Conference Proceedings

Gulf Comparative Education Society’s Third Annual Symposium on Global Innovation, Local Transformation: Trends & Reactions

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INTRODUCTION

The Gulf Comparative Education Society (GCES) organized its third annual symposium under the sponsorship of the Sheikh Saud Bin Saqr Al Qasimi Foundation for Policy Research and in collaboration with Bahrain Teachers College. Entitled ‘Global Innovation, Local Transformation: Trends & Reactions,’ the symposium was held at the Crown Plaza Hotel, Kingdom of Bahrain on Saturday March 24 and Sunday March 25, 2012. The symposium consisted of one keynote address, three panels, and four breakout sessions with a total of 45 presentations made by invited speakers as well as those who submitted abstracts. The speakers came from a wide variety of countries, including the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Oman, Bahrain, Qatar, Switzerland, England, and the United States and represented different voices in the education sector, ranging from policy makers, academics and researchers, school providers and leaders, consultants, and teachers.

The purpose of this year’s GCES symposium was to identify and examine the use of global innovations in education in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries as well as the ways in which they are adapted (or not) to suit the needs of the environment. Delivering the keynote on the role of and relationship between professional and vocational education in the GCC was Dr. David Guile, Professor of Education and Work at the Institute of Education, University of London. The remaining panels and breakout sessions addressed the following topics:

• Education Reforms in Bahrain
• Technology & Innovation
• Student Participation in Education: Trends & Reactions
• Systems & Standards in GCC Schools
• Transforming Science Curricula
• The Use of E-portfolio in Evaluating Public Schools
• Relationships and Academic Achievement
• English Language Programs in the GCC

In addition, the symposium brought together over 200 participants working in a range of organizations across Bahrain, the Gulf states, and beyond, all of whom shared an interest in comparative education in the GCC.

Following the symposium presenters were asked if they would like to submit a 1500 – 3000 word paper on their presentation. This volume is the compilation of those who submitted papers. While it does not cover all of the presentations that were made at the symposium, presentation slides for all the presentations are available on the GCES website (www.gulfcomped.ning.com).

Dr. Ali Ibrahim – President
Dr. Hamood Al-Harthi – Vice President
Samar Farah – Secretary
THE KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY, CREATIVITY & “PROJECTIFICATION”: RECONCEPTUALISING THE ROLE OF, AND THE RELATION BETWEEN, PROFESSIONAL & VOCATIONAL LEARNING IN THE GULF STATES

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INTRODUCTION

The aim of this paper is to introduce an argument that I have made for research, policy and practitioners audiences in the United Kingdom, elsewhere in Europe, the United States etc. Stated in general terms the argument is that:

• changes in the debate about the knowledge economy and in the context of work raise new questions for educational policymakers and educationalists concerned with professional and/or vocational learning to consider;
• new ideas about learning offer ways to address those issues.

I hope the paper raises the above issues in a way so people living in Gulf States: (i) can identify with them because they reflect similar or emerging trends occurring in their own countries; and, (ii) use my analysis to consider how to respond to the challenge of the knowledge economy in their own country.

STRUCTURE OF THE PAPER

The paper is structured as follows. The first section introduces the concept of the knowledge economy, discusses the way in which work was organised in the first phase of the knowledge economy, and concludes by highlighting the prevailing assumptions about professional and vocational learning in that era. The second section starts by tracing how the debate about the knowledge economy has broadened considerably over the intervening years. It does so by distinguishing between: alternative conceptions of the role of knowledge in the economy; and, the cultures and practices which facilitate the use of knowledge as a resource in the economy. The section then moves on to discuss changes that have been occurring in the organisation of work in knowledge economies. Specifically, firms use of projects as a principle for the organisation of work within and between companies. The paper notes that this development is predisposing workers at all levels, and with different specialisms, to collaborate more closely with one another. It concludes by arguing that the above developments imply that the historic separation of professional and vocational learning has to be rethought, and this means re-thinking the theory/practice relationship.

The third section introduces a new concept of learning – learning as a process of ‘recontextualisation’ (Guile, 2010). It then identifies four expressions of recontextualisation – content, pedagogic, workplace, and learner – and shows how they offer a holistic perspective on the theory/practice problem that
has not only always dogged professional and vocational learning, but also dogs the work of interprofessional/vocational teams that are increasingly a feature of the 21st century knowledge economy. The paper concludes by identifying how the concept of recontextualisation can be used to rethink professional and vocational learning, their relation to one another, and the implications of this development for preparing people to work more effectively in the project teams of the knowledge economy, and then invites readers to consider the implications of the argument for Gulf States.

KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY, WORK, PROFESSIONAL AND VOCATIONAL LEARNING

The concept of the knowledge economy emerged in late 1960s/early 1970s as a counter to the conventional wisdom since Smith and Marx that land, labour and capital are key factors of production. The first person to invoke the concept of the knowledge economy was Drucker (1965) and he argued that all forms of knowledge (i.e. theory/technique/tacit) were important in economic activity. Writing a few years later, Bell (1974, p. 12) simplified this argument by stating that ‘theoretical knowledge constitutes axial principle of (economic and social) development’. Bell’s vision has subsequently been elaborated and extended, principally by Castells (2000), and, in the process, has attained hegemonic status worldwide. We can see this in statements from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the World Bank that affirm the primacy of the Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM)-based conception of knowledge economy, and research that tries to quantify the ‘knowledge-input’ into products & services.

The conventional wisdom about the work in the knowledge economy from late 1970s onwards when Bell’s ideas first gained prominence was predicated on the classic economic input/output transformation model (Dietzenbacher and Lahr, 2004). Viewed from the perspective of this model, the input is human capital, firms use their division of labour to deploy human capital to transform knowledge in different high and/or low skilled ways, and the output is knowledge-based products and/or services. This model of work and the utilization of knowledge lasted (and still continues in some organizations/parts of organisation) as the dominant paradigm for the organisation of work from 1970s to 1990s.

During this era, professional and vocational work was clearly differentiated from one another. The difference in their status was denoted firstly, through the terms ‘white’ or ‘blue’ collar work and through the site of work, for example, in an office or in a factory. Secondly, the difference was denoted by the types of: (i) institutions where they occurred (universities or training centres); (ii) pedagogy teachers used to facilitate learning (discursive and inquisitive as opposed to drill and practice), and (iii) qualifications (degrees rather than certificates). Nevertheless, the common problem associated with both forms of learning was the theory/practice relation. Stated another way, it was the concern of how to design the relation between the knowledge and skill developed in education and the knowledge and skill required at work.

From the early 1990s, education policies became linked to the knowledge economy as a result of the widespread acceptance of the argument provided by Reich (1991). As a consequence, over the next few years national policymakers and transnational bodies rushed to formulate educational policies advocating that an increasing number of national populations be educated to the highest level possible.

CRITIQUES OF THE STEM-BASED CONCEPTION OF THE KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY

Two critiques of the post-Bellian assumptions about knowledge economy emerged from mid-1990s. They can be classified as the ‘other forms of knowledge’ and ‘cultures & practices’ critiques, and both draw attention to a number of previously glossed over features of the knowledge economy.
The alternative knowledge critique

The distinctive feature of the former is an argument that a focus on Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) skews the critically important role that other forms of knowledge (i.e. non-STEM) make to economic development. Writing in the mid-1990s, Lash and Urry (1995) pointed out that ‘cultural and aesthetic knowledge’ was tremendously important input into most modern products and services because, consumers are increasingly choosing what to buy based on design features as much as price. This argument paved the way for the idea of a ‘creative economy’ (Florida, 2002), for example, advertising, film, and now web-products and services, to become part of the debate about the knowledge economy. This happened because these are industries where the cultural design of products and services, in conjunction with technological developments, are the dominant characteristics of the most successful companies (e.g. Apple/Google) in the global knowledge economy.

Another expression of the alternative knowledge argument about the role of knowledge in the economy was advanced by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), via their claim that the stock of non-codified knowledge, or in their terms ‘tacit’ knowledge, is more important than codified knowledge as a resource in most successful companies. Interestingly, this argument returned the debate about the knowledge economy to Drucker rather than Bell.

The cultures and practice critique

The ‘cultures and practices’ argument introduced a new dimension to the debate about the knowledge economy. Instead of concentrating on the relative importance of types of knowledge, it focused on the role of ‘epistemic cultures & practices’ (Knorr Cetina, 1999). The gist of the argument is that such cultures and practices are central to the knowledge warranting and communication processes in science and the professions and, as such, constitute the reason economies and/or societies can ‘run’ on knowledge.

Taken in combination, the above developments in the knowledge economy and in the organisation of work imply that the claim advanced by Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (1995) & World Bank (2003) that qualifications, especially STEM-based qualifications, are the sine qua non for the knowledge required in the knowledge economy is not the whole story. Before seeing why, it is necessary to look at the implications of new developments in work.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN WORK

The emergence of ‘projectification’

A number of developments in the 1990s began to undermine the input/output model and, in the process, began to set a new agenda for professional and vocational learning. The first development was that new models of work emerged based around the use of project teams, rather than functional divisions, to coordinate the work process. This development was referred to by Midler (1995) as ‘projectification’ and it takes two forms: work in multinationals (e.g. automobile/pharmaceuticals) is increasingly organized around projects to short-circuit problem of divisional ‘silos’ (Doz et al. 2001); and, projects are organizing principle for work in ‘creative’ occupations, for example, Media/IT/Consultancy etc. (Grabher, 2004). The common organizing resource in both cases is the Internet because, it provides a way for projects teams to coordinate, monitor and realize work that is distributed spatially and temporally. Two important outcomes are that a) knowledge in projects is transgressive (runs fast and loose) across members of project team, and b) interprofessional/vocational epistemic cultures have to be formed so project teams can work with one another as effectively as possible.

Two very good examples of the shift to project work have been reported on recently in Media Production and Pharmacy. In the case of the former, the media industry in the UK has used projects as the principle to underpin work for well over the last ten years. As a consequence, skill sets in projects have become
transgressive (Guile and Lahiff, forthcoming). By this I mean, producers, directors, script writers, researchers, technicians work in common spaces to develop and produce programmes and, in the process, share their knowledge with one another. This working arrangement introduces a new principle for apprenticeship: apprenticeships become project-based rather than level-based. As a consequence, apprentices’ participation in project teams is determined by the work they are asked to undertake (e.g. work with producers, script writers and technicians), rather than by the level of their educational qualification (only work with technicians). This form of participation presupposes existence of inclusive knowledge-based cultures and work practices where knowledge is shared amongst members of the project team, as opposed to specialists working on their own to protect their knowledge.

A similar but less dramatic development is also occurring in pharmacy in the UK. Pharmacists increasingly work as members of community health teams. This means that assistant pharmacists are required to deputise for pharmacists and oversee dispensing in pharmacies. The net effect is that although pharmacists and pharmacy assistants’ skill sets are differentiated by qualification (former has a degree in pharmacy while the latter do not) they actually overlap in practice. Pharmacist and pharmacy assistants are both expected to support healthy living amongst local population and act entrepreneurially to retain customers. This requirement presupposes the existence of, as in the media example, inclusive knowledge-based cultures and practice to facilitate knowledge sharing and collaborative work practices in local pharmacies.

**Challenge posed by projectification**

The challenges posed by project work can be encapsulated by drawing on some of the concepts the paper introduced earlier. The overriding challenge is to support members of occupations that may classified as a professional or vocational to work together to create hybrid epistemic cultures so they can work with one another’s frameworks etc. Organizations encounter problems addressing this challenge because most of the ideas about learning that underpin existing educational programmes of professional/vocational formation were: (i) never formulated to assist people to create epistemic cultures; and (ii) struggle to support people to address theory/practice divide.

Why is this the case? Very simply, because most educational programmes of professional/vocational formation are based on the idea that either it is relatively straight forward to transfer and apply knowledge gained in one context to another (Haskell, ) or that the goal can be accomplished by encouraging learners to reflect on their practice (Boud, et al. 2009). These ideas have, however, been subject to considerable criticism for some time (see inter alia. ). What is needed, therefore, is fresh thinking about learning.

**NEW IDEAS ABOUT LEARNING**

**From transfer to ‘recontextualisation’**

In my recent book (Guile, 2010), I have introduced the concept of ‘reconceptualisation’. This concept is predicated on idea that theory and practice change depending upon their context of use. I have subsequently identified four expressions of recontextualisation and, in the process, show that they are a cyclical, rather than, linear process (Guile, 2011).

The first expression is ‘content recontextualisation’. By this I mean, educational programmes of professional/vocational formation consist of a mix of knowledge, for example, disciplinary knowledge/legal knowledge and workplace knowledge. These forms of knowledge change when they are recontextualised into professional/vocational curricula, for example, the chemistry content of a chemistry degree is very different compared to the chemistry content of a pharmacy degree: one is deep and extensive while the other is limited and circumscribed. This is because the purpose of the former is to introduce budding chemists to the theoretical structure of the discipline of chemistry, whereas the purpose of the latter is to provide pharmacists with a resource to understand the composition of drugs.
The second is ‘pedagogic recontextualisation’. By this I mean, the strategies (i.e. transmission/constructivism/dialogism) and techniques (lectures/workshops/case studies etc.) used to introduce the content of a professional/vocational curriculum to learners, and to position learners to use that content as a resource to support thinking and acting in workplaces. For example, teaching pharmacists sufficient chemistry so they can discern accurately which off-the-shelf remedy is most appropriate for a patient.

The third is ‘workplace recontextualisation’. By this I mean, assisting learners to understand that: (i) knowledge from disciplines is an embedded part of professional practice (e.g. the practice of dispensing medicines safely is based on knowledge of chemistry); and also that (ii) practice-generated knowledge is an embedded part of professional practice (e.g. by including case studies of safe and unsafe dispensing in the university pharmacy curriculum).

The final expression is ‘learner recontextualisation’, in other words, learners grasping for themselves that they use disciplinary knowledge, in conjunction with practical experience, to infer how to act in contexts of education (assignment) & work (dispense safely), rather than to apply knowledge in these ways. The big difference between inference and application can be explained as follows. The former presupposes that actions vary according to context, and that context-based decision-making calls for the development of a capability to make appropriate judgments. In contrast, the latter assume that actions are invariant, and that theoretical knowledge is the basis of our decision making.

RECONTEXTUALISATION AND PROFESSIONAL AND VOCATIONAL LEARNING: IMPLICATIONS

The great value of the four expressions of recontextualisation is that they provide all parties (educationalists, professional associations, governments etc.) with a holistic perspective on the theory/practice issue in the context of education and work.

The four expressions accomplish this goal because they provide a language of description for the way knowledge changes according to its context of use. It becomes possible to see that when a concept, for example, the chemistry concept ‘compound’, moves in to a curriculum, for example, pharmacy curriculum, it has been selected to help aspiring pharmacists see the relation between the discipline of chemistry and their profession. This goal can only be realised however if firstly, lecturers use a range of pedagogic strategies to teach the concept so that aspiring pharmacists understand its curricula (resource for study) and professional (resource for contextual decision-making) purpose. Secondly, pharmacists in workplaces assist trainee pharmacists to understand the way in which they use the concept of compound implicitly as a resource to guide their decision-making processes.

What emerges from this understanding of the process of recontextualisation is that there is more common ground between professional and vocational learning than has hitherto been appreciated. Both types of curricula are constructed according to similar processes. Where they tend to differ is according to the extent of the knowledge base required (Guile, 2012).

The concept of recontextualisation offers, therefore, a common framework and language to re-think the relation between professional and vocational curricula. Instead of seeing them as divided by level of knowledge and therefore radically different from one another, it becomes possible to see professional and vocational curricula as being based on common processes. Both entail learners participating in pedagogic and workplace recontextualisation. Once we have grasped this issue, it also becomes possible to see that the theory/practice has always been about learning to reason, infer and act in different contexts, rather than about applying and/or matching knowledge gained in one context to another context.

This observation provides the link to the earlier argument about project work and knowledge sharing, which may appear to have vanished during the discussion about learning. As we appreciate that the
theory/practice has always been about learning to reason, infer and act in different contexts, we are in a position to see that such activity is more likely to occur where epistemic cultures exist that assist learners in educational institutions and in workplaces to recontextualise their knowledge to support others to understand their reasoning, acting and warranting.

If this is true for someone entering a profession and/or vocation, then it is equally true for people from different professions/vocations working together in project teams. This raises a two-fold challenge: how to create hybrid epistemic cultures in project teams and how do those involved with educational programmes of professional/vocational formation re-design those programme to prepare the next generation for inter-disciplinary and inter-professional work (Guile, 2012).

CONCLUSION: AN INVITATION

I would like to end this paper by inviting readers, especially from Gulf states, to consider the argument that has been presented in relation to their context, rather than following the tradition of providing a summary of the preceding argument.

The invitation I issue can be expressed as follows. Do you recognize these trends:

- projectification & epistemic cultures as trends occurring in organisations in Gulf States?

If you do, does this or might this imply rethinking:

- separation of professional/vocational learning?

If you feel this re-thinking might be required:

- what would be your starting point – Primary/Secondary/Higher Education – to do so?

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DOES ONE SHOE FIT ALL? THE ‘PRESCRIPTION-PROFESSIONAL’ CONUNDRUM IN BAHRAIN

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INTRODUCTION

The Bahrain Education Reform Agenda is an ambitious plan which involves school improvement from the bottom up to the top down; that is from the classroom to the ministry and back! The national policy framework for education in Bahrain is centralized and manifests itself in an informed prescription of reforms to the system. However, reports suggest that prescriptive approaches to school change have a limited lifecycle albeit a longer lifecycle in under-resourced and under-performing schools. A school-centered, professionally-driven reform can improve student achievement and seems to have become a model of choice in some high performing school systems. It is evident that there is potential in ‘developing’ educational systems to combine and blend both policy approaches using segmentation (Hopkins, 2006). The segmentation of Bahraini schools can be based on national quality markers provided by the Quality Assurance Agency for Training and Development in Bahrain and linked to the MOE’s Professional Development Continuum Cadre (PDCC) could provide the basis for a more strategic approach to education reforms in Bahrain. An approach which builds capacity and results in a school culture shift. The purpose of this paper therefore, is to demonstrate that there is capacity in Bahrain’s education system to undertake school based reforms and create a sustainable educational change.

The literature on large scale reform projects in education would be supportive of the idea that deep reforms to developing systems (or under performing schools in good school systems) will best be served by state-regulated or prescriptive reforms (Fullan, 2000; Barber & Mourshed, 2007; Schleicher, 2011). Such is the reform policy framework in Bahrain. Perhaps the most recent example of the use of ‘informed prescription’ policies which successfully changed an education system was in the UK in the 90’s (OECD 2011). International evidence based on student achievement confirms this outcome (TIMMS, 2007). Critics however argue that prescriptive reforms have a limited impact and that eventually improvement gains plateau although disadvantaged schools will probably continue to do well (Hopkins, 2006; Fullan, 2009; Fullan, 2011). Either way you look at it in England today there are thousands more children and young people reading and writing better than they would have been without the reforms. Reform scholars also argue that it takes more than prescriptive interventions to change a school system (OECD, 2005; Gopinathan et al., 2008). It takes human and social capital with social capital being the more important. In fact, Michael Fullan, (2011:11) is keen to point out the need for ‘peer power’ in the classroom as an essential driver of education change. “In short, high social capital and high human capital must be combined and of the two the former is the more powerful.” His conclusions were in part based on a study of 1000 fourth and fifth grade teachers from elementary schools in New York City (Leana, 2011). Leana looked at the relationship of human capital (defined as the qualifications, experience and ability of teachers) with social capital (measured by the frequency and focus of communication between teachers on student learning and the feelings of trust and closeness among teachers) on student mathematics achievement. Results indicated that teachers with high human capital and high social capital one standard deviation above the mean could improve mathematics scores by as much as 5.7%. Leana also notes that low ability teachers could improve considerably if they had high levels of social capital in their schools. Conversely, schools with low social capital can make good teachers less effective.
Bahrain has adopted a centralized, prescriptive policy framework to its education reform agenda which is appropriate for a system undergoing deep changes (Haslam, 2011). However, in implementing its reform, Bahrain also faces the problem of sustainability through capacity development of local school teachers and leaders. The question is can the current reform policy framework as it stands ensure student achievement in the classroom and also ensure system-wide sustainability through the development of social capital among teachers?

Bahrain is a relatively small national education system (UNESCO, 2012). It is served by 202 schools and just over 11,864 teachers. There are 125,603 Bahraini students in the public system with a further 24,508 in the local private schools. What is interesting is that over 378 teachers hold advanced post graduate degrees (Masters or doctorates) and 7326 have undergraduate degrees in education. What is a cause for concern is that as many as 2269 teachers do not hold a university degree and 56 have secondary education (Bahrain Ministry of Education, 2012). Combined with international test scores (TIMMS, 2007) in math and science in 2003 and 2007 these data indicated a need for large scale changes to the education system and the Bahrain Education Reform Project was established.

