact on ESL students as it serves the diverse needs of students; giving them opportunities to redefine their goals, re-plan and revise their text and also to review the writing of other learners. Such processes provide learners with opportunities to learn from each other (Kim & Kim, 2005; Hayes, 1996). It may be argued that once these skills are mastered, the process is internalised and learners become more independent at all levels of learning.

Resistance to Process Writing

Much depends on the role of the instructor whose approach and beliefs are formed by his / her experience in the classroom, the institutional climate and the diversity of institutional population that prevails. As such, instructors need to develop personal ideas about teaching and adapt appropriate methods for use in the classroom. Although research from various perspectives has suggested the combined benefits of CLL and process writing, literature on teaching writing in Asian settings indicates that both students and instructors often resist using a process-based approach in favour of a more traditional teacher-centred approach because it is generally believed among language programme administrators, language instructors and students that the process writing approach is inappropriate for the Asian setting (Jones, 1995). Contrary to this general perception, however, the process-oriented approach has been widely adopted as an effective way to teach academic writing to both native and ESL learners (Kim & Kim, 2005). While empirical evidence supports the use of CLL with a variety of subject areas and age groups, the extent to which this approach is used and perceived as beneficial by

tertiary English language instructors in a mono-ethnic institution of higher learning is not known. Hence, the present study sought the views of instructors on the importance, use and the effectiveness of CLL strategies in their higher learning ESL writing classes.

Research Questions

The present research employed a combination of process writing and CLL (group writing) which are argued to promote a more effective language learning process in the ESL writing classroom. As both, the CLL and process writing approaches provide multiple opportunities for students to interact and assist each other, the combined use of these approaches can serve to overcome feelings of helplessness and anxiety among ESL learners. The combination of the two models promotes positive social interactions (Johnson & Johnson, 1991) which can enhance their university learning experiences. As such, this research attempted to answer the following questions.

1.   What views do tertiary-level ESL instructors have about the importance and usefulness of CLL strategies in writing?
2.   How do tertiary-level ESL instructors feel about the attitude of students when employing CLL strategies in writing?

Scope of the Study

The CLL skills observed in this study included positive interdependence, face-to-face promotive interaction, individual accountability, social skills and group processing (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Positive interdependence denotes "we" instead of "me". In such situations, the group members have two responsibilities concurrently: to maximise their own productivity as well as that of the other members of the group.

Limitations of the Study

The study was conducted with a sample size of 26 ESL instructors at one mono-ethnic institution of higher learning. It is acknowledged that the perception of instructors at one particular institution may vary from perceptions of instructors at other institutions, hence does not reflect ESL instructors' perceptions, in general. The small sample size (n=26) too does not make allowance for any generalisations to the general population of ESL instructors in Malaysia or anywhere else.

Another limitation is that the study seeks opinions and perceptions of instructors alone, and does not probe the attitudes of learners towards CLL as reported by learners themselves. This is seen as a limitation of the study as it provides data on the efficacy of CLL from the instructors' perspective per se. Students' attitudes are measured based on the instructors' viewpoints and does not take into account the viewpoints recorded by the students, as the direct recipients of the pedagogical approach.

Methodology

A case study approach was chosen for this study. In this context, qualitative method included interviews with seven ESL instructors while a set of questionnaire was adapted from Rondinaro (2004) to elicit information from 26 ESL instructors at the survey site – a public institution of higher learning in Malaysia, i.e., Universiti Teknologi MARA Malaysia (Melaka Campus). The questionnaire consisted of 15 questions in four parts: Part I related to the demographic profile of the instructors, Part II related to teaching styles in ESL class, Part III attempted to assess how frequently CLL was used while Part IV elicited information concerning the attitude of students towards CLL as perceived by instructors. The questionnaire was deemed sufficient in eliciting information on instructors' perceptions and attitudes towards CLL. Subsequently, semi-structured interviews were conducted on two occasions with a focus group of seven instructors to elicit qualitative data about the issues under study, i.e., the effectiveness of CLL and observed tertiary students' attitudes and ability to be fully engaged in CLL activities. The interviews were audio-taped and transcribed by the researchers.

The instructors who participated in the survey were teaching English at a public higher learning institution of mono-cultural student population. As for professional teaching experience, only one instructor (4%) had taught less than 10 years while eight (30%) had between 10 and 20 years, 15 (54%) between 20 and 30 years and two (12%) had between 30 and 40 years. The instructors had taught at both tertiary and secondary school level prior to that. Among the instructors, five were from the age group of 25-30 years, 14 were between 30-40 years, six between 40-50 years while two ranged between 50-60 years. Instructors who were in the 30-50-year age range had been using CLL in the ESL writing classroom for more than 15 years while instructors with less than 10 years of teaching experience had been using this approach ever since they started teaching. Only one instructor said that he did not use CLL at all because he was unsure of his control over student discipline.

All the instructors possessed postgraduate degrees in varied disciplines of ESL. 65% had obtained their Master in Education (M.Ed), 23% Master in Science (M.Sc), while 4% had obtained Master in Teaching of English as a Second Language (TESL) and Master in Science Education (MSc. Ed.) respectively. Only 4% of the instructors did not hold a post graduate degree.

Results and Discussion

Research Question 1: Use of CLL

Table 1 shows the instructors' perceptions of the use of CLL in writing. The items in column two have been ordered in terms of highest to lowest *median* rating i.e., frequency of use of particular techniques associated with CLL. The instructors perceived that they used item (1) 'most of the time (*median*=4) together with items (2) and (3). As the instructors were experienced, they were aware of the benefits of CLL in ESL writing

classrooms and acknowledged that the CLL approach enhanced learning of writing. These findings corroborate the findings of previous studies (e.g. Mason, 2006; Hirst & Slavik, 2005; Mariam, 2004; Lim, 2002) who found CLL to contribute in the learning of the writing skill.

Table 1: Summary Responses to the Use of the CLL Approach

No.	Item	Mean Rating	Median Rating	Standard Deviation
1	Set up groups so that members are working toward common instructional goals	3.6154	4.00	1.2985
2	Have students work in groups and set up face to face interaction in which they help, support, and encourage one another's efforts to learn	3.5000	4.00	1.2727
3	Allow students to select their own group members	3.4231	4.00	1.2703
4	Teach social skills to students before and /or during group interaction	3.0769	3.00	1.2624
5	Set up groups so that there is an atmosphere of interdependence that is each member thinks that he/she will not succeed unless group mates also succeed.	2.9231	3.00	1.1635
6	Set up an evaluation system where students working in groups are assessed individually regardless of group performance	2.5000	2.00	1.1401
7	Assign students to groups based on criteria such as: academic ability, gender, grades, etc.	2.3846	2.00	1.1340
8	Assign students in each group to become "experts" in one area, then have those students join other groups and report on their area of expertise	2.2308	2.00	1.1422
9	Have students give one another feedback about the group interaction experience during and /or at the end of group activity	2.2308	2.00	.9080
10	Allow group members to earn rewards (such as certificates or other forms of recognition) if all group members improve their performance on quizzes or other means of evaluation	2.0000	2.00	1.0198

Scale: 1= never, 2= sometimes, 3= about half of the time, 4= most of the time, 5= always

The instructors said that they used item (3 and 4) 'about half of the time (*median*= 3), preparing the learners for group work by teaching them social skills more and inculcating the interdependence atmosphere. In fact, in the interviews all the instructors concurred that social skills was an important element for the success of group work as highlighted by previous studies (Sweeney et al., 2008; Mason, 2006; Iwai, 2004). However, many revealed that they needed exposure and formal training in CLL for them to disseminate these skills to learners. Besides, an instructor participant said, "I do not know much about interdependence skill. So, I need to understand what the skill is first before

teaching it to learners." Another instructor too said that it was difficult to understand these skills which are crucial to create awareness of their dual responsibilities: (1) optimising learning and (2) optimising group members' learning (Depaz & Moni, 2008; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). If instructors are not familiar with the atmosphere, it will be tedious and challenging for them to impart this. Thus, there is a pressing need for the instructors to undergo formal training in CLL skills so as to enable them to train learners - which has also been suggested by Depaz and Moni (2008).

Items 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 did not appear to go well with the respondents, with the *median* being only 2. Assigning groups based on academic ability and gender (item 6) did not seem to be pertinent among the sample instructors. The instructors perhaps understood that if they practise homogeneous grouping, the proficient learners may go far and enjoy the benefits of effort pooling while the limited proficiency learners on the other hand, may face problems in solving their language predicaments and lack peer coaching. Lou et al. (1996) have highlighted that heterogeneous grouping would encourage competition among learners which could encourage peer teaching and bring about positive outcomes where the less capable learners might try to compete with their capable peers.

The instructors disclosed that they sometimes only practise individual assessment or evaluation (item 8) as this could add their burden. Besides, CLL approach is time and energy consuming activity which might also result in the more capable learners not contributing to the group as they would want to outperform the others since they would naturally be more positively evaluated than the weaker ones (Kreie, et al., 2007; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). They claimed that the perceived shortcoming could be removed if learners are explicitly taught the skill of interdependence and made to subscribe to the notion that they either swim or sink together.

