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Message from the Editor-in-Chief

I am very pleased to publish second issue in 2015. As an editor of International Online Journal of Primary Education (IOJPE), this issue is the success of the reviewers, editorial board and the researchers. In this respect, I would like to thank to all reviewers, researchers and the editorial board. The articles should be original, unpublished, and not in consideration for publication elsewhere at the time of submission to International Online Journal of Primary Education (IOJPE), For any suggestions and comments on IOJPE, please do not hesitate to send mail.

Prof. Dr. Teoman Kesercioğlu
Editor-in-Chief

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SITUATION OF ENTREPRENEURIAL ATTITUDE IN IRANIAN PRIMARY SCHOOL: TECHNOLOGY AND WORK TEXTBOOK

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ABSTRACT
Entrepreneurial attitude is an incentive force for shaping entrepreneurial culture in educational systems and play a vital role in preliminary ages. Based on, present study is conducted to analyze the content of Technology and Work textbook of grade 6 in preliminary schools according to entrepreneurial attitudes. To measure entrepreneurial attitudes, conceptual model introduced by Jafari-Moghada andFakharzadeh (2012) was used. Results indicate that 59% of Technology and Work textbook is devised by an entrepreneurial attitude. Likewise, among the aspects of entrepreneurial attitude, inclination to success and behavioral aspect has the highest frequency while other components and aspects enjoy trivial frequency.
Keywords: curriculum, content analysis, primary school, entrepreneurial Attitude

Introduction

Today, manpower unemployment is seen as an important challenge for different societies and it has posed huge economic, social and mental costs on both manpower and society. Among the policies formulated in recent years in Iran to organize economic and employment situation is the effort to downsize the government to assign public sectors to private ones – in Iran, article 44 of the Constitutional Law emphasized on privatization of public companies. Another strategy in addition to privatization which can save improper economic situation is entrepreneurial culture. It is a necessary culture in all countries to help the resolution of unemployment and sustainable development in any (Nieman&Nieuwenhuizen, 2003). Entrepreneurial culture is a set of encouraging initiatives, philosophies, beliefs and social values which enable people to calculate the risk creatively and play an active role in shaping the future (Neill & De Coning, 1994:12).

Entrepreneurship is a term that has passed a different semantic path throughout the history. Entrepreneur is a French term used initially as the organizer of music and other recreations. Since 16th century, it was used for all individuals who contributed in military exploratory journeys. In 17th century, it was used to cover architects for constructional engineering activities such as constructing, strengthening and public works. Old Oxford dictionary has defined entrepreneur as a "manager or executor of a public music institute and someone who works on recreational activities especially music." It was in 18th century that entrepreneur term found an economic aspect (Gangaiah&Viswanath, 2014). Irish economist, Richard

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Cantilon used it 1932 to show the people who acted in economic risky transactions (Minniti& Lévesque, 2008) the importance of entrepreneurship is broadly confirmed for economic growth in recent years. Entrepreneurship is mentioned as the main source of innovation, job creation and growth (Audretsch and Thurik, 2001; Van Stel and Thurik, 2002). Since 1980s, entrepreneurship was introduced as the axis of economic development (Hannafey, 2003: 101) since entrepreneurs are change agents who cause self – employment and income for others (Mohanty,2007:104); they play the role of an innovator and cultivate the seeds of development in the society (Nandan, 2007:3) and help welfare, job creation and higher life quality (Matlay,2005). Today, global nations have accepted that entrepreneurship is development engine since it plays an undeniable role in improving productivity and economic growth (Chen, Zhu, &Anquan*,2005*) that is, entrepreneurship is synonym to personal, organizational and national success (Matlay, 2005).

Entrepreneurship is a field to which clear borders are not yet drawn and its conceptual framework is not accepted universally (Shane &Venkataraman, 2000; Ireland & Webb, 2007).entrepreneurship is defined as improving individuals' capabilities to create and identify current investment opportunities and to mobilize resources to start success in economic activities; entrepreneurship is also defined as the ability to create new ideas, products and services for personal documentation toward social needs (Udu& Amadi,2013), to create commercial operations in uncertainty conditions to achieve profit (Scar-borough & Zimmerer,2003:3) and to look for investment opportunities for identified opportunities (Paul- Dana, 2001). Based on the framework of core competencies, entrepreneurship competency is referred to an individual's capability to achieve and convert ideas to practice which include creativity, innovation, risk taking and project design and management to achieve the aims (Bourgeois, 2011). Morrison (2000) believes that the profile of an entrepreneur includes such traits as good intelligence and analysis power; effective risk management and networked marketing; a set of economic, social and business ethics, rendering instinctive economy; and lifetime learning.

An important question: can entrepreneurship be learnt or it is natural? In paramount studies, the ability to learn and transfer entrepreneurial attitude is proved. Studies (Kyrö, 2005; Venesaar et al, 2005 ؛Carrier, 2005 ،Mets and Andrijevskaja, 2005؛Fakharzadeh, 2012) indicate that education and training play a vital role in transferring entrepreneurship culture as one of the most important needs of today societies. Additionally, findings indicate that education and training lead into increases in people's rational abilities and their special skills (Burger, O'Neill &Mahadea, 2005). Entrepreneurship training is not only effective in shaping individuals' entrepreneurship attitude but also it paves the ground for knowledge and skills which play a vital role in developing entrepreneurship culture (Aja-okorie&Adali, 2013). In devising entrepreneurship framework, training and education are seen as the determinants of entrepreneurial measures in any country (Verheul, Wennekers, Audretsch&Thurik, 2002) and schools should use entrepreneurship world to improve the morale of planning and executing training programs (Ayub& Othman, 2013). An important issue on entrepreneurship is its training and education in early years of life since it is determined that major part of human personality is shaped in his/her first six years. Then, human personality is fully shaped when he/she is young and it will proceed the same overtime otherwise he/she intentionally decides and recognizes that some of his/her habits are not good and then to alternate them with good ones (Sorush, 2003). Either in preparing the students for next stages or in terms of the influences of teachings and experiences, preliminary school plays a vital role. It has caused that two third of EU member accept entrepreneurship training in preliminary school and interdisciplinary approach is dominated in their curriculum in which entrepreneurship is a part. In these countries, the aims of entrepreneurship are expressed as horizontal or interdisciplinary. They shape a part of values and competencies which should be developed through curriculum titles and activities. In those countries where entrepreneurship is integrated in different items, they include a part of compulsory

curriculum. In many countries, entrepreneurship is a part of social science which may include history, geography, government, political or citizenship training as well as other related courses such as social studies. In the Netherlands, although entrepreneurship training is not seen as a part of curriculum, schools can ask for budgets to develop entrepreneurship curriculum. In a few countries, entrepreneurship training as a part of curriculum is except than social science. For instance, in Bulgaria and Latonya, entrepreneurship is integrated in 'home economics and technology. In Czech Republic, it is a part of "ethics" optional course while in Lithonia; it is a part of both social and natural sciences. In Poland, it is integrated in social science and mathematics (European Commission, 2012). Public training system in preliminary schools shapes and fosters values, skills, knowledge and attitudes in this growth step (Fakharzadeh, 2012). Also, some believe that entrepreneurship training programs should be inserted in all steps of human training courses (Udu& Amadi,2013).entrepreneurship training should be changed to an overtime learning process started from preliminary and continued in all next levels since entrepreneurial skills and attitudes will bring huge advantages for society and individuals (Aja-okorie, & Adali,2013).

Exploring entrepreneurship emergence in Iran indicates that not only entrepreneurship training courses have opened their place in different academic disciplines, but also they are respected in different levels from preliminary to secondary schools. For the first time, this concept was raised by inserting entrepreneurship lesson in new education system via labor and knowledge field (Arefi, Fathi-Vahargah, &Nasaj, 2011). Besides, studies by Fakharzadeh (2012) on "reading and writing" books in preliminary schools indicate that by considering questions, texts and images, 48% of "reading" book and 54.9% of content analysis in "writing" books have addressed to entrepreneurship attitude. In recent years, along with other nations, Iranian pedagogy system has experienced content and structural changes in curriculums by focusing on preliminary, middle and secondary schools. In all aspects especially content and qualitative ones, such experience demands a thorough analysis. It is an orientation increasingly expressed by international organizations especially in recent three decades. Now, a gap is revealed between the titles usually instructed in schools and knowledge and skills that people and nations need to compete in globalized world (World Bank, 2005:71). In this line, the aim of present research is to analyse Technology and Work curriculum in grade 6 of preliminary school. To achieve this aims, three below questions are explored. Research content analysis is conducted to answer these questions:

To what extent has Technology and Work curriculum in grade 6 of preliminary school addressed to develop entrepreneurial attitude?

Is there any significant difference between total frequencies of entrepreneurial attitude components (inclination to success, perceived personal control, creativity and innovation, perceived self– efficacy and identifying/exploiting opportunities)?

Is there a significant difference between total frequencies of entrepreneurial attitude aspects (cognitive, emotional and behavioural)?

Method

This is a descriptive survey conducted by quantitative content analysis. Content analysis is conducted by two qualitative and quantitative approaches. Qualitative approach is based on author's personal description while quantitative one is used to extract data (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007). Research population consists of all textbooks in Grade 6 of preliminary schools in educational year 2013. Since the aim of publishing Technology and Work book is to get students familiar with business world, skilfulness to meet

personal and familial daily needs, employment in future and familiarity with different jobs, it was selected as statistical sample.