THE BAHRAIN EDUCATION REFORM PROJECT

There has been significant investment in three key reform agencies including the Quality Assurance Authority for Education and Training (QAAET), the Bahrain Polytechnic and the Bahrain Teachers College at the University of Bahrain. In like manner there are six key reform drivers of educational change for student achievement. Education policy choices to this point have been centralized and prescriptive but the real work has yet to be undertaken. That is the roll out of national curriculum reforms and the concomitant professional development of the teaching force. It’s the alignment of these new reform agencies and the MOE’s key drivers that is complex. How the reform elements interact and roll out simultaneously while at the same time catering to the critical dimension of system sustainability and capacity development? David Hopkin’s (2006) article which served as a primer for an OECD

Figure 1: BAHRAIN Quality Assurance Agency for Education and Training (QAAET) 2011 Report on Bahrain Public Schools

leadership conference argues that for the UK system to continue to improve centralized, prescriptive reforms should give way to school centered, ‘professional’ reforms. But is this realistic in the context of Bahrain? Top schools may be able to respond to this challenge but less effective schools may still need resources, help and guidance. His solution was to segment the school system based on the stage of development of the school toward reform. The most obvious segmentation has been undertaken by the QAAET and is available on the website as a report on schools (Figure 1). A second classification that could prove useful to segmenting the professional development system is the MOE’s professional cadre for career development and personal growth with grades, four to eight.

Recent data from the QAAET (2012) suggests there are as many as 33% of schools in Bahrain rated good to outstanding which suggests there might be up to 33% of good to outstanding teachers and school leaders in the system. The QAAET evaluation system in Bahrain is based on learning outcomes and progress in the areas of personal development and academic achievement, the quality of teaching and learning, curriculum development and enrichment, support and guidance given the students, the quality of leadership and management. Schools are awarded a grade on a four point scale:

- Outstanding ................................................................. 1
- Good ............................................................................. 2
- Satisfactory .................................................................. 3
- Inadequate ................................................................... 4

Thirty three percent of the teaching workforce amounts to as many as 3800 teachers¹. In like manner, there are as many as 7600 teachers working in satisfactory or inadequate schools so there is work to be done. The earned qualifications of Bahraini teachers and school leaders makes for an interesting data set on human capital in the system (Table 1). On the positive side there appears to be 7704 teachers with a B.Ed. or higher degree with pedagogy training. On the other hand there are 4054 with no teacher’s certificate and either a first degree or less (Bahrain MOE, 2012).

### Table 1: Educational qualifications of Bahrain Public School Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Public School Teachers</th>
<th>Bahrain</th>
<th>Expat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PhD/MSc/M.Ed</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Ed</td>
<td>7326</td>
<td>5959</td>
<td>1367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSc or BA</td>
<td>1785</td>
<td>1002</td>
<td>783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma, Higher Diploma, Sec. or Elementary</td>
<td>2269</td>
<td>1860</td>
<td>409</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


¹Actual data on teachers in outstanding schools is difficult to come by and so the number of teachers was calculated as a % number of schools at each stage of their performance cycle multiplied by the number of teachers in the system.
Every teacher in the system can be placed on the Ministry of Education professional development career cadre which includes three tracks (namely teaching, specialist and leadership) and as many as eight levels (Figure 2). The newly trained teacher enters the cadre as a certified teacher at level four and while the majority of teachers in the system are at levels four, five and six. There are some who have aspired to higher levels and would be the system leaders and potential architects of education change in Bahrain. The value of the cadre is that it allows Bahrain to customize its professional development and curriculum reform policies by segmenting the school population based on QAAET rankings and stage of career development.

Figure 2: Bahrain MOE Career Cadre for Teachers and School Leaders

**SEGMENTATION OF THE BAHRAIN PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM**

In simple terms the assumption is that outstanding schools have outstanding teachers and school leaders. Similarly, good schools would not be classified as such without good teachers and school leaders. Just as schools are at a stage of organizational excellence so too are teachers and school leaders at different stages of their professional growth and at different stages of career development on the cadre. The matrix in Figure 3 provides for a policy framework that distinguishes between the need for ‘prescriptive’ interventions on the one hand and school based ‘professional’ reforms on the other. There is a twist to this in that those outstanding and good teachers with many years of teaching and school leadership experience can also ‘implement’ the reforms with the right kind of training and post graduate professional development.

There could be as many as 2300 teachers working in underperforming schools in Bahrain. Their professional development would involve for the most part prescriptive interventions having to do with re-skilling programs. There are 2269 teachers without a first degree and teaching in Bahraini schools. Obviously they will not all be working in inadequate schools but perhaps there are a number that...
are and would benefit from experience in a good or outstanding school? This could be up to 5320 teachers working in satisfactory schools and need intensive classroom coaching and support possibly by colleagues from outstanding and good schools as a form of collaborative and vertically-integrated professional development (Cordingley et al. 2003). No new teachers should be placed in satisfactory or inadequate schools and the new teachers in good to outstanding schools would need to be mentored by competent and resilient teachers. The policy conundrum is situated at the junction of the satisfactory to good/outstanding schools and involves their ability to take on school based reforms?

**CONCLUSION**

Even the most challenged educational systems have some capacity to be leaders of education reforms. However, people need to be motivated, incentivized, engaged and empowered in incremental stages (OECD 2011). In the mean time with at least two structural reforms in place (namely an independent quality assurance system for schools and a career cadre model) it is possible to implement a reform policy agenda based on a blend of government-centered and school-centered initiatives. In short ‘one shoe may not fit all’ and for long term sustainability and the development of social capital, let’s make sure it doesn’t.
REFERENCES


TIMMS. (2007), *International mathematics report: Findings from IEA’s trends in international mathematics and science study at the fourth and eighth Grades*, TIMMS et PIRLS International Study Center, Boston College, Chestnut Hill, MA.
INTRODUCTION

One commonly suggested way to improve teaching inside the classroom is through teachers’ professional development (PD). Improving teaching inside the Bahraini classroom is a requirement of highest priority with respect to the Kingdom’s educational reform project which is underway. Bahraini public school teachers therefore are required to take a number of PD courses, most of which are offered by Bahrain Teachers’ College (BTC), one of the key-players in the national educational reform project.

PD is expressed by Fullan & Steigelbauer (1991) as “the sum of formal and informal learning experiences throughout one's career from pre-service teacher education to retirement” (p. 326). Over the years, PD has changed from a strategy to update teachers' professional knowledge to a tool for change and development (Steyn, 2005). To be an effective tool of change and development, PD has to be a process that is continuous and that includes properly planned training and individual follow-up through supportive and encouraging observation, feedback, staff dialogue, and peer coaching (Ho-Ming & Ping-Yan, 1999; Moore, 2000; Bernauer, 2002). Such supportive and encouraging provisions prevail in schools with quality leadership that creates a nurturing and orderly environment that stimulates teachers’ efforts, while simultaneously inspiring them to take action and ownership of that action (Mahoney, 1997 and Bernauer, 2002). In other words, PD is successful in schools that employ a transformational form of leadership where principals share leadership with teachers (Bernauer, 2002). Therefore, the link between teachers PD and school leadership cannot be ignored.

Despite these conditions for successful PD and the availability of some PD programs that have the potential to improve teacher learning, we usually find teachers failing to apply what they learn from their PD experiences for various reasons (Russell, 2001 and Steyn, 2005). The end result typically is a significant number of wasteful workshops, conferences, and courses that lead to little sustained change in the classroom (Russell, 2001). That is why this study is interested in investigating the qualitative research question: How do teachers in Bahraini public schools perceive their PD implementation in their classrooms and if they happen to believe that they are not succeeding at such an implementation, what, according to them, are the main reasons behind their lack of success? The study will also recommend strategies that would help fill the gap, if any, between teachers’ PD experiences and classroom implementation. Among these strategies is the implementation of a comprehensive PD model that addresses school capacity and that strengthens the knot between the PD participants and the PD provider (in this case, mainly the BTC). What is meant by school capacity is “the collective power of the full staff to improve student achievement schoolwide” (Newman, King, & Youngs, 2001, p.261) and researchers agree that the stronger this capacity, the more likely PD is to advance overall student achievement and, consequently, to succeed (Corcoran, 1995; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1996; Hargreaves, 1995; Lieberman, 1995; Little, 1993; Renyi, 1996; Richardson, 1994; and Newman, King, & Youngs, 2001)
BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Because of the strong link between teachers’ PD and school leadership, the research initially explored the issue of teachers’ PD implementation with a focus group of fifteen experienced male and female public school assistant principals (AP). The AP represented schools at all levels and participated in a reflective exercise, the purpose of which was to give the researcher a general idea about (1) how they perceive Bahraini teachers’ classroom implementation of PD knowledge and skills and (2) how they view their role as leaders in helping to increase this implementation and thus increase their schools’ PD programs’ chances of success.

To summarize the focus group’s reflections:

- All of the AP mentioned that teachers’ PD in their schools consisted primarily of courses offered by either BTC or the Directorate of Training;
- The majority believe that most teachers are applying their PD learning only minimally, i.e. there is a gap between their PD learning and application in the classroom; and
- Based on the suggestions made with regards to what needs to be done on the leadership level to help bridge this gap, it is clear that the APs have a solid understanding of what it takes to make PD implementation a success. However, their understanding is limited and does not employ a school-wide approach to address all aspects of school capacity.

This perceived gap between teachers’ PD learning and their classroom application then prompted the researcher to proceed and explore whether the public school teachers in Bahrain, like the AP, also perceived such a gap.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This study was guided by:

- The belief that true school reform “can only occur if the people who are instrumental in implementing the mandates are at the forefront of change” (Meister, 2010, p.880);
- The belief that “interactive professionalism”, reflected through collegial relationships (Fullan, 1991) and promoted by certain types of principals who adopt a transformational leadership style (Little, 1981; Grimmett & Crehan, 1992), plays a significant role in the change process; and
- The belief that the success of a PD program depends on how much this program addresses the different aspects of its school’s capacity, namely: (1) teachers’ knowledge, skills, and dispositions; (2) professional community; (3) program coherence; (4) technical resources; and (5) principal leadership (Newman, King, & Youngs, 2001).

METHODS AND MATERIALS

This study took place at the outset of the academic year 2011-2012 and its participants were selected non-randomly as male Bahraini public school teachers who had taken at least one PD course at BTC. They were requested to fill an online questionnaire (Appendix A) that consisted of 15 items. Because the study is of a qualitative nature, the questionnaire included some unstructured open-ended items in addition to the closed-ended ones. Seventy-eight questionnaires were distributed but only sixty-three were completed and returned.
RESULTS

Table 1 (Appendix B) displays the findings in percentages for the closed-ended questions. Responses to the open-ended questions are analyzed separately and then summarized. Results from both surveys are arranged into the following categories based on the focus points of the items in the questionnaire:

- Selection Process of Teachers' PD Courses
- Type and Impact of PD Courses
- Teachers' Implementation of Knowledge and Skills Acquired Through PD
- Schools' PD Programs and the Leaders' Role in Improving These Programs
- Relationship between the PD Providers and the PD Participants

DISCUSSION

The results indicate that in most cases, male teachers in the Bahraini public school system lack the freedom to select their own PD courses. Instead, this is usually done by the MOE and on the basis of a teachers' PD needs' assessment carried out by schools. There are, however, a number of schools that are not even conducting any PD needs' assessment, which makes one wonder about the type of coordination, if any, that is happening between them and the MOE with respect to the selection of PD courses for their teachers. It also brings up the question of how much the PD courses selected for these teachers are actually relevant to their needs and areas of improvement, especially since the majority of participants have a personal and/or professional desire to take part in PD opportunities and are not in it solely for the obligation. However, personal and/or professional desire is usually futile without the proper selection of PD courses.

A considerable number of participants (about 43%) admitted to undertaking little or no PD implementation for the following reasons:

- They feel most of their PD courses have not been very successful in neither introducing them to new knowledge and skills nor in incorporating what can be applied in the classroom;
- Most of the PD courses being offered seem more general in nature than subject-specific; while, most of the participants happen to prefer subject-specific courses;
- They feel a lack of consistency between what is offered in PD and their school environment. This brings up the following crucial question: based on the PD needs of teachers, how much coordination is taking place between the training institutions and the MOE unit responsible for planning course offerings and enrollment. Based on the results of this study, it seems that this coordination is in need of serious reconstruction.
- Other reasons for lack of implementation had to do with high teacher-student ratio in a classroom, time constraints, big number of teacher duties and responsibilities, and lack of proper incentives.

In light of these findings, it seems that the best resort for teachers in the Bahraini public school system is to work hard on establishing “interactive professionalism” so as to help improve the learning and performance of all students through building collegial relationships based on shared cognition. This “interactive professionalism can be promoted by school principals who empower teachers through collegiality and provide them with proper and meaningful incentives (Little, 1981 and Grimmett & Crehan, 1992). Unfortunately, as indicated by the results of this study, teachers in the Bahraini public schools are not being provided with such necessary incentives.
With respect to PD programs, teachers in the Bahraini public school system happen to have a limited understanding of what a comprehensive PD program looks like. This could simply be because they have not received any training on what such a program should entail and have not been exposed to any type of school environment which implements these programs. This was certainly the case of focus group of APs who had taken part in this study and who became aware of what a comprehensive PD program entails only after completing a PD module on the subject.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the discussion above, the researcher recommends the following:

- Teachers need to be given by their schools and the MOE more freedom to select their own PD opportunities and need training on carrying out proper self-assessment to base their PD selections on.

- PD opportunities need to match teachers’ needs, be relevant to the subject matter they teach, and be feasible in terms of how they can be applied in the classroom; these opportunities therefore need to be planned better by the schools, MOE, and the training institutions (mainly the BTC).

- The MOE unit responsible for planning teachers’ PD offerings needs to work with the training institutions (the BTC primarily) on reforming and alleviating the coordination process between them in order to ensure that relevant PD experiences are offered at the right time to the teachers who truly need them.

- School leaders and the MOE, need to provide teachers with proper and meaningful incentives (e.g. awards, promotion to a senior teacher position, reduced teaching workload, mentorship role, etc.) to encourage PD implementation.

- School leaders need to receive training on how to implement a comprehensive PD plan/program that addresses all aspects of school capacity and on how to introduce and encourage more contemporary forms of PD, like: reflective practice, action research, professional communities, etc. BTC can play an important role in this training and actually has already started doing so through its Educational Leadership Program (ELP); more though needs to be done and what would be in particular extremely helpful here is a stronger collaboration between the BTC one the one hand and the MOE and the schools on the other, in such a way that both sides become equal partners in designing, implementing, and assessing PD programs. In addition, BTC faculty members need to act as advisors to the MOE unit responsible for developing the PD programs and to the school principals overlooking these programs’ implementation.

These recommendations are all quite feasible in the context of Bahrain and the only existing constraint that would need to be done away with is that related to the restrictions placed by the MOE on university faculty and researchers to access the public schools. These recommendations also would help fill the perceived gap between Bahraini public school teachers’ PD learning and their classroom application because they aim towards the implementation of a comprehensive PD model that strengthens the ties between the PD participants, organizers, and providers. Such recommendations can also be applied internationally in countries whose school systems are currently undergoing reforms similar to those in Bahrain.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

1. List at least three reasons why you enrol in any form of PD.
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________

2. Do you have the freedom to select from the professional development (PD) courses being offered or are the courses selected for you by a particular entity?
(a) ------ I have the freedom to select
(b) ------ Courses are selected for me

3. If the PD courses are being selected for you by a particular entity, what is this entity?
(a) ------- Ministry of Education (MOE)
(b) ------- School
(c) ------- Other ________________________
(d) ------- Not applicable

4. Is there any kind of assessment of teachers’ professional needs conducted in your school?
(a)-------- Yes, always
(b)-------- Yes, sometimes
(c)-------- No, never

5. Do you feel that the PD courses you have taken were successful in introducing you to new knowledge and in helping you acquire new skills related to teaching and learning.
(a)--------- All the courses were successful in this aspect
(b)--------- Most of the courses were successful in this aspect
(c)--------- A few courses were successful in this aspect
(d)--------- All the courses were unsuccessful in this aspect
6. Do you feel that what you learn in the PD courses can be applied in the classroom?
   (a)----------- All the courses include what can be applied in the classroom
   (b)----------- Most of the courses include what can be applied in the classroom
   (c)----------- A few of the courses include what can be applied in the classroom
   (d)----------- All of the courses lack what can be applied in the classroom and most of them are irrelevant to what goes on in the classroom

7. How would you best describe most of the PD courses you have taken so far?
   (a)----------- Courses that are general in nature
   (b)----------- Courses that are subject-specific and that are specific to the pedagogy of that particular subject

8. What are the courses that you personally prefer?
   (a)----------- Courses that are general in nature
   (b)----------- Subject-specific courses
   (c)----------- No preference

9. How much are you actually applying from what you have learnt in your PD courses?
   (a)----------- 70-100% (A lot of actual application/implementation)
   (b)----------- 41-70% (Some actual implementation)
   (c)----------- 21-40% (Little actual implementation)
   (d)----------- 0- 20% (Almost no actual implementation)

10. If you are not actually implementing what you are learning in your PD classes or are minimally implementing, what are the main reasons for that? (List at least 2 reasons)

__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

11. What is your understanding of a school's comprehensive PD plan or program and does your school happen to have such a comprehensive PD program or plan?

__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________
12. Do you feel that your school's leadership is putting enough effort in its PD efforts and plans?
   (a)----------- The school's leadership is doing an excellent job with respect to PD
   (b)----------- The school's leadership is doing all it can in terms of its teachers' PD but needs to improve its efforts
   (c)----------- The school's leadership is not doing enough because ______________________
                  ______________________
                  ______________________

13. Do you believe that your school's leadership should have more freedom in designing its own teacher PD plans? If yes, why? If no, why not?
    __________________________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________________________

14. Which training institution has provided you in the last two years with the biggest number of PD courses?
   (a) ----------- Training Directorate
   (b) ----------- Bahrain Teachers' College (BTC)
   (c) ----------- Other ____________________________

15. Do you feel that there is sufficient harmony and consistency between what the institution offers in terms of PD courses and the PD needs you happen to have?
   (a) ----------- Yes the consistency is highly sufficient
   (b) ----------- Yes the consistency is somewhat sufficient
   (c) ----------- No the consistency is not sufficient
**APPENDIX B**

Table 1: Responses to Closed-Ended Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question #</th>
<th>Participants’ Responses in Percentages</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a) (b) (c) (d) (e)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 (11.11%) (50.79%) (38.10%) (39.68%)</td>
<td><strong>Summary of Answers: School leadership not doing enough mainly because it needs to coordinate better with the institutions providing the PD services (especially BTC) as regards to the time and place of the PD training.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 (20.6%) (79.4%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 (79.4%) (0%) (0%) (20.6%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (15.87%) (53.97%) (30.16%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 (11.11%) (41.26%) (39.68%) (7.94%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6 (4.76%) (39.68%) (52.38%) (3.17%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>7 (61.90%) (38.10%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>8 (6.35%) (85.71%) (7.94%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>9 (19.04%) (38.10%) (34.92%) (7.94%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10 Opened-Ended</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>11 Opened-Ended</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>12 (11.11%) (71.43%) *(17.46%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>13 Opened-Ended</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>14 (50.79%) (44.44%) *(4.76%)</td>
<td>*School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>15 (6.35%) (60.32%) (33.33%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ICT AND INNOVATIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING
- WHAT’S THE CONNECTION?

Michael Lightfoot
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INTRODUCTION

For the past 30 years the provision of computers in schools, and the application of educational technology more widely, has been a prominent feature of education reform programmes throughout the world. The origin of the policies leading to these innovations can be traced back to the UK, Sweden and Canada (Selwyn, 2012), in these early policy initiatives, computers were seen as assisting in the modernization of approaches to learning and teaching. The ensuing developments since the early 1980s have seen the widespread introduction of educational technology all over the world. In the Middle East the first decade of the new millennium has seen policy initiatives which have promoted the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in schools in several countries in the region (Chapman and Miric, 2009). This brief research paper looks at the impact of technology on learning and teaching and the extent to which ICT is being used to promote a broader range of skills-for-life-and work, often referred to as 21st Century learning skills (Anderson, 2008), amongst school age students. The research compares the impact of the educational technology policies in Bahrain and in Jordan, and the preliminary findings in these two countries are placed in an international context through comparisons with the findings of the international Microsoft-sponsored Innovative Teaching and Learning (ITL) research, and some initial fieldwork in a UK “school of the future.” For the purposes of the study, the 21st Century skills are defined as follows:- knowledge building; problem solving and innovation; skilled communication; collaboration; self-regulation; use of ICT for learning (Pedro 2009; Facer 2011).