Items like assigning students in groups to engage in specific areas, allowing students to provide feedback regarding group work and giving incentives to motivate students was not popular among the instructors. Dividing the task among group members where one member writes one specific part of the essay while the other writes another part was not viewed positively. Although this would save time, there is danger of the learner becoming adept at preparing only one part of the writing task. Being experienced instructors, they did not agree on training learners to be expert in writing a certain part of the essay such as one member does the introduction, another, the middle and yet another, the conclusion because they may not be able to write the whole essay coherently on their own in future.

In the interviews, the instructors revealed that the main challenge in employing CLL was time constraint. As one instructor said, "It really consumes time. Even to finish the final draft, I have to remind them of time factor. If I were to allow students to give feedback regarding group work, it might go on for another 30 minutes or more." This is clear evidence that the instructors are unable to give opportunities for learners to give feedback. Regarding rewards and incentives, one instructor commented, "It may prove to be a strong motivator in the initial stage but it is not a viable daily practice. Can I give rewards in the form of certificates or prizes for class work?" Likewise, learners who fail to earn rewards may feel demotivated. Generally, the instructors were in favour of CLL

in the writing class although they lack specific training in this area such as encouraging social interdependence among students. Undoubtedly, time was a major constraint and demotivating factor.

Perceived Effectiveness of CLL and Instructor Attitude

Table 2 shows the use of CLL by the language instructors over a semester (about 14 class periods) and their attitudes towards this approach. The majority of the instructors revealed that they would use CLL approach in teaching and learning writing as it facilitated learning. They believed that CLL could be effective if the instructors were successful in fostering group cooperation among learners.

The use of this approach also encourages feedback, which serves as a reinforcement. However, CLL is perceived to be energy and time-consuming technique. Thus, only 19 % used it frequently while 22% of the participants used it more than half the time and 50% used it sometimes. The remaining 9% revealed that they did not employ CLL-based group work at all in their writing classrooms. Although the approach was not their favourite, the majority of the instructors were optimistic about CLL. They concurred that it gave good opportunities for learners to interact and learn from one another during group work which reaffirm the benefits of the approach in writing class as suggested by researchers like Mason (2006) and Smialek and Boburka (2006).

Table 2: CLL Use in the ESL Writing Class and Instructors' Attitudes

No	Items	Always (%)	Most of the time (%)	Sometimes (%)	Never (%)
1	I use CLL approach in the writing class	19	22	50	9
2	How often do you use CLL according to common goal & individual accountability	-	-	39	61
3	CLL approach adds to your workload	39	45	16	-

Many instructors considered CLL a good approach for teaching and learning the writing skill, especially when it is combined with the process writing skill of problem-solving. They perceived CLL-based group work to encourage learners to brainstorm and discuss the assigned topic in group, consequently give learners opportunities to have practical contexts to use the language and to learn from one another. They regarded CLL as an appropriate approach in all writing classes because it promotes interaction and meaningful communication. An instructor said, "Not only does CLL break the monotony of individual learning but it also assists learners to retain what is taught better in the writing class and this definitely makes them learn it without pressure." This opinion is in

line with Kreie, et al., (2007) who stress that CLL significantly increases learners' retention ability. However, a large proportion of the sample, 39%, felt that CLL would add to their burden, as they had to do extra work to prepare for class. This was a disabling factor as Sweeney, et al., (2008) had pointed out that instructors need to go the extra mile to experience positive outcomes.

Another dimension of CLL related to instructors is that it is easier for instructors to evaluate group projects. An instructor said that "In CLL groups, I have fewer papers to mark and I also noticed that while working in groups, learners tend to achieve higher competence levels, increased learning and motivation" as is likewise postulated by Chen (2004). Instructors seemed to like the camaraderie that developed among learners and the captive ambience that was created in class. The instructors thus perceived CLL-based group work to provide opportunities for learners in large classes especially, to interact using the language more effectively (Doymus, 2008; Kreie, et al., 2007; Mason, 2006).

Further comments elicited from the instructors revealed that CLL approach is proposed to be used "not only in writing but also for all ESL classes because the learners like the idea of working in groups." An instructor responded, "It definitely has a role in ESL writing classrooms ... it encourages confidence, accountability and increases self esteem." Another said this approach "helps group-oriented tasks and learners would be able to achieve their intended goals easily." Another instructor strongly recommended CLL to be used when learners had to complete a lot of projects. At tertiary level, a lot of group projects are assigned which could reduce the burden of learners as well as instructors. In addition, many instructors agreed that CLL was a good technique to increase language proficiency because learners felt more comfortable working with peers. They also revealed that the use of CLL increased learner confidence which corroborates findings of previous studies (Mason, 2006; Doymos, 2008). Thus, the instructors perceived this approach to be very useful, albeit high noise levels.

Although the instructors perceived CLL positively, in response to a statement about the actual use of CLL, the analysis of the responses showed otherwise. The majority, 46%, said that they had stopped using CLL while 31% said they have reduced the use of this approach. A small proportion, 4%, revealed that they have not used CLL at all in their writing class. However, looking at the benefits, they agreed to consider CLL first if they decide to incorporate any new approach in their class. A total of 11% admitted that there had been no noticeable difference in their instructional approach because they had been using CLL to a certain degree and had not found a need to increase or decrease its use. Only 8% revealed that they had just started using CLL in their classroom pedagogy. The actual use of CLL is not congruent with the positive perceptions of its effectiveness and benefits. In other words, although the instructors found this approach to be beneficial, the majority have yet to fully embrace it. This finding echoes previous results of Sweeney, et al., (2008), Kreie, et al., (2007) and Millis and Cottell (1998) confirming instructors' reluctance for using this approach due to heavy workload and time constraints.

Research Question 2: Learner Attitude

In the interviews the instructors agreed that learners generally liked working in groups and most of them felt accountable for their work. As one instructor admitted, "Learners seemed more committed to completing their group assignments and they often checked their drafts to ensure that they are on the right path." Some instructors revealed that a few learners were rather apprehensive because the approach was new and did not excite them. However, "the majority of the learners reacted positively and in an encouraging manner. They were happy to work together to produce something of their own," said one instructor, thus concurring with previous findings (e.g. Mason, 2006; Iwai, 2004).

Some instructors informed that the weaker learners, in fact, requested group work because they found CLL environment to be non-threatening and felt more comfortable learning from peers. Depaz and Moni (2008) too found that the absence of an adult in the group (e.g. instructor) alleviates anxiety. Besides increased learning and self-esteem, learners also gained more effective skills in working with people of different abilities (Mason, 2006; Smialek & Boburka, 2006; Chen, 2004). The less capable and less proficient learners also benefited from their experience of working with more capable peers. At this juncture, they also learned leadership skills. Generally, such learners liked to be evaluated in groups so that they could share the effort of the hardworking and committed learners. This finding clearly shows that the instructors are aware that the majority of students are indeed in favour of the employment of this approach in writing. However, it could be argued that it is the instructors' inability to cope with the needs of employing this approach (time and energy factors) that acts as a hindrance in its use.

It was also observed that a few instructors pledged to try CLL all the time but the preparedness of the learners did not permit this. A senior lecturer commented, "I would really love to have CLL approach for all my English classes but some learners are not motivated to discuss seriously or assume any role. In fact, some of them are just physically part of the group by being present in the group, hoping to freeload and expect the other group members to complete the group work. These learners favoured group grading." He further elaborated that if they were graded differently; their different achievements made them stay away, and sometimes frustrated (Depaz & Moni, 2008). However, the data obtained through intensive questioning revealed that CLL can be effective, preventing free-riders (Iwai, 2004; Mariam, 2004; Johnson & Johnson, 1999) by having small groups and by teaching group members how to assume roles and responsibilities in their groups. The implication is that there are in any CLL grouping unprepared learners who may not be receptive to CLL. Instructors therefore, need to equip themselves with the appropriate skills and tools to confront such situations and learners so as to facilitate effective deployment of this approach.

The instructors revealed that some learners, especially the limited proficiency learners were compelled by other group members who might have unknowingly forced the peers to perform a task that they were not comfortable with. Furthermore, it was also noted that some proficient learners were neither friendly nor helpful but displayed artificial cooperative attitudes (Sweeney, et al., 2008). As the success of CLL depends primarily

on team work and cooperation, it needs meticulous planning and preparation to experience its positive impact.

Conclusions

CLL will not take place in the classroom unless and until instructors demonstrate a willingness to employ transactional styles of teaching and learning as it requires a lot of effort on the instructors' part, especially when they already have a heavy teaching load. It is essential for both instructors and students to be trained for CLL activities to bring about effective outcomes. Furthermore, ESL instructors need to understand individual differences as some learners do not enjoy working in groups, preferring to seek help from the instructor instead of peers.   In such cases, instructors have to guide these learners by giving them space to work individually before they are required to go the extra mile. Some instructors who seem comfortable with the teacher-fronted instructional approach find CLL to be lacking productivity. This could be that they do not like changes in their teaching methods (Ruddell, 1993). Moreover, time constraints could prevent the full implementation of CLL. Some instructors are also anxious that they might not be in complete control of the learning experience and learners may not abide by the classroom rules and go off-task. This could be that some instructors resist CLL because they are not comfortable delegating authority to learners (Ruddell, 1993).