Quantitative content analysis of Technology and Work analysis is conducted to measure entrepreneurship attitude by Jafari-Moghadam&Fakharzadeh conceptual model (Jafari-Moghadam&Fakharzadeh, 2012). This model consists of 5 components that each one has three cognitive (recognizing and believing attitude, information, awareness, knowledge and facts), emotional (negative or positive feeling during thinking or imaging) and behavioural (readiness and inclination to a practical action on the attitude which creates performance and behavioural insight) aspects (table 1). The content analysis of this model's checklist was confirmed by several educational and managerial connoisseurs. In a study by Jafari-Moghadam&Fakharzadeh (2012), the validity of the checklist was reported 0.87 via Paul Scott ratio. To determine the validity of formulated checklist in present paper, 10% of Technology and Work books were randomly selected. Selected samples had 10 pages. Selected samples were ac companied by operational definition so that all were fully familiar with devised components and coding recipe in creativity checklist. For recoding, 145 analysed units were used by which 5 different and 140 similar units were determined by two coders; in other words, agreed cases were coded in two steps. Upon analysing agreed units and expected unit, validity ratio was achieved 0.63.

Table 1.components and indicators of entrepreneurial attitude by Jafari-Moghadam&Fakharzadeh model (2012)

ASPECTS	INDICATOR
Inclination to success	Analyzing weaknesses, planning for success in future; respecting the results for assessing success; spending the time for better performance; doing all efforts to be successful in work; effective efforts to use resources; performing the jobs optimistically; doing the best works; using the time rightly and rationally and not wating the time; using the opportunities in excess of personal convenience.
Percieved personal control	Self – creation of opportunities; responsibility; active role playing in works; the ability to work with others; the ability to control over environment and conditions; inclination to be boss; inclination to independence; the ability to do the jobs without impacted by environmental factors; assigning the successes to oneself
Creativity and innovation	Using old concepts for new applications; processing different ideas; curiosity for problem solution; providing new solutions for roblems; performing the works through unusual ways; the ability to control new situations; inclination to work with creative and innovative people; lack of inclination to be controlled and limited in frameworks; efforts and inclination to create changes; no inclination to steady works; no inclination to follow predetermined procedures
Perceived self – efficacy	Belief in oneself's works and capabilities; trust to results of works; inclination to work with self – esteem persons; the feeling of spuriority to colleagues; ego liking, solving personal problems
Recognizing and exploiting opportunities	Intelligence; recognizing by exploring a balance between needs; feeling or conceiving the needs; value generation; profitability

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Results

Content analysis was conducted by focusing on research questions and by using descriptive and deductive statistics. To anser the first question of the research "To what extent has Technology and Work curriculum in grade 6 of preliminary school addressed to develop entrepreneurial attitude?", frequencny statistics and frequency percentage are used (table 2).

Table 2. desciptive statistics of entrepreneurial attitude components

Component	%	Frequency	image	Question	Text
Inclination to success	85.24%	543	90	19	434
Percieved personal control	03.92%	25	2	3	20
Creativity and innovation	08.47%	54	12	4	38
Perceived self – efficacy	01.41%	9	3	1	5
Recognizing and exploiting opportunities	00.94%	6	1	1	4
Total entrepreneurial attitude components	100%	637	108	28	501

As seen in table 2, among entrepreneurial attitude components, inclination to success (85.24%) has the highest rank followed by creativity and innovation (03.92%), perceived personal control (03.92%), and perceived self – efficacy (01.41%) and recognizing and exploiting opportunities (00.94%).

To answer the second question "Is there any significant difference between total frequencies of entrepreneurial attitude components (inclination to success, perceived personal control, creativity and innovation, perceived self – efficacy and recognizing/exploiting opportunities)?" Chi2 statistical test is used (table 3).

Table 3. The results of Chi2 test on the difference between entrepreneurial attitude components

Component	Recognizing and exploiting opportunities	Perceived self – efficacy	Creativity and innovation	Percieved personal control	Inclination to success
observed frequency	6	9	54	24	543
Expected frequency	127.40	127.40	127.40	127.40	127.40
df = 0.05 1822.12=X^2(**achieved Chi^2)					

As observed in table 3, there is a significant difference between inclination to success, perceived personal control, creativity and innovation, perceived self – efficacy and identifying/exploiting opportunities (**X^2 = 1822.12; df = 0.05). It means that the frequency of "inclination to success" is too

higher than expected level in Technology and Work book of Grade 6and other components have trivial status in this curriculum content.

The significant analysis on the difference between entrepreneurial attitude aspects (cognitive, emotional, and behavioural) was conducted in the format of analysis unit frequency and frequency percentage (table 4) in order to answer question 3: "Is there a significant difference between total frequencies of entrepreneurial attitude aspects (cognitive, emotional and behavioural)?" then, difference significance was analysed by Chi2 test (table 5).

Table 4. Descriptive statistics of entrepreneurial attitude aspects

Aspects	total		Behavioral		Emotional		Cognitive	
Unit analysis	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency
Text	76.89%	649	60.30%	509	01.48%	12	15.16%	128
Question	04.62%	39	03.79%	32	0.00%	0	00.82%	7
Image	18.48%	156	12.79%	108	0.00%	0	15.16%	48
Total	100%	844	76.89%	649	01.48%	12	21.68%	183

As seen in table 4, entrepreneurial attitude behavioural aspect (76.89%) has the highest frequency followed by cognitive (21.68%) and emotional (01.48%) components. It indicates the domination of attitude and practical initiative on entrepreneurial attitude in Technology and Work book of Grade 6. Additionally, the results form Chi2 test (table 5) confirm a significant difference between entrepreneurial attitude aspects in this book (**X^2 = 772.70; df = 0.05).

Table 5. The results of Chi2 test differences between entrepreneurial attitude aspects

Component	Behavioural	Emotional	Cognitive
observed frequency	649	12	183
Expected frequency	281.33	281.33	281.33
Achieved Chi^2: (**X^2 = 772.70; df = 0.05)			

Conclusion

Present study is conducted to investigate the status of entrepreneurial attitude in Technology and Work book of Grade 6. The findings from content analysis indicate that 59% of the book devotes to entrepreneurial attitude while other entrepreneurial components and aspects are not manifested in this book in a balanced manner so that inclination to success and entrepreneurial attitude behavioural aspect constitute high percentages of its content. Can devising the content of this book in this manner be fruitful in realizing the aim of its designing – getting students familiar with business word, needed skills to remove persona and familial needs, occupation in future and familiarity with different jobs – and adapting with constant technological changes in the field of grooming manpower? The authors believe

that it is necessary to address all educational aspects including rational, emotional, behavioural and communicational in this book and one should always remember that it is the splendour of thoughts and selecting tight insights that acts as the factor of change and transformation in current and future labour market in the world. Research findings are consistent with the results of studies by Jafari-Moghadam&fakharzadeh (2012) who reported trivial attention to self – esteem, perceived personal control and recognizing/exploiting opportunities in "reading and writing" books in Grades 1 – 5 in preliminary schools, and findings by Sobhani-nejad & Homayi (2006) who pointed out improper status of labour culture in middle – level curricula.

Overall, analysing the findings has shown the important of deep and multilateral analysis in formulating proper content in different ways such as text, question and image in Technology and Work book. Hence, authors believe that selecting each content shape should be consistent with the aims of devising the book; it is necessary that they can be dynamic and facilitate self – esteem, creativity and recognizing/exploiting opportunities. Besides, an improvement strategy is to revise selected content. One should note that grooming healthy humans in different aspects would not only control social and individual harms, but also it can be seen as a driving force for economic, social, cultural and ethical development of any society. In this line, entrepreneurial attitude can play a vital role. This is an attitude considered by many countries (i.e. EU) as a part of their key skills to be trained in different levels.
Present study has only explored entrepreneurial attitude in Technology and Work book of Grade 6. It is recommended to study the content of other curricula in preliminary school as well as the relationship between Technology and Work curriculum of Grade 6 and entrepreneurial content in higher grades. Furthermore, one should note that devising appropriate content is only one tool to train desired entrepreneurial attitude and there are other components such as equipment and facilities, the quality of instructors' teaching, proper environment of school and other tools that play a vital role in penetration of such attitude in the minds and practices of learners.

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ANALYSIS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION AT NGOs, PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN MUZAFFARABAD

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ABSTRACT
This research is a comparative study between three types of primary education schools in the region of Muzaffarabad, Azad Kashmir. The paper draws comparisons between NGO, Private, and Public schools based on quality of education, access, and affordability. The factor of quality of education was drawn from Pakistan National Education Policy of 2009 while access and affordability were added based on the chosen region. The research has been conducted through semi structured interviews with parents, principal (School Administrator) and teachers. The results show that NGO schools displayed good results for quality of education in terms of infrastructure and textbooks. The public schools are perceived to have better qualified and trained teachers but our research showed contrasting results at the primary level. The public schools also lacked most basic facilities and were very low on quality. The private schools struck the middle ground with mediocre facilities, quality and fee structure.

Keywords: Muzaffarabad; primary education; ngo Schools; private schools; government/public schools; national education policy Pakistan

Introduction

Free and quality primary education is the basic right of every citizen as cited in the constitution of Islamic Republic of Pakistan (Musarrat et al., 2012). In this regard, public schools are, and will continue to be, the most important providers of basic primary education in the country. However the deteriorating quality of public school has given rise to other schools run by private institutions and NGOs. Number of private schools (including NGO Schools) in Pakistan has increased by 69% as compared to 8% increase of public schools between 1999 and 2008 (I-SAPS, 2010). This paper has drawn comparisons between three types of schools in Muzaffarabad, Azad Kashmir Pakistan. The comparisons have been drawn for Quality (as per the recommended reforms in Pakistan's National Education Policy of 2009), Access, and Affordability.