THE REGIONAL CONTEXT

A wave of national education policy reform has taken place over the past decade in the complex and challenging social environment of the Middle East (Chapman and Miric, 2009). Many of the policies have placed ICT and new teaching methodologies related to modern instructional technology as high priorities, these methodologies have stressed the importance of student-centered learning and of teaching which utilizes the benefits available through educational technology, such as multi-media classroom presentations. In Jordan, as part of the Ministry of Education’s (MoE) Education Reform for the Knowledge Economy (ERfKE), the Jordan Education Initiative (JEI) has been given the role of spearheading the reforms in schools through promoting the use of ICT as a tool for innovation in the classroom (JEI, 2009). In Bahrain, The King Hamad School of the Future (KHSF) initiative has put an emphasis on ICT implementation as a precursor to the implementation of a more student-centered pedagogy (Eqab, 2003). Alongside the KHSF program, an ambitious national education reform project is also being implemented. All schools in Bahrain now have broadband internet connections, are equipped with at least one ICT suite, and have data projectors and/or interactive electronic whiteboards in many classrooms.
THE APPROACH AND METHODOLOGY

The initial data gathering consisted of a literature search of published school evaluations by independent agents. In the case of Jordan, the primary source is the study by Light, Method et al. (2008) whereas for Bahrain, the main data source is school review reports; both of these sources have been scrutinized for references to 21st Century and “higher order thinking” skills. The local findings have been placed in the international context of the Microsoft ITL research (Microsoft, 2010) and some recent UK field work. The findings from the literature are being tested and augmented by observations and interviews with senior school leaders and staff in Bahrain secondary schools.

A BRIEF LOOK AT THE HISTORY OF ICT IN EDUCATION

It is helpful to put the term “ICT” in its historical context. The addition of the “C” has served to emphasize the widening of the breadth of the field of Information Technology (IT) beyond simply computers and programming to include communication devices and multi-media applications (Heppell, 2009). The “C” can be traced to the incoming New Labour administration in the UK in 1997, and its strong commitment to education. The government had three priorities according to Tony Blair: “Education, Education and Education” (1997). With this commitment came a pledge to modernize schools and broaden the use of computers in the classroom. Prior to coming to power, the New Labour “government-in-waiting” had commissioned the Stevenson Report on IT in Schools (1997), and one of the significant outputs from this report was to identify, in the context of the Internet and increasing global communication, the ways in which computers and communications were rapidly transforming society. It is the widely respected “new learning” guru Prof Stephen Heppell, who as a member of the committee, claims to be the person responsible for the “C” in ICT (2009). The change was quite dramatic since it marked the transition from learning about computers in schools, to learning with computers in schools. It was around this time, with the publication of a New Curriculum for the New Millennium, that the school curriculum in England was modified to embrace ICT across the curriculum (QCA, 1999).

This was a highly significant change since with it came an in-built assumption that through a large capital injection, to significantly improve the provision of computers in schools, there would then be, by a process of osmosis or technological determinism, a transformation of professional practice where educators (Oliver, 2011). Teachers would begin embedding learning with and through ICT into all parts of their work, and this, in turn, would improve and enhance learning (Jensen and Lauritsen, 2005). There were however, amongst the academic community, several sceptics who questioned whether technology-enhanced learning would be quite so easily achieved (Selwyn, 1998; Boody, 2001), most notorious amongst them were probably Larry Cuban, with his book Oversold and Under-Used: Computers in the Classroom (2001) and Michael Apple, with his paper Are we wasting money on computers in schools (2004). As the sociologist Roger Dale found in his study of exasperated head teachers in England that, despite the unproven educational benefits of technology, they were frequently found to be saying “you can’t not go with the technological flow, can you?” (Dale, Roberson et al., 2004). In the UK, the investment in hardware and infrastructure was substantial – in the ten years of the New Labour administration, up to 2010, the investment, in England alone, amounted to the equivalent of $7.5 Billion. However, the impact of ICT on pedagogy has been very small, the most recent report by the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) on the use of ICT in schools in England (2011) reported that in fewer than one secondary school in every six was the technology integrated in a meaningful and productive way into the regular teaching and learning activities across the curriculum.

ICT AND EDUCATION IN JORDAN AND BAHRAIN

This study looks at two specific ICT implementations in the Middle East – one in Jordan, as part of the ERfKE project which was mediated partly through the Jordan Education Initiative; and the other at the King Hamad School of the Future project in Bahrain.
The first project, ERfKE, is a 10 year project launched in Jordan in 2003 by the World Economic Forum (WEF, 2012) at the Dead Sea conference. The schools and technology component of ERfKE has been managed by the Jordan Education Initiative which has been operating to support and develop ICT integration in 100 Discovery Schools, situated in and around the Jordanian capital Amman. In these schools, staff and students were introduced to an electronic curriculum delivered via an internet-based learning platform called Eduwave. In addition, schools were equipped with a new computer suite; several classrooms adopted Smartboards, and data projectors were installed in several classrooms. In a small number of schools, as well as the hardware installation, the staff attended a series of workshops and follow-up meetings as part of a change-management programme aimed at promoting better communications in the schools, more consultation on policy between senior leaders and staff, and the encouragements of a more active “student voice” (ICSET, 2010; NCHRD, 2012).

Despite this considerable investment in educational technology, an impact evaluation study by the Education Development Center from Washington DC (Light, Method et al., 2008) found that 80 per cent of teachers never used email with their students and 55 per cent never used the internet for research, almost half of the teachers seldom or never used the eCurriculum materials via Eduwave, the designated learning platform. Further to this few were using the advance features of the interactive Smartboards, and 80 per cent were using the data projectors just for displaying their notes on the board. However, in those schools where teachers had been through the change management process “towards a new school attitude” (JEI 2009), the students were able to operate with ICT more effectively and with greater autonomy and self-direction.

In Bahrain, the KHSF project started in 2003 with a strategic outlook which had the following objectives:

- Continuing economical and social development.
- Investment in knowledge - technical competition.
- Developing a knowledge society.
- Educational system based on employing educational information and communication technology.
- Developing the educational system in the Kingdom and elevating its products.
- Accelerating the pace of human development.
- Establishing an information society.
- Building a knowledge-based economy.

The project started in that year with 11 schools spread over all five of the governorates, and by 2010 all the schools in the Kingdom were considered to be part of the project (Eqab, 2003).

Our fieldwork research in Bahrain is at an early stage, but based on our analysis of the school review reports from the School Review Unit of the Quality Assurance Authority for Education and Training, coupled with our interviews with several senior school leaders, we can report the following:

In most schools the students’ 21st Century skills are underdeveloped, but in those schools where the students are developing into innovators, problem solvers, good communicators and autonomous learners; they are doing so because of the schools’ own transformational journey which is based on a whole-school approach to the implementation of innovation and change. They are achieving these transformations through effective consultation with stakeholders leading to strategic plans which fully embrace a change in the classroom relationships and a more inclusive approach to teaching and learning which is understood by the whole school community. As a senior school leader in one successful school reported:

"we have seen good student achievement through (their) outstanding results; but the other things which are becoming obvious to everybody is the students’ personal growth; we are seeing the effects of the teaching and changes we are doing, reflected in their personal growth"
In other words, in these successful schools, the reforms are part of a much larger strategic plan and the initiatives are “learner led, not technology driven” (Schacter and Fagnano, 1999). In almost every case, however, the schools had been provided with the technology before the learning culture and the pedagogical applications were fully planned out and worked through.

DISCUSSION

The findings from our work in Jordan and Bahrain accord strongly with the findings of the first full operational year of the Microsoft Innovative Teaching and Learning Project. In an afterword to the main report for the year of the pilot study (Microsoft, 2010), Michael Fullan acknowledges the findings and speaks of what, in a wider school reform context, he calls the “wrong drivers” to bring about change in schools and education systems (Fullan, 2011). From his own work in schools in Canada, the US and Australia he speaks of four “wrong drivers” as follows (with the corresponding right drivers in parentheses).

1. External, punitive accountability (vs. capacity building)
2. Individual (vs. group) solutions
3. Technology (vs. pedagogy)
4. Piecemeal (vs. systematic) policies

He clearly indicates here that the pedagogy should precede and have precedence over the technology implementation. In their analysis of the results of the ITL research Shear et al. (2011) summarise the three conditions under which innovative teaching practices are most likely to be seen:

1. Where teachers collaborate in a focused way on the particular instructional practices linked explicitly with 21st Century Skills;
2. Where teachers take part in professional development activities that require their active and direct engagement with other teachers, especially those participating in action research projects;
3. Where learners are engaged in student-centered pedagogies (such as collaboration and self-regulation); there is learning beyond the classroom and ICT-use is related to concrete learning goals which have meaning and relevance to the learners and are transferable to other areas of their lives.

Based on my fieldwork, I would like to add a fourth condition here. This condition relates to the use and disposition of the ICT equipment and the students’ capacity to operate as autonomous learners. In the UK “school of the future” where I have been conducting my research with senior leaders, staff and students, the entire school community was in the fortunate position of being consulted at the planning stage on the design of their new school building. As one consequence of this, the school is an active learning community where space is not wasted. In this large English comprehensive school of over 1,000 students aged from 11 to 18 years, there are only two dedicated ICT suites; for the most part the computer terminals are distributed in clusters of 8 and 10 in breakout spaces between groups of classrooms. There are no corridors, and these breakout spaces are circulation areas which are accessible to students before and after school and at break times. In addition the school has implemented a program to develop students’ personal and thinking skills (PLTS) based upon a national framework (QCA, 2008). These PLTS are designed to develop the students’ capacity to become independent enquirers, creative thinkers, reflective learners, team workers, self managers, and effective participators.

In this way, through a program of student preparation, coupled with school premises which are purpose-built and designed to promote new sorts of teaching and learning, innovative teaching and learning practices are beginning to become evident. As one 14 year old girl said “…it’s great, there’s more freedom to express yourself” and a boy in the same class remarked “…the breakout spaces are great, you can do your homework and stuff there… the teachers won’t let you copy and paste stuff though.”
CONCLUSION

Across the world governments have expended hundreds of millions of dollars on providing schools with ICT equipment and broadband connectivity. The extent to which this significant investment is having any impact on the ways in which teachers teach and learners learn, is somewhat limited. This paper has indicated how many commentators have highlighted this apparent paradox where the lofty policy objectives of governments, in respect of ICT and innovation, are failing to be realized on the ground. Nonetheless, there are clear and emerging indicators which point to the conditions necessary for successful ICT implementation leading to innovative teaching and learning; but in answer to the research question “ICT and ITL, what’s the connection?,” there is no automatic connection between the two. Schools are complex and organic entities and structural change only occurs as a result of planned interventions at many levels, and the correct drivers must be employed to bring about change. In the case of ITL, the pedagogy should drive the technology, not the other way around.

REFERENCES


SOCIOECONOMIC POLICY DESIGN AND POLICY IN PRACTICE: A SKILLS POLICY TO INTEGRATE LEARNING AND INNOVATION IN THE GULF

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ABSTRACT

Gulf States, emerging as key regional actors, are actively seeking ways to secure their economic futures, looking East as well as West, and beyond their hydrocarbon assets: these include policies to build an ability for innovation to drive their economies, and in parallel, enhance their citizens' skills for competitiveness, in spite of chronic educational, skill and employment challenges.

Focusing primarily on labour market, learning and education factors, the paper outlines and addresses some related issues, with reference to a number of recent international consultancy firms' project engagement; these in effect, appear to be implicitly intending to re-orient socioeconomic policy. Whilst welcoming the detailed analysis offered by the reports, we find their eclectic interpretation and implicit guidance to policy makers to be lacking practical implementation mechanisms and thus calls for a nuanced consideration of the evidence based on the realities of policy-in-practice, and evidence-based socioeconomic policy parameters. Whilst the policy landscape and lessons may share similarities in the Gulf economies, the paper focuses on the position of the UAE, as a state of the art example.

Balancing analysis and interpretation, the paper concludes by outlining the potential policy directions and implications required to enhance a movement towards a learning economy. This demands fresh thinking, for example on the role of professional, vocational and workplace learning (PVWL) within the labour markets, in constructing a joined-up ‘skills development policy’. At the same time, it remains cognisant of the granularity of the challenges of employment-seeking demographics ahead, for the Gulf States.

SETTING THE CONTEXTUAL SCENE: ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

There is a robust body of evidence accumulated over the last three decades indicating that innovation, and the skills to continually innovate, building upon education and lifelong learning, are of paramount importance in nations’ economic development. This is well understood and captured in a succession of development plans and national strategies of the Gulf region. In the UAE, this aim is concisely articulated as part of the UAE Vision 2021 as follows:

"a diversified and flexible knowledge-based economy will be powered by skilled Emiratis and strengthened by world-class talent to ensure long-term prosperity for the UAE" (Mohamed, 2011, p. 1).

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Similar aspirations are expressed in a range of other documents such as the Abu Dhabi 2030 Economic Vision (cf. ADCED, 2008, pp. 91–99), as well as documents of similar standing from other Gulf States.

This paper explores the relationship between innovation, learning and skill development\(^3\) in the Gulf region from a policy perspective, by drawing on recent consultancy publications. The relevant scholarly literature is disparate across a number of disciplinary domains and in places, rather patchy or at a nascent stage\(^4\). In making sense of the field, the paper is informed by two basic insights:

- The importance of fully comprehending how initiatives in other realms of policy profoundly shape the supply of, and demand for skills, and how these are nurtured and used in the workplaces. This includes how other skill eco-systems (and 'skill webs') are utilised and rewarded in practice.
- The importance of acknowledging and understanding that a policy cycle design has to project forward and go beyond the planning and strategy stage, to programme implementation and as necessary, engage in policy experimentation, monitoring and evaluation. Often, bridging the gap between intended policies and policy-in-practice can become a challenging task: we must recall that the broader social and economic settings define what is and is not feasible to achieve within the specific allotted time.

The intended audience of the paper is policy analysts, policy makers and researchers, with an interest in how skills and a more coherently connected skill development policies, can be better harnessed for national competitiveness. This can ultimately enhance social cohesion, inclusion and mobility, and within the socioeconomic context of the Gulf, to guard against the potential radicalisation of any demographic segments.

The paper is divided into two parts along a simple line of argument with the core citation within the text, although a significant number of references are included in the footnotes and outlined in bibliography, as resources for further research. The paper begins with introductory remarks to set the contextual scene. It then proceeds to a brief overview on analysis and interpretation and, provides a more in-depth look at the policy practice situation, contrasted with the picture portrayed by the consulting reports. It does so by utilising the evocative concepts of analysis and interpretation which require delicate balancing before integration can be reached. The second section and concluding remarks entitled 'Towards Integration' ties the paper together by providing a tentative skills policy recommendation.

The ambit of innovation for growth, and the necessary skills policy, has broadened in recent years. With the current global economic downturn, from 2007–2008 onwards, the preoccupation with supply-side issues, such as the growing population of highly-qualified labour, is under debate. Demand side matters, such as how employees utilise and develop their skills, and how employers enable this, are increasingly acknowledged as being of equal significance to qualifications.

Policy analysts including economists and management scientists increasingly agree that innovation is a core component in the competitiveness of firms, regions, cities and by extension, states. Innovation equally alters citizens’, including workers/producers’, knowledge and skill requirements. This, by extension, affects the skill development systems on most (i.e. macro, meso, and micro) levels of the labour market.

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\(^3\) We have previously mobilised and re-oriented the concept of ‘skill webs’ conceptualisation (cf. Ashton, Brown, & Lauder, 2010) at a micro and meso level of operation, and the DEAL model (Design, Execute, Adjust, Learn) derives out of a longitudinal (2004–2010) case study within the ICT segment of the creative and cultural sectors (C&CS) (Alyani, 2012; Alyani & Guile, 2012). Within the service sector of the economy, C&CS is broadly accepted to be a significant engine for entrepreneurial employment creation.

\(^4\) Additionally in an increasingly interdependent geo-strategic area, by the Gulf region, this paper includes the six GCC economies; i.e. Bahrain, KSA, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar and UAE, plus Iraq and Iran, whilst acknowledging that the economic positions of Iraq and Iran will remain, for different reasons, in a state of flux, for some time to come. Equally, the case for a closer long-term GCC economic cooperation with Yemen, Jordan and Morocco, as well as the development of the Gulf wide economic and monetary union remains unlikely in foreseeable future.

\(^1\) In other words, this paper “deals with familiar concepts, but in an unfamiliar way”. This quote is from the preface of Edith Penrose’s classic 1959 study (Penrose, 2009, p. xlviii).
A stream of recent research by OECD, ILO and the World Bank/IMF confirms that the relationship between skill development systems, patterns of innovation in an industrial sector and the education and training systems, is an ‘under-developed’ field of inquiry. In short, we know that ‘innovating’ matters, but we see little clear agreement on how to best ‘nurture’ it (in and out of formal education, training systems and workplace learning), particularly in conditions of emerging economies, such as those of the Gulf region. We do know, however, that societal and sectoral context matters as revealed by key insights of established scholars within the innovation field (e.g. Tidd & Bessant, 2009; Dodgson, Gann, & Salter, 2005), particularly in understanding the innovation outcomes and processes. As Dodgson and colleagues (2005, p. 27) cogently argue, understanding innovation requires recognition of a series of three interconnecting principles. They are presented as follows:

1. “innovation has to be located in a historical context
2. innovation is not a discrete event or activity, but results from, and contributes to, a range of systemic relationships and interdependencies;
3. innovation is socially mediated and results from organizational, managerial and individual practices and decisions.”

Before moving onto the next section, we will introduce two important components of our study: first, a caveat about our choice of consulting materials, and second, the analysis and interpretation concepts, and the need to strive for balanced integration in policy design, analysis and re-design.

Our choice of consulting oriented ‘recommendation papers’ was not made at random: most large and international consulting firms, including the ‘big four’ audit and professional services firms and the large technology (ICTs and systems) oriented consultancies are present and active in the Gulf. Based on our observations, however, we found that out of the large sample of firms, two firms, namely Booz and Company and McKinsey and Company, have been active in intending to shape the broader issues around socioeconomic policy, at times grounded on macroeconomic models and intense ‘policy borrowing’ from other countries. In less than a decade, a number of international consulting firms have expanded their business advisory to accommodate the public sector and get involved in public policy briefs, globally and in the Gulf region. Viewed cautiously, their increased role within the public sector in the region could lead to positive consequences and professionalism, provided the relationship, the expertise and networks are managed in the best interest of the client (i.e. in this case, Gulf States and their planning, administrative and executive departments). We therefore clarify that we do not promote nor value a ‘consultant bashing’ agenda (Armbrüster, 2006, pp. 1–5) but view their functionalist role as an important and potentially valuable knowledge-transfer tool for leading-edge practices and technical assistance. These include ‘model-building/-testing’ expertise, within the emerging knowledge-, or better phrased, ‘learning economy’ stage of the Gulf societies. We agree with authors Bessant and Rush (1995) who distinguished consultants fulfilling an intermediary role, enabling clients’ acquisition of knowledge and technological development; and/or a capacity-building role, assisting clients with chartering a path while adopting and implementing change, including providing analytical processes.

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Exploring ‘context’, ‘contextualisation’ and by extension, ‘recontextualisation’ involves uncovering complex mediated relationships, which is outside the circumscribed scope of this paper: details on ‘restructuring’, ‘repositioning’, ‘recontextualising’ and/or ‘reconfiguring’ knowledge and practice in work processes, such as innovation and learning required for it, is covered elsewhere in detail (Guile, 2010).

A selection of the recent regionally focused writing and ideas include (Jaruzelski, Moujaes, Eltayeb, Raad, & Samman, 2012; Jaruzelski, Moujaes, & Samman, 2011; Maroun, Samman, Moujaes, & Abouchakra, 2008; Moujaes, Hiltunen, Eltayeb, & Sahlberg, 2012; Shediac, Bohsali, & Samman, 2012; Saddi, Sabbagh, & Shediac, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011; Shediac, Bernnat, Moujaes, & Ramsay Najjar, 2011; Shediac & Samman, 2009) and McKinsey (Barber, Mourshead, & Whelan, 2007; De Boer, Farrell, & Lundi, 2008; De Boer & Turner, 2007; McKinsey Quarterly, 2011; Mourshead, Baumgartner, IFC, & IsDB, 2011).

For an interesting exploration and examination of the consulting firms’ trends, including the growth in the public sector and the Middle East region, refer to: (The Economist, 2005, 2008; Wooldridge, 1997). For a more detailed recent study on the overview of the industry, refer to: (Armbrüster, 2006).
and procedures. In our study, however, we closely examine where the firms’ value-proposition and expertise for crafting socioeconomic policy lies, and how grounded and ‘evidence-based’ their advice is, based on disaggregated regional contextual accounts, and not on aggregated macroeconomics model, nor a ‘policy- and best-practice borrowing’ galore. As economics and management history indicates, ‘best practice’ and previous prime ‘development policies’ have an expiry date and an often limited window of opportunity, and can become obsolete in the face of new challenges. Specifically as development economics is increasingly acknowledging, the exact development and skills strategies used by countries such as South Korea, Singapore, Finland and Norway (the last, as a resource-rich nation) in the formative years of their development trajectory, much drawn upon by consultants, may not have the same potency even for the same countries in the current era, let alone other nations. As global circumstances have shifted, the development path taken by these countries may no longer be open to many emerging economies. We therefore end up returning to the necessity of finding tailored solutions, using locally congruent insights and conceptual tools, to match the social and economic context of the Gulf and the UAE.