It was also found that some instructors misinterpret CLL to mean group work per se. Such structured teamwork as in group work would most probably not yield positive results as expected because the characteristics of interdependence are not cultivated (Iwai, 2004). If instructors do not understand the principles of CLL and do not construct their groups with extra care, a free-rider effect may exist followed by shirking of responsibility (Chapman, et al., 2006). Thus, instructors need to structure the groups very carefully so as to avoid any free-loaders. CLL, when understood and implemented under certain conditions like positive interdependence, face-to-face promotive interactions, individual accountability, social skills training, group processing, and common goal attainment (Depaz & Moni, 2008) undoubtedly would bring about a positive impact.

However, it is noted here that instructors generally do not like changes in their teaching methods and usually do not make changes unless they perceive that something is not working well. Although, many instructors in this study viewed CLL to be a viable approach, they felt that they could not employ it extensively. Whilst it is an effective language learning approach, it also creates opportunities for students to shirk responsibility.   Thus, CLL should be implemented whenever possible, but with discretion, as time constraints often prevent its full and meaningful implementation.

In short, we can conclude that CLL creates better learning opportunities in ESL writing instruction when the experimental factor is utilised. It encourages a more interesting and creative approach to building language proficiency at tertiary education, especially among weaker learners. CLL   in tandem with process-oriented techniques in writing instruction also instils positive values such as cooperation,   leadership skills and

interpersonal skills among group members which are required during and post tertiary education to succeed in future careers.

Suggestions for Future Institutional Research

The researchers recommend that more studies be carried out to provide further insights into ESL teaching and learning environments so as to develop writing proficiency at institutions of higher learning. The learners should also be taught strategies to think, to ask questions, to reason, and to structure their writing on paper. Further research is required to establish ways to help learners overcome difficulty in the presentation of structured ideas of writing and to create independent learners, which is the ultimate educational goal of any tertiary institution.

This study sought opinions and perceptions of instructors alone, and did not probe the attitudes of learners towards CLL as reported by learners themselves; there is always further scope and hope for work to emerge from any exemplary students and their perceptions. In order to enhance CLL in ESL classrooms at tertiary levels, specific input is necessary in order to provide adequate training facilities to students and instructors to enhance their performance by having them participate in relevant professional development programmes of institutional scale. ESL instructors are hereby invited to contribute their experiences on the efficacy of CLL to further reinforce the current vein of institutional research in the domain of ESL teaching and learning environments.

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Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analyses of the Spirituality in the Workplace Questionnaire (SWQ): A Tool for Workforce Development

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Abstract

This research describes an effort to develop and validate a psychometrically multidimensional measure of spirituality in the workplace (SWQ). The SWQ was administered to a random sample of 1008 faculty members employed by six public universities in Jordan. The data set was subject to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using the criteria of an eigenvalue equal to or greater than one and a factor loading equal to or greater than .30 without cross loading. Principle axis factoring with oblique rotation was used to uncover the underlying structure of the SWQ. Five factors emerged with all 22 items retained. Internal consistency reliability coefficients for these factors ranged between .76 and .87. Based on the Maximum Likelihood estimation method in confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the five-factor model was confirmed providing a good fit to the data. Discussions were provided in the context of the scale development.

Keywords: Spirituality, Workplace, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), Workforce Development, Higher Education, and Jordan

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Major world changes such as global markets downfalls, economic restructuring, downsizing, massive layoffs, and the decline of neighborhoods and extended families have left many employees feeling demoralized and dehumanized, devoid of energy, and no longer being connected (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000; Laabs, 1995). These factors have

been critical in sparking the interest of researchers and practitioners in the topic of spirituality in the workplace which is a call for a more humanistic work environment, increased simplicity and flexibility, more meaning, a connection to something higher, and a primary source of community (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000; Marques, Dhiman, & King, 2005). Spirituality in the workplace is a young area of inquiry with potentially strong relevance to the well-being of individuals, organizations, and communities because of the fact that engaging the spirit of employees with their work may increase organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Leigh, 1997; McCormick, 1994; Milliman, Czaplewski, & Ferguson, 2003; Mirvis, 1997), may maximize long-term organizational stability, overall performance, productivity, motivation, and creativity (Giacalone & Jurkieweiz, 2002; Jurkiewicz & Giacalone, 2004; Mitroff & Denton, 1999; Nick & Milliman 1994), may develop a more ethical organizations and communities (Garcia-Zamor, 2003), may enhance the meaning of work, may deepen relationships in the workplace, and at the same time a work environment that fully enriches the life of each employee (Bell & Taylor, 2004; Burack, 1999; Neal, 2000; Sheep, 2006; Whitney, 2002).

Spirituality in the workplace is defined as "an experience of interconnectedness, shared by all those involved in a work process, initially triggered by the awareness that each is individually driven by an inner power, which raises and maintains his or her sense of honesty, creativeness, proactivity, kindness, dependability, confidence, and courage, consequently leading to the collective creation of an aesthetically motivational environment characterized by a sense of purpose, high ethical standards, acceptance, peace, trust, respect, understanding, appreciation, care, involvement, helpfulness, encouragement, achievement, and perspective, thus establishing an atmosphere of enhanced team performance and overall harmony, and ultimately guiding the organization to become a leader in its industry and community, through its exudation of fairness, cooperativeness, vision, responsibility, charity, creativity, high productivity, and accomplishment" (Marques, Dhiman, & King, 2005, p. 123). Duchon and Ashmos (2005) added that workplace spirituality recognizes that employees have an inner life that nourishes and is nourished by meaningful work that takes place within the context of community.

McLaughlin (1998) asserted that organizations that want to survive in the 21st century will have to offer a greater sense of meaning and purpose to their workforce. "In today's highly competitive environment, the best talent seeks out organizations that reflect their inner values and provide opportunities for personal development and community service, not just bigger salaries" (p. 11). Moreover, workers are increasingly hoping to find in the workplace the sense of connection they find in the traditional family and social community ties (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000). According to Gull and Doh (2004), employees who feel connected and meaningful in their workplace will perform better, show up more often, and contribute more devotedly toward a better atmosphere in the workplace. Further, employees want more control over their work, more work-life balance, and more personal growth and meaning in their work. In fact, most spirituality driven organizations evidence some commitment to social responsibility and service to employees and to the community; promote employee wellness, sense of meaning, transcendence, creativity, and self-actualization; emphasize participatory management

practices; and establishes caring relationships and the enactment of common values, such as honesty, trust, and fairness in organizational settings (Groen, 2001; Uhrich, 2001).

Work can be physically strenuous and stressful, contributing to illness such as heart disease, diabetes, and nervous disorders like anxiety and depression. Thus, spirituality is recognized as panacea for dealing with workplace pressure (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000; Neal, 2000). In conclusion, spirituality grounds people in their work and allows them to connect with the transcendent in all they do and enables their organizations to prosper (Elmes & Smith, 2001; Lewin & Regine, 2000). Therefore, public and private organizations that want to survive and compete in the 21st century should measure and enhance the spirituality of their employees on a regular basis (Marques, 2005).

Researchers have speculated that spirituality in the workplace may be multidimensional in nature and involve a system of factors (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000; Bell & Taylor, 2004; Duchon & Ashmos, 2005; Garcia-Zamor, 2003; Gull & Doh, 2004; Marques, Dhiman, & King, 2005; Milliman, Czaplewski, & Ferguson, 2003; Neal, 2000; Sheep, 2006; Whitney, 2002). For example, employees may evaluate the existence of spirituality in the workplace from different lenses including their inner perspective; the act that takes place at work; the behavior of the superiors; the connection between family and work; and the role of the workplace toward the community. The present research effort is devoted to develop a psychometric and multidimensional sound instrument that can measure the key factors that can be used as a measure of the spirituality in the workplace.

Statement of the Problem

The topic of spirituality at work is gaining importance in business settings worldwide (Fry, 2003; Garcia-Zamor, 2003; Groen, 2001; Marques & Dhiman, 2006; Marques, Dhiman, & King, 2005; Reave, 2005; Uhrich, 2001). However, up to this point, and to the researchers' best knowledge, no empirical research has attempted to capture the multidimensional nature of spirituality in the workplace. Most previous research has either used qualitative approaches or unreliable instrument designs to measure spirituality in the workplace. Therefore, the primary purpose of this study was to develop and validate a multidimensional and psychometric measure of spirituality in the workplace especially related to higher education settings.

Research Questions

The present study was guided by the following research questions:
1. Will exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the spirituality in the workplace questionnaire (SWQ) result in an interpretable factor structure of latent constructs?
2. Will confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the SWQ determine and confirm the dimensionality and factor structure of the instrument?

Significance of the study

What is needed and what would be an important goal for university administrators is the development of an instrument to measure spirituality in the workplace with validated constructs and known psychometric qualities that add significantly to the understanding of the factors that play a role in enhancing spirituality of faculty members in the workplace. University administrators can use this instrument for diagnostic purposes and needs assessment, which also helps to implement change where and when needed. Such knowledge would allow them to conduct training workshops, seminars, and lectures for existing and prospective faculty members, which may result in increased spirituality in the workplace and long-term organizational effectiveness. In terms of research, the development of a valid and multidimensional set of workplace spirituality scales is important because it would reduce the need for redundant instrument design and it would provide sound foundation for cross-study comparisons.