Pakistan has gone through different education policy creations and implementation since its inception in 1947. Arif and Saqib (2003) suggested that the first education policy conference held in 1947 laid down the target of free and compulsory primary education within the decade. In 1952 National Commission on Education Formation was formed which resulted in an education policy. The education policy introduced in 1959, focused on character building through religious education, revision of curricula and primary educational for all within 15 years. The country continued to see a shift in the education policies in the years to come. 1972 saw a dramatic shift in policy with the emphasis on nationalisation. Barber (2010)noted that in 1972, more than 3,000 schools were nationalized during Bhutto's regime which resulted in declined quality of education due to resource scarcity and management issues. After the nationalization died its own death due to huge increase in government expenditures, the policy makers finally came up with the first National Education Policy in 1979 which was revised in 1992. However both policies failed to achieve their desired outcomes (Khan and Mahmood, 1997). The policy makers started the review of the previous education policies in 2005 which resulted in the first white paper being published in 2007. This working paper laid the foundation of National Education Policy (NEP) of 2009. The new NEP described the challenges, identified causes of performance decencies with suggestion for way forward, provision of Islamic education. reforms and policy actions to be taken at the sub-sector level, and framework for Implementation of the Action Plan (GOP, 2009). The policy recommended several reforms and policy actions to be taken at sub-sector level. This research has selected few of those reforms and applied them on three types of schools in the region of Muzaffarabad, Azad Kashmir.

It is important to distinguish between the three types of schools currently working in Pakistan. The first type, Government or commonly known as Public schools, are state owned schools which charge minimal fees and provide free books to students. The 2nd type, Private Schools, are independent schools which are run by individuals or organizations and mainly operate on for-profit basis. These schools charge higher fees as compared to public schools and provide better facilities and infrastructure. The third type, NGO Schools, are operated by not-for-profit organizations. These schools also have better facilities and infrastructure as compared to public schools. The fee structure of these schools vary, some charge higher fees while others charge a medium range fee, there are also examples of schools which charge from students who can afford to pay and wave off the fee for poor students. These schools collect donations and also do fundraising for their schools infrastructure, facilities and students' fees (Khan et al., 2005, Arif and Saqib, 2003). This particular research has focused on basic primary schools and measured their performance as per NEP 2009 recommended reforms. I-SAPS (2010) noted that there are 17,250 private and 149,342 public primary schools in Pakistan as of 2008. I-SAPS's research has considered only two categories of schools, public and private. The NGO schools have been considered private schools so it is hard to point an exact number on these types of schools.

Primary school enrolment is the largest of in Pakistan representing 49% as compared to 15% middle elementary and 7% secondary school enrolment (Lynd, 2007). In Pakistan there are total of 177,724 primary educational institutes, 75% of these are public,10 % are private and the remaining are divided between informal basic education schools and religious schools known as "Madaris" (GOP, 2013). Alderman et al. (2001) noted that poverty is a major issues in developing countries and primary education is considered the first step in alleviating it. However these developing countries face the problem of population surge with limited government resources, which lead to inadequate facilities at the primary level schooling. The number of private schools and the enrolment rate has increased in past few decades due to poor public schools performance. In Pakistan more than 30% of all children now attend the private schools (Amjad and MacLeod, 2014). In 2008, 71% primary students were enrolled in public primary schools, however the overall enrolment declined by 2.6% from 2000 to 2008. On the other hand the private primary schools had a low share in total enrolment with 29% but the enrolment had increased by 11% from 2000 to 2008 (I-SAPS, 2010). There are several reasons for the decline of enrolment rate in primary schools. Stern (2000) argued that one of the reasons for this is lack of either the absence of public schools or inadequate facilities at the schools in rural areas. On the other hand Islamic religious schools, commonly known as Madaris, are present in rural areas offering free educational, accommodation and food, representing a much more lucrative choice as compared to public schools.

Lynd (2007) research concluded that quality is a major concern in all primary schools on Pakistan. The research showed that 9% of primary schools did not have a blackboard, 24% suffered from absence of textbooks for the children, and 46% did not have desks. Private schools were better equipped with facilities in comparison to public schools. Public schools in some cases suffered from most basic facilities, only 36% of the public primary schools in the country have electricity. The three types of schools differ from each other on several other aspects too. These aspects include fees, infrastructure, quality of education, and teachers. Khan et al. (2005) research on three types of school showed interesting findings. The public schools did quite poorly on quality of education in tested performance. These schools were selected by parents who were unable to afford higher fees of private and NGO schools. Contrary to the common belief it was found that the government schools teachers were paid higher salaries as compared to other types of schools. The private schools showed different results as some were poorly run as family businesses with low quality education while others had high quality with well stocked library. In comparison to public schools the students did well on regular homework and confidence level. The teachers of these schools were poorly paid as compared to public schools. The NGO schools showed the best results in terms of tested performance, teacher student absent rate, school facilities, and teacher parent's interaction. It was noted that sending the children to NGO schools was considered a status symbol. The fees of the NGO schools were similar to private schools but 77% NGO schools did not charge fee from the poor students. Batley and Rose (2010) argued that the existence of NGO in countries like Pakistan is very important because the post-colonial ideal of universal state provision of basic services has not been realized. Due to this many non-profit schools have emerged providing better quality education to children at minimum or no fee.

There are some misconceptions with regards to some aspects of these schools. As Andrabi et al. (2006) noted that Pakistani government recognized that private schools as institutions which cater to elite class, charge high fees and are mostly located in the urban areas. But his research concluded that private schools were also widespread in rural areas and were catering lower income groups with low fees. They were able to charge less fee because they paid very little to their teachers. The average salary of public schools teachers was Rs. 5,620 and the average salary of private school teachers was Rs. 1,084. Despite low salaries the number of teachers in private primary schools increased from 75,924 to 88,195 from 2000 to 2008 (I-SAPS, 2010). Khan et al. (1999) suggested that in general, public school teachers are paid more

than non-government teacher which shows that the problem is more of bad management and administration rather than financial as far as teacher pays and training is concerned.

Parents made the choice of type of school based on several factors. Alderman et al. (2001) argued that the government's inability to provide quality education at the public school is leading the parents to enrol their children in the private schools. His research on 1650 different households in 50 different sampling clusters in Lahore concluded that poor households make schools choices based on the affordability (fees), access (distance) and school quality. Khan et al. (1999) noted that the students studying in public schools were generally from poor and illiterate families. The richer parents have been steadily leaving government schools and opting for private schools. Between 1991 and 1997, enrolment rates in non-governments schools rose 61% for boys and 131% for girls. Although it is an accepted fact that the performance of children studying in private primary schools is better than public schools in developing countries, but it is also accompanied by the fact of higher fees which is difficult to afford for lower income class of the developing countries (Alderman et al., 2001, Cox and Jimenez, 1990). Lloyd et al. (2005) research on private versus public primary schools in rural areas of Punjab and KPK (NWFP) showed interesting findings. The data showed that in 3 villages out the 12, there were no girl's public primary schools. The research also concluded that parents preferred private schools because of better infrastructure, greater amenities, and teachers from local community. But parents also felt that private school teachers were less experienced as compared to public schools. So there existed a trade-off for the parents, if they chose the public primary schools they get more experienced teachers coupled with segregated schools. On the other hand choosing a private primary schools they could get teachers with less teaching load, better infrastructure, and better English teaching.

Despite many international and national efforts, Pakistan is still behind the targets of primary education. However our area of focus (Azad Kashmir) has shown better results over the years. National Plan of Action research suggested that in Azad Kashmir there are 2,259 public schools for girls as compared to 2,027 boys' schools (GOP, 2013). AEPM (2014)statistics also show several good indicators for the region, the female to male enrolment ratio at primary level is highest in Gilgit Baltistan province while FATA observes the lowest ratios. Azad Kashmir has a female to male ratio of 0.95 which is close to 1 indicating there is not much difference between them. Within Azad Kashmir the highest ratio can be seen in Muzaffarabad that is 1.17 while the least can be seen in Neelum Valley. Now moving to the net intake rate (NIR) that shows "*the total number of new entrants in the first grade of a given education level"*. The other provinces observe difference in this ratio whereas Azad Kashmir has equal NIR of girls and boys. The female to male enrolment ratio at primary stage public schools in Azad Kashmir is 1.02 where male are 163,687 in number as compared to 167,774 females. AEPM research also concluded that 54% of primary school children go to public schools in Azad Kashmir whereas rest go to Private schools (42%).

Literature Review:

National Education Policy:

This major part of this research is based on reforms and policy actions duly recommended in Pakistan's National Education Policy (NEP) 2009. Following is the summary of the NEP's main document followed by the chosen reforms for this research.

National Education Policy (NEP) is a comprehensive document issued by the Ministry of Education (MoE) Pakistan. NEP 2009 document is the review of the previous education policies with recommended reforms and policy actions at sub-sector level of education. The new policy was introduced due to the failure of previous policies and inability to achieve the desired outcome. The main document discusses

the challenges, fundamental causes behind the deficiencies in achieving desired outcomes, provision of Islamic education, and reforms and policy actions to be taken at the sub sector level. The reforms and policy actions majorly deal with raising the quality of education focusing on improving teachers quality, curriculum reforms, quality of textbooks and learning material, students assessment, learning environment, extra circular activities, and matching with the employment market. Due to limitations of time and resources we have selected some reforms of quality (Improving teacher's qualification and training, quality of learning environment including infrastructure, and quality of books and learning material) (GOP, 2009) . We have also added two factors of our own; Access, and Affordability. The factors of access and affordability are chosen as they are considered very important in achieving high enrolment at primary level (Chaudhury and Parajuli, 2006, Gulbaz Ali Khan and Shah, 2011). The factors have also been selected based on the region we have chosen (Muzaffarabad, Azad Kashmir) in which access is an important issues due to its difficult terrain. The affordability factor plays a considerable role in primary enrolment in Pakistan as the finances required to support the children basically define the choice of school. The selected factors are discussed in detail in the following section,

Quality

The quality of education has been given immense importance in recommended reforms and policy actions in the NEP document. It has been accepted that Pakistan's education is perceived as a low quality education. The basic pillars for improving quality have been identifies as curriculum, textbooks, assessment, teachers, learning environment, and relevance of education to practical life. The details of the selected reforms is following,

Teachers Qualification and Training

> The policy entails that the quality of the teachers in the public schools is unsatisfactory. To improve the quality of the teachers, it is recommended that Bachelor's degree with a B.Ed. shall be required at the elementary level. Arrangements should be made by the school for training, accreditation and certification of teachers. All teachers should be given access to professional development opportunities. The training of the teachers shall include context knowledge, subject knowledge, testing and assessment practices, multigrade teaching, and evaluation. Incentives should be offered to teacher opting for trainings and professional development.