This leads to our second point on analysis and interpretation, leading towards integration. Lester and Piore (2004) insightfully examine the role of innovation in the US economy and highlight the fact that for innovation, on all levels of analysis to occur, and to continually be supported, we need to compliment analysis with interpretation. Relevant to our case in hand, the interpretative dimension refers to the policy analysts’ and policy makers’ ability to bring together people of different professional backgrounds and views, engage them in constructive discussions about new policy designs, manage the confusion and ambiguity that may inevitably arise in the interactions between heterogeneous agents, interpret such ambiguity, and finally point to new policy trajectories for experimentation, monitoring and evaluation. It is these interpretive capabilities that have been broadly neglected by the literature, which has predominantly followed a ‘technical rationality’ of linear analytical dimension. The analytical dimension is, and will of course remain important as it refers to the rational problem-solving skills that the actors engaged in policies must be endowed with. In a complex and rapidly changing environment, analytical problem-solving skills, however, must necessarily be complemented by a set of broader non-analytical capabilities, such as exercising the capability for problem-setting and re-framing. In essence, continued uncertainty makes it hard to identify the objective of problem-solving endeavours, often mid-flow. Balancing analytical and interpretative dimensions calls for a high degree of integration, obtained through professional dialogue and interfaces among people with different backgrounds. These interactions among heterogeneous agents frequently generate ambiguity, which is the crucial resource from which ‘policy innovation’ is created. In the integration stage, these interactions and linkages would therefore need to be fostered, and the resulting ambiguity has to be managed, interpreted, and oriented toward new, promising directions. Figure 1 below summarises the key pragmatic points in socioeconomic policy analysis, while keeping in mind potential ‘skills development policy’ for learning and innovation in the Gulf.

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8 Two specific papers, one a position paper and another a recent chapter in an edited book, by ‘Booz and Company’ (Shediac & Samman, 2010; Jaruzelski et al., 2012) are drawn upon as examples of well-researched analysis, but their line of argument, specifically with a view to implementation on skill development for an innovation driven economy, is problematic. Whilst the reports and publicly accessible documents do not form a uniform or theoretically consistent view on all matters, their recommendations on disparate range of initiatives, share enough similarities to support our commentary later in the text.

9 Seasoned commentators of policy science (Goodin, Rein, & Moran, 2006, pp. 3–4) refer to the promotion of this ‘technical rationality’ as a result of the ‘high modernism’ belief around, and after the Second World War and the continued funding of centres such as RAND in the United States, when at the time, science and technology studies were entrusted totally to resolve all human societies’ complex and changing needs. As the Goodin, Rein and Moran (2006, p. 4) outline: “Traces of that technocratic hubris remain, in consulting houses and IMF missions and certain other important corners of the policy universe. But across most of that world there has, over the last half-century, been a gradual chastening of the boldest ‘high modernist’ hopes for the policy sciences.”
Writing about the socioeconomic issues of industrialisation in the Gulf recently, Seznec and Kirk (2011) highlight that the global economic downturn of early 2008, and the subsequent regional economic slowdown (including a more realistic assessment of many of the regional States’ Sovereign Wealth Funds\(^{11}\)), pose a more moderate and non-exuberant mood on the economic future of the region and embark on the need to reform the education and its systemic relationship with the labour market. Additionally, Hertog (2011) sheds light on the role of State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs), as a new breed of efficient “lean and mean” powerhouses of State Capitalism (The Economist, 2012a, 2012b) in the Gulf. These SOEs could also be seen as a prime candidate for promoting a ‘closer fit’ between the skills sought, developed and promoted locally, congruent both with the global and local market needs. Outlining the broadly perceived failure of import-substitution industrial policies in the second half of the twentieth century, and the move towards export-oriented industrial policies, with Far eastern Tigers (Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand and South Korea) as prime examples, Seznec (2011, p. 10) make an insightful observation. They indicate that notwithstanding the significant supply of migrant labour, and the political economy issues of recent decades between the Gulf and the US economies, the Gulf States would not be in a position to follow the Far Eastern model of industrialisation and growth, “as the region’s citizens lack the necessary expertise to produce advanced goods for low prices. […] so the Gulf countries went into industries where they have a natural advantage, such as chemicals, cement and aluminium [as well as the hydrocarbon group of industries, which as a sector do not generate significant employment and ‘knowledge spillover’]."

Elsewhere, other researchers address similar concerns about the broader socioeconomic characteristics. In their review, while examining the role of gender in higher education participation in the UAE, Abdulla and Ridge (2011)\(^{12}\) explained that the existence of rentier states’ ‘social contract’ (Mahdavy, 1970) on a macro level, and rent-seeking behaviour on a more micro level, is believed to be a characteristic of

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**Figure 1: Condensed Guidelines on Socioeconomic Policy Analysis** (source: author\(^{10}\))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Context</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
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<tr>
<td>- historical background of the policy</td>
<td>- current/emerging problems that necessitate the policy</td>
<td>- policy and practice analysis, in light of policy goal</td>
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<tr>
<td>- current prática/reframing of the policy implementation</td>
<td>- policy and practice descriptors (e.g. KPIs) and analytics</td>
<td>- socioeconomic, sociopolitical and administrative feasibility</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- experimentation, monitoring and evaluation (EME)</td>
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Towards Integration

The figure was conceptually derived by the author from multiple sources: (Goodin et al., 2006; Rein, 2006; Weiss et Birckmayer, 2006; Laws & Hajer, 2006; Freeman, 2006; Howlett, 2010; Karger & Stoesz, 2009; Parsons, 1995; Fischer, Miller, & Sidney, 2007; Lester & Fiore, 2004).

\(^{10}\) For an ‘upbeat’ pre-recessionary assessment, see (De Boer et al., 2008; Shediac & Samman, 2009): for a more nuanced analysis, refer to (Bazoobandi, 2012; Davidson, 2010, 2012).

\(^{11}\) Abdulla and Ridge (2011) also highlight the economic variables of education as well as the perceived returns to, and from, education on an aggregate level: whilst not untangling the issues directly, they raise the thorny question that the research is inconclusive and especially so, in the Gulf region of MENA. A simplified linear argument of “learning = earning” has recently come under mounting challenges, theoretically and empirically (Brown, Lauder, & Ashton, 2011; Lauder, 2010).
resource-rich nations. This can fundamentally alter the interaction between the citizen and the state. As Abdulla and Ridge (2011, p. 5) point out,

“In the Gulf States the extraction of oil accrues rents to the ruling families who in turn distribute this wealth to their citizens in the form of education, housing, healthcare and other benefits.”

This arrangement leads to a complex set of incentive systems (or lack thereof) which broadly translates to the citizen’s expectation to be continually ‘provided for’ by the State. Consequently, public sector employment is highly sought after by the citizens, as it ensures better working conditions and a higher status, unmatched by the private sector.

The question of re-creating and re-framing a new system of incentives for skills development, both on a personal (i.e. individual) and collective (i.e. regional and national) level and particularly for the UAE’s upcoming working generation, must be explored imaginatively, as an integral part of any other systematic economic diversification overview. Otherwise, the UAE will run the ‘risk’ of diversifying its economy only to quickly realise that the national citizens are unprepared or unwilling to engage with the diversified economy, and thus, the lion’s share of the new industrial and sectoral positions would have to be filled by skilled migrant workers (cf. Ahmed, 2012; Kapiszewski, 2001, p. 73). This is a complex and multifaceted policy decision conundrum that requires systematic, small-scale policy re-framing, design and experimentation (Rein & Schön, 1977; Weiss & Birckmayer, 2006). Its purpose would be to test the responses and more importantly, other ‘unintended consequences’ (Merton, 1936) of any new policies on incentives, while utilising rapid ‘mapping’ tools for evidence-based policy design (Young & Mendizabal, 2009).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In sum, in the words of recent World Bank analysis, as the “demand for skills in the age of innovation” (Kutznetsov, 2010, p. 167) gathers further pace, it would not suffice to only perform descriptive analysis and policy borrowing. Instead what would be a welcome move is an in-depth and join-up look at ways to develop a consistent national skills policy, along with a congruent incentive system.

Figure 2: Core elements of ‘Strategic Incrementalism’ in policy implementation (Kutznetsov, 2010, p. 264)
What would also be of immense value in crafting a smart ‘skills development policy’ in the UAE, and elsewhere in the Gulf, is to take account of the overlapping layers and the logic of ‘strategic incrementalism’, as outlined in Figure 2 below. Strategic incrementalism refers to developing and facilitating methods of gradual change by which many small policy changes are enacted over time in order to create and facilitate a larger broad based policy change, increasing confidence in the implementation stages.

Whilst the ambitious suggestion from consultants such as Booz and Company (Shediac & Samman, 2010, pp. 21–24) is for a radical shake-up of multiple macro social systems, in the form of ‘imperatives for developing the GCC workforce’, a more nuanced method could be to explore, experiment with, and exploit policy designs coherently which allows for an initially small but near-certain change. Social systems (such as education and training, skills development and employability incentives) are stubbornly ‘path dependent’ (and defy new ‘path creation’) which means that they intrinsically carry a significant amount of inertia. An ‘imperatives list’ without significant buy-in from multiple stakeholders is likely to get into major difficulties in programme roll-out and implementation stages. For a labour market model to treat the UAE and Gulf nationals as if they are self-adjusting ‘plug-and-play’ workers is not only unrealistic, but also unproductive in a majority of cases due to conflicting social incentive systems. Systematic support in the form a joined-up skill policy can assist the policy makers and policy analysts in exploring future scenarios, where new policy incentives are weaved into the social fabric.

Additionally, specific up-skilling policy networks for policy makers and practice-based policy analysts, on topics such as evidence-based policy making (Glennerster, 2012), reframing and management of ‘unintended consequences’, and the cycle of policy experimentation, monitoring and evaluation (EME) is certain to provide worthwhile government ‘capacity-building’ investment. Creating a skills policy which can be implemented to develop a tight coordination between skills and economic growth strategies requires that policy makers function at their peak.

Policy makers and analysts, as well as consultants and researchers, in order to remain current and competitive, have to grow accustomed to accepting that learning is a lifelong endeavour. The accelerated pace of technological and scientific advances and the increasing complexity of social and socioeconomic policy issues not only means that our skills should advance and develop proportionally, but that, if neglected, they can equally rapidly become obsolete. The continual incentive to keep us connected with our actual context, pragmatically and generatively, is amongst the key skills in innovation and wider benefits of learning for life.

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13 To the best of our knowledge and publicly available data, within the Gulf, only Bahrain has taken initial steps towards formulating a Skills Development Policy (Allen Consulting Group, 2009; ILO, 2011b)
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SCHOOLS OF PURPOSE FOR BOYS OF PURPOSE

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BUILDING A PURPOSE OF LEARNING

There is abundant evidence that alarming numbers of boys around the globe demonstrate, through measurable behaviors, a lack of purpose in the context of education (Stewart, 2012). The challenge for those responsible for educating our young men is to build a pedagogy that provides a tangible experience of the purpose of learning.

BOYS NEED TO DISCOVER PURPOSE IN THE GCC AS ELSEWHERE

In the United States, males are the leading cause for concern in almost every disturbing statistic commonly reported by schools. US boys receive most disciplinary referrals, the most failing grades, drop out in greatest numbers and at the earliest ages, are more likely to be diagnosed with behavioral disorders and are prescribed the most drugs to alter their behavior at school. Young men in the US are less likely to attend college than young women, less likely to finish a college degree program and earn fewer university diplomas at every level of study (Gurian, 2009).

In the GCC countries of the Arab Middle East, the echo of boys' academic underachievement can be deafening. According to the TIMSS study of 2003 and again in 2007 (see Appendix A), the 4th and 8th grade boys in the GCC countries experienced the widest gaps of underachievement in comparison to girls of their respective countries in Math and Science performance (Gonzales, 2008). In Kuwait, Qatar, and the UAE, the college graduating class of 2009 was 60% female and 40% male (Al Masah Capital Management, 2012). That young women are motivated to learn, and see a purpose in higher education, is a laudable social achievement. That so many young men see no purpose in a higher education is lamentable and in no way a path for countries to pursue positions of international and global leadership.

Although it is not the purpose of schooling to inspire all boys and girls to attain a university degree, early schooling should serve as a conduit that facilitates the discovery of purpose in all children. Schools of purpose are schools that effectively facilitate a child’s discovery of purpose. Schools of purpose that raise boys of purpose are schools “that attend to the inherent nature of children [and] whose lessons will endure in the boy well into adulthood, and help define his heroic service to himself, his family, and his world” (Gurian, 2009, p. 178). Attentiveness to the nature of children as the first response to caring for and raising them in a healthy way is as old as humanity itself. In the context of schooling, however, some have contributed significantly to the interpretation of the needs of children through insightful observation. The early 20th century educational theorist and practitioner, Maria Montessori, is among the best known of modern advocates insisting that the child’s inherent nature be the starting point of pedagogical architecture.
RESPONDING TO THE NATURE OF BOYS

For more than a decade now, the gender differentiated human brain has become the starting point for many in understanding the nature of children's learning and behavioral needs. According to King and Gurian (2006), researchers have identified more than 100 brain differences between the genders. Some of these differences are more pronounced during early and adolescent development (Boersma et al., 2011) but have some structural and functional implications that may remain throughout life. A thoughtful reading of this growing body of literature, supported by documented evidence of classroom success (King, Gurian, & Stevens, 2010), reveals a clear intention to work with the nature of the child that always expresses itself as a response to an environment that is both material and social. The fundamental implication that emerges from brain-based educational theorists and researchers is that authentic instructional differentiation and classroom management strategies begin with an understanding of the brain, a brain that is as marked by gender as the rest of the human body. Perhaps we should be surprised if it were not so.

Among the many strategies offered by educators focused on brain dispositions, four stand out as particularly promising in constructing schools of purpose for boys. These strategies are 1) to facilitate the ability to make purposeful choices, 2) to integrate artistic expression throughout the curriculum, 3) to commit learning to service, and 4) to recruit and train a cadre of mentors dedicated to the intellectual and moral development of each boy.

LEARNING TO MAKE PURPOSEFUL CHOICES – PREPARING FOR A HEROIC LIFE

Allowing students to make choices that affect what they learn and how they demonstrate learning is a tool used by many educators to increase motivation (Birdsell, Ream, Seyller, & Zobott, 2009; Deed & Campbell, 2007). Increased motivation translates to improved learning task engagement, models of behavior that promote a learning environment for classmates, and a deeper personal commitment to learning in general (Jolivette, Stichter, & McCormick, 2002). The availability of choices may only provide a partial remedy for a lack of motivation or productive attention, but the contribution is valid and measurable, and therefore worthy of pursuit as a fundamental structure of pedagogy.

Presenting choices to a boy offers him the possibility of self-determination, and the brain responds to this stimulus in a number of ways. The first response is that the brain pays attention. It helps to know that catching the attention of a boy's brain for a productive purpose has a number of benefits in terms of academic learning environments. The brains of boys seem to be prone to falling into rest states more often and more quickly than the average girl's brain. The ill-effects of a rest-state tendency are to be lost in daydreaming, sleepiness, or the pursuit of some other stimulus to stay awake and escape boredom (Gurian, Stevens, & King, 2008). Purposeful choices wake the brain up with blood flooding the cerebral cortex now primed and able to consider a task worthy of pursuit. Choice wakes a brain. Purposeful choices wake a brain focused on a purpose. Brains focused on making purposeful choices designed by teachers are more able to learn and less likely to focus on activities calling for disciplinary action.

Presenting choice is only a first step of this student-centered pedagogy. It may not bear much fruit if it is not followed by continuous instruction and practice in decision-making. Decision-making is an acquired skill and a proven strategy for increasing overall student academic achievement (Friedman, Harwell, & Schnepel, 2006). The exercise of decision-making appears to promote a brain physiology more capable of skills that affect all aspects of life: the ability to reason critically, to focus attention, to imagine more clearly a variety of outcomes, to set priorities, to modify impulsivity (Barraclough, Conroy, & Lee, 2004). Where choice represents an opportunity, decision-making represents the commitment to pursue the opportunity. It is the beginning of perseverance and requires determined thought if carried out responsibly.
Reflecting on the motivating qualities of self-determination through choices and the intellectual and moral nature of responsible decision-making, one begins to understand the connection between pedagogy and character building (Priest, 2007). In terms of the gendered brain and pedagogy, knowledge of what may be seen as a weakness in a boy's brain becomes the pedagogical entry point to bring out its strengths. Schools that wake boys up to purposeful choices and train them in the skills of thoughtful decision-making are schools that participate in raising up boys of purpose. Heroes make heroic choices. Heroes choose to do what is right, choose to act, even when the outcome is uncertain or the process poses risk. Every school can be a training ground for heroes.

CREATING ACROSS THE CURRICULUM – LEARNING TO BUILD

The second purposeful strategy considered here is that of building artistic expression into all areas of the curriculum. This does not mean integrating the arts and academic curricula, as some educators have long advocated. Authors like Fisher and McDonald (2004) have had a two-fold purpose in their research and advocacy. They wanted to promote the arts, that they be better known and enjoyed, as well as enhance student experience in some curricular areas such as language arts. Marshall (2010) looked closely at strategies used in modern art production and demonstrated how those strategies could serve as conduits for integrating the arts with other areas of the curriculum. Marshall's approach more closely aligns with the idea expressed here concerning pedagogy and artistic expression.

Artistic expression as part of an overall pedagogical construct is not focused on art as curriculum, but rather on the process and expression of learning through creative, multifarious modes. Artistic expression could mean turning literature into theater, testing mathematics through model-building, making edible models of a plant cell in biology, transforming a butterfly's flight into music using computer technology. There literally would seem to be a world of possibilities that amaze the imagination.

A pedagogy of integrated artistic expression in all curricular areas, is a pedagogy that actively integrates the multiple intelligences expounded by Gardner (Campbell & Plevyak, 2008) and which ought to serve well the development of a boy's brain through a corresponding integration. Again, with the boy's brain in mind, this strategy utilizes his spatial, abstract strengths while activating, integrating and developing emotional processing areas (Gurian et al., 2008). The approach challenges, as it were, the brain to develop in a more balanced way, to develop knowledge based on a web of cerebral connections. The benefits of this knowledge web are greater academic achievement (Diamond, 2010) and growth in transferable skills such as self-regulated behaviors (Baum, 1997).

A pedagogy that intelligently requires creative products as both process and demonstration of learning will answer the question so often posed by students, "Why am I learning this?" Even if no one has a market for jello products that mimic plant cells or plans to write music by chasing butterflies, a boy will see that something cool and amazing, perhaps crazy, can be done with his knowledge. Creative products are filled with purpose. Creators are passionate builders. Builders realize purpose. Every school can and should be a training ground of builders.

SERVICE LEARNING – LEARNING TO GIVE

A third strategy that ought to be of particular importance in helping every boy at school "define his heroic service to himself, his family, and his world" (Gurian, 2009, p. 178), to realize his purpose, is service-learning. According to Furco and Root's (2010) survey of 68 studies, rigorous research has provided evidence that service-learning benefits students in their academic achievement, engagement in school and learning, demonstration of civic responsibility, and social skills. Service-learning as an instructional approach, is much more than organizing a service project. Billig, Jesse, and Grimley
(2008) asserted that through service-learning, as it was implemented throughout a large urban district in the United States, “young people identify community needs, plan ways in which they can help meet those needs, implement their plans through provision of community service, and reflect on their successes and challenges” (p. 21).

A school with a strong service-learning ethic, with room for students to make decisions about how to engage in building something good for their world, has already revealed to those students the potential of their education and of their lives. Service-learning may be among the best of ways for boys to develop empathy and express their care for friends, family, community, and the world. The development of empathy in boys should not be taken for granted. Because the physiology of boys and their thinking is heavily influenced by the drive of testosterone, becoming a caregiver, a protector and provider often needs structure for a hero to emerge. The male system is unlike a female's hormonal regime that includes large amounts of oxytocin for bonding (Gurian et al., 2008). We should not be surprised that these hormonal systems also structure the imagination in the brain's search for an appropriate expression of saving the world. Service-learning is an instructional structure that provides an opportunity for purpose to be deeply experienced, the purpose of an education and of one's life.

A CADRE OF MENTORS – ELDERS FOR THIS ERA – LEARNING TO CARE

The last strategy considered here for building schools of purpose for boys of purpose is not directly about curriculum and instruction, but about persons who model purpose, mentors. Especially in those modern systems where boys are obviously in trouble and not finding their way, someone needs to be there who is dedicated to helping them discover their purpose.

Mentoring programs have been used with positive results in selected troubled schools throughout the United States for more than two decades. Positive results include increased academic achievement, higher graduation rates, emotional stabilization, and positive social behaviors (Childs, 1997; Russ, 1993). Although well-defined mentoring programs are not a part of every middle and high school, such programs remain an effective tool to help at-risk adolescents, especially for boys mentored by men (Meyer & Bouchey, 2010).

Even if mentorship has proven beneficial for increased academic achievement of students, a mentor’s role is not academic instruction. In the words of one organization, the mentor’s role is that of “friend, role model, confident, nurturer of possibilities” (Search Institute, 2006, p. 30). Mentors are of value, not only when boys are lost, but as part of a nurturing system to help all boys find their way into purposeful adulthood. Recalling that a boy’s way of bonding to others is shaped by large amounts of testosterone and a much smaller amount of the bonding hormone, oxytocin, boys often need help in establishing relationships of trust that are helpful in the path to adulthood.