Research Methods and Procedures

Population and Sample

The target population for this study was all faculty members employed by public universities in Jordan for the academic years 2008/2009. A simple random sample of 1200 faculty members was drawn from six public universities located in the north, south, and middle regions of Jordan. A total of 1008 usable instruments were returned with a response rate of 80%. The sample distribution was 614 males (60.9%) and 394 females (39.1%). There were 169 (16.8%) professors, 229 (22.70%) associate professors, 414 (41.1%) assistant professors, and 196 (19.4%) instructors. With regard to years of experience of faculty members, 217 (21.5%) had an experience less than 5 years, 361 (35.8%) had an experience between 5-9 years, 262 (26.0%) had an experience between 10-14 years, and 168 (16.7%) had an experience above 15 years.

Instrumentation

The instrument used in this study was developed by the researchers after an extensive review of literature in the subject and related theory and following survey design procedures found in the literature (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Gaddis, 1998; Leady & Ormrod, 2001; Long, 1998). We drafted a pool of 57 items, which were submitted to 30 content judges for review and to determine the face and content validity of the items. These judges had expertise in research design, survey design, and workforce development. This panel of content judges included local university faculty members, local human resource professionals, and international professionals (e.g., United States, Britain, and Canada). We requested this panel to check the instrument items for clarity, length, time to complete, difficulty in understanding and answering questions, flow of questions, appropriateness of questions based on the research topic, any

recommendations for revising the survey questions (e.g., add or delete), and overall utility of the instrument.

Based on their feedback, some items were dropped and others reworded where necessary. At this stage, the 57 items were reduced to 32. This preliminary questionnaire was pilot tested with a group of 100 faculty members selected randomly from six public universities which were not included in the final sample of the study. Feedback from this pilot test led to the additional drop of number of items to 22. Long (1998) considered peer reviews to be a form of survey pre-testing. All items in the instrument used a five-point Likert-type scale with the following categories: 1 "Strongly Disagree", 2 "Disagree", 3 "Neutral", 4 "Agree", 5 "Strongly Agree".

The final instrument was named the "*Spirituality in the Workplace Questionnaire*" (SWQ) and consisted of two sections, one of which a demographic section. The first section of the instrument consisted of 22 items. Examples of instrument items included "harmony and team performance is practiced in my workplace"; "I can freely express my emotions and feelings at work"; and ""I have a healthy balance of life and work". Internal consistency coefficient for the instrument was calculated using Cronbach's alpha and found to be .85. Standards for instrument reliability for Cronbach's alpha by Robinson, Shaver, and Wrightsman (1991) were used to judge the quality of the instrument: .80 – 1.00 – exemplary reliability, .70 - .79 – extensive reliability, .60 - .69 – moderate reliability, and < .60 – minimal reliability. Therefore, the instrument is regarded as a reliable measure of spirituality in the workplace in higher education settings based on the perceptions of university faculty members.

Data Collection

Data were collected from faculty members during the academic years of 2008/2009. The researchers contacted the selected faculty members within each university included in the sample either in person or by telephone, explained the nature and goals of the study, and insured confidentiality, voluntaries, and anonymity. The participants were also informed that the instrument will take less than 10 minutes to complete. The faculty members who agreed to participate in the study were given the instrument and were requested to complete it within two weeks time-frame. At the end of the two weeks, the researcher and his assistants collected the instruments.

Data Analysis

To answer the first research question, exploratory factor analysis was used. Exploratory factor analysis is primarily used in the early stages of instrument development when the researcher is trying to determine the underlying structure of the instrument. Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique used to examine the intercorrelations among a large set of variables, and then attempt to find a smaller number of constructs that still capture those relationships (Ary, Jacob, Razavieh, 1996; Benson & Nasser, 1998). The objective of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is to "reduce the number of dimensions necessary to describe the relationships among the variables" (Gardner, 2001,

p. 243). In other words, EFA will uncover the underlying structure of the SWQ, thereby allowing understanding of the simple structure of the measuring instrument. There are certain steps to follow when using factor analysis. These steps include: extracting factors, deciding on how many factors to retain, and rotating factors to an interpretable and more meaningful solution.

In exploratory factor analysis, there are two methods of extraction: common factor analysis and principal component analysis. Principal component analysis is used for prediction (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) It is less appropriate for exploratory use because a) it does not account for error variance and attempts to explain everything by placing ones on the diagonal of the correlation matrix as an estimate of communalities (meaning that all variance, even error, is appropriate to explain); and b) it attempts to "represent all of the variance of the observed variables" (Floyd & Widaman, 1995, p. 294). On the other hand, principal axis factoring (or common factor analysis) was more appropriate to use in this study because the purpose of the analysis is to uncover the underlying structure of the instrument. This method has the advantage of accounting for error variance when extractions are made, uses squared multiple correlations (SMC) of each variable with the remainder of the variables when calculating initial communalities, and places communalities on the diagonal of the input correlation matrix "to represent only the common variance of each variable" (Floyd & Widaman, 1995, p. 292) and to remove the unique (error) variance. Further, principal axis factoring produces more accurate estimates of cross-loadings, communalities, factor loadings, and factor correlations than does principal component analysis (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999).

The overall measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) for the whole data set was used to determine the appropriateness of factor analysis. Hair et al. (1998) suggested values above .90 to be excellent while values below .60 should be deemed unacceptable. When determining the number of factors to extract, the visual scree plot and an eigenvalue greater than or equal to one was used (Benson & Nasser, 1998). An eigenvalue represents the total variance explained by the factor (Benson & Nasser, 1998). Moreover, visual scree plots were consulted to determine the number of factors to extract. Once the factors have been extracted, the next step is to rotate them as an aid in the interpretation of those factors. The main goal behind factor rotation is to produce a simple structure (Gorsuch, 1997) where each variable has the highest loading on its major factor, and the lowest loading on the remaining factors. Because the latent constructs in this study are expected to be correlated, a restriction placed on factors by orthogonal rotation, oblique rotation with direct oblimin was performed. With oblique rotation, the factor pattern matrix was used because the values are "standardized regression weights (betas) reflecting the relationship between the variable and a factor, after partialling out the relationship between the variable and the remaining factors" (Benson & Nasser, 1998, p. 27). The pattern matrix was more appropriate to examine than the structure matrix because "we are interested in the unique variance accounted for by each factor" (Morgan & Casper, 2000, p. 310). Finally, items were considered for retention on factors when they have a loading value above .30.

To answer the second research question, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was utilized. CFA is a theory-testing procedure for confirming the factor structure of the scale. More specifically, CFA is a procedure by which variables can be specified to be loaded on certain factors, and the number of factors is fixed in advance (Stevens, 1996). The LISREL 8.12 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993) computer program was used to analyze the data. All variables were tested using the covariance metrics generated by PRELIS and utilized maximum likelihood estimation method. In the present data analysis, rigorous constraints were not placed on the data because it is considered inappropriate (Bentler & Chou, 1987). For example, factors were allowed to correlate with one another. Moreover, the value of 1.0 was set to the factor loading parameter of one randomly selected item from each latent factor based on the recommendations of researchers such as Byrne (1998). This type of constraint allows the LISREL program to create a scale for the latent constructs. Finally, error terms were not permitted to correlate. We usually need a strong theoretical justification to allow the correlation of errors. In CFA, the most essential measure of overall fit is the chi-square statistic (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). However, the value of chi-square tends to be substantial and unrealistic when the sample size is large (sensitive to sample size), even if the model fits the data well. Therefore it is should not be used as a fit index rather as a comparison index between competing models (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Byrne, 1998; Steiger & Lind, 1980). Based on that, alternative fit indexes were used to overcome the issue with the chi-square statistic (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Six fit indices were examined in this study in addition to the chi-square test. These indices were the goodness of fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), the non-normed fit index (NNFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root-mean square residual (SRMR).

In general, a value of .90 or above for the GFI and AGFI is usually recommended for an acceptable level of fit (Hair et al., 1998). The RMSEA and SRMR values below .06 indicate very good fit while an RMSEA and SRMR values between .06 and .08 indicate a moderate fit. Any values above .08 indicate poor fit (Hu & Bentler, 1995; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). The last two fit indices (CFI and NNFI) are considered incremental fit indices because they measure the proportionate improvement in fit of the proposed model relative to a baseline represented by the null model. These measures have the advantage of being the least influenced by sample size when compared to other indices. Generally values above .90 are considered sufficient (Byrne, 1998).