Pakistan Education Atlas 2013 suggested that 45% of teachers in public and private schools hold a BA (Bachelor of Arts) degree. As for the teachers' training, 49% of public school teachers and 44% of private schools teacher held B-ED certificates (AEPM, 2014). While the NEP document recommends good reforms and actions to improve teachers' qualification and training with offered incentives in the government schools, it ignores several aspects such as disparity among the salaries in public school vs. private schools. Arif and Saqib (2003)noted that teachers of public schools earn more as compared to private schools because of the pay scale system. The disparity exists among the trained teachers in different types of schools as well. Public school teachers with a Primary Teaching Certificate (PTC) earned 75% more than those without it. In private sector teachers holding PTC earned only 3% more than those not having the certificate.

Quality of Learning Environment and Infrastructure

> NEP clearly recognizes that the quality of learning environment is very poor in most of the public schools. The learning environment includes toilets, library, teaching aid material, extra circular activities and school's infrastructure. The document states that 61% of the public schools have no electricity, while 40% of have no boundary walls, and 26% have no drinking facilities.

A research surveyed the infrastructure facilities of the public and private primary schools in Azad Kashmir and showed that only 52.5% public schools had basic useable drinking water facility. The toilet facility was only available in 30% public schools while 56% private schools enjoyed this luxury. The playground and boundary wall was available to barely 25% public schools. The important component of infrastructure, library, was available to merely 6% public and 11% private schools. Computer lab was not available in any government school while only 1% private schools had it (AEPM, 2014).

Quality Of Books And Learning Materials

> NEP discusses that with the involvement of all stakeholders 'National Textbook and Learning Materials Policy and Plan of Action' was issued in June 2007. The objective was to improve the quality of textbooks and learning material while maintaining them at an affordable price. The policy action recommended a well regulated system for publication of textbooks, increased investment in school libraries, and curriculum improvement.

The quality of curriculum vary in different types of schools. Private and NGO schools follow mix of national and foreign curriculum while Public schools follow the national curriculum (Arif and Saqib, 2003). It was tough to judge the quality of the books and learning material through this research so we focused on finding out the type of curriculum that different types of school follow.

Access

Our second selected factor for this research is Access. According to the Ministry of Education National Plan of Action 2013-16, the problems regarding the access to education comprised of "in school" and "out school" factors. The In-schools factors include shortage of teachers, absenteeism, missing the basic facilities, lack of friendly environment, teachers' harsh attitude. Whereas the Out of School factors include shortage of schools, distance, insecurity, poverty, and cultural norms (GOP, 2013). We have selected this factor because the terrain of Azad Kashmir and Muzaffarabad is difficult and not many households own their own transport. That is why it is important that schools are in walking distance for children.

Affordability

Our third selected factor for this research is affordability. Household Economic Survey of Pakistan showed that the average expenditure of income spent on education in homes has steadily increased from 2.97% in 2004-5 to 3.92% in 2007-8 and to 4.81% in 2011-12. (PBS, 2013). However the spending is still quite low which means affordability becomes an important factor while selecting children's school. The common perception is that public schools charge a minimal fee catering to lower and lower middle class household, while the private schools charge a higher fee catering to elite class. However Amjad (2012) noted that a survey, by the Learning and Education Achievements in Punjab Schools (LEAPS), showed a rise in the low fee private schools including the rural areas of Pakistan. The report showed that

initially private schools were only catering the elite class who could receive all the facilities by paying higher fee for their children. However, in recent times private schools are also providing opportunities for middle and lower class by lowering their fee structure and by locating schools at accessible locations. Andrabi et al. (2008)also confirmed that until the late 1990s, the perception was that the private schools were largely serving the elite segments of Pakistani population. However in the past decade Pakistan has seen massive growth in private schooling with low tuition fees. Private schools are increasing in number spreading especially in rural areas due to comparatively better education provision in affordable fee. Children studying in private schools mostly belong to the middle class.

Methodology:

The research was carried out for the following research statement

"To draw comparison between primary public, private and NGO schools in Azad Kashmir on the basis of Quality, Access, and Affordability"

In summary, quality of education refers to a number of factors including quality of textbooks and learning materials, teachers' qualification and training, and infrastructure. Access to schools refers to the ability of people (primary school children in this case) to have easy access to the school in terms of transport and distance. Last but not the least,Affordability refers to factors such as inability to pay school fees, costs of uniform, shoes, and transport.

A sample of ten schools was taken from Muzaffarabad region for this research, 4 schools were operated by NGOs, 3 schools were public, and 3 schools were run privately. All school were coeducation schools with minimum of 100 students at the primary level. The schools were located within the vicinity of Muzaffarabad. Semi structured interviews were used to collect the data from parents, school incharge, and teachers. All interviews were then transcribed and coded according to pre-described themes. Details of the interviews are as follows:

School Type	Number of Schools	Type of Data Collected	Number of Interviews
NGO Schools	4	Focus Group (Teachers)	4
		Individual Teachers Interviews	11
		Parents Interviews	17
		School Principal / Incharge Interviews	4
Government Schools	3	Focus Group (Teachers)	3
		Individual Teachers Interviews	7
		Parents Interviews	19
		School Principal / Incharge Interviews	3
Private Schools	3	Focus Group (Teachers)	3
		Individual Teachers Interviews	9
		Parents Interviews	17
		School Principal / Incharge Interviews	3

Data Analysis and Results:

The following are the results obtained from the comparative analysis:

Quality

As mentioned earlier, quality of education is one of the most important factors in education delivery. The common generalization in Pakistan is that private and NGO schools provide better quality education as compared to the public schools (Arif and Saqib, 2003). Mr. Afzal, a parent, sending his children to a NGO school, aptly stated,

"It is a bit expensive but there is no harm in spending some extra money and travelling a bit far away as compared to public school nearby, if my children are getting better quality education. So spending more money is justified, after all we earn for them".

Mr.Afzal belonged to a lower middle class family, and was sending his children to a better quality school (NGO). The school was expensive and was at a distance as compared to public school but he was willing to pay more money and travel more if the children were getting better quality education. A mother, RaziaKhatoon, sending her daughter to a private school said,

"Public schools have many problems, their teachers are not good and there are too many children. How can they pay attention to every child when there are 70-80 children in every class and only one teacher? I send my daughter to private school because their quality is better, I am sure she gets individual attention in class because there are 20-30 kids in each class"

Again the quality of education comes out as a major concern for parents. Another parent Imtiaz Khan, sending his child to the NGO school, said,

"Yes, I walk my kids to school. If the NGO school is 3 km's far and provides good quality so I will send her to that school and not to a government school which may be near, even if I have to walk daily to that school".

The statements shows that parent are willing to walk every day to drop children due to perceived good quality education. It is very clear that parents consider distance of school a minor problem and give importance to the quality education their children might be getting at a NGO and private school. The question now arises is what exactly is quality and do parents understand it?

Teacher's Qualification and Training:

One aspect of "Quality" defined in NEP 2009 is the teachers' qualifications and training. Arif and Saqib (2003)argued that there is a positive correlation between qualification/education of teachers and learning achievements of students. The interviews with the parents showed that they considered NGOs and private schools to be of better quality as compared to the public schools. The literature suggested that more qualified and trained teachers were present in the public schools and not in NGO and private schools. The reason may be that public schools compensate better than the other types of schools (AEPM, 2014). However our research showed different findings. Results from the NGO schools showed that primary teacher's qualification in the NGOs was bachelors while masters qualified teachers taught higher classes. On the other hand data collected through focus groups from public schools suggested that primary school teachers were less qualified as compared to other schools. Principal of a public school suggested,

"Matriculation is the minimum required qualification at primary level. Most of our teachers at primary level are matriculate. However B.A. is the average in our high school".

Matriculation is the 10th grade education in Pakistan. Considering that NGO schools teachers on average had 16 years of education, 10th grade education seems quite low for primary schools teacher in public schools. The private schools research showed that minimum required qualification for primary school teachers was Bachelors, the average qualification of the teachers was also bachelors as explained by Principal of a private school,

> *"We do not hire anyone who has less than bachelor degree. If the teacher also has a training certificate it's an extra advantage but it's not an essential requirement. Most of our primary schools teachers do not have any training certificates or qualification"*

Contrary to the literature review our research showed that at primary level public school teachers were far less qualified as compared to other types of schools in Muzaffarabad. NGOs and Private schools had better qualified teachers.

Next, we tried to evaluate the training opportunities available in these schools for primary teacher. We asked two main questions related to training, the first was whether they offered any training and development programs to their teachers and the second questions was what their selection criteria for choosing teachers for the training programs were. One public school Principal said,

> *"No we do not and cannot offer trainings, the education ministry is in charge of training and development of the teachers"*

The result from the NGO schools were different. One Principal of the school, during a focus group with 6 other teachers, responded,

> *"Yes we provide workshops. AFAQ, CTC office and Oxford books provide the training and workshops too. Usually new teachers are selected for these training programs, other than them teachers who are performing well are also selected"*

Principal of a private school responded,

> *"Well it's not very regular but we have annual training sessions for our teachers. We selected most hardworking and punctual teachers for these sessions"*

If we judge these results as per NEP policy we will clearly mark the quality of teachers' qualification very low at public schools and teachers training low in all types of schools. The teachers training aspect is completely missing from the public schools. NGO schools seemed far more organized as compared to public and private schools in providing training and development opportunities to their teacher. However it's important to see if parents, the decision makers for the choice of school, understand the issue of quality. Mr. Asad Hussain, a parent sending his child to public school, said,

> *"I do not know how qualified are the teachers? If they are hired in a public school they must be very qualified"*

Ms. ShafiqaHaider, sending her son to a NGO school, said,

> *"I am sure they are very well qualified and trained. These schools do not hire the people with less qualification and training. And everyone knows it."*

Mr. Amin Balti, sending his daughter to a private school, said

> *"They teach very well you know. My daughter was first in the public school and she did not learn anything. But I put her here and she is learning a lot in no time. The teachers must have been better qualified and trained as compared to public school, otherwise she would not produce good results"*

Our research showed that most of the parents showed satisfaction with the teacher's qualification and training in all three types of schools, however this satisfaction was based on perception as parents had no idea about the actual qualifications and certificates that teachers had.