As Gurian (2009) has pointed out, all societies have, in the past, provided boys with mentors of various kinds – grandfathers and uncles, religious leaders, trusted friends. Gurian lists these attributes of good mentors that make them valuable for the boys and for the community from which they come: 1) a support for a family’s values, 2) never too far from home, 3) a different voice that rings true, 4) a model of service. Schools dedicated to raising boys of purpose, most especially if there are signs that many boys are not finding that purpose, would do well to build a bonding system of men whose task is to mentor the boys of the school. The mentors will be men who are dedicated to helping boys find the path to being heroes for their family, their community, and the world.
CHOOSING TO BUILD SCHOOLS OF PURPOSE

If leaders in concerned countries and school districts would choose to act on the ideas discussed in this paper, where would they begin? Another way to formulate the question might be, how would they begin to realize their purpose for the boys? The most important work, it seems, is to address the recruitment and education of teachers. Men are needed in this undertaking, men who realize their own purpose as being fathers of nations by helping the nation raise up its sons through a purpose-filled education. If teachers are to serve the building up of these boys, then their training needs to include knowledge of how the boys have already been structured. Teachers need knowledge of the gendered brain, how it manifests its strengths and weaknesses, and how to respond so as to build on strengths and strengthen what is weak.

Educational decision-makers ought also to consider establishing a professionally trained cadre of mentors. Mentors would become the conduit that helps boys connect to the school, to the community, to their purpose. Mentors would affect the structure of the schools and how they function since, through them, the boys would have a way of belonging to the school unseen in previous arrangements. A mentorship program, as a program for professionals, would likely be achieved on a Masters level at the university, require some years of teaching experience and perhaps even favor those who are already fathers of their own families.
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**APPENDIX A**

From the Trends in Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) of 2007 as reported in Gonzales (2012)

**Figure 4: Percentage of fourth-and eighth-grade students who reached the TIMSS advanced international benchmark in mathematics, by country: 2007**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Grade four</th>
<th>Grade eight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>International median</strong></td>
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<tr>
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*Figure 4: Percentage of fourth-and eighth-grade students who reached the TIMSS advanced international benchmark in mathematics, by country: 2007*
GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES ON OUTSTANDING LEADERSHIP IN SCHOOLS

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INTRODUCTION

This paper is based on a literature review and longitudinal survey of leadership roles in highly effective schools in eight countries – England, Sweden, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates (UAE), Bahrain, India, China and New Zealand. These countries are selected because of available recent literature about traditional and innovative developments in effective school leadership, interesting similarities despite their different cultural contexts and the author’s access to schools and many leaders of schools in these countries.

Narrative is also drawn from inspection reports of schools with commentaries from lead reviewers, principals/headteachers, deputy headteachers and teachers. Whilst theory about outstanding leadership abounds, translation into effective educational practice resulting in good outcomes for students does not.

Perspectives on education have become global, modern communication have made them so. Moves, for example, to privatize the provision of state education world-wide has done much to re-engineer the social and economic accountability of schools and school systems, but these often serve the pedagogical status quo rather more than bringing innovation to the needs of students in contemporary schools and communities of learning (Green, 2005). Therefore, this work seeks to identify common elements in the practical application of key paradigms of leadership and management that achieve high performance in the most successful schools and communities in different global contexts.

BUILDING BLOCKS OF OUTSTANDING LEADERSHIP

Much schooling delivers too little learning. World-wide more children are going to school for longer, but too many are not learning enough. Even where there has been sustained investment in new schools and concerted efforts to transform the teaching workforce, these have often not met present-day expectations (Galal & Ezzine, 2008). Change in the deeply-rooted practices of what teachers do with learners in many classrooms is called for, primarily action to transform what is currently perceived as ‘professional development’. When considering ways of bringing change and accelerating much needed improvement to patterns of learning in extreme environments, Yoo, calls for a break from established traditions - ‘School improvement on its own will not be enough to meet the need for learning. Relying solely on this route will take too long. Governments must turn to more innovative strategies that will come from outside the traditional school system.’ (Yoo, T, in Leadbeater & Wong, 2010, p. Foreword). Change is taking too long. Many classrooms still resemble a set-up of 100 years ago, designed to create conformity for an obsolete, pre-technological age. How can revising conventional wisdom and linking it with what is now known about learning communities reach new aspirations?

This work accepts the wisdom of scholars such as Michael Barber and Mona Moursheed (2007) of the McKinsey Global Institute and Michael Fullan (2011a & b) from Ontario about the nature of
fundamentals in effective school leadership. Paraphrased and summarised, the main building blocks of outstanding leadership appear to include:

1. frameworks that clarify expectations, interpretation, implementation and improvement actions
2. collective responses – the presence of human and social capital at the micro and macro levels, with shared perceptions about the next steps of the aspiration
3. accurate assessment and evaluation as the basis of action
4. detailed knowledge of the criteria upon which standards are based and how these look in practice
5. recognition of a largely unknown technological, economic and social future
6. autonomy, with intelligent accountability, near the point of learning.

These blocks underpin leadership for innovation. Organisations that stand still, merely retaining the status quo, soon decline; but school classrooms have shown a remarkable resilience.

**LEADERSHIP FRAMEWORKS FOR CREATING EXCELLENT LEARNING**

It is leadership in an inclusive culture of teaching and learning that creates excellence (Education Review Office, New Zealand 2011). This culture, built on those six building blocks, is consistently described as including:

- ambitious aims, realistic goals and values which are explicitly shown by adults that they are themselves lifelong learners, demonstrated in the ways they role-model learning for all
- interesting content across the ‘entire curriculum’ recognised as relevant by students
- well-understood processes for structuring learning and its evaluation, which help the community raise standards and improve provision through high quality assessment, feedback and accountability.

Where leadership is judged to be outstanding, these features exist. ‘The best leaders and managers exert a decisive influence on the quality of teaching and the use of assessment’ (Office for Standards in Education [Ofsted], 2010 p.32). In England, over 95% of schools where the quality of teaching is judged good or outstanding, so was the leadership (Ofsted, 2010). Where schools are in challenging circumstances, whether primary or secondary, it is the quality of leadership that makes a significant difference to rates of school improvement. ‘One crucial aspect... is the quality of leadership. The majority of headteachers spread the credit for success widely. However, in talking to school staff, pupils, parents and, in many cases, governors, there was no denying the pivotal role of the headteacher in creating the ethos of the school and exercising strong pedagogical leadership’, (Ofsted, 2009a p.10).

In Abu Dhabi in 2011, the Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) launched a ‘New School Model’ which is based entirely on a new approach to leading teaching and learning (Abu Dhabi Education Council [ADEC], 2011). Deliberate and systematic moves are being made to ensure that teaching and learning specifically rather than school organisation are being led and managed more seriously.

Usually a standard or bespoke framework is adopted upon which to structure management practices and so give direction and context for school leadership. These include teaching and learning and, by necessity, much more. The frameworks chosen vary according to geographical location, regional preference and on the training and development experiences of senior staff who, understandably, adopt and adapt familiar and favoured models.
LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT MODELS FOR OUTSTANDING PERFORMANCE

Importantly, the chosen model must provide a consistent and coherent approach which staff and the wider school community understand and to which they can contribute. There are many variations, but generally they can be classified into four fundamental types:

1. Invitational models, which emphasise ‘people traits’ and ‘environmental conditions’, such as the ‘5 Ps of people, places, programmes, policies and processes’, popular in parts of New Zealand and China, and common in European kite-marking

2. Curriculum linked progression models, such as the ‘International Baccalaureate’ and ‘Sabis learning’ found in many countries and particularly the Middle East and the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE), in Indian schools

3. Total quality frameworks, with separate ‘provision’ and ‘outcome’ components, such as the European Framework for Quality Management (EFQM) (Green, 2010), as reflected in Ofsted-type inspection frameworks, combinations of which are used widely, including Saudi Arabia, the UAE and Bahrain

4. Continuous improvement planning models with an emphasis on ‘personalised learning’, such as those developed by the Teacher Development Agency for Schools and many academy chains in England including those originating from Stockholm (Kunskapsskolan, 2012) and in many schools and approaches in Sweden (Allen, 2010).

Of these exported models, variations on 3 and 4 are prevalent - ‘total quality’ and ‘personalised learning’.

TOTAL QUALITY AND IMPROVEMENT FRAMEWORKS

As a blueprint for achieving outstanding leadership, the total quality framework represented in Figure 1 (Green, 2010) is helpful as it comprehensively maps the essential components to be addressed. It serves as a reminder of the kinds of enablers (or provisions) that are needed to deliver reliable and explicit results (or outcomes).

Although it is not the purpose of schooling to inspire all boys and girls to attain a university degree, early schooling should serve as a conduit that facilitates the discovery of purpose in all children. Schools of purpose are schools that effectively facilitate a child’s discovery of purpose. Schools of purpose that raise boys of purpose are schools “that attend to the inherent nature of children [and] whose lessons will endure in the boy well into adulthood, and help define his heroic service to himself, his family, and his world” (Gurian, 2009, p. 178). Attentiveness to the nature of children as the first response to caring for and raising them in a healthy way is as old as humanity itself. In the context of schooling, however, some have contributed significantly to the interpretation of the needs of children through insightful observation. The early 20th century educational theorist and practitioner, Maria Montessori, is among the best known of modern advocates insisting that the child’s inherent nature be the starting point of pedagogical architecture.
Figure 1: A conventional total quality framework for school leadership

The ‘provisions or enablers’ combine to deliver the ‘outcomes or results’. It is the impact of the enablers on results that really matters. Pivotal, it is the leadership of the key working processes of teaching and learning, curriculum, care and security that counts in making schools outstanding. Reliable evaluation of these key working processes establishes the starting point for improvement and that is why the best leadership teams in schools address this very seriously.

Another example, piloted originally in about 150 schools in England in 2008 by the Training and Development Agency (TDA) for Schools, is the School Improvement Planning Framework (TDA, 2008) in Figure 2. This focuses particularly on the leadership of teaching and learning to drive improvement, with an explicit emphasis on making the learning relevant to the individual student, the principle of personalised learning central in the leadership of many new academies in England.
The emphasis here is on ‘personalising learning’, putting the learner at the heart of everything the school does. This model also minimises the ‘administrative management’ functions. Models that map the overall functioning of a school and simply highlight the key processes of teaching and learning tend often to assume a didactic class-teaching delivery mode (Green, 2010). In these cases, explicit reference to personalisation is not made, which reflects many school systems where the lessons and timetable drive the school’s agenda rather more than the learning of students. But it is the dynamic between an institution’s leadership of teaching and the impact of the resulting teaching on learning that is crucial. The awareness of this dynamic appears to distinguish outstanding schooling. This approach increases human and social capital and forms the core rationale for many forward-thinking organisations.

CLASSIC CORE MODELS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING INNOVATIVELY USED

In exploring the concepts that the most successful schools use in underpinning their reference points for structuring teaching and learning, there is invariably some dependency on classic models and classifications. Jerome Bruner’s Man a Course of Study (MACOS), with its spiral curriculum and learning constructivism, (Smith, 2002) including Howard Gardner’s (Bruner’s student) multiple intelligences and Daniel Goleman’s emotional intelligences, feature frequently. But by far the most common classification in successful schools are those based on one variation or another of Benjamin Bloom’s cognitive, affective and psycho-motor domains in his educational objectives (Krathwohl, 2002). A check on the diagrammatic representations of Bloom’s taxonomy (Figure 3) in Google throws up over 600 variations of the model, suggesting its widespread adaptation.

Figure 2: A continuous improvement planning framework for leading schools

![Continuous Improvement Planning Framework](image-url)
Figure 3: Bloom’s Taxonomy of Educational Objectives

Though Bloom did not complete all three domains, further work and revision by others, including Dave (1975) and Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) has continued to affirm the relevance of these models today. The affective and psycho-motor domains are often under-represented in classrooms. Other models pick up on this. The four-quadrant model by Leadbeater and Wong (2010), whilst not alluding to Bloom directly, provides a powerful framework for how systems need not necessarily innovate, but rather ‘improve, reinvent, supplement and transform’ (Leadbeater et al, p. iii). It is relevant to note a current adaptation developed to enable the sustainable facilitation of outstanding learning through engagement in teaching, leading and coaching processes by Olevi for the National College for School Leadership, England (Olevi, 2012). Olevi’s model goes beyond Bloom’s cognitive domain. Through re-branding, it promotes the three domains of objectives encompassing, ‘Deepening thinking’, ‘Role-modelling learning’, ‘Impacting on progress’, ‘Challenging expectations’ and ‘Engaging in learning’ (DR. ICE).

So what can be drawn from such models? How are these models used practically to help leaders improve their monitoring, evaluation and coaching of teaching and learning that leads in turn to significantly better achievement outcomes for students?
ESSENTIAL STAGES IN TEACHING AND LEARNING

What is known globally from outstanding schools can be used to transform schools and learning communities locally. Relevance in the locality is crucial to success, as is the avoidance of any cultural misfit or false transfer of ideas, for example strategies that might work well in one setting but obviously not in another.

The challenge is about the whole learning community embracing the complexities of outstanding learning and having shared reference points for bringing this about. In terms of Bloom’s objectives, this corresponds to where the affective and psycho-motor domains are used with the cognitive in appropriate combinations and sequences. It might helpfully be described as the ‘implementation of pedagogy’ in a cultural ‘fit for purpose’ transfer. Many agencies that work with schools and teachers in different parts of the world have shaped practical ideas to help teachers and leaders identify a sophisticated repertoire of skills and attributes, but many have not (Dhillon & Yousef, 2010). The latter carry on using very out-dated teacher-centric and didactic methods, for example the blackboard and chalk merely replaced by power-point presentations. Zhao and Frank explain in depth these limits in different scenarios (Zhao & Frank 2003). The effective use of online technologies generally in teaching runs behind that in other professions and the commercial world. Online technology has not influenced the development of thinking about students’ personalised learning enough (Green, 2009).

The leading practice is where features that are consistently in outstanding teaching and learning across the curriculum and have generic value in the learning of most subjects have been explicitly identified by schools. This mobilises the effective use of resources. These features are described in different ways, but broadly the repertoire for students and teachers can be summarised as a six-stage cycle (Green 1991) comprising:

1. Engaging, capturing interest, creating excitement, seeing relevance
2. Enquiring, role-modelling learning, collecting ideas and finding information
3. Sorting, grouping, classifying, collating, rejecting ideas and prioritising
4. Analysing, synthesising, innovating, deepening thinking
5. Presenting ideas and outcomes in different forms
6. Assessing and evaluating, which re-inspires interest, excitement and engagement

(Emboldened words are identified in the stages on the cyclical diagram in Figures 4, 6 and 7)

FACILITATING OUTSTANDING TEACHING AND LEARNING

This six-stage cycle is a useful device to turn what we know theoretically about the leadership of outstanding teaching and learning into a format that provides practical reference points for consistent and systematic implementation. Figure 4 below shows the cycle (Top Quality Marque Ltd, 2011). It raises the consciousness of leaders and in turn teachers and students, as to what is actually going, or not, in their teaching and learning classrooms and out-of-class situations. It applies in conventional lessons and in self-directed learning in different environments. It provides a way of identifying the teaching and learning that is to be planned, or is happening within a classification that is inclusive of the different domains of Bloom’s learning objectives. For a school principal or senior teacher observing teaching and learning in any subject, the model invites a relatively simple classification of what is seen. For example, is the teacher introducing a new idea or are young students arriving at school and showing something they have brought from home? Such activity is Stage 1, that of capturing students’ interest and ownership. So how is this cycle to be developed? The stages outlined give a typical and reliable sequence as to how good teachers (of most subjects) often develop outstanding learning systematically.
Different stages in the cycle might be developed with different emphasis. Serious school leaders spend time on ensuring that teachers and learners have an understanding of what each stage actually includes. This forms the crucial bridge between the theory of learning and the construction of a robust and practical pedagogy. Implementation is invariably described by principals and inspectors alike as a very difficult technical process. It is one that requires in-depth understanding of the learning process and dynamic, high-order professional skills.

Figure 5: Teaching and learning content in the six-stages of the cycle (Adapted Top Quality Marque Ltd 2011 from Green 1991)
Stage 2
Collecting information, responding to
- direct experience – provide & current
- direct observation
- listening & discussing through cooperation
- reading, which includes functional reading, maps and globes, all library and ICT skills and higher order reading
- imagination and feelings
- specialist equipment

- the body and its senses
- observational equipment
- tools, instruments, machines, audio visual, IT and computer equipment

a) tapes, rules and wheels
b) weights and scales
c) capacity equipment
d) electronic sensors and thermometers
e) clocks, timers and watches
f) geometry measures

Stage 3
Selecting rejecting & organizing
- excluding irrelevancy and developing ideas
- structure of information and ideas
- interpretation of fact and evaluation of sources
- evaluation of ideas feelings and impulses
- re-arrangement, additions and subtraction of ideas, feelings and impulses
- asking the questions: Why? How can I test? and How can I innovate?

Stage 4
Deepening understanding analyzing & synthesizing information by:
- forming or considering suspension of a conclusion
- discrimination of fact from idea or opinions- identification of bias

- sorting and grouping
It is important that Stage 6 is not seen purely in terms of assessing and evaluating presentational skills. The stages described in 1 – 5 involve much planning, discussion, drafting, editing and decision making. Assessment and evaluation occurs at each of these stages.

The model works effectively in most situations, including traditional classroom circumstances as illustrated in Figure 6 (Top Quality Marque Ltd, 2011). Evidence can be found in many high performing Indian schools where teachers lead their students, as a class, using highly didactic methods through such stages Learners know what they are doing and what is expected of them, often with exceptional attainment as an outcome from their schooling evidenced in a number of Indian schools reported across the UAE (Knowledge & Human Development Agency [KHDA], 2011).
Figure 6: The six-stage cycle – progression as a class unit

Figure 7: The six-stage cycle – progression at the students' own pace and problem-based learning
**CONCLUDING PARADIGM**

Outstanding schools are dynamic and focus on students’ learning above all else. They invariably have leaders who are flexible, promote team working and accept change as the norm. These leaders root philosophy in sound and established learning and leadership concepts, but usually challenge methodology systematically so as to ensure students’ learning builds progressively into evident achievement. There is a rational and collective endeavour understood across the community and particularly at the points of learning. In the best schools, time is spent on clarifying what is meant by particular words and phrases; language is interpreted carefully so that convergent and divergent purposes are clear. Essentially, leaders know from where their students are starting. Evaluation of their present position is known to be vital in identifying priorities, informing decisions and setting the direction of travel. This is emphasised in the leadership and management of the teaching and learning process which is seen as spiralling rather than linear. Frequent evaluative checks give the leaders the benchmarks they need to provide meaningful intervention that continuously improve pedagogy demands.

By looking at similar problems in different contexts and seeing how they have been tackled and successful overcome begins to reveal some global insights about how schools and environments for teaching and learning do become outstanding.

The models as outlined in this paper are not new in themselves, but when chosen and used in innovative ways they can provide powerful frameworks for leaders of education to bring effective changes in pedagogy. They are presented to challenge and to be considered, discussed and explored. The transformation in learning we seek across school communities appears to require both innovation and pragmatism.

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International Branch Campus Quality in a Segmented Quality Assurance Environment


استخدام سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني كأداة بديلة للكيماوي تلاميذ المرحلة الابتدائية

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تمهيد:

تعد ملفات الأعمال (البورتفوليو) إحدى الصيغ الجديدة والتي أصبحت تستخدم بكثرة في العديد من الدول المتطورة في الآونة الأخيرة سواء في نطاق المؤسسات التعليمية أو المراكز الأكاديمية أو الجهات الحكومية. وقد شهدت السنوات القليلة الماضية طفرة كبيرة في ظهور المبادرات التكنولوجية المرتبطة بالتعليم.

وقد أثرت تلك التغيرات في الموقف التعليمي بهذه المبادرات. فتغير دورالمعلم من ناقل للمعرفة إلى مساعد لعملية التعلم، فتقوم بتصميم بيئة التعلم وتسهيل مستويات طلابه ويضع لهم ما يحتاجه من المواد التعليمية ويعززهم ويوجههم حتى تحقيق الأهداف الحالية. كما تغير دور التلميذ، فلم يعد متلقياً سلبياً بل نشطًا إيجابياً.

التعليم يتطور بشكل أكبرِ حيث التعلم لا يحدث في المدرسة فقط بل يمكن أن يحدث أيضًا عبر الإنترنت. 

تقوم هذه المبادرات على مبادئ عديدة من العمل على مستويات متعددة من التعلم، مثل التعلم الذاتي، التعلم المجموعة، التعلم التعاوني، والتعلم الاجتماعي. إنها تساعد الطلاب على تحليل وبداية بناء المعرفة، وتنشرها بينهم وتشجيع التواصل.

خلفية المشكلة:

من خلال عمل الباحث في الحقل التعليمي كمدرس للمرحلة الابتدائية، فقد لاحظ أن تهتم مدارس البحرين كثيرًا بالورقة المدرسية وتعتبرها وسيلة مهمة لتخزين الأعمال والمشاريع المدرسية. وتعد هذه الورقة رمزًا للتعليم الفعلي في المدرسة، وتحتاج إلى الكثير من الاهتمام والرعاية.