Results

Results Pertaining to Research Question One

Research question one asks "Will exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the spirituality in the workplace questionnaire (SWQ) result in an interpretable factor structure of latent constructs?" Principle axis factoring was performed utilizing the oblique rotation method to uncover the underlying structure of the SWQ. Before conducting exploratory factor analysis, the data were screened in several ways to ensure their normality and appropriateness for factor analysis. With respect to normality, visual inspection of the histogram, mean, median, mode, skewness, and kurtosis for each item and for the whole

data shows that the data were normally distributed. With regard to the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis, two statistical tests (overall Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) and the Bartlett Test of Sphericity) were conducted. MSA is an index used to determine the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis (Hair et al., 1998). The MSA assesses the degree of intercorrelations among variables and provides information about the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis. An MSA value above .90 are considered meritorious. On the other hand, the Bartlett Test of Sphericity measures the "overall significance of all correlations within a correlation matrix" (Hair et al., 1998, p. 88). The null hypothesis states that there is no factor structure for the data at hand and then the goal is to reject the null hypothesis. A p-value below .05 indicates that there is a factor structure for the data and it is appropriate to run factor analysis. The results of the MSA (.91) and the Bartlett Test of Sphericity (p < .05) indicated that the data were suitable for factor analysis. Another indication of the factorability of the data set was the item-to-respondent ratios, which was 45:1. As a general rule, the minimum item-to-respondents ratio should be 5:1 (Hair et al., 1998). It is also desirable to have at least three items loading on each factor, which was satisfied in the present investigation

To justify the application of factor analysis, it is important to ensure that the correlations of the data matrix for the variables have a substantial number of correlations above .30 (Hair et al., 1998). Visual inspection of the data matrix revealed a substantial number of correlations greater than .30. Moreover, the anti-image correlation matrix (with negative partial correlations) indicated a low partial correlation between the variables. The anti-image correlation matrix is important to consider because it includes information about partial correlations. Low partial correlations suggest "true" underlying factors exist because the variables can be explained by the factor that loads on each variable. Finally, there are certain assumptions associated with factor analysis. These assumptions are multivariate normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity. According to Hair et al. (1998), these assumptions are more conceptual than statistical. Only multivariate normality is necessary if a statistical test is applied to the significance of the factors. The Bartlett Test of Sphericity with p < .05 confirmed this assumption.

Exploratory factor analysis procedures were completed for the purpose of identifying the latent constructs underlying the data. The criteria for determining how many factors to extract included the eigenvalue greater than one rule and a visual inspection of the scree plot (Ary et al., 1996). The initial analysis was run without specifying how many factors to retain. This procedure resulted in five factors explaining 60.52% of the common variance (see Table 1). Moreover, the residual correlation matrix was examined and no meaningful residuals were found, suggesting that the five-factor structure was appropriate and that no more factors could be extracted. These factors were described as follows:

1. The family. The first factor included four items with a reliability estimate of .87 and accounted for approximately 31% of the total variance in all items. The family factor measures the extent to which true connections exist between work and family, which may be regarded as an indication of workplace spirituality. This factor included items such as "I have a healthy balance of life and work".

2. The workplace. This factor included five items with a reliability estimate of .85 and accounted for almost 11% of the total variance. This factor measures the degree to which spirituality is practiced and instilled in the workplace. This factor included items such as ""harmony and team performance is practiced in my workplace".

3. The authority. This factor included four items with a reliability estimate of .86 and accounted for almost 8% of the total variance. This factor measures the degree to which superiors practice spirituality in the workplace. This factor included items such as "my supervisor is positive about workers who express their emotions".

4. The community. The fourth factor included four items with a reliability estimate of .76 and accounted for almost 6% of the total variance. This factor measures the degree to which a close connection exists between the work environment and the local community which is an indication of the practice of spirituality in the workplace. This factor included items such as "I have a commitment to promote the well-being of my community".

5. The self. This factor included five items (α = .81) related to the extent to which individuals perceive themselves as practicing spirituality in the workplace. This factor accounted for almost 5% of the total variance. This factor included items such as ""I can freely express my emotions and feelings at work

Table 1 Factor Loadings, Eigenvalue, and Variance Explained for the SWQ Factors.

1 The Family α = .87		2 The Workplace α = .85		3 The Authority α = .86		4 The Community α = .76		5 The Self α = .81	
Items	Loading	Items	Loading	Items	Loading	Items	Loading	Items	Loading
1	.87	1	.79	1	.84	1	.72	1	.72
2	.75	2	.78	2	.82	2	.70	2	.70
3	.74	3	.60	3	.70	3	.68	3	.68
4	.69	4	.45	4	.66	4	.43	4	.43
		5	.39					5	.40
6.79		2.42		1.69		1.29		1.13	
30.85		10.99		7.67		5.88		5.12	

Items were retained on factors if they had a minimum factor loading of .30. Items with a multiple cross-loading of .20 and above on at least three factors were deleted from the factor. The .30 level is a generally accepted minimum factor loading because it indicates that approximately 10% of the variance for a corresponding variable has been explained by a factor (Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987). The pattern matrix was chosen to examine the data instead of the structure matrix because in using the oblique rotation method we were interested in the unique variance accounted for by each factor. Also, because the pattern

matrix yields partial weights, the values in this matrix are more appropriate to interpret (Hair et al., 1998). Using these criteria, all 22 items were retained on the SWQ. All items loaded on their respective factors as suggested during instrument design process. Factor loadings for items retained in this solution ranged from .39 to .87 with an average loading of .60 on major factor and .05 on the rest of the factors. In brief, the loading of items was characterized by an interpretable simple structure, meaning that they had high loadings on the major factor and low cross-loadings on the other factors. All factors had acceptable reliabilities as estimated by Cronbach's Alpha which ranged from .76 to .87, with an average alpha of .84. These reliabilities exceeded Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) suggested minimum reliability of at least .70 for instruments in early stages of development. All items and their respective dimensions are listed in Appendix 1.

Results Pertaining to Research Question Two

Research question two asks "will confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the SWQ determine and confirm the dimensionality and factor structure of the instrument?" To examine the predicted model resulting from EFA, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using LISREL 8.52 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993) was used to determine the dimensionality and factor structure of the SWQ with five latent constructs. The data showed no signs of problematic outliers or violations of multivariate normality assumptions. The maximum likelihood method was used to estimate data fit and the latent constructs were allowed to correlate. In addition, CFA permitted examination of the measurement properties as well as the goodness of fit of the common factor model. The initial measurement model consisted of five latent constructs and 22 observed variables. Each subscale was constrained to load onto its parent factor. The initial model was moderately consistent with the data (X^2 (199) = 710.12, p = .00). In this model, the chi-square value was significant. A significant chi-square value indicates that the proposed model does not completely fit the observed covariances and correlations (Hair et al., 1998). However, the chi-square by itself should not be used as the sole indicator of model fit due to its sensitivity to sample size. Moreover, its results are unrealistic even if the model fits the data well and should be used for comparison purpose and not as a test statistic (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Byrne, 1998; Steiger & Lind, 1980). Therefore, consideration of other fit indices is considered essential. For example, the values for GFI (.93), AGFI (.92), CFI (.96), and NNFI (.95) surpassed the acceptable threshold value of .90 and thus provide evidence of acceptable fit (Byrne, 1998; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). The RMSEA (.05) and SRMR (.04) values indicated that there was a minimal amount of error associated with the tested model (Byrne, 1998) and is an indication of a good fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Further, the standard errors of all the estimates represented by were small enough to say that the estimates are relatively precise (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989). Finally, the modification indices provided by LISREL did not suggest any significant changes to improve the model, implying that this model fits the data relatively well.

Discussion

The concept of spirituality in the workplace has received escalating attention in the literature, yet little is known about how to measure and quantify this construct. Previous research has primarily focused on qualitative research designs or unreliable measures and tools for generally addressing spirituality in business work environments. From a theoretical perspective and for research purposes, researchers need to know the dimensionability of this concept in all types of work environments. Therefore, the present research effort is devoted to develop a psychometrically and multidimensional sound and convenient instrument that can measure the key system factors that represent spirituality in the workplace especially related to higher education institutions. A systematic validation process including a critical review of the literature, content validity, pilot testing, factor analyses, and calculation of reliability coefficients led to the development of a reliable and valid instrument with known psychometric properties and high internal consistency as described by its Cronbach's alpha, which ranged from .76 to .87. Based on exploratory factor analysis (EFA), the spirituality in the workplace questionnaire (SWQ) has a clear factor structure. The EFA procedures suggested a five-factor solution with all 22 items retained and were named as follow: the family (4 items), the workplace (5 items), the authority (4 items), the community (4 items), and the self (5 items). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) indicated adequate fit for this five-factor model. All indices of CFA suggested that this five-factor model fit the data well; implying good construct validity of the SWQ.

Based on the above, the data revealed that spirituality in the workplace is multidimensional in nature and can be measured by a number of factors. University administrators and human resource professionals in higher education institutions should look at their universities from a system perspective when evaluating the spirituality concept. It is important to evaluate the individual perceptions and feelings toward the concept of spirituality. For example, we need to understand whether faculty members have a sense of passion about their work; experience a sense of meaning in their work; freely express their emotions; feel connected with everybody at work; and are driven by an inner power to do the right thing. These qualities should be complimented with the right workplace practices. A workplace that has flexibility in dealing with faculty members (e.g., work schedules); practice harmony and team performance; promote the culture of the family in workplace; and maximize the potential of employees' knowledge and feelings through training, seminars, conferences, and business consultations. Moreover, these workplace practices cannot be achieved without the help of the authority represented by department chairs, college deans, and the university administration who play a primary role in maximizing the perceptions of faculty members regarding their individual sense of spirituality. Moreover, this authority should pay close attention to the families of their faculty members to maximize spirituality. For example, there should be a healthy balance of life and work; allow faculties to take time off to solve personal problems or be with the family; and offer programs that nurture the relationship between family and work. Finally, the authority should encourage and promote the culture of the "care for the community" among their faculty members. Actions such as providing and

sponsoring charitable social service to the local community and becoming a responsible community member to help improve the conditions of community are desired.