Quality of Textbooks and Learning material:

Quality of textbooks and learning material is an integral part of good education provision. Education in Pakistan used to be federal's provision which meant that Ministry of Education working under the federal government would design the curriculum and choose text books and learning material for public schools. Private and NGO schools were free to choose the curriculum subject to approval of the ministry of education (Barber, 2010). After the 18th Amendment education has become a provincial provision giving more autonomy to the provinces to cater to their own needs. Now the provinces' Ministries of Education are in charge of the curriculum, textbooks and learning material. The public schools are not allowed to use any other texts books and learning material than the ones ministry of education recommends. It was confirmed with our research as well. Principal of one government school said,

> *"We do not get to decide which books to teach and which to not. AJK MOE (ministry of education) designs the curriculum for all the public schools and also decide on the textbooks. Yes some of the books content and quality can be questioned but we don't have an option do we?"*

While for the NGO schools almost all of them used the curriculum of AFAQ and Oxford books. Principal of a NGO school said during a focus group,

> *"We work under a larger umbrella organization and it designs our curriculum with a mix of AFAQ series and Oxford book. Everyone knows that these two names are of quality in the world. We are making sure our children get the best books and learning material available in the market"*

The research from private schools showed that they all used the oxford curriculum available in the market off the shelf. The findings of this factor of quality are quite interesting. The curriculum used in three types of schools vary. It is also very difficult to judge the quality of the curriculum being taught without the performance test of the children. However the policy makers probably need to consider the implication of having different types of textbooks and learning material in diverse types of schools and how it impacts children future studies and other decisions.

Infrastructure:

Andrabi et al. (2008)stated that inadequate infrastructure and lack of teachers affected the quality of education. Infrastructure included boundary walls, library, playground, computer labs, and toilets. Unfortunately most of public schools in Pakistan still suffer from the lack of basic facilities. To assess the quality of infrastructure we asked the school Principal and teachers if they were satisfied with the

level of infrastructure in school. We also asked if the school had a playground, proper toilets, library, faculty room, assembly area and an auditorium

Principal, of a public boys' school said,

"Not satisfied because there is not a single bathroom, no ground, and no library. We have only two washrooms and their condition is very bad. Our library is not in good condition either. Our assembly area is okay. We can't build these ourselves, these have to come from the government. It's not in our power to build such facilities. "

Akhtar Rasool, a parent sending his son to a public school, responded

"I am not at all happy with the school's facilities but what option do I have. They don't even have water and toilets which is the most basic facility every school should have"

The NGOs schools on the other hand had the better overall infrastructure in all schools. All NGO schools had pre-fabricated structures which meant that they were earthquake proof. The classrooms had projectors along with other multimedia. The principal, of one NGO school, said,

"We do not have an auditorium but the rest of the facilities are present. After the earthquake we built the earthquake proof schools so children can study in a safe environment and parents are not worried while sending their kid to school."

The 2005 devastating earthquake in Azad Kashmir caused nearly 0.2 million casualties, with most of them school children. The schools were wrecked as result of the earthquake and many children died. In the rebuilding process the government emphasised to build the earthquake proof schools (Shaheen, 2008). However the rule seemed to have been followed by only NGOs school as the public and private schools of our research had the same building structure that they had prior to earthquake.

A parent sending his daughters to NGO School said,

"Maybe the building should be more spacious but the overall facility is well constructed, maintained and decorated. It's much better than other schools in the same vicinity"

The private schools also had better infrastructure facilities as compared to public school. Principal of a private school said,

"I guess we have satisfactory level infrastructure. We do not have a playground and an auditorium but classrooms are well equipped. We are trying to raise fund to build a playground however it will be few years from now that this can be achieved."

The major difference in these schools was not only the existing infrastructure facilities but also the future approach towards building better infrastructure. Public schools seemed aware of the lack of facilities at school but yet they also seemed helpless in doing something about it. NGO schools showed the best infrastructure facilities in all types of school. Private schools also had good facilities and also showed interest in building more in future.

Access

The factor of Access has been selected based on the distance of a school and accessibility for the students. In Azad Kashmir, most of the households do not have the luxury of their own transport, so they prefer a

school which is at a walking distance or one which is near enough, where they can utilize cheap source of transportation (local transport). Lloyd et al. (2005)noted that access is not only limited to male children, in developing countries like Pakistan; access is a major factor for female education. In most rural areas, because of the cultural norms, parents do not send their girls to school. However the region of Azad Kashmir seems to be beyond this issue. The male female enrolment ratio at primary level is astonishingly at 0.95, (1 means equal enrolment , greater than 1 means girls have higher enrolment , less than 1 means girls have lower enrolment). The highest ratio is found in our sample area, which is Muzaffarabad (AEPM, 2014). To evaluate the issue of access, we asked the parents and school staff how important was Access factor in choice of a school for students.

UmairNaeem, a parent sending his daughters to a public school, said,

"Most important thing is location, the school should be near. I have daughters who go to school I can't send them to a school which is 5km away. They usually have to walk to school every day"

This response depicts that, a major decision of sending a child to a public school is pivoted on the credentials related to the access. While interviewing the focus group lead by the principal of the NGO school, the principal SyedaSaminaBatool said,

"Above 70% of our student walk to school, so yes it is easily accessible. Most of them come from nearby houses. You see the parents don't have transport so they do consider how near is the school when making a decision of sending them here."

The responses show that access does play a role in places where parents belong to lower middle class, they find it difficult to spend on transportation and look for a school which is nearby. However we also found many parents who were sending their children to a distant school for better education. Shahida Naqvi, a parent sending her son and a daughter to a private school said,

> *"The school is 6-8km away from our house I think. I take public transport every day and drop them and come back to my house. My husband pick them and come back home on public transport as well. Yes it's a lot of hassle but they are getting very good education there. The nearby public school has no basic facilities and do not get me started on teachers attention to children and the absence rate"*

Principal of the private school confirmed by saying,

> *"Some children come from as far as 20 kilometre from here. It's quite a distance in this area but their parents make this decision for better education. I will say around 25-30% children come from faraway places"*

The distance of the school seems a concern in the area but parents were also ignoring this factor so their children can get better education. However ignoring does not mean it has no importance. There is a possibility that if the nearby public school had equally good facilities, parents would have sent their children there, as quality education was major concern for parents.

Affordability

Affordability can be defined as the ratio of monthly income of a person and the cost of providing education to children. Affordability is one of the most important considerations and a determining factor that a person pay heed to before enrolment of a child. In Muzaffarabad three types of schools are the

major players in education i.e NGO, public and private. Starting with the public schools, the fee for primary education was only Rs. 30 ($0.3) per month. This was the standardized fee for all the government schools in Muzaffarabad as prescribed by the government of AJK. The private schools fee varied between 1000 to 1500 Rs. One important distinction should be made here about the private schools, there are two types of private schools, one is the large branded school chains (In hundreds spanned all over Pakistan) and the other are small chains amounting to only 2 or 3 schools. Our research focused on small private schools in Muzaffarabad. The fee structure of these school was on average around Rs. 1000. NGO schools fee structure for primary schools started from Rs.1650 to Rs.1875 ($16-$18) per month and went further lower for remote area campuses.

A parent, sending his children to NGO school, said

"I think it is not too expensive and not too cheap. The school facilities are good, it's nearby, and they also offer scholarship if kids perform well. So I think a higher fee is alright to give if your kids get good quality"

Another parent Waqar Ahmed, commented on affordability

"Of course the private school is more expensive but I am sure my kid is getting the best education. After all we earn for them."

Parents, sending their children to public school, said

"Fee is the reason I send my son here. It's very cheap and it's nearby. I think he is getting good education. Maybe they don't have many facilities but I also studied in a public school so can my kid"

"Who does not want to give good education to their children? But look at the fee of private schools. I do not earn enough to send my daughter there. Well at least she is not staying at home, she is getting some education right?"

General opinion showed that choice of the public school was majorly based on low fees. Some parents wanted to send their children to better schools but avoided due to financial constraints. On the other hand the parents sending their children to private and NGO schools were well aware of the high fee, but at the same time they were willing to pay it so their children could get better education.

Discussion:

The data analysis showed results most favourable for NGO run schools, followed by private schools. The data from Muzaffarabad showed that public schools do not perform well especially in terms of quality and infrastructure. Data collected compared to literature suggested that results of this paper were in line with the previous research.NGO run schools were seen to be the best when it comes to quality which included teacher's qualification/training, learning environment/infrastructure, learning materials/books. Their school teachers had an average of 16 years education and usually a bachelor's degree, their infrastructure was also the best compared to private and public schools. The NGO run schools also had the best books (along with the private schools) usually from Oxford Press and followed a more up to date curriculum compared to the public schools. They had playgrounds, toilets, earthquake proof buildings, multimedia projectors, proper desks and chairs. The downside of the NGO schools was that they were the most expensive among the other 2 types of school and because they were fewer in number the parents and students could face an accessibility issue. Even then some parents were willing to send their children to NGO run schools as they preferred quality of education on all other factors. Data showed that NGOs had

the best quality schools but also charged the highest in the Muzaffarabad region, this is in agreement with Khan et al. (1999) who found that the NGO ran schools had the best results with respect to tested performance, teacher student absent rate, infrastructure/facilities etc. and sending children to NGO run schools was seen as a status symbol due to the high fees charged

The primary schools found a middle ground; they provided better quality education than public schools. I-SAPS (2010) found that primary school enrolment had increased by 11% from 2000 to 2008 one of the reasons being that private institutions provided better education. This research has found the same i.e. due to better quality education more parents are sending their children to private schools even though they cost more than public ones. Other than this the private schools only hire teachers who had a bachelor's degree, their books were from Oxford Press and curriculum was similar to the NGOs. Their infrastructure was not as good as the NGO run schools but was better than public schools. They usually had all basic facilities but sometimes could lack a playground or an auditorium. The fees were also in the middle range i.e. Rs.1000-1500 lower than NGOs (Rs.1650-1875) but higher than public schools (lowest of Rs.30), accessibility was found to be more or less the same with the NGOs but worse than public schools.