فتتحت فترات حديثة في التعليم، حيث تعددت سجلات الإنجاز الإلكترونية، وتتميز هذه المبادرات بتوفير مواقع وصول للمتعلم يتيحه القدرة على الوصول إلى المعلمين والمعلميين الآخرين من خلال الإنترنت.

مشكلة الدراسة:

1. ما هو سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني (E-Portfolio) وما الفرق بينه وبين ملفات الإنجاز المدرسية؟
2. ما هي ألوان سجلات الإنجاز الإلكتروني؟
3. ما المكونات الأساسية التي يجب أن يستخدم عليها سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني (E-Portfolio) الخاصة بلاميذ المرحلة الأولى؟
4. كيف يمكن استخدام سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني (E-Portfolio) في تقييم تلاميذ المرحلة الأولى من التعليم الأساسي؟
أهمية الدراسة:
تكون أهمية هذه الدراسة أنها خالق إثراء من ضوء على سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني (E-Portfolio)، وحسب إطلاع الباحث، فهو ناجم عن تحديت سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني كأداة تقييم لمراقبة المرحله الابتدائية في البلدان العربية.

أهداف الدراسة:
هدف الدراسة للإجابة عن السؤال الموجه لها، وما الذي نعني به البحث في مجال تطبيقه، كما هدف الدراسة إلى إعطاء نظام لاستخدام سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني مع طالب المرحلة الابتدائية كأداة بديلة لتقييم أدائهم.

حدود الدراسة:
تقتصر هذه الدراسة على مدى إمكانية استخدام سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني (E-Portfolio) كأداة التقييم الأصيل مع تلاميذ المرحلة الابتدائية، وفوائدها والانتقادات الموجهة لها.

مỤصطلحات الدراسة:
(Kitred assessment) التقويم الأصيل، نمط من التقييم الذي يستخدم لتكشف عن قدرة الطالب على حل مشكلة من خلال تجربة مهام واقعية وذات معنى، وقبل وقوعها في غضون الوقت والطفل، والذي يهيئه وثيقة - غالبًا - الدقة على النتائج عالمية (Performance Assessment).

(Alternative Assessment) التقييم البديل، و ديي موظف في سجلات الإنجاز الإلكتروني (E-Portfolios)، من حيث مفهومها وأهدافها ومقاساتها.

(Portfolio assessment) تقييم مؤسس على السجل التوثيقي، طريقة Bin zeigen غير تقليدية لتقييم أداء الطلاب، أو هو تقييم يبنيه العالم على عينة من أعمال الطالب التي نشرها قطعة بنية.

(Portfolio) سجل التوثيقي، تجميع منظم ومقصود يوثق كل الإنجازات (أو عينة منها) التي نشرها الطالب، ويقدم هذا السجل للآخرين عقب تلقيه الطالب من مهاراته وتبين مدى تقدمه الدراسي على فترة زمنية.

نوعية طبيعة ودقة سجل التوثيقي، فأداء الطلاب في تقييم الإنجازات الخاصة بهم. وهي عمليات الرؤية والإشراف التي تفترض من والتي نشرها أداء الطالب، وрид من أن يبني نفسه سجلًا، يتيح فيه إنجازات وأعمال خاصة التي تبرز أهمية حفظها (مهمة، 2007).

سجل الإنجازات التوثيقي (Electronic assessment) نظرية تاريخية:
موضوع إنجاز الأطفال وأهداف في الدراسة، وهو منهج يركز على تقييم الأداء أو المعلم، ويقدم هذا السجل للآخرين من خلال فهرس مهاراته، يهتم ببعض المعلومات ما بيد أن تقتصر على جملة، والطلاب الذين يركزون ذلك الأمر للطلاب، ويستعمل هذا السجل عامة مع معظم الموضوعات الدراسية كالعلوم والرياضيات. وعند استخدام هذا السجل ليس فقط، ولكن نشرت على الطلاب، وهو الأخر مابين من أن يبني نفسه سجلًا، يجعل فيه إنجازات وأعمال خاصة التي تبرز أهمية حفظها (غراي، 1992).
ما هو سجل الإنجاز الالكتروني (E-Portfolio)?

هو وعاء رقمي قادر على تخزين محتويات بصورة سعية بما في ذلك: نصوص الفيديو والصور والرسومات التي تحتوي على محتوى إنتاجي رقمي (Maher & Gerbic, 2009) ولكنه مصمم أيضاً لدعم مجموعة متنوعة من العمليات التربوية والترفيهية (Daum, 2005). يمكن أن يكون الإنجاز الالكتروني هو "مجموعة من الأعمال أو الاختيارات الشخصية الموجودة على شبكة الإنترنت، التي يتم استخدامها لإظهار المهارات الأساسية والإنجازات مجموعة متنوعة من الفترات الزمنية" (Lorenzo & Ittelson, 2005). 

أما الدكتور إسماعيل محمد فقد أوضح أن "سجل الإنجاز الالكتروني هو "سجل أو حافظة لتجميع أفضل الأعمال المميزة للطالب من دروس ومحاضرات ومثل ومشروعات ومشاريع، في فترة دراسية محددة أو مجموعة من الفترات الزمنية. وتختلف مكونات ملف سجل الإنجاز الالكتروني من طالب لآخر حسب طبيعته التربوية في تنظيم الملف، ومحتوى الإنتاج الموجود فيها هو ذو طبيعة رقمية (Maher & Gerbic, 2009).

بروغرام التدريب ي xmlns://www.w3.org/2005/01/ogp#content_part1

1. يتشكل من مجموعة من الفيديو والصور والرسومات (Maher & Gerbic, 2009).
2. يحتوي على مجموعة متنوعة من الفترات الزمنية (Lorenzo & Ittelson, 2005).
3. يتيح سجل الإنجاز الالكتروني الفرصة للطالب كي يفكر ويعمل في تدفق الإنجازات وتنظيمها وإمكانات تطوير هذه العادات التي من شأنها أن تستمر حتى بعد التخرج (Maher & Gerbic, 2009).
4. يركز سجل الإنجاز الالكتروني على الإنتاج الفعلي للطالب.
5. يحترم الإنجازات الجميلة وينظمها بشكل فعال (Maher & Gerbic, 2009).
6. يعزز الإنجازات بطريقة أكثر من مجرد تجميع وتنظيم النصوص الفيديو والصور والرسومات (Maher & Gerbic, 2009).
7. يحترم الإنجازات بطريقة أكثر من مجرد تجميع وتنظيم النصوص الفيديو والصور والرسومات (Maher & Gerbic, 2009).
8. يعزز الإنجازات بطريقة أكثر من مجرد تجميع وتنظيم النصوص الفيديو والصور والرسومات (Maher & Gerbic, 2009).
وسجل الإنجاز électronic (E-Portfolio)؟

ما الفرق بين ملف الختمة المدرسية (Portfolio)؟

خلال سبعينيات القرن الميلادي، سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني يمكن ملاحظته أن كثير من التقارير تتعامل مع تاريخ الإنجاز وتعنيrzغ مفردات ومنهجية مفصلة منهجية، على سبيل المثال، من حيث أنها ترتبط بشكل وثيق بعملية التعلم وتتعامل مع مشاريع أو أعمال الطلاب. هذا النوع من العقود منهجية مفصلة منهجية، على سبيل المثال، من حيث أنها ترتبط بشكل وثيق بعملية التعلم وتتعامل مع مشاريع أو أعمال الطلاب.

ما الفرق بين ملف الحقيبة المدرسيّة (Portfolio)؟

خلال سبعينيات القرن الميلادي، سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني يمكن ملاحظته أن كثير من التقارير تتعامل مع تاريخ الإنجاز وتعنيrzغ مفردات ومنهجية مفصلة منهجية، على سبيل المثال، من حيث أنها ترتبط بشكل وثيق بعملية التعلم وتتعامل مع مشاريع أو أعمال الطلاب. هذا النوع من العقود منهجية مفصلة منهجية، على سبيل المثال، من حيث أنها ترتبط بشكل وثيق بعملية التعلم وتتعامل مع مشاريع أو أعمال الطلاب.

الدوري الإعدادي لتعليم الطلاب (Daum, 2011)

يافتر المراد من سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني هو إعداد تكنولوجي، أكثر من من كونه ابتكار لمفهوم. على سبيل المثال، هذه المجلة العديد من المقالات المتصلة بسجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني يمكن ملاحظة أن كثير من التعريفات تستعين بتلك الخاصة بملف الأعمال الموعدية الالكترونية (E-Portfolio)، تختلف أهداف سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني.

ما هي أهداف سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني؟

تختلف أهداف سجل الإنجاز الإلكتروني (E-Portfolio) بنسب متفاوتة من سجلات الإنجاز الإليكتروني (E-Portfolio).

ما هي أنواع سجلات الإنجاز الإلكتروني (E-Portfolio)؟

يمكن القول بشكل عام أن هناك أربعة أنواع رئيسية من سجلات الإنجاز الإلكترونية: ملفات أو حقائب التعليم (learning portfolio) الرصيقة والتعليم، وسياسات التعليم نحو تعليم أكثر تكامل يتقاطع واحتياجات الطلاب الحقيقية، كما يمكن عن طريق استخدام وسائل استنتاج الإنجاز أو التحول في المراسلة التصفية والسياسات التعليمية نحو تعليم أكثر تكامل يتقاطع واحتياجات الطلاب الحقيقية، كما يمكن عن طريق استخدام وسائل استنتاج الإنجاز أو التحول في المراسلة.
 WHERE THE AIM IS TO PROVE EFFICACY AND ACHIEVEMENTS, THE FOCUS HERE IS ON SHOWCASE PORTFOLIO (Maher & Gerbic, 2009).

THE ASSESSMENT PORTFOLIO (Learning Portfolio) (Gülbahar & Tinmaz, 2006) WHERE THE CONTENTS CAN INCLUDE SAMPLES OF WORK, OBSERVATION RECORDS, AND DIAGNOSTIC TESTS. WHERE SAMPLES OF WORK CAN SATISFY THE NEEDS DURING THE OBSERVATION AND SUPPORT INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS. IN ADDITION, THEY ALLOW THEM TO TRACK THE PROGRESS CHILDREN - IN OTHER WORDS, THEY TRACK THE SUCCESS OF THE CHILDREN, INSTEAD OF THEIR FAILURE. TEACHERS AND PARENTS CAN REVIEW THE CHILDREN'S WRITINGS, AND THE BOOKS THEY READ TO THEM OR READ THEM FROM VIDEOS OR PHOTOGRAPHIC MOUNTS, AND RECORDINGS OF CHILDREN READING OR WRITING THEIR STORIES, ETC.

what are the essential components that should be included in the electronic portfolio (E-Portfolio) of the first cycle learners? IN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA, WHERE THE ELECTRONIC PORTFOLIO RANKS FIRST ON THE EDUCATIONAL SCENE, ITS CONTENTS TEND TO FOCUS ON EVIDENCE OF ACHIEVEMENT. IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (ESPECIALLY IN HIGHER EDUCATION), THEY TEND TO USE PORTFOLIOS TO ENCOURAGE BALANCE IN MATERIALS OR PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING (Madden, 2007) AND DIFFERENT COMPONENTS DEPEND ON THE GOAL OF CREATION AND TYPE, BUT REVIEW SEVERAL MODELS. CAN BE SAID THAT THE MAIN CONTENTS OF ELECTRONIC PORTFOLIOS ARE MATERIALS THAT CAN BE DESCRIBED AS THE BEST ACCORDING TO THE VIEW (Madden, 2007) AND SO ON:

- Direct evidence: This means the actual work, in its full or partial form, produced by the individual like:
  - Children's writings samples
  - Lists of sources that the child read and the materials they used
- Indirect evidence: This means evidence that does not support the child's work, but helps to track their progress, such as:
  - Observations and reports
  - Self-assessments
- Results of the assessments used to support the work of the child and the teacher's feedback
كيف يمكن استخدام سجل الإجازة الإلكتروني في تقديم تلاميذ الحلقة الأولى من التعليم الأساسي؟

من أجل الاستخدام الفعال لسجل الإجازة للتدقيق، يجب أن تكون المؤسسة التعليمية تتضمن تأسيس ثقافة من الأدلة أو التوثيق. الأدلة في ملفات الإنجاز الإلكترونية ليست فقط الأعمال الفنية التي يضعها التعلم هناك، ولكن أيضًا الأسس المنطقية الصغيرة التي يوفرها المتعلمين مثل: حجتهم لماذا هذه النتائج تشكل دليلاً للتحقق من الأهداف المحددة؟ نتائج أو معايير. وعلاوة على ذلك، فإن الأدلة تضمن أن تكون كل الأعمال المربوطة بسجل الإنجاز. يمكن تمثيل هذه العملية باستخدام صيغ بسيطة مثل: أدلة = التأمل + منتجات (المبرر) + التحقق من صحة (تغذية راجعة).ando يعتمد عليه من التوثيق.

1. خطة الإنجاز من التدقيق.
2. خطة التدوينات كما يجب أن يوضع في السجل التوثيقي.
3. خطة توضيح الأهداف المحددة لتسجيل الإنجاز الالكتروني.

التوصيات:

1. سجل الإجازة الإلكتروني (E-Portfolio) توصية إدارية واعدة وأنه ينبغي على المعلمين والمناطق التعليمية النظر فيها كجزء من استراتيجيات التعليمية شاملة.
2. سجل الإجازة الإلكتروني من قبل إدارة القياس والتدقيق بوزارة التربية والتعليم في مملكة البحرين.
3. تثبيت مدى الإنجاز الشخصي في المرحلة الإعدادية للطلاب على المستويات التي تواجد هذه السجلات، وتوصول لبناء سجل الإجازة الإلكتروني لتوافق الأهداف العامة للتعليم.
4. إقامة الندوات والمؤتمرات لتعريف العاملين بالمجال التربوي بسجلات الإجازة الإلكترونية، وفهمها وكيفية الاستفادة منها.
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THE ROLE OF SULTAN QABOOS UNIVERSITY IN SERVING THE COMMUNITY

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Sultan Qaboos University, College of Education

INTRODUCTION

Building or creating a link with the local and international community is not an easy process; it requires commitment, expertise and leadership that reflects a profound understanding of the policies and the processes of interaction. To enhance relationship with the community, it is required that leaders have a strong sense of purpose and encourage reflection and dialogue at all levels of the schooling system. As stated by Perold and Omar (1997, p. 5), "Participation in community service (CS) usually involves a degree of personal sacrifice in terms of time, remuneration and convenience." As a matter of fact, universities are sources of knowledge and expertise for their communities. Tsouros (1998, p. 11) stated "Universities are a valuable resource for the communities in which they are located."

SQU is committed to its role towards the Omani Community. According to items 3.a and 3.b of Article 5 under Chapter 2 of SQU Charter, The SQU should work on serving and developing the community a. through direct and continuous contact with the economic, social and cultural institutions in a way that the community can benefit from the capabilities and resources of the University and b. by developing Omani human resources and improving their competence through provision of continuous education and training programs to all institutions of the community, and to disseminate human and scientific knowledge among the members of the community. This paper concentrates on analyzing SQU’s role in serving the Omani Society.

DEFINITION OF COMMUNITY SERVICE

Within the Omani context, the SQU Self Study (2009) has identified the term ‘industry engagement & community service’ as encompassing activities such as consultancy, links with basic and higher level general education schools, and staff involvement in activities such as lectures, seminars, workshops, training, exhibitions, media participation and membership of external committees, boards and advisory groups of relevance to governmental institutions and ministries, business, commerce, agriculture, and architecture. This definition indicates that SQU has a broad responsibility towards its society and people. It reflects the University’s commitment to most of the activities targeted to serve Omani society and its needs.

MODELS AND LEVELS OF COMMUNITY SERVICE

There are many community service models that have been developed. Hashagen (2002) provides a classification of some of the models of community engagement that have emerged in recent years which he adopts them from Pretty (1995). He states that the value of these models can be assessed from the perspective of the different levels on the ladder of participation. In practice, the models overlap, and most community organizations reflect a mixture of the different strands.
These models are:

- Consultation / public participation model,
- Asset-based / social economy model,
- Community democracy model,
- Identity based model,
- Learning-led and popular education model,
- Service development model,
- Community organizing Mode,
- Regional and national network.

In terms of connecting university programs and courses to CS, Deans and Harris (2000) suggest three approaches- writing for, about, and with the community- and provide case studies for each approach.

There are different levels of community engagement. Following the Foundation Paper prepared by the Australian Consortium (ACHECESR, 2004), Scotta and Jackson (2005) argue that a university may engage with its communities at a number of levels, and the level of engagement may vary according to the community addressed. The possible levels are community engagement and service as:

1. An irreducible and unavoidable element of existing university activities – assumes all research and teaching ultimately involves engagement with the community, either directly or indirectly and with social, economic and/or cultural impacts.
2. A separate and mainly voluntary activity by academics and students – the 'service' view.
3. A central overriding goal of higher education –deliberately embedded within all teaching, learning and research functions (the engaged university).
4. A systematically pursued partnership for mutual benefit – with shared values and aspirations between the university and the community.

CS is not limited to alignment of programs and courses to society's needs; it also involves engagement with industry and business. Gibbons (2005) observes that universities are moving from research characterized by “… primarily one way …” communication from universities to the outside world, to a new context of “socially robust” research where industry engagement is a “core value” characterized by an open institution with two-way communication.

Scotta and Jackson (2005) argue that an essential component of a quality framework is to have a community engagement strategy which is closely aligned to the strategic directions of the university as delineated in Strategic Plans, both at the university and college/faculty/school level. They identified a wide range of options in this regard. Community Engagement (CE) can be local, national or international and can include any one or mix of the following: engagement with professional communities, research and development, knowledge dissemination and community debate, educational programs and support and involving the community in the university.

These options of engagement are to be considered seriously by SQU in order to help the university achieve its objectives.
SULTAN QABOOS UNIVERSITY AND COMMUNITY SERVICE

The nine colleges, and other University units at SQU, are bolstered by a number of services that provide support to students, faculty, technical and administrative staff as well as the larger Omani community. The SQU 2009–2013 Strategic Plan (SP) identified its objectives related to CS. They are (SQU Strategic Plan 2009, p. 11-12):

• To serve the community and participate in its development through direct and continuous contact with its economic, social and cultural institutions, and to provide these institutions with scientific and technical advice so that the community can benefit from the expertise and resources of the University.

• To develop Omani human resources and improve their competence through the provision of continuous education and training programs to all community institutions and to disseminate the culture of science and humanities across the nation.

The Royal Decree No. 71/2006 incorporates CS objectives in each category and verifies them in a separate category as it is stated earlier. The University SP (2009–2013) also aims to: maintain close relations and continuous interaction with industry and employers and identify opportunities to support industries through research and educational expertise. In addition, the SQU Charter specifies the duties for all academic staff and members and CS is one of the promotion criteria for faculty. Among these duties is contribution to community development, as stated in item j of Article 213. Article 21 under Chapter 7 of the SQU Charter has also specified the objectives and duties of the Head of Departments in each college. In item f of that Article, it is stated that the Head of the Department (HOD) shall make recommendations related to research projects, contracts, consultations and community service undertaken by the employees. Finally, the main research objectives at SQU, according to items 2.a and 2.b of article 5 under chapter 2 of SQU charter, are: a. to serve the community, and to participate in finding solutions to the social and economic problems, and b. to relate research to comprehensive development plans and to the future vision of the community in various fields such as technology, economics, science, arts and humanities. The heavy emphasis on community engagement and service in SQU’s official documentation and rules point to the importance of such considerations at the university.

COMMUNITY SERVICE PLANNING, MANAGEMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION

I. Management

An institutional framework has been developed at SQU to manage and conduct various activities directed to the society and industry at all levels. The overall responsibility for the conduct of the University – community interaction – lies with the Deputy Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs and Community Service (DVC-AACS). The University established the Center for Community Service and Continuing education (CCSCE) in 2003. It acts as a link between the University and the community and coordinates all services directed to the community. Advisory Committees are in place to enhance these activities. SQU’s colleges, academic units and centers have established their own internal arrangements for facilitating this interaction either through dedicated officers or Assistant deans for training and community services.

SQU extended the services of staff and faculty to serve in different standing and ad-hoc committees with the Ministries, industrial and commercial agencies, and nongovernmental organizations. Table 1 provides some brief statistical data of the community service activities that took place between 2008 and 2011 under SQU.
II. CS Activities Performed

Table 1: General Statistical Indicators of the Services provided by SQU Colleges and Community center to the University and the Omani Community at Large: 2008–2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Colleges/Center</th>
<th>Training sessions</th>
<th>workshops</th>
<th>Exhibitions</th>
<th>Lectures</th>
<th>articles</th>
<th>Seminars</th>
<th>Competitions</th>
<th>Consultations</th>
<th>Media</th>
<th>Alumni Related Services</th>
<th>Professional Organizations (e.g. Memberships &amp; Services offered)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural and Marine Sciences</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; Social Sciences</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre for Community Services&amp; continuing Education</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce &amp; Economics</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>49</td>
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<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>179</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine &amp; Health Sciences</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>99</td>
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<tr>
<td>College of nursing</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>688</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>368</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>183</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table above, most of the activities offered for the community concentrate on lectures, training and workshops. In addition to the internal activities indicated above, SQU has also contributed significantly to the outside community through its active involvement with several institutions in the educational, social, cultural, industrial and economic fields. The services offered to the community at large include general and specific ones. There are examples of general CS practices achieved by SQU; they are shown below:

1. **Village Health** Care is a module in the curriculum of the pre-clinical medical students that involves visits of the students to the community where the students learn about a health related topic important for the community like nutrition. While learning about the topic, the students also communicate with the members of that community and deliver services and health education themselves.