In conclusion, this study represents one of the few efforts to more precisely develop a multidimensional instrument measuring the constructs of the spirituality in the workplace with appropriate psychometric procedures. It contributes to the literature by developing a multidimensional definition of spirituality in the workplace, measuring it, and providing strong evidence for its construct validity. This questionnaire is particularly relevant for use in higher education institutions and various organizations given its length (22 items) and the short time required completing it (less than 10 minutes). Good organizational measures not only must be valid and reliable but also need practicality (i.e., they should be easy to administer and interpret) (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). So, the SWQ is a valuable and promising new instrument that can be used by researchers and practitioners to provide a quick overall picture of the status of workplace spirituality from a system lens. Thus, intervene to improve workplace spirituality to ultimately enhance individual and organizational performance.

Although further research and development directed at improving the psychometric qualities of the SWQ is warranted, this research suggests that the SWQ may offer considerable benefit to higher education institutions' practice and research in Jordan. From a research standpoint, this investigation is important because it represents an important effort to draw attention to the importance of spirituality in the workplace research in Jordan and open up new avenues of investigation. Also, this research represents an important effort to disseminate and share important tools and expertise across geographic and cultural boundaries. From the practical stand point, the ability of Jordanian higher education institutions to use the SWQ effectively can reap many benefits to the growth, development, and sustainability of organizations as well as to the economic growth of the whole nation. Such combined efforts can contribute greatly to the economic growth of the nation as a whole by developing and nurturing the expertise and competencies of the future national workforce.

It is clear that further refinement of the SWQ is needed. Future studies may consider incorporating additional items. Further studies are needed for the scale with different types of organizations (e.g., private universities) and populations (e.g., administrative employees). More studies are also needed to cross-validate the instrument with different cultures and nationalities to firmly establish its utility and validity. A nomological network between dimensions of the SWQ and selected organizational outcomes should be tested as an additional step toward construct validity. According to Baumgartner and Jackson (1999), besides examining the factor validity of an instrument, other forms of construct validity such as discriminant validity and convergent validity should be evaluated in future studied.

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Appendix 1: *Constructs of the SWQ*

Construct	Items
The Family	1. I have a healthy balance of life and work. 2. I can take time off if I need to solve personal problems or be with my family. 3. My workplace offer programs that nurture the relationship between family and work. 4. I found creative ways to integrate family and work.
The Workplace	1. There are flexible work schedules for faculty members. 2. The work environment allows people to maximize their potential. 3. Harmony and team performance is practiced in my workplace. 4. My organization's primary goal is to nurture the feelings and knowledge of their workers. 5. People at my work help each other out very often.
The Authority	1. My supervisor is positive about workers who express their emotions. 2. My supervisor encourages me to share my thoughts and feelings about the emotional impact my work has on me. 3. My superiors help create meaning and purpose for their subordinates. 4. My superiors listen attentively to my suggestions.
The Community	1. I have a commitment to promote the well-being of my community. 2. My employer provides and sponsor charitable social service to the local community. 3. My organization is a responsible community member. 4. My organization primary purpose is to help improve the conditions of community.
The Self	1. I have a sense of passion about my work. 2. I experience a sense of meaning in my work. 3. I can freely express my emotions and feelings at work. 4. I feel connected with everybody in my work. 5. I am driven by an inner power to do the right thing.

The Reality of Training Programs for Teachers of Social Studies in the Light of Their Training Needs

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Abstract

This study aimed to find out the reality of social studies teachers' training programs in the light of their training needs. To achieve this goal , a list of (42) items was prepared . The first part reveals   the reality of the training programs while the second part reveals the training needs. The instrument was applied on a sample of (116) male and female teachers.

The results showed that training programs are routine and planned according to the view of the Directorate of Training at the Ministry of Education. All teachers are being forced to attend sessions. It theoretically lacks practical application. The results also showed that the most important training needs for teachers of social studies are to prepare remedial and enrichment plans, to know the content analysis skill, to exchange visits with other teachers, to know the needed skills for each major and all the forms of evaluation skills.

Key Words (reality of training programs, teachers of social studies , training needs)

Background of the Study

The process of teachers' preparation in universities does not help them to acquire important competencies and skills to keep pace with the changes and developments in the curriculum, students and community. Because of that, in-service training programs have become

necessary to make teachers able to cope with knowledge explosion, new scientific and technological developments and globalization. Social studies teachers need more training. That is because of the nature of the material and its direct relevance to the society and the changes that are reflected immediately on the subject, textbooks and curriculum. Rizq (2001) stated that training needs are necessary for the social studies teacher in the field in order to increase his ability to cope with developments. Al-Khateeb (2002) defined it as the gap between what it is and what it should be and how much he should have from knowledge, skills and information to make him fit to do his job efficiently.

The teachers' training needs are due to : lack of knowledge, skills, methods, evaluation and others which make them unable to carry out their work effectively in the classroom. Ta'ani (1996) stated that the process of identifying the training needs is the first step in the preparation of designing plans and programs of in-service training. That is to know the reality of teachers in the field and to determine the gap between reality and desire, and this is to be given priorities in the training program. This means that the development of a training program without understanding of its needs is a waste of money, time and effort. Abu-El-Roos (2001) said that the teacher is in need of in-service training more than the pre-service training. That is because the in-service training is a series of developmental events and activities which are needed to accompany the teacher as long as he is in the service and as long as there are developments in knowledge, science and new technologies.

Al-Khateeb and Enazi (2008) explained that training is a planned, systematic, ongoing activity to develop the individual's skills and abilities in order to increase his knowledge, improve his behavior and trends to enable him to carry out his job efficiently.

We conclude from the above introduction that when we train teachers, there should be a need and motivation for training. Al-Khateeb (2008) and Al-Ahmad (2005) note that some of the training is motivated by the rapid development of knowledge systems and their subsidiaries, the development of educational curricula, the evolution of technology, the means of communication, the ongoing training needs, and the restatement of pre-service training of teachers.

As training has become a necessity in the field of education, there must be a need to achieve the trainees' objectives. Al-Zand (1999) stated that the training objectives are : to help teachers to keep abreast of new changes in learning and the professional development of their competence. These will not happen unless training is based on the actual teachers' needs. In addition, needs should be based on scientific research for the development process and professional progress. However, Al-Ta'ani (2002) indicated that the objectives of teachers' training are to increase knowledge and develop their competencies, to find positive attitudes about the profession, to keep abreast of developments in various fields of knowledge and to increase human relations within the school. But Ghaneemeh (1998) mentioned that the objective of the training process is to find a competent teacher who can carry out his job successfully. Ibrahim (2007) indicated that some of the objectives of the in-service teacher training are achieving sustained growth for teachers to upgrade their professional performance, accessing the latest educational and psychological theories and

effective ways to avoid the shortcomings and deficiencies in pre-service teachers' training and upgrading teachers to a higher position.

Aggarwal (1995) believes that teacher training consolidates information, increases the creative capacity, and   assists the teacher to face new situations, and   have a proper preparation for his students.

Thus, we see that training has many goals which point to the preparation of the teacher in a way so that he can carry out his job effectively in the classroom, and cope with different situations. Also, he will have sufficient capacity in dealing with his students and colleagues within the school.

Teachers' preparation programs differ according to their objectives. Al- Assaf and Yacoob (2000) classified them as follows:

- Therapy programs: They aim to address the deficiencies in the teachers' performance and that is after obtaining the feedback from the field of education.
- Refresher programs: They aim to revitalize the teachers and to increase vitality and motivation in the educational field including activities to stimulate the teacher.
- Innovative programs: They aim to provide teacher with educational developments and innovations in the light of the rapid international developments which cannot easily be accessed.

It is clear to us that the in-service training has numerous programs which aim to address the shortcomings and weaknesses of teachers. Also, they may aim to increase the teachers' vitality and activities. In addition, they may aim also to inform teachers of the new curricula and how they should be taught in the field. So, training programs are not limited to one type, but are continuous in in-service training. This is confirmed by Capriol (1995) that the training should be continuous and integrated for the preparation of teachers to implement their roles in the light of the needs and developments.

Hijazi's (2003) opinion that the success of any training program needs the teacher's faith of its importance and usefulness regardless of how the new methods and techniques are used, and regardless of how philosophies varied and are formed into curricula and training programs. All of those do not lead to achieve expected goals unless a faithful teacher and his urgent need for them are available.

Sankar (2004) pointed to many basics which must underlie the recent trends in teacher training. They are :

- Training must be comprehensive to achieve equal opportunities according to each one's needs.
- Respecting the right of the teacher in knowledge, practice, integration of the situation, act and respect of each of them to change the self and the other.
- Training must be a continuous and vital process including a commitment to follow-up training and getting use in multiple positions to enable the teacher to perform his duty as optimal.