The literature review showed little positive about the public schools, the research concluded the same. The higher enrolment ratio in public schools is due to the low fees (Rs.30). Majority of the enrolment in these schools came from poorer households. The curriculum and books were set by the provinces Ministry of Education and usually did not contain quality books from the recognized Oxford Press. In line with what was found by AEPM (2014) the paper also found that the infrastructure facilities of the public schools were appalling. In some schools there were no proper toilets or playgrounds, some schools did not even have adequate roofing and many of them had a poor learning environment (broken desks and too many students). Contrary to research done in other parts of Pakistan public teachers in the Muzaffarabad region were seen to be less qualified compared to NGOs and private schools. Some public schools in the region had set a minimum education level of matriculation while private and NGO schools usually had a minimum level of bachelors. Teachers of public schools did get paid more compared to the other two types , this result is in agreement with Arif and Saqib (2003) who stated that due to the pay scale system public teachers get paid more. Public schools were also the most accessible compared to NGO and private schools because they were present in huge numbers, this is accurate for Muzaffarabad and for most other areas in Pakistan as well.All three types of schools were found to be lacking in the teachers training department and this should be looked and improved upon by private, public and NGO run schools.

Conclusion:

Primary school education is considered the first and major step towards educating a country. Pakistan, unfortunately, lacks way behind in developing countries in this indicator. Our research concentrated on primary education providers in Muzaffarabad region while focusing on the differences in quality of education, access and affordability. The research in the area of Muzaffarabad showed that NGO schools were leading the way with quality of education. The private school followed them while the government schools lacked the most basic quality indicators. Access did not turn out to be a major factor in selecting a school. Government schools were selected based on the affordability factor. The research indicated that lot of work needs to be done in primary education by the government. The schools fee, curriculum, teachers' quality, salaries, and infrastructure varied to a great extent. The differences can cause children getting different education based on their parents income and may also cause disparity in the society.

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PERCEPTIONS OF THE UNDERGRADUATE EFL LEARNERS STUDYING AT SALAHADDIN UNIVERSITY REGARDING VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT
This research study explored the vocabulary learning strategies of undergraduate EFL learners' perceptions regarding vocabulary learning strategies. It also investigated whether there were any differences in the learners' perceptions about vocabulary learning strategies in relation to gender, language level and age. This research was conducted at the English Language Department of Salahaddin University with 140 second (pre-intermediate level) and fourth year (advanced level) students in the spring semester of the academic year 2013-2014. The participants of the study were randomly chosen and they took part in the investigation voluntarily. The findings of the study indicated that the perceptions of the participants did not show any significant differences regarding vocabulary learning strategies in relation to gender and age. The participants' reported perceptions regarding vocabulary learning strategies revealed significance regarding language level. The Pre-intermediate learners preferred Social Strategies more than the advanced level learners.
Key Words: Vocabulary learning strategies, gender, age, language level, social srategies.

Literature review

According to Schmitt (2000), the discrete nature of vocabulary acquisition – which makes applying effective strategies easier - might be one of the factors behind using more strategies for learning vocabulary, over learning different language learning activities. Another factor is the classroom tendency of focusing more on discrete activities than integrated activities, such as presentations. It may also be due to the special value of learning vocabulary by students. For Schmitt (2007), language teachers can help students to learn more vocabulary independently outside the classroom and separate from teachers. They can aid the process of independent learning by assisting students to become aware of using different vocabulary learning strategies, and then by helping them to practice various strategies.

Note-taking, repetition, and memorization are the more common strategies that learners use for learning vocabulary. These simple strategies are favored over strategies such as inferring meaning, guessing from context, and imagery, which are more complex and need significant knowledge and active manipulating information.

Schmitt (2007) suggests that, 'deeper processing strategies' like the key word method, or forming associations, are more suitable for intermediate or advanced learners. The strength of these kinds of strategies is that they lead to better (long-term) retention. On the other hand, 'shallower processing strategies' such as rote repetitions can also be effective when the learners are accustomed to utilizing them. These types of vocabulary learning strategies are simple, and can be more useful for beginners.
Tseng and Schmitt (2008) criticized the previous works (for example, the Oxford's (2001) 'Strategy Inventory for Language Learning') which focused on measuring the frequency of using language learning strategies. They state that, the Oxford's assume, in using the questionnaire scale – for measuring the frequency of language learning strategy usage - that those learners who use more

strategies are considered to be better learners. However, these types of scales are unable to reflect how well students can use vocabulary learning strategies.
Tseng and Schmitt (2008) divided the use of vocabulary learning strategy into two parts. The first component is Strategic Vocabulary Learning Involvement (SVLI) - which concerns acts demanding effort either overtly or covertly, to improve or find the effectiveness of specific tactics- refers to the quantitative dimension of vocabulary strategy use. The second part, which they called Mastery of Vocabulary Learning Tactics (MVLT), refers to qualitative dimension and concerns mastering particular methods of vocabulary knowledge acquisition.

Concerning factors which influence the use of vocabulary learning strategies by second language learners, Cohen and Macro (2007) refer to four main factors; (a) the learners proficiency level, (b) gender and individual differences, (c) development of strategy use, and (d) context and situation of learning. Teachers who train learners in learning vocabulary strategies, and researchers who are interested in finding the strategies learners use for learning vocabulary, should consider all of these important factors which affect vocabulary learning strategy usage.

Schmitt's (1997, 2000) taxonomy – which is the basis for this study – to some extent overlaps with Oxford's (2001) taxonomy (memory, cognitive, compensation, meta cognitive, affective, and social strategies). Schmitt classified the strategies into two different categories. First, the strategies are divided into discovery and consolidation strategies. Then they are classified into five major groups: determination, social, memory, cognitive, and meta cognitive strategies.

Determination strategies, which fall under the discovery category, are used by learners to identify the meaning of unfamiliar words without resource to another individual's expertise. Learners can use different strategies for discovering the meaning of unknown words such as; analyzing any available gestures, using pictures, analysis of the part of speech, guessing meaning from either their first language or from textual context; or, using monolingual or bilingual dictionaries (Schmitt, 2000).
Social strategies "facilitate learning with others and help learners understand the culture of the language they are learning" (Carter and Nunan, 2001:168). Since social strategies can be used for identifying the definition(s) of unfamiliar word(s) (for instance, asking the teacher for a synonym, or asking for first language translation), and for consolidating and remembering that word when it has been encountered (by interacting with other learners or with native speakers), Schmitt (1997, 2000) divided them under both discovery and consolidation categories.

Memory strategies,which are known as mnemonics, facilitate long-term retention of vocabulary via a kind of elaborative mental processing (Schmitt, 2000). These kinds of strategies help students link a new vocabulary item with many kinds of existing knowledge such as, previously known words or experiences. Kafipour and Naveh (2011) believe that memory strategies are integrated from three groups of strategies. First, drawing or shaping an image of a word and its meaning(s) in notebooks or in the mind for the purpose of creating a strong connection between the two (the new word and its meaning(s)) can help learners learn vocabulary. Secondly, by using strategies - such as using a new word in sentences - links words together for the vocabulary recalling purpose. Thirdly, in order to stabilize the word's meanings, using aspects of vocabulary knowledge could be a helpful strategy.

Cognitive strategies serve as a means for learners to manipulate information and to increase their knowledge of words to be learned. Thus, unlike memory strategies, cognitive strategies are not concerned with mental processing (Schmitt, 2000). Verbal and written repetition, using flashcards and notebooks for recording new words, word lists, putting English labels on physical objects, and listening to recorded word lists, are examples of cognitive strategies.

Metacognitive strategies are used by learners to manage and evaluate their general learning process and specific learning tasks (Oxford, 2001). Schmitt (2000) states that metacognitive strategies enable learners to receive maximum exposure to language, improve their decisions about the most efficient methods of study, and allow them to evaluate themselves to gauge improvement. Some examples of metacognitive strategies are: using English language media (movies, songs, and newscasts), evaluating one with word tests, and skipping or passing a new word.

Kudo's (1999) classification of vocabulary learning strategies is basically founded on Schmitt's (1997) vocabulary learning strategies taxonomy, but Kudo put memory and cognitive strategies under a psycholinguistic strategies subdivision. In addition, determination strategies cannot be seen in Kudo's figure of vocabulary learning strategies.

Theories of Vocabulary Learning

Since it is impossible for students to learn all the words they need in the classroom, different vocabulary learning theories have emerged to help learners to improve their techniques for learning vocabulary. One of the theories suggests that teachers should select the most important words for learners.

Gairns and Redman (1986) argue that different criteria should be considered for vocabulary selection which are: frequency of items, cultural factors, the level, need, and the expediency. According to Schmitt (2007), another way for facilitating vocabulary learning is using different vocabulary learning strategies, and that using vocabulary learning strategies is the most appropriate way that promotes vocabulary learning, and encourages learners with independent vocabulary learning.

Also, because there are some strategies that learners can use outside of the classrooms and in the absence of their teachers, they can compensate for the limited time spent in language classes, and learners can continue the process of learning anywhere and anytime they wish.