2. **The AMAL Study** is an example of research related community activity that is taking place at the College of Medicines and Health Sciences. The AMAL study is a community-based research project sponsored by His Majesty’s trust funds. The aim of the study is to estimate the prevalence of pre-diabetes and associated risk factors in the community and to take measures to prevent the onset of diabetes among Omanis based on this research.

3. **IAESTE Program**: SQU is a member of the International Association for the Exchange of Students for Technical experience (IAESTE). In this, about 200 students from the College of Engineering are sent to different countries, mainly in Europe and Asia, for a period of two months to interact with industry leaders and participate in their training programs.
4. **Strengthening English Teaching through Service Learning Project:** In keeping up with the new trends and developments in education in general and in teaching English as a Foreign Language in particular, SQU joined the project of the Middle East/U.S. Quality Teacher Education, as an active partner along with United Arab Emirates (UAE) University. The project proposal was initiated by representatives from Northern Kentucky University, Yale University and Saint Joseph College. The aims of Service Learning are to: (i) increase students' language skills and fluency, (ii) give them a purpose in producing language, and (iii) increase their motivation to learn.

5. **Legal Clinic:** To improve and develop relationships with the community, the College of Law established a legal clinic, which aims not only to teach students the legal ethics necessary to successfully practice law or act as a judge, public prosecutor or police officer but also to develop community service through direct contact with clients and institution. The clinic program includes three courses: moot court, legal consulting and field trips.

### III. Relationships Within Industry and Employers

SQU engages with industry in various ways and to varying degrees. The university and the governments agree on the need to strengthen university–industry collaboration as a core strategy for transforming Oman's industry-based economy into a knowledge-based economy and for reaping the benefits of this closer liaison. This interaction requires the active involvement of SQU faculty, students, alumni and the outside employers. At the same time, alumni and employers are involved in the assessment of the level of achievement of the objectives of some of the university programs. Moreover, experts from industry and potential employers visit SQU and present seminars that are highly beneficial in the overall student and staff development.

One of the ways in which interaction with industry and employers takes place is through the summer training programs where students are assigned to work for different industrial establishments. Other important occasions for interaction with industry and employers are the annual get-togethers organized with alumni, and the annual Science Weeks organized by students which have also been seen to be a useful forum for attracting potential employers. Furthermore, the Career and Training Opportunities Fairs at SQU, organized periodically by the Center for Career Guidance, have also been seen to be a great success in establishing fruitful relations with industry members and employers (SQU, Self Study, 2009).

In the past, the university has had several rewarding interactions with industry and employers, both formal and informal. Some of the services worth mentioning are:

- Employers meetings organized by colleges and serving in SQU-PDO (Petroleum Development Oman) liaison committee.
- Consultancies for industrial establishments such as Fish Quality Control Center, Oman Polypropylene Company, and Sohar Laboratories.

From the above activities, it is clear that SQU engages with industry and employers very actively through training sessions, workshops, meetings, seminars and consultancies, and this leads to mutual benefits for industry leaders and SQU alike.

### IV. Relationships with Professionals

The University's mission is to contribute to the wealth and well-being of Omani, Arabian Gulf and the international communities through education, research and community service of distinction. Specific objectives for contributing to educational, civic and cultural leadership in the community include:

- building productive partnerships with government, business, and the professional organizations;
- helping to identify opportunities to attract new industries to Oman and to support them through the University's research and educational programs and capabilities;
• forming strong professional relationships with other educational sectors and research organizations and General Professions in Oman;

• fostering a community service ethic among professionals.

The SQU colleges have been actively involved in services to professional organizations in the country. Members of faculty have taken initiative to establish professional organizations and to serve in these and other bodies in different capacities. Some of the services worth highlighting in this area are: involvement in the establishment of the Environmental Society of Oman (ESO), Geological Society of Oman (GSO), Al Manhal Advisory Board at PDO, International Association of Sedimentologists, the Educational Technology Society and Tsunami Early Warning Committee. The services offered to these professional bodies have been found to be very useful in enhancing the interaction among professional communities through workshops, conferences and meetings.

The college of medicine maintains good relations with professional bodies in and out of the Sultanate. It does so by sharing training activities such as workshops, symposiums and conferences, memberships in various committees and associations of all clinical specialties along with the Ministry of Health and other medical institutions in the country such as the Scientific Committees of Oman Medical Specialty Board and membership of the Arab board.

V. Relationships with Other Education Providers

One of the major types of community services offered by Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) falls under the university’s relationships with other education providers. Almost all colleges have been involved in relationships with other educational institutions (schools, colleges, universities and the Ministries). The SQU participates in a number of research projects with different private and governmental organizations and ministries which include the following:

• Conducting research studies in curriculum and teaching methods in different academic fields and participating with the Ministry of Education in writing school textbooks as well as developing teacher guide books and school curricula.

• Assessing programs offered at private higher education institutions consulting on matters related to education and assessing medical and nursing students.

• Teaching media courses for Health Institute, Ministry of Health.

• Hosting overseas students and professionals who come for short periods from other educational institutions.

• Coordinating with the Ministry of Justice in preparing and studying the financial transactions law.

• Offering International Computer Driving license (ICDL), a teaching program designed for the examinations of the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA).

• Serving in the Academic Council of the University of Nizwa, University of Sohar, University of Dhofar, University of Oman, Academic Committee for National Foundation Programme (NFP), and Boards of Directors of some expatriate schools in Oman.

VI. Relationships with Alumni

The university colleges maintain close ties and continuous interaction with their alumni. The university established the Center for Career Guidance (CCG) with a section devoted to alumni affairs and issuing reports on their alumni employment statuses after graduation. The CCG has a division for university alumni which carries out the following duties (CCG, 2012):

1. Maintaining records on the first destination of graduates upon leaving the university and informing SQU graduates of the latest news and developments.
2. Inviting the graduates to take part in the conferences, seminars, workshops etc. taking place at SQU

3. Organizing annual re-unions with alumni

4. Organizing discussion panels between graduates and key people at the university.

5. Inviting speakers from the alumni to present their experiences on the Colleges Open Day. Others are also invited to deliver seminars and talks on different topics to students throughout the academic year.

VII. International Activities

Although internationalization is new to SQU, the university has committed considerable resources to exposing itself to the world. Efforts are made to expand international student enrolments both through the exporting of the university's higher education services and the hosting of international students. Internationally, the SQU has signed several memorandum of understandings and letters of agreement with a number of other Higher Education Partners (HEPs) in order to create a link for different types of collaborations, including outreach and training which relate to one or more of the University.

I believe that in order for the University to ensure quality outcomes for its internationalization process, attention must be directed toward ensuring greater staff commitment to what is essentially a significant management change program. There is awareness of the importance of quality and internationalization to the University's development. However, I would argue that the University still needs to conceptualize its approach to internationalization as an issue best addressed by strategies found within change management and human resources management.

SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Although analysis of CS showed that there are a great efforts been done to serve the community, employers and alumni, the university recognizes the need to improve the university facilities so as to make the services offered more effective. In addition, the following suggestions should be considered:

- SQU needs to conduct a comprehensive review of the achievements and to monitor performance based on accumulated data at the university as a whole, as well as within the college level.

- More attention should be paid to investigating the community's needs and to involving the interest groups and professionals in planning and implementing activities. Training programs and workshops should in order to qualify the academic staff to identify society's needs.

- Staff should involve themselves in professional associations and organizations beneficial to the community;

- It is necessary that colleges and centers within the university maintain proper liaison and cooperation with CCSCE in carrying out these activities with the goal of improving and strengthening commitment with the broader Omani community.

- The university should introduce a structured program of activities involving the alumni and employers on a regular basis in all colleges without exception.

- More attention should be paid to industry engagement because there is currently a lack of available data to effectively measure, understand, evaluate and subsequently, to benchmark industry engagement practice.

- Three challenges need to be considered in the future to ensure SQU quality assurance and they are: defining high quality engagement, facilitating engagement, and measuring success of engagement by applying suitable assessment tools and instruments.
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تعبر دول الخليج العربي حركة إصلاحية واسعة في المجالات السياسية والاقتصادية والتعليمية. ونخص هنا بالذكر أفعال التعليمية التي يهمها الأساسي. فهي محاولة لللحاق بالركب العالمي في هذا المجال أعادت معظم دول الخليج هيئة إنظمتها التعليمية مستعينة بخبراء من الغرب وغيره.

وقد حققت دول الخليج العربي في فترة قياسية تقدماً ملحوظاً في مخططها الإصلاحي العام، والتعليمي منه على وجه الخصوص. لكن ككل المشاريع الإصلاحية الكبرى تتعرض العملية الإصلاحية التعليمية الخليجية أحياناً عقبات من شأنها أن تبطئ السير أو تتوقف. من بين هذه العقبات تختار اليوم نشعر أن يبقى في الخلف، في الوقت الذي ينصب الاهتمام بكثره على الجوانب الأخرى.

2-

فـ "الإصلاح التربوي الناجح- كما قال أحد الباحثين (د. خليل الحضري "، فهو لا يصل إلى الإصلاح من بعيد واحد أو بعدين. ولكنه، كرسوم التكعيب، يصل إليه من الأبعاد الثلاثة في نفس الوقت".

وسنحاول في هذا العرض نتناول العملية التعليمية أساساً من ذلك البعد الثالث المرتبط خصائصه بالهيئة الأكاديمية للتدريب. بل وسنتناول منه فقط الجانب المتعلق باللغة العربية، مع أن غيره لا يقل أهمية وتعقيداً عنه.

وقد دفعنا إلى الحديث عن هذه المسألة ما يعتري شعب اللغة العربية والإسلاميات من مفارقات جراء تبعات الإصلاح التي تملي التعديل والتطوير في مجمل العملية التعليمية (وسائلها وموادها وطريقة وطرقها ونظمها). وذلك في مقابل البرامج والمقررات الأخرى التي تدرس باللغة الإنجليزية والتي تحقق معظم مقومات الإصلاح. مع أنها في بعضها إنكاذاتها الخاصة وقد تناولنا جوانب منها في ندوات سابقة.

فما هي ياترى الأسباب الكامنة وراء هذا الوضع؟

الواقع أن التشرف إلى راهن الإطار الأكاديمي للعربية وموادها يتطلب مننا تسليط بعض الضوء أولاً على وضع اللغة نفسها في الإطار الإصلاحي ما يقودنا مباشرة إلى تساؤل التالي:

1. ما هي أسباب عدم مواكبة شعب اللغة العربية والإسلاميات لركب الإصلاح في كثير من المجالات؟

إن جهة سرعة وندرة في المحتوى الفعلي أو الأفكارية (العربية أو الإنجليزية) مكتشف لنا التحديات في نوعية التعليم أو التعليميات في مستويات التعليمية المتقدمة، والأعمال أو الأعمال الدولية أو التصوير أو التصوير الفوتوغرافي في مختلف المحافظات، ولذلك فإن تلك الصور أو الأعمال والوسائل الرقمية التي تحرض عليه في مواقع العلماء والرياضيين، وربما توجد فيها للعديد من الشركات من حيث تغطية، وهي متميزة بالذكاء الذكاء التجاري، وتعطي الأفكار، وتعطي الأفكار، وتعطي الأفكار.

وعلى ذلك، نخلط بين بعضها نفس الموضوع، ونحاول أن نفعل ذلك، ونخلق بعض الأفكار، ونحاول أن نفعل ذلك، ونخلق بعض الأفكار، ونحاول أن نفعل ذلك، ونخلق بعض الأفكار.

لهذا يعد أنه بالرغم من المنطقية العملية فيما يخص إدخال الإصلاح على اللغة العربية والمهارات المتبعة بها فإن النتائج لا جدال بها. وإذا اتبعتنا الوضع صدق أن(optimizer) ليس من جهة النقلات ووضع الأفكار، وإنما من جهته الخيالات والتحقيقات.

فإنه على الرغم من المفاهيم الكبيرة المتبعة لضغط الإصلاح كان يصعب سد بعض النقصات العالية في بين النتائج.
والاستعدادات الخاصة فيما يتعلق بالمواد المعتمدة في الكليات الجديدة، ففي الوقت الذي توجد فيه آفاق الصمود والراجع والمواقف التربوية والتعليمية النافعة للمؤسسات والمؤسسات التعليمية على اللغة الإنجليزية، فلا يوجد ما يزيد على الواقع في الجزء الأول من هذا الأمر الذي يجعل البحث عنها في اللغة العربية ضعيفًا وأهمًا، وذلك بسبب صعوبة وشدة التشغيل عن عرائض الترجمة الاستدلالية عن اللغات الأخرى وعدم احترامها في المجالات والخدمات و صفوفهم. وأما فيما يتعلق慣ب المصطلح رقم Standard،  فسأكتفي بهذا المثال فيما يخص لبس المصطلح ومقدمة التعليم. في الطب وتعليم اللغة العربية، حيث يوجد آلاف المصادر والمراجع والمواقع التربوية والتعليمية، لا يوجد حتى الاتفاق أو التواضع على المصطلح التربوي المعتمد في المواد التربوية باللغة العربية. الأمر الذي يجعل البحث عنها في الحاسوب أمراً صعباً ومقامرة. ناهيك عن غرابة الترجمات الاصطلاحية من اللغات الأخرى وعدم اتساقها وضعف التراكيب والعبارات. وسأكتفي بهذا المثال فيما يتعلق ببس المصطلح ومقدمة التعليم.

، ومرة بمعناه اللغوي Rubric،  ومرة بمعنى Standard مثلاً مصطلح المعيار، نجده في الكتب التربوية باللغة العربية مرة بمعنى القياسية، مرة بمعنى المعيار ومعنى العادي.. مع أن كل واحد منها مصطلح يعبر عن مفهوم محدد في التربية والتعليم.

هذا من جهة ومن جهة أخرى لا توجد أحياناً محتويات في المواد باللغة العربية بشكلها الكامل، عندما يتعلق الأمر بالمواد الإنجليزية. وقد تواجه بعض المصطلحات باللغة الإنجليزية في المواد التربوية والتعليمية، في بعض الأحيان، صعوبة في الترجمة، وهو ما يجعل البحث عنها في الحاسوب أمراً صعباً ومقامرة. ناهيك عن غرابة الترجمات الاصطلاحية من اللغات الأخرى وعدم اتساقها وضعف التراكيب والعبارات. وسأكتفي بهذا المثال فيما يتعلق ببس المصطلح ومقدمة التعليم.

إن ظاهرة غياب العمل الجماعي وعدم إشراك كل الأطراف المختلفة في التعليم والبحث، والجهود والجهود، من مؤسسات ومؤسسات ومراكز، وأفراد، أسهمت بالفعل في إضعاف قيمة الإنتاج في هذا الباب بشكله. كلاً من هذا يجعل الفرق بين ما يتم باللغة العربية وبين ما يتم باللغة الإنجليزية، في هذا المجال، كبيراً جداً. ومع ذلك، فإن المصطلحات والعناصر المتصلة بالإنتاج في المواد التربوية والتعليمية، تقدم في بعض الأحيان، إجابة إيجابية على الأسئلة التي يتعرض لها المتعلم، وتساعد على التعلم والبناء.

وبقي السؤال هنا، كيف يتم التعامل مع كل هذه المعطيات من سعي العمل الإصلاحية؟ وكيف تنتمي معاججها؟

في الواقع توجد بعض الأفكار للتفعيل من مستويات أثر الأكاديمية العامة من ورشات وورشات، لكنها خُتِّت إلى مرحلة من التنسيق الفعلي والتعاليم والممارسات. كما أن بعض الأفكار للتفعيل من مستويات أثر الأكاديمية العامة من ورشات وورشات، لكنها خُتِّت إلى مرحلة من التنسيق الفعلي والتعاليم والممارسات. كما أن بعض الأفكار للتفعيل من مستويات أثر الأكاديمية العامة من ورشات وورشات، لكنها خُتِّت إلى مرحلة من التنسيق الفعلي والتعاليم والممارسات.

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إن محاولة إيجاد حل لهذا الوضع ككل بالنسبة لأساتذة العربية والإسلاميات قد يتطلب مبدئياً الأمور التالية:

1. حصول الوعي بهذا الوضع وباحاجات هذه الفئة من هيئة التدريس.
2. الاعتراف به كواقع ملموس والتعامل معه على أساس الأساس.
3. الاهتمام المباشر ببحث إمكانات إيجاد حلول له بطريقة إيجابية.
4. مراجعة الظروف الخاصة بهذه التخصصات ومتعمقتها وبيناتها.
5. الأخذ بالباردة لمعالجة كل هذا بشكل استعجالي، جدًا.

اليأس هذا ما يحصل عادة عندما يتعلق الأمر بإشكالات الطالب أو صعوبات البرامج والمقررات، فلمن لا يتبع نفس المنطق والمبادرات عند التعامل مع إشكالات هيئة التدريس خاصة تلك التي تعاني وضعاً خاصاً مثل هذه الأقسام؟

وبناء عليه، ما هو آفاق اللغة العربية والإسلاميات في ظل الإصلاح التعليمي؟

إن مستقبل تدريس اللغة العربية وموادها رهن بالكيفية تعاملنا مع إشكالاتها اليوم، أي أي أُعمال أو تأخير في معالجة إشكالاتها سيبعثر سلباً ليس فقط على مستقبلها وإنما على مستقبل الإصلاح ذاته، وبالتالي على نهوض الأمة ككل.

وإن إشكالات من هذا النوع لا خفي عن مستوى ضيق. وإنما خُصت في مكافحتها إلى كثير من التفكير والانفعال والتفاوض والتصادم، وتتكاثف الجهود. وأشار باقي الأطراف المعنية خاصة تلك التي لها علاقة مباشرة، وهي التي تتعرض للإعاقة، بالإضافة إلى إمكانية الاستعانة باخبرة خارجية. وهذا ما يطول النجاح على فعاليتها في مواقع مثالية أكثر. ما يدفعنا في نهاية هذا العرض إلى وضع بعض الاقتراحات التي تأمل أن يكون لها بعض الدور في الإسهام في النهاية.

4. توصيات:

ما نود أن نختم به من توصيات، يوجد من مبادرات في جامعة البحرين وكلية العلمين وبالتأكيد في غيرهما أيضاً إلا أنه نقص.

1. دورات تدريبية على التكنولوجيا المعاصرة بشكل تدريجي (باللغة العربية).
2. دورات تكوينية في مختلف استراتيجيات التدريس الحديثة والمعاصرة.
3. ورش عمل فيما يخص التدريس الجيد أو إدارة الصف.
4. تكوين مجموعات عمل من ضمن هيئة التدريس. تعمل على تطوير المواد والبرامج والمقررات.
5. ورش عمل حول الزمالة والتواصل والمهنية.
6. التقلص من ساعات التدريس وفتح مجال أوسع للتطوير المهني والبحث العلمي.
7. التخطيط من أساس التدريس وفتح مجال أوسع للتطوير المهني والبحث العلمي.
8. يرتكز على وراء القيام بهذه الأعمال الدفعة بعجلة الإصلاح الشريفي في الإجابة الصحيح وفقّغ بعض المبادرات الهامة والضرورية والمستقبلية لاستمرار العملية التعليمية ضمن الشروط المهنية للطموح التي يتطلبها الإصلاح. ومعرفة التوقعات المبكرة من الجانبين الأكاديمي والإداري والترابط بين فراغ التواصل والتعاون والارتقاء في كل الأطراف.
بعض المصادر والمراجع:


وطفة، علي & عرابي، محمد عباس محمد. الإصلاح التربوي. بحوث علمية. متوفر على: http://www.ibtesama.com/vb/showthread-t_173820.html

EMIRATI AND SAUDI STUDENTS’ CULTURAL SOCIALIZATION AND ADJUSTMENT AT U.S. UNIVERSITIES

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INTRODUCTION
The purpose of this cross-cultural comparative case study is to explore the major factors affecting Emirati and Saudi students’ cultural challenges and their coping strategies in U.S. universities, which is a part of a larger study. The focus is whether or not these students were successful in their adaptations to western culture leading into higher levels of English language proficiency and academic achievement (Kim, 1988). The research design is qualitative using interviews with three Emirati and three Saudi students in U.S. Universities. The interviews results indicate that female Emirati and Saudi students face communication difficulties with male students because they come from a conservative culture. Family and Gulf Region students’ support facilitates Emirati and Saudi students’ adjustment to American universities and culture. In general, results show more similarities between Emirati and Saudi students’ cultural challenges at U.S. universities because UAE and Saudi Arabia went through similar education system reform history, and similar “Sharieah” law that impacted Education and social life.