- Training programs should be new, developmental, mindful   and discussion provoking.
- Training must aim to achieve the teacher's professional growth which enables him to take responsibility and keep up with developments.

Putnam and Borko (1997) pointed out that the most important attributes of effective teacher preparations programs are:

- Strengthening teachers and treating them as experts.
- Treating teachers as active learners who are building their understanding of the things by themselves.
- Teacher-training programs should be related to applications and classroom practices.
- Treating teachers as coaches who would then treat their students in the same manner in the future.

It is clear that the teacher preparation programs must be modern and developmental taking into account the individual differences, and deal with the teacher as an affective, active, considerate, creative person. That cannot be achieved without different means of effective training.

Trace (1990) and Sharma (1998) stated that there are many means for teacher training, namely:-

- Means of theoretical training which aim to provide the trainee with the needed knowledge that rely on the direct guidance which is the easiest of these means. Some of them are lectures, seminars, conferences, commissions, publications, newsletters, research, training sessions, and information and communication technologies.
- Means of practical training are considered the stronger in the mastering of the practical study skills. Some of the most important of them are the case study, role playing, field training and field visits.

It turns out that the practical training is the best type of training in which the teacher can acquire the necessary skills properly. Following-up the teacher during training is not enough because the training period is short. So, we must follow him up in the field continuously by directors and supervisors to consolidate the skills properly.

Donald (1987) stated that the lack of following-up training courses in the field leads to the failure in determining the objectives which will be discussed in the coming training courses; the failure in discussing the negative aspects of teaching methods; the lack of means and supporting sources that help in the success of training courses; the unavailability of the opportunity to discuss the training needs of all parties (teachers, supervisors, executors, evaluators).

The researchers can deduce from the foregoing discussion that follow-up training is essential as it is an evaluation of these courses in the field to know its strengths and weaknesses. This is to ensure the achievement of the objectives of these courses which were

prepared for. Again, it serves as feedback for administrators to avoid the weaknesses that were discovered in the coming courses.

Teacher training (training sessions) has drawn the attention of researchers in the field of education. Some of them addressed the effect of training courses while others dealt with training needs.

Al-Jaber's (1991) study aimed to identify the adequacy of the method used to determine the teachers' training needs in the public education and to reach a new efficient and conversant training. The sample of the study consisted of (89) supervisors (male and female), (70) headmasters and headmistresses, (20) senior teachers, (382) teachers (male and female), (913) of the technical training centers, and (12) of the technical research centers. The results showed that the method used to identify training needs was appropriate to a certain extent on the regulatory inclusiveness, and a new model to identify training needs was developed.

Hammoury's (1996) study sought to assess the social studies teachers' rehabilitation program in the Jordanian Universities from the perspective of students-teachers and university professors. The study concluded that the program's effectiveness was of average from the teachers' and university professors' points of view.

Saqer's (1996) study examined the teachers' training needs in the intermediate stage from the teachers' and university professors' points of view in the United States. The sample of the study consisted of (30) teachers and (10) headmasters. The study concluded that training needs are to build a special program for school teachers. The program should include aspects of experience especially in the intermediate level and hold training courses on learning methods.

Al-Tarawneh and Shelool (2000) studied the teachers' training needs for the first three grades from the teachers' and educational supervisors' points of view in the southern region in Jordan. They concluded that teachers' training needs are ordered as follows: the planning area, instructional materials and activities, professional growth, classroom management and evaluation. Gaoud and Athamneh (2000) aimed to explore the impact of the training of geography teachers on the use of reinforcement methods and feedback methods in the tenth grade students' achievement. The sample of the study consisted of (4) sections , (2 male and 2 female). One male and one female sections were the experimental group taught by trained teachers and the others were the controlled group taught by untrained teachers. The instrument of the study consisted of (40) items. The results indicated that there were significant differences in the tenth grade students' achievement for the benefit of the trained teachers.

Tarawneh, Ta'ani and Degaimat (2003) conducted a study to identify the teachers' training needs from their supervisors' and headmasters'/headmistresses' points of view in public schools. The instrument of the study consisted of (34) items of the multiple choice type. The sample of the study consisted of (100) teachers, directors and supervisors. The results indicated that the existing needs for training in all areas of the study. They were class

management, dealing with students, methods and activities of planning for learning and evaluation.

Ali (2006) conducted a study to identify the social studies teachers' training requirements in Yemen. To achieve the objective of the study, a questionnaire consisting of (84) items was prepared. The questionnaire was divided into four areas (planning, implementation, evaluation and professional growth). The sample of the study consisted of (120) teachers (male and female). The questionnaire was also used as a means to observe the performance of (36) teachers who were teaching social studies. The study concluded that social studies teachers need training in various areas where professional growth occupied the first place then planning, implementation, and evaluation.

Al-Ameer (2009) conducted a study to identify the effect of training program in the development of historical thinking skills of history teachers in the upper basic stage. To achieve the aim of the study, a list of historical thinking skills, a training program to develop these skills, and a test to see the effectiveness of the program were adopted. The sample of the study consisted of (25) teachers (male and female). The training was carried out by using the seminar and individualized learning strategy. The study concluded that the training program had a significant effect in the development of historical thinking skills of history teachers.

This current study is similar to the previous studies in terms of their approach to the in-service teachers' training courses. However, it is different in the following terms:

- This study deals with the reality of in-service training program for social studies teachers.
- This study addresses the social studies teachers' training needs in Bani Kananeh Directorate of Education in Jordan. That was not done by any previous researchers. The previous studies addressed the teachers' training needs in general except Ali's study (2006) in Yemen.
- This study explored the teachers' proposals for the development of training courses as the most capable ones to identify programs, their qualities and specifications in the light of their needs.

Based on the above, the researchers conducted this study to detect the reality of training programs for teachers of social studies in the light of their training needs.

Statement of the Problem

The essence of this study is to answer the following questions:

1. What is the reality of training programs for teachers of social studies from their points of view?
2. What are the training needs for teachers of social studies from their points of view?

3. Are social studies teachers' training needs different in light of their different experiences?
4. What are the social studies teachers' proposals to develop training programs?

Importance of the Study

The importance of the study is as follows:

1. The Directorate of Training at the Ministry of Education in Jordan could benefit from the results of the study through the identification of the real training needs for the teachers of social studies and their effectiveness.
2. The Directorate of Training at the Ministry of Education in Jordan could also benefit from the results through the identification of the real needs for teachers of social studies in away , which enables the ministry to conduct training courses suitable for them.
3. The supervisors of social studies and directors could benefit from the results of the study by identifying the needs of social studies teachers and focus on the supervisory field visits.
4. The importance of this study addressed the subject which is the training programs and training needs for teachers of social studies and this is a renewable issue due to changes and global developments.

Definition of Terms

- **The reality of training programs**: It is a survey of training programs held for teachers of social studies to demonstrate the strengths and to explore the weaknesses through a set of standards designed for this purpose.
- **Teachers of social studies**: They are all teachers who are teaching social studies (history, geography, national education) in Bani Kananeh Directorate of Education.
- **Training needs**:   It means all that is needed by the teachers of social studies; training courses that assist in the performance of work within the classroom.

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited by the following:

1. This study is limited to a sample of teachers of social studies in Bani Kananeh Directorate of Education ,and, therefore, the results are limited to the population of the study.
2. This study is limited by its instrument.

Methods

The population of the study consisted of (124) male and female teachers. The sample of the study was (116) male and female teachers who are teaching social studies (history, geography, national education) in Bani Kananeh Directorate of Education. The instrument was distributed to the whole population, but (8) questionnaires were not returned.

The Instrument of the Study

The instrument consisted of a questionnaire composed of three parts: the first part is about the reality of the training programs for teachers of social studies. The second part is about the training needs of teachers of social studies. The third part is about the proposals submitted by teachers of social studies to develop the training programs. The first and the second parts were prepared in accordance with the following steps:

1. The reference to the literature review on the training courses and training needs such as (Ta'ani, 1996), (Aggarwd, 1995), (Putnam and Borko, 19997), (Saqer, 1996), (Bakhash, 2009), (Ali, 2006), and others.
2. In light of this study, the instrument was prepared which consisted of (45) items at the beginning.
3. The items of the instrument were given to a jury (social studies specialists, measurement and evaluation specialists, supervisors of social studies) to check their validity. The jury was asked to suggest amendments or changes that would improve it.
4. In the light of the jury's observations, some changes were done in some items.

The instrument consists of (42) items in its final version. That was based on three dimensions (large which was given three points, medium which was given two points, and weak was given one point).

Validity of the Instrument
Cronbach alpha was used to see the internal consistency. It was (0.82)

Variables of the Study

The variables of the study were:

Independent variable: the experience (1-5 years), (6-10 years), (11 years and more).

Dependent variable: the reality of training courses for teachers of social studies in light of their training needs.

Statistical Analysis
Means and standard deviations were used to answer the first and second questions. One way ANOVA was used to answer the third question.

Discussion of the Results

The first question : What is the reality of training programs for teachers of social studies from their points of view?

To answer this question Means and Standard Deviations were calculated as shown in table (1).