2.4. Knowing a Word

Language, with all its aspects and its linguistic scope, is like an interrelated network. Words which we use for different purposes in our daily routine life are not isolated parts of this network. Therefore, having full mastery of a specific word does not just mean knowing its dictionary definition or recognizing its letters and sounds alone, as learners need more knowledge about that word to be able to use it in a larger context. In other words, learners who want to control a word completely should know all aspects of that word.

Schmitt (2000) refers to two types of aspects of knowing a word: (a) Meaning and organization types of knowledge; having knowledge about words' dictionary definitions, its register constraints, and also knowledge of lexical organization and word associations (words are related to each other in different ways and stored in the mind not randomly but in an organized way). (b) Non-meaning kinds of word knowledge; having knowledge about grammatical aspects of a word (word class, formation, and derivation), and also about the word form (written and spoken). Nation (2001) presents various kinds of word knowledge in a table, which an EFL learner, who aspires to use a word in a native-like proficiency level, should be able to recognize.

Method

This study aims to explore the undergraduate EFL learners' perceptions about vocabulary learning strategies.Besides, it targets to find out whether there are any differences in the participants' perceptions regarding vocabulary learning strategies in relation to gender, level and age. For this investigation the following research questions were adopted:

1. What are the perceptions of the undergraduate EFL learners studying at Salahaddin University regarding vocabulary learning strategies?

2. Do the perceptions of the undergraduate EFL learners at the Salahaddin universityregarding vocabulary learning strategies differ according to age, gender and level?

In this study the undergraduate EFL learners' vocabulary learning strategieswere investigated through a descriptive survey in which a questionnaire was employed. 140 undergraduate EFL learners participated in this study.There were 53 male and 87 female participats. 119 participants were between 19 and 24 years old, 19 participants were between 25and 30, and others were above 30. The students were from two different language levels (Pre-Intermediate and Advanced). One group consisted of 60 students from the Pre-Intermediate level learners who were second year students. The second group consisted of 80 Advanced level learners who were fourth year students.

In order to collect data, Schmitt's (1997) Vocabulary Learning Strategy Questionnaire (VLSQ) was used in this study. The questionnaire had five vocabulary learning strategy categories: "Determination strategies", "Cognitive strategies", "Metacognitive strategies", "Memory strategies", and "Social Strategies". The students replied to each questionnaire item according to the 5-point Likert Scale. The response categories were 'Never', 'Seldom', 'Sometimes', 'Often', 'Always'. The reliability coefficiency (Cronbach's Alpha) of the questionnaire was (0.744).

The collected data was statistically analyzed. For this purpose, SPSS 20 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used. To test the differences between male and female students' perceptions a two-tailed t-test was employed. To test the differences between language levels of the participants, another two-tailed t-test was employed. For the purpose of testing whether the learners' perceptions differed according to age, a one way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was employed.

Findings

1. **Analysis of the Perceptions of the Participants Regarding Vocabulary Learning Strategies**

Descriptive statistics were used to present the findings regarding the first research question which investigated the perceptions of the undergraduate EFL learners studying at Salahaddin University in relation to vocabulary learning strategies. Table 1.1. below, shows the participants' perceptions for the five items (1-5) regarding Determination Strategies.

Table1.1.: Analysis of theItems Related to Determination Strategies

		Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total
1	Check the new word's grammatical form (e.g. find whether its verb, noun, adj., etc.).	8	24	52	37	19	140
2	Look for any word parts that I know; taking away the prefixes and suffixes (e.g. impossible, possible, possibility, possibly, etc.).	8	43	48	29	12	140
3	Check if the word is also a word in your native laguage. (e.g. cartoon).	24	31	43	22	20	140
4	Use any pictures or gestures. (body language) to help me guess the meaning if the words are spoken.	12	17	52	40	19	140
5	Guess its meaning from its context (what comes before and after the new piece of vocabulary).	4	30	48	28	30	140
%		8 %	21 %	35 %	22 %	14 %	100 %

The findings showed that 35 % of the participants indicated that they sometimes used Determination Strategies, 22 % of the participants often used Determination Strategies, 21 % seldom used these strategies and 14 % of them indicated that they always employed these strategies. Only 8 % of the participants' perceptions revealed that they never used Determination Strategies. As a result, these findings indicated that most of the participants preferred to use Determination Strategies sometimes. Item 3, which was "Check if the word is also a word in your ntive language", was the least preferred strategy among the five Determination Strategies, while item 5, which was "Guess its meaning from its context", was the most preferred strategy among the always used Determination Strategies.

Table 1.2. below, shows the participants' perceptions for the five items (6-10) regarding 'Social Strategies'.

Table 1.2.: Analysis of the Items Related to Social Strategies

		Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total
6	Ask the teacher to give me the definition or an explanation in the form of an example sentence.	16	32	58	21	13	140
7	Ask my classmates for the meaning/ definition.	2	21	54	38	25	140
8	Discover new meaning through group work activity.	22	36	48	22	12	140
9	Ask the teacher to check my definition.	43	43	32	14	8	140
10	Ask native speakers for a definition.	54	38	27	14	7	140
%		20 %	24 %	31 %	16 %	9 %	100 %

The findings showed that 31 % of participants indicated that they sometimes used Social Strategies, 24 % of the participants seldom used Social Strategies, 20 % of them indicated that they never used these strategies and 16 % of them indicated that they often employed these strategies. Whereas 9 % of the participants, perceptions revealed that they always used Social Strategies. As a result, these findings indicated that most of the participants preferred to use Social Strategies Sometimes. Item 7, which was "Ask my classmates for the meaning/ definition", was the least preferred strategy among the five Social strategies while item 10, which was "Ask native speakers for a definition", was the most preferred strategy among the always used Social strategies.

Table 1.3. below, shows the participants' perceptions for the five items (11-14) regarding 'Cognitive Strategies'.

Table1.3.: Analysis of the Items Related to Cognitive Strategies

		Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total
11	Draw a picture of the word to help remember it.	34	29	39	24	14	140
12	Make or imagine a mental image of the words' meaning.	14	27	55	26	18	140
13	Connect the word to a personal experience.	6	29	50	34	21	140
14	Remember the words that follow or precede the new word.	8	31	55	32	14	140
15	Connect the word to other words with similar or opposite meanings.	3	14	56	37	30	140
%		9 %	19 %	36 %	22 %	14 %	100 %

The findings showed that 36 % of the participants indicated that they sometimes used Cognitive Strategies, 22 % of the participants often used Cognitive Strategies, 19 % of them indicated that they seldom used these strategies and 14 % of them indicated that they always employed these strategies. Whereas only 9 % of the participants' perceptions revealed that they never used Cognitive Strategies. As a result, these findings indicated that most of the participants preferred to use Cognitive Strategies sometimes. Item 13, which was, "Connect the word to a personal experience", was the least preferred strategy among the five Cognitive Strategies, while item 15, which was " Connect the word to other words with similar or opposite meanings", was the most preferred strategy among those that always used Cognitive Strategies.

Table 1.4. below, shows the participants' perceptions for the five items (11-14) regarding 'Memory Strategies'.

Table1.4.: Analysis of the Items Related to Memory Strategies

		Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total
16	Repeat the words aloud many times.	10	22	54	33	21	140
17	Write the words many times.	11	36	32	33	28	140
18	Make lists of new words.	19	34	51	17	19	140
19	Use flashcards to record new words.	54	47	27	8	4	140
20	Take notes or highlight new words in class.	6	28	51	24	31	140
21	Put English labels on physical objects.	24	47	47	13	9	140
22	Keep a vocabulary notebook.	12	20	41	29	38	140
%		14 %	24 %	31 %	16 %	15 %	100 %

The findings showed that 31% of the participants indicated that they sometimes used Memory Strategies, 24% of the participants seldom used Memory Strategies, 16% of them indicated that they often used these strategies and 15% of them indicated that they always employed these strategies. Whereas only 14% of the participants' perceptions revealed that they never used Memory Strategies. As a result, these findings indicated that most of the participants preferred to use Memory Strategies sometimes. Item 19, which was "Use flashcards to record new words", was the least preferred strategy among the five Memory Strategies while item 22, which was "Keep a vocabulary notebook", was the most preferred strategy among those who always used Memory Strategies.

Table 1.5. below, shows the participants' perceptions for the five items (23- 27) regarding 'Metacognitive Strategies'.

Table 1.5.: Analysis of the Items Related to Metacognitive Strategies

		Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total
23	Use English-language media (songs, movies, the internet).	1	14	49	28	48	140
24	Test myself with word tests.	7	24	61	23	25	140
25	Study new words many times.	4	24	46	42	24	140
26	When I do not understand a word I pass or skip that word.	36	39	37	18	10	140

27	Pay attention to English words when someone is speaking English.	2	11	32	36	59	140
%		7%	16%	32%	21%	24%	100%

The findings showed that 32 % of the participants indicated that they sometimes used Meta cognitive Strategies, 24 % of the participants always used Metacognitive Strategies, 21 % of them indicated that they often used these strategies and 16 % of them indicated that they seldom employed these strategies. Whereas only 7 % of the participants' perceptions revealed that they never used Metacognitive Strategies. As a result, these findings indicate that most of the participants preferred to use Metacognitive Strategies sometimes. Item 24, which was "Test myself with word tests ", was the least preferred strategy among the five Metacognitive Strategies, while item 27, which was "Pay attention to English words when someone is speaking English ", was the most preferred strategy among those that always used Meta Cognitive Strategies.

To sum up, The findings of the study indicate that the participants tended to use Meta Cognitive Strategies in vocabulary learning more than the other strategies. Social Strategies were the least preferred category among the participants.

Diagram 1.1. below, displays the mean portions of vocabulary learning strategies employed by the participants.

Diagram 1.1.: Rank Order and Frequency Use of Five Categories of Vocabulary Learning Strategies Employed by the Study Sample (Std: Standard Deviation).
The findings revealed that Meta Cognitive Strategies were employed the most, with a mean score of 3,38, followed by Determination Strategies with a mean score of 3,14. The participants' perceptions indicated that Cognitive Strategies comes third place, with a mean score of 3,12, followed by Memory Strategies with a mean score of 2,95. The participants perceptions regarding the use of Social Strategies when learning vocabulary indicated that they were the least preferred strategies by the participants with a mean score of 2,70.

1. **Analysis of the Perceptions of the Participants Vocabulary Learning Strategies in Relation to Gender, Level and Age**

The t-test results for male and female learners' perceptions indicated thatthere were no significance differences between male and female students' perceptions regarding the vocabulary strategies that they use.

Table2.1.: The Results of t-test for the Perceptions of the Participants Regarding Vocabulary Learning
Strategy in Relation to Gender.

Strategy	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	d.f.	P-Value
Determination Strategy	Male	53	3.03	0.62	-1.62	138	0.19 (NS)
	Female	87	3.21	0.64			
Social strategy	Male	53	2.68	0.59	-0.36	138	0.72 (NS)
	Female	87	2.72	0.79			
Cognitive Strategy	Male	53	3.09	0.64	-0.56	138	0.58 (NS)
	Female	87	3.15	0.61			
Memory Strategy	Male	53	2.93	0.63	-0.38	138	0.71 (NS)
	Female	87	2.97	0.63			
Meta Cognitive	Male	53	3.42	0.63	0.53	138	0.59

Strategy	Female	87	3.36	0.55			(NS)

As it can be seen in Table 2.1, male undergraduate EFL learners used overall vocabulary learning Strategies for Determination Strategy (mean=3.03) less frequently than female students (mean=3.20). Other differences that can be seen in the Table 4.7 are the frequency use of different Vocabulary Learning Strategies categories and rank order of Strategy use categories by male and females. For instance, while male students used Social Strategies less frequently (mean=2.68) than females (mean=2.72), other categories of Strategies such as Cognitive Strategy were used by male students less frequently (mean=3.09) compared to female learners (mean=3.15). In addition, Memory Strategy was used by male students less frequently (mean=2.92) than females (mean=2.97) while Meta Cognitive Strategy was used more frequently (mean=3.42) by male students than female students (mean=3.36). According to Table 2.1., female participants used each category of Vocabulary Learning Strategies (Determination, Cognitive, Memory, and Social Strategies) more frequently than male students, while males used the Meta Cognitive Strategy more than females from each level. Also, male students used overall Strategies (mean=3.42) more frequently than female ones (mean=3.36). Both male and female participants used Meta Cognitive Strategies most frequently, while Social Strategies were used least frequently.

As shown in Table 2.2. below, the statistical analysis reported perceptions of the students at two different language levels indicated significance only for "social strategy". The findings indicate that pre-intermediate level learners used more social strategies when learning vocabulary than advanced level learners.

Table2.2.: The Results of t-test for the Perceptions of the Participants Regarding Vocabulary Learning Strategies in Relation to Level

Strategy	Your level of English	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	d.f.	P-Value
Determination Strategy	Second Level	60	3.03	0.64	-1.75	138	0.08 (NS)
	Fourth Level	80	3.22	0.33			
Social Strategy	Second Level	60	2.92	0.63	3.06	138	0.003 (HS)
	Fourth Level	80	2.55	0.75			
Cognitive Strategy	Second Level	60	3.16	0.64	0.65	138	0.52 (NS)
	Fourth Level	80	3.09	0.61			
Memory Strategy	Second Level	60	2.95	0.57	-0.08	138	0.94 (NS)
	Fourth Level	80	2.95	0.67			
Meta Cognitive Strategy	Second Level	60	3.34	0.54	-0.79	138	0.43 (NS)
	Fourth Level	80	3.42	0.61			

As can be seen in Table 2.2. Determination Strategy (mean=3.03) was used less frequently by second level students than fourth level students (mean=3.22). While fourth level students used Social Strategies less frequently (mean=2.55) than second level students (mean=2.92). Other Strategies, such

as Cognitive Strategies were used by second level students more frequently (mean=3.16), compared to fourth level (mean=3.09). Memory Strategy used by second level is identical (mean= 2.95) with fourth level (mean=2.95). While Meta Cognitive Strategy was used more frequently by fourth level students (mean=3.42) than second level students (mean=3.34).

The possible reasons for restricted use of Strategies by the EFL learners University students could include the fact that they are never trained in learning Strategies. As discussed in the literature review part of this study, training learners in learning strategies enables them to be aware of various strategies, increased their familiarity with Vocabulary Learning Strategies, and also gives students positive attitudes toward the usefulness of Strategy usage.

Table 2.3 below, shows the statistical results of the ANOVA test regarding the reported perceptions of the participants about Vocabulary Learning Strategies in relation to age differences. The statistical results of the ANOVA test indicated that there were no significant differences regarding the reported perceptions of the participants about Vocabulary Learning Strategies in relation to age differences.

Table2.3.: The Results of ANOVA test Regarding the Perceptions of the Participants for Vocabulary Learning Strategies in Relation to Age.

Strategy	Age Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	F-test (one way ANOVA)	P-Value
Determination Strategies	19- 24	3.155	0.627	0.215	0.807 (NS)
	25 - 30	3.053	0.742		
	> 30	3.2	0.283		
Social Strategies	19- 24	2.761	0.706	2.639	0.075 (NS)
	25 - 30	2.358	0.753		
	> 30	2.8	0.849		
Cognitive Strategies	19- 24	3.126	0.621	1.099	0.336 (NS)
	25 - 30	3.179	0.607		
	> 30	2.5	0.141		
Memory Strategies	19- 24	2.972	0.613	0.592	0.555 (NS)
	25 - 30	2.804	0.711		
	> 30	3	0.808		
Meta Cognitive Strategies	19- 24	3.398	0.592	0.445	0.642 (NS)
	25 - 30	3.305	0.539		
	> 30	3.1	0.141		

Discussion

Here, discussion of the findings for the first research question will be discussed which will be followed the discussion of the findings for the second research question.

1. *What are the perceptions of the undergraduate EFL learners studying at Salahaddin University regarding vocabulary learning strategies?*

Data analysis revealed that Metacognitive Strategies were the most frequently used strategies by the undergraduate EFL learners. The wide use of Metacognitive Strategies suggests that most of the students were taking control and planning of their vocabulary learning. Metacognitive Strategies which are useful for consolidating and remembering words include the following sub-strategies: (a) the use of English-language media (songs, movies, and the internet), (b) self-evaluation with word tests, (c) continuing to study words over time, (d) skipping new words, and (e) paying attention to English words when someone speaks in English (Schmitt 2000).

Due to the reasons below, it is not surprising that Metacognitive Strategies placed first among other categories of vocabulary learning strategies: Firstly, this result corroborates the results found in O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) extensive research on learning strategy. They found that intermediate students used Metacognitive Strategies more than other strategy categories. Secondly, the result of this study is also similar to results found by Kafipour and Naveh (2011). They concluded that Iranian undergraduate learners used Metacognitive Strategies most frequently. Thirdly, easy access to the internet, the media, a wide range of educational materials, and other electronic resources could be another reason for Metacognitive Strategies usage preference by EFL learners. Fourthly, since self-evaluating, reviewing, and informal testing are the main features of Metacognitive Strategies, and as these activities can be fulfilled by learners even in the absence of teachers - they might find using these kinds of strategies easier than other strategies for remembering words.

Determination Strategies were found to be the second most frequently used strategy by undergraduates at Salahaddin University, showing that the EFL learners use strategies to discover the meaning of new words more than using memory, cognitive, and social strategies which are useful for consolidating newly introduced words. Domination of the grammar approach in the system of English language education in the participants' country could be a reason undergraduate learners are more likely to use determination strategies.

This approach enables learners to be familiar with analyzing parts of speech as well as word forms, and this also leads to more familiarity of learners with determination strategies. Another reason for using more determinations strategies could be due to the simplest and easiest way of finding the meaning of new words through using dictionaries in an environment where the target language is not the peoples' first or second language.

The results of this study are congruent with the findings of Hamzah, Kafipour, and Abdullah (2009). In their research study, they found that using determination strategies – discovering a new word(s)/meaning(s) – is more preferable than other strategies usage by Iranian EFL undergraduate learners. The results are also like findings explored in Sahbazian's (2004) study. She concluded that Turkish undergraduate students used Determination Strategies more frequently than Cognitive, Memory, and Social Strategies.

Cognitive Strategies which were ranked at number three on the list, were in the middle of all categories of strategies. Thus, they were used more frequently than Memory and Social strategies, but they were used less frequently than Metacognitive and Determination Strategies. Gu and Johnson (1996) found that Cognitive Strategies are good predictors to assess the general proficiency level of EFL learners.

Thus, it could be a suitable justification for medium use of cognitive strategies by the EFL learners at Salahaddin University, since their general English proficiency level is around Intermediate/Upper-Intermediate.

According to Schmitt (1997) the main difference between Cognitive Strategies and Memory Strategies is that, unlike Memory Strategies which focus on manipulative mental processing, Cognitive Strategies focus greatly on the mechanical means of vocabulary learning. As can be seen in Table 4.1, the mean score of using cognitive strategy (mean=3.124) is higher than the Memory Strategy usage mean score (mean=2.950) Therefore, from Schmitt's view point and according to the mentioned results, we can say that the undergraduate learners preferred to use mechanical tools rather than traditional memorization patterns for learning vocabulary.

Memory Strategies were found to be the fourth frequently used Strategies for learning vocabulary. This was lower than Meta Cognitive, Determination, and Cognitive Strategies, but they were used more frequently than Social Strategies. This low frequent usage of Memory Strategies could be due to the time consuming feature of these kinds of Strategies. According to Schmitt (2000) Memory Strategies involve manipulative mental processing that is used for long-term retention of vocabulary
Low frequency use of memory strategies by the EFL undergraduate learners could also be due to the reason mentioned in the Cognitive Strategies discussion; where participants in this study prefer to use mechanical tools (such as keeping a vocabulary notebook) rather