BACKGROUND
Some Emirati and Saudi students decide to travel to the U.S. for their post-secondary education. Most of them are sponsored by their governments. For instance, at Pennsylvania University, in 2010, the number of the Emirati students was 74 and the number of the Saudi students was 128 (University office of Global Programs, 2010). It is noticed that number of Emirati and Saudi students is increasing. Also, the number of Saudi students is the highest among other Gulf regions students who attend Pennsylvanian State University. During the transition process of Emirati and Saudi students to the U.S. culture and universities, they try to adjust to the new environment (Kwon, 2009). This cross-cultural adaptation process causes some social and academic challenges. Understanding these challenges is significant for the scholarship sponsors of the UAE and Saudi Arabia and the U.S. universities as well to design adequate language and cultural preparation programs.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
This research used a qualitative method to investigate Emirati and Saudi students’ cultural socialization and adjustment at U.S. universities. The study set out to investigate the following research question: What are the difference and similarities between the Emirati and Saudi students’ cultural challenges and coping strategies to face these challenges? The investigation was conducted using recordings of in–depth interviews with three Emirati and three Saudi students.
RESULTS

Emirati and Saudi students' Cultural Challenges at U.S. Universities

Cultural and Social Challenges

The Gulf region culture protects women. If a daughter is not married, the father remains responsible for his daughter. Culturally, men do most of the work and women stay at home as a princess. Women must have permission from their guardians for most issues. When Sheikha, a Saudi student, wanted her father to obtain an apartment for her in the US, the rental office refused to give him the keys and requested to make his daughter available, which is different from the cultural expectation in Saudi Arabia. Sheikha commented:

*I was at Huston and my father came here to my apartment. My father paid the rent for the first month. The rental office manager told him that I have to be available to give him the apartment’s keys. In Saudi Arabia, my father has to be with me to receive the keys of an apartment.*

Hoor, an Emirati student, who studied in private schools, adjusted to the American culture faster. She did not notice a big difference between the American culture and Abu Dhabi culture, which is a global city in the UAE. Hoor commented:

*When I came here, I did not feel of culture shock. I was living in Abu Dhabi which the life a little bit similar to the culture here. However, I know some students who were shocked when they arrived here and saw women wearing shorts.*

However, Hoor misses her family members whose relationship is a close tie among Emirati extended families; different from American families. Hoor commented

*Even though I have my aunts in the U.S., I still feel expatriated. I miss my mother and sisters.*

Women's Communication Challenges with Men

Conservative cultural attitudes lead Gulf region female students to avoid any kind of communication with men, which is a result of Islamic preaching as well. At one time, female and male Emirati and Saudi students studied in separate schools and classes in their native countries. The communication between women and men is very limited even in work. Moving to American mixed classes triggers communication difficulties especially for female students. Emirati female students expressed their uncomforted working with male students as Hoor stated; "I try to avoid male students in our discussions in our classes. We have an Emirati association at Penn State University. Female Emirati students do not want to be members because they do not want to mix with the male Emirati students."

Women in the Gulf region did not leave their homes alone. They usually have their fathers or brothers accompany them. To see a native woman who bikes in Saudi Arabia or UAE, outside her home is a wired view. Hoor expressed her annoyance when she moved to Penn State University whose Arabs community is greater than she expected. She feels that those Arabs limit her freedom:

*When I was in the language preparation program, I was relaxed more than Penn State University. There were no Arabs. I bike and do whatever I want but here if I do anything, everyone will know. It is like I am still at UAE. Arabs men talk about girls more than women, which is weird.*

Changes in Male’s Role

Men in the Gulf region receive service and respect from women. Men do not cook or care for the house, normally women work. Hassan, a Saudi student, came to the U.S. and received a cultural shock. He commented on his new situation in America:
It might be the person’s status in his country is changed and decreased. I mean I was in Saudi Arabia, others serve me. Here, I have to do my stuff by myself. This makes a psychological stress. Thinking of how the person was in his country and how he is here in the U.S. The person is affected by that. Now, I am used to my situation in America”

Lack of Cultural Knowledge

Jokes in a new language are difficult to understand because students have to learn the needed vocabulary in order to appreciate the humor and the culture (Gee, 1996). Emirati and Saudi students find difficulty following some classroom discussions and socializing with American students because they miss the meanings of the American jokes because of the language barrier or the meaning of certain words in the context that the word or phrase is being used.

Zayed commented specifically about such situations.

Sometimes American students tell jokes in classrooms but we do not understand the jokes because it is cultural. It is like the Emirati cultural jokes which I understand. There are some issues related to American traditions which I do not understand that complicates understanding the classroom discussions."

Lack of the cultural knowledge decreases Hoor’s understanding of her test questions, which influences her grades. Hoor commented regarding the difficulty associated with communication challenges on written exams. ;

Sometimes, my mistakes in tests resulted from my misunderstanding of the language. If I did not understand a word, I cannot contact the teacher because the test is controlled by a computer program. American students know most of the words which I do not understand because they relate to their tradition or history or economy. I cannot use a dictionary.

Emirati and Saudi students’ Coping Strategies to Face their Cultural Challenges

Family Support in the U.S.

The Gulf region supports protecting women. Few women travel by themselves. Guardians usually travel with Gulf Region women. In the case of Saudi female students, their government obligates them to have “mahram” such as a father, brother or husband, which pays their language preparation tuitions and living expenses. The UAE government does not obligate female students to have dependents. However, few Emirati scholarship sponsors support husbands financially to accompany their wives. The participants provided examples of family members’ supporting Emirati and Saudi students’ residing in the U.S. and opinions on the dependents issue. Hoor emphasized that she accompanied by her parents the first time she arrived the U.S. to settle down. She contacts her aunts in California and Ohio if she is in trouble. Hoor recommended having dependent for female students. However, Sheikha, a Saudi student, has a different view on the dependent issue. She mentioned that ARAMCO does not obligate students to have a dependent. She thinks that there is no need to have dependent.

Cooperation Among Students from the Gulf at American universities

Emirati student “Zayed” prefers to work with particular Emirati students who are dependable. He seeks their support if he does not understand classroom materials.

Zayed commented:

I work with specific Emirati students who I know are active, and they do their work well. I do not work with students who depend on us to do their work.

Zayed added:

Sometimes, if I do not know or understand some points from the class materials, I will ask my Emirati classmates.
Emirati and Saudi students seek help from Gulf region’s senior students who have more experiences in their academic fields especially in their academic writing. Also, they seek help from students who are at the same level and exchange papers for peer reviews.

Khalifah commented:

“When I was in my foundation year, I usually sought help from a Kuwaiti Master’s Student. Once, I had to write a research paper for law class. After I had written the paper, I asked him about how to rewrite some sentences and correct some grammatical mistakes. He is better than American student because I can explain to him my ideas in Arabic. Also, he is my best friend and our relationship is informal. I am more relaxed to discuss my writing difficulties with him. I trust him.”

Khaled, an Emirati married student in Engineering college, seeks support from his friend in writing chemistry lab report. In addition, Hoor states that her senior Emirati friend helped her in fulfilling her assignments and spent time to study together especially for midterms and finals.

Hassan, a Saudi student, who was in the Intensive English Communication Program, seeks help from his Arab or Saudi friends in structuring communication questions and writing his assignments because he was not fluent in the language.

CONCLUSION

Study findings have several implications specifically for Emirati and Saudi students, their sponsors, U.S. universities and their language preparation programs. Emirati and Saudi students’ sponsors should prepare students for American culture and U.S. universities to enhance success academically and socially (Boyer & Sedlacek, 1988). Sponsors should prepare students to learn new skills and adjust to the educational system of the American universities, which is different from that in their native countries. In addition, Emirati and Saudi students’ sponsors could offer female students the opportunity for their dependents to accompany by paying living expenses to facilitate settlement in the U.S. American universities need to hire more Arab professors and teaching assistants to support the Emirati and Saudi students in their studies because they will understand the language and culture.

REFERENCES


AN INVESTIGATION OF TEACHERS’ EPISTEMOLOGICAL BELIEFS: “A DESIRED PARADIGM SHIFT IN PEDAGOGICAL ACTION WITHIN BAHRAINI SCHOOLS”

Dr. Hassan Al Wadi and Dr. Vanithamani Saravanan
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this preliminary study in the Bahrain Teachers College (BTC) is to examine the implications of implementing the new design of the teacher education programme. These implications are explored through the programme’s policy, context, and practice. The starting point were the reviews on curriculum inquiry, by Shubert (2010) and Pinar (2008) who discuss the need to make curriculum inquiry critical to current educational programmes.

INTRODUCTION

The stated aims of the Bahraini education reform is that it requires a desired paradigm shift in pedagogical action within Bahraini schools where Bahraini teachers are provided an apprenticeship of their desired practice to redefine their goals and sharpen their practices (Bahrain Education Reform, 2006). BTC teacher education programmes emphasize application of the following skills and competencies: knowledge construction, problem-based learning, multiple intelligences, life-long skills with infusion of practical experience where teachers are ‘learning about practice in practice’ (Darling Hammond, Hammerness, Grossman, Rust and Schulman, 2005).

THE STUDY: PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS

This preliminary study examines how BTC teachers are given guided support in order to make transparent the beliefs underlying their own teaching. In an earlier study on Singapore-based Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) teachers, Gupta & Saravanan (1995) conclude that teachers’ educational beliefs filter their instructional curricular decisions and actions. This initial study on teacher beliefs attempts to examine how teachers ‘think pedagogically, reason through dilemmas, investigate problems, and analyse student learning’ (Darling-Hammond et al, 2005). The following diagram represents a model of the main elements of the BTC model that integrates both content and pedagogy:

Figure 1: Pedagogical Action

![Diagram of Pedagogical Action]

- Progressive opportunities (Lave & Wenger, 1991)
- Knowledge construction
- Problem based learning
- Multiple intelligence
- Action Research
- Reflective Practice
- Policy, Context, Practice
- Proposed paradigm shift–pedagogical action (Darling Hammod, Hammerness, Grossman, Rust and Schulman, 2005).
The proposed pedagogical shift in Bahraini schools is perceived to be evolving as teacher education programmes become progressive. BTC programmes emphasize applied understandings of skills and competencies. The BTC curriculum integrates problem based learning, multiple intelligences and Information Communication Technology (ICT) approaches in order to facilitate knowledge development in teachers.

The infusion of field work begins early with pre-service teachers tracking school mentors in ‘one day in the life of the school teacher’ journey, participating in school culture through experiential field work, and developing understanding through practical experience.

This paper further examines BTC teachers’ epistemological beliefs that lead to their unconsciously held assumptions about pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) as portrayed by Shulman (1986) and Cochrane, De Ruiter, and King (1993). Epistemological beliefs are unconsciously held assumptions about teaching, learning, schooling, curriculum, knowledge. Teacher beliefs can have a powerful effect on teacher’s classroom practices (Fullan, 1993). The following figure displays this more clearly:

**Figure 2: Epistemological beliefs**

Based on the above, this preliminary study explores teacher beliefs that infiltrate their informed instructional curricular decisions and actions in planning, teaching and assessment. Therefore, this study adapted the following research questions from O’Neill, (2010): *To what extent do teachers assimilate the new texts and curricular guides? To what extent do they incorporate them into their knowledge, beliefs, and pre-existing teaching practices - thinking about goals and content, learning goals/aims/outcomes? What approaches do they take in their design of instruction, implementation?*
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Data were analysed by by calculating the frequency of the participants' responses for each category included in the interviews. Then, they were broken down into sub-categories. In addition, the participants' responses to the questions were quantified to detect tendencies and to identify the areas of major shift to the teachers during their teaching practice inside the classroom.

1. PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE: ANALYSIS OF EPISTEMOLOGICAL BELIEFS

1.1 Teacher strategies: From crafting to scientific planning

Most of the study participants showed a move in their view to how teaching should be performed. According to them, teaching was a practice that was done according to their experience and professional growth they get along their teaching years. As one participant stated:

“I did not study education before and the only thing I received was some training workshops in the MOE and they all were related to specific tasks but not like here at the BTC”

Teacher T

On the opposite, most of the study participants changed their views on teaching and considered it as a science that has elements to be fulfilled to achieve any successful teaching and learning on the part of both the teacher and students. A major cause that might have led to this shift in paradigm was the methodology courses which shaped many aspects of the teachers’ practices:

“The teaching methodology courses and psychology – they cultivated my own knowledge and professional practice of how to conduct such skill”

Teacher H

1.2 Approach to teaching

Teachers have continued to be resourceful relying on their practical experiences and MOE training workshops. After the extensive BTC teacher education programmes, teachers transferred their knowledge and professional practice to teaching. This was evident in their responses in which they stated collaborative activities as a fundamental teaching tool:

“Students should be involved in groups to do tasks; they should exchange their experiences, learn and also help each other to perform a task.”

Teacher A

They also found that with collaborative activities, their teaching method has been changed from teacher centre to student centre:

“Students should do their work by helping each other; duties are distributed among students according to their abilities and this is more student-centred than teacher centred.”

Teacher D

This has raised the professional awareness of those teachers of the important role their students can play for their learning:

“Before I used to have teacher centred approaches without knowing that I am taking over students’ role.”

Teacher F
The complete shift in performance can be seen in the following statement made by Teacher B:

“Now it is group work and student centred, collaborative activities where and students work together equally in authentic, real life situations. Student roles are identified and they all work as one and my role is supervising them. My view changed after courses at Bahrain Teachers College (BTC). We learnt that it is a shared responsibility and as teachers we should involve our students because they have to be the centre of our teaching”

From the above it was clear that respondents used to consider teaching as one way direction but now they view it as a shared responsibility. This was shown in their view towards their students’ roles who they viewed as partners who should collaborate with them to achieve learning, learning should be approached collaboratively.

2. CRITICAL THINKING & LITERACY:

Throughout the interviews, the study respondents showed also a move towards critical thinking and literacy.

2.1 Constructive learning:

Teachers reported that after finishing their training, they find that practice and drills only are not enough to make learning happen. Instead, many respondents expressed that they believe in constructivism as the approach teaching and learning should be designed:

“I do not believe in practice and drills. Instead I believe in constructive learning and that students should construct new meanings after their learning. Both my role and my students’ expected roles, with the objectives.”

Teacher A

This was echoed in their perceptions to the utilization of the textbooks. Many found that textbook would no more represent to them to only source for learning:

“Before, I used to cover the entire textbook. Now the textbook is utilized for my teaching – I might select some exercises and develop some activities of my own.”

Teacher G

2.2 New approach to literacy: situational learning experience

The participants mentioned also that one of the impacts they got from their teacher education programme was the functional use of language. That is, those teachers now consider language teaching as a practice that has to be based on a real life situation rather an artificial isolated activity. Teacher B noted this clearly in her responses:

“I teach language skills through situational learning experience. I and my students practice different skills. At BTC we contextualize our teaching.”

At this point, some of the participants raised the importance of lesson planning in terms of identifying the teacher’s and learner’s roles, objectives, main aims of the lesson, assessment, and individual reflection to foster effective literacy learning and functioning.

“I am able to combine the skills for teaching because we already have practiced it in our teaching methodology courses and TP supervision. We need supervision and reflection to develop and get improved”

Teacher G
However, some other teachers still relied on their past experience:

“I practice speaking intensively with them through conversations linked to the textbook topics, explaining the rules. Vocabulary is explained in Arabic because students understand it better.”
Teacher H

and

“Sometimes I don’t know. Simply, I read the rule – form an outline of the target structure then students form sentences in the target structure.”
Teacher D

A SUMMARY OF TEACHER BELIEFS IN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME

Table 1 given below is a summary of teacher beliefs. It highlights some of the key teacher beliefs. As field experiences continue teachers show a shift in their beliefs. BTC teacher education programmes emphasize developing, recording and sharing their reflections on e-portfolio. There are concerns as with teachers who are in pre-service, though some have been in service for some years. The concerns range from managing classrooms to exercising control over errant behaviour.

Table 1: Analysis of Teacher Beliefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Old beliefs</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Impact of BTC programmes</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching/ Learning Processes</td>
<td>Teacher-centred:</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Student-Centered</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Textbook as the main source</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Developing supportive materials- use of ICT</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One-Way Process</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>An interactive Process</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Just my teaching</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Supporting students’ learning interests</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching by experience</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Teaching as a science than a craft</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No pedagogical orientation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>BTC as the Professional Institutional Provider</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar-Translation method of teaching</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Functional use of Language communicative</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching for the sake of teaching</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Teaching to achieve clear objectives, learning outcomes</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Little or no specific planning</td>
<td></td>
<td>Lesson planning is an integral part of every lesson</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Strategies</td>
<td>Classroom management/ control</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Collaborative learning</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effect of personality &amp; beliefs</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Effective teaching techniques</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Collaborative/interactive learning</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Communicative classrooms</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Developing students’ interests</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Beliefs</td>
<td>Seeking professional Development</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Impact of BTC teacher professional education programmes</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attending professional workshops/ courses</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Reflective Practice as continuous self development</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outcomes of BTC Programmes</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Development of Teacher Competencies</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
USE OF INTUITION AND PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE

A classic study by Lortie (1975) observed that teachers rely on intuition and practical knowledge because they lack a set of empirically derived practices and principles. Practical knowledge refers to beliefs and habits that teachers acquire from experience rather than from empirically based principles and practices acquired through education and training.

It has been observed that in fact, experienced teachers are more content centred. Inexperienced teachers tend to more pupil centred, Duffy and Anderson (1984). This is supported by Pinnegar and Carter (1990) who conclude that teachers tended to have an affective rather than theoretical orientation to teaching. This entails a shift away from less behavioral and cognitive learning theories and towards more use of trust, respect, and confidence in teaching. Teachers at BTC tend to use a variety of instructional methods as they need time for more practice and practical classroom experiences. Figure 4 below summarises the progressive shift in concerns as teachers develop more professional confidence and expertise.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Beliefs play a critical role in shaping teaching practices because there is a lack of consensus about best practices as indicated by Snider (2007). Professional teacher courses need to be backed by field work data and observations in situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Opportunities need to be provided for learning contexts where learning by doing or experiential learning is valued. This will provide evidence for best practice.

Fullan and Smith (1999, 2009), advocate the need for deep change in educational institutions. Fullan refers to Dwyer’s framework (Dryer et al., 1991) where the aim of classroom approaches of knowledge instruction will need to shift from knowledge reproduction to knowledge construction as given by Figure 5.
The Currere of the Teacher Educator

Shubert’s (2010, p. 59) extensive review of curriculum studies, “The currere of the Teacher Educator,” frames the conceptual elements in studies in curriculum review, development and change. The history of curriculum inquiry is presented as an evolving philosophy, as synoptic text – living, expanding, and evolving. He argues for a progressive core or integrated curriculum that is substantially different from that of most teacher education programmes and that emphasizes product oriented objectives, standards, and mandates of accrediting agencies. He advocates the values of indigenous knowledge and reviews the destructive force of globalization on indigenous knowledge and proposes the inclusion of perspectives that are non-western, non-white, transnational, cross-cultural, transcultural, or worldly.

The policy intention is to provide teachers with progressive opportunities to participate in teaching practice, be involved in communities of practice, and to integrate lifelong learning in learning organizations and learning communities where work, school, home and civic organizations interact (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

It is necessary therefore to work towards a progressive core of integrated curriculum in teacher education programmes by including local culture and indigenous communities of knowledge. A starting point is to review the work by Scardamalia and Bereter C. (1999) who discuss the conceptual model of schools as knowledge building communities. There is a need to include indigenous community knowledge in order to develop community driven solutions to educational issues. As BTC teachers develop professional expertise they need to be encouraged to make school-community based observations that in turn, will assist them in making informed decisions. This will in turn help teachers to develop community driven educational activities that are based on the understanding of learning differences, transcultural attributes, psychological temperaments.
REFERENCES


ABOUT THE GULF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION SOCIETY

Founded in 2008, the Gulf Comparative Education Society (GCES) was formed to enable academic, professional and educational discourse, from a comparative stance, with a focus on the Arabian Gulf region.

The GCES aims to:

• contribute to the development and improvement of teaching standards at all levels in the region;
• increase the dissemination of knowledge about international research and best practices practice from a comparative stance; and,
• promote action research and cross collaborations across the Gulf.

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- Developing and providing strategic services and support to build individual and local capacity in education and the public sector
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The Bahrain Teachers College (BTC), a college of the University of Bahrain, was established in 2008 in line with the Kingdom’s Education Reform Initiative as outlined in Vision 2030. It came into existence with the mandate of preparing teachers, educational leaders, and other education specialists. Prior to the establishment of the BTC, the Ministry of Education in Bahrain had engaged the National Institute of Education, of Singapore, to design and develop the most appropriate teachers’ education programmes that would meet the needs of the Kingdom. The college runs a 4 year BEd programme for teachers in Elementary Schools and a 1 Year PGDE programme for specialist teachers in Intermediate and Secondary Schools. To complement these full time teacher preparation programmes, there is an Education Leadership Programme for those senior school leaders who aspire to become principals, and a full programme of professional development courses for serving teachers at all levels.

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