Table 1 Means and Standard Deviations of the reality of training programs sorted in a descending order

No.	The reality of the training programs	Mean	Standard deviation
1	Training programs are based on the opinion of the Directorate of Training at the Ministry of Education.	56.2	56.0
2	Training programs are a routine.	51.2	61.0
3	Teachers are being forced to attend training courses.	43.2	79.0
4	Training programs are general, and for all teachers in various subjects.	40.2	61.0
5	Training programs are theoretical and lack practical application.	40.2	60.0
6	Training programs are randomly but not deliberately planned.	35.2	77.0
7	Training programs include several ways of training (lectures, seminars, and workshops).	27.2	59.0
8	Identify the target group for training accurately.	27.2	58.0
9	Training programs are conducted by qualified personne	21.2	65.0
10	Training programs involve teachers, old and new.	18.2	75.0
11	Training programs are consistent with the nature social studies.	17.2	59.0
12	Training programs are followed up in the field by supervisors and directors.	09.2	68.0
13	Training programs are based on the reports of educational supervisors.	00.2	79.0
14	Training programs are varied (remedial, rehabilitation, revitalization, innovative).	00.2	64.0
15	The right time is selected for training.	99.1	80.0
16	Training programs focus on teachers' shortcomings.	89.1	59.0
17	Training programs meet the teachers' needs.	83.1	64.0
18	Training programs are ongoing throughout the scho year.	75.1	76.0
19	The teachers' views are taken in the training program	65.1	73.0

The above table shows that the reality of training programs is as follows:

Programs are based on the opinion of the Directorate of Training at the Ministry of Education. It received the first rank with a mean of (2.56) and a standard deviation of (0.56).

Hence, the process of selecting courses commensurate with the philosophy of these institutions and not with the teachers' opinion in the field. That is also due to the Directorate of Training that has its keen view on the selection of training courses that suit the developments in the worldwide educational field.

- The training programs are a routine. They got the second rank with a mean of (2.51) and a standard deviation of (0.61). The reason is to repeat some training programs on an annual basis such as (classroom management, preparation of daily plans), which makes old teachers feel that there is a repetition in the courses while the new teachers feel that it is good because it conveys new information which contributes to the improvement of their performance within the educational classroom.
- Teachers are being forced to attend the training sessions: This item got the third place with a mean of (2.43) and a standard deviation of (0.79) . That may be due to the fact that the Ministry of Education follows this method to ensure the presence of a greater number of teachers of these courses for their development and prepare them to be fit with the requirements of modern times since failure to follow this method may lead to the presence of a very small number of teachers for these courses. Therefore, the development will not be achieved in the educational field as these courses are the most important means of development.
- Training programs should be general for all majors. This got the fourth place with a mean of (2.40) and a standard deviation of (0.61). That was due to the holding of general sessions for all teachers because of the lack of teachers in each major. Therefore, it is unreasonable to hold a session for a few if the cost of courses is high and the effort required by instructors is costly. The reason may refer to the fact that the teaching skills and competencies will be similar to some extent to some majors with the specificities of each major in terms of methods, activities,
- Instructional materials and evaluation. So, teachers should be grouped on the basis of the similarity in competencies.
- Training programs that are theoretical and lack practical applications. This got the fifth place with a mean of (2.40) and a standard deviation of (0.60). That may be due to the fact that practical application needs to be longer than the theoretical information. This leads to overburdening trainers and teachers. It may be due to the large number of teachers per session, which prevents practical application. That may be due to trainers' lack of having practical application skills. Therefore, it is limited to the theoretical information.

Question Two: What are the training needs for teachers of social studies from their points of view?

To answer this question means and standard deviations were calculated as shown in table (2).

Table 2 Means and Standard Deviations of Training Needs sorted in a descending order

No.	Training Needs	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	To let teachers know how to set up remedial and enrichment plans.	26.2	70.0
2	To let teachers acquire the content analysis skill of social studies textbooks.	22.2	68.0
3	Visits exchange among the teachers in the same majo	16.2	68.0
4	Let the teachers acquire the necessary skills for each major (history, geography, national education).	15.2	64.0
5	Let the teachers acquire all the types of evaluation	14.2	64.0
6	Let the teachers acquire the skill of students' raising Thinking.	12.2	61.0
7	Let the teachers know how to prepare daily plans.	12.2	71.0
8	Let the teachers know the special methods of teaching social studies.	11.2	64.0
9	Let the teachers know the effective communication skills with students.	09.2	69.0
10	Use of the local environment as a source of learning.	08.2	71.0
11	How to deal with students with creative capacity.	07.2	73.0
12	How to set up educational activities.	07.2	73.0
13	How to enter current events in the textbook.	07.2	66.0
14	To let teachers know how to use reinforcement and feedback.	06.2	66.0
15	To let teachers acquire classroom management skills.	06.2	70.0
16	To let teachers acquire skills to deal with students.	05.2	68.0
17	How to write research reports.	01.2	74.0
18	Measurement of classroom interaction skills.	99.1	69.0
19	To let teachers acquire how to make teaching aids.	98.1	65.0
20	To let teachers acquire how to use new software in teaching.	98.1	68.0
21	To let teachers acquire how to deal with students with learning difficulties.	90.1	77.0
22	How to deal with social studies .	87.1	73.0
23	How to use the school library as a source of learning.	82.1	71.0

The above table shows that the training needs for the teachers of social studies are as follows:

- To let teachers know how to prepare remedial and enrichment plans. This got the first rank with a mean of (2.26) and a standard deviation of (0.70). It was largely due to

the lack of training in addressing these important issues and focus on the general skills and competencies more than the detailed ones. This may be due to the fact that these teachers face different levels of students. There are weak students who need to have special plans to remedy their weaknesses. There are some distinguished students who need enrichment plans. So, the need for teachers who can prepare such plans appears on the surface.

- To let teachers acquire the content analysis skill for social studies textbooks. This got the second rank with a mean of (2.22) and a standard deviation of (0.68). The reason may refer to the awareness of these teachers that the content analysis skill helps them to know how to prepare daily, semester, and yearly plans. In addition, content analysis skill helps them know facts, concepts, generalizations, theories, values and attitudes in the book are. Hence, this contributes to the enhancement of their understanding of the book and the delivery of information to the students easily.

- Visits exchange among teachers of the same major of study. It got the third rank with a mean of (2.16) and a standard deviation of (0.68). This may refer to teachers' recognition of the importance of field visits in their developments in terms of cross-fertilization of ideas which they exchange during the debate after the completion of the classroom situation. Thus, it is reflected positively on the teachers' performance. The reason may be that the teachers benefit from each other in terms of performance and skills within the classroom in a practical way. So, from this result we can recognize the importance of field visits.

- To let teachers acquire the necessary skills for each major (history, geography, national education). It got the fourth rank with a mean of (2.15) and a standard deviation of (0.64) . This may refer to the specificity of each major of social studies. For example, geography needs trends identification skills, the skills of reading the key of a map, and reading and understanding the map. History does not need similar skills, but it needs different skills such as historical thinking skills, sources usage and original texts skills, the skill to distinguish between original and secondary sources and others. The national education needs different skills like the connection of local environment , analysis and conclusion, and `the consolidation of loyalty. So, each branch has different skills from the others although there are similar skills common to these branches.

- To let teachers acquire different types of evaluation. It got the last place with a mean of (2.14) and a standard deviation of (0.64) . This may refer to the teachers' recognition of the disadvantages of traditional methods of evaluation which are still followed in schools. The need to know modern evaluation methods such as the evaluation based on observation, the alternative evaluation and others from the types of modern evaluation will assess the learner in various fields.

Question Three: Are social studies teachers' training needs different in light of their different experiences?

To answer this question, One way ANOVA was used as shown in table (3).

__Table 3 One way ANOVA to detect the effect of the differences in experiences__

	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean of sum of squares	F. value	Significanc level
Between groups	15.174	2	7.58	0.81	0.922
Within groups	10521.611	113	93.112		
Total	10538.784	115			

It is clear from table (3) that there are no statistically significant differences at the level of (α =0.05) between the different social studies teachers' training needs due to the experience variable. The reason that developments in the curricula and textbooks in the educational field need to be developed. Thus, all teachers should be accordingly trained regardless of their experience.

Question Four: What are the social studies teachers' proposals to develop training programs?

To answer this question an open question is given to teachers of social studies who submitted several proposals including :

1. Conducting realistic training programs and not just theoretical ones.
2. Holding training programs by qualified persons regardless of whether they are supervisors or not.
3. Using computer in training courses.
4. Teachers' participate in training programs from all governorates of the Kingdom for the exchange of experiences.
5. The teacher should not work during training , and courses should be paid.
6. The training courses should be special in social studies.
7. Supervisors' and teachers' points of view in the sessions should be taken into consideration.
8. Courses should keep pace with the scientific and technological development.

Recommendations

Based on the result of the study, the researchers recommended the following:

1. Holding training courses according to the supervisors' and teachers' points of view in the educational field and not according to the view points of the Directorate of Training at the Ministry of Education.
2. Holding specialized training sessions for each major particularly with regard to specialized skills.
3. Focusing on the practical side of training courses in addition to the theoretical side.
4. Developing training programs so as to keep pace with recent developments.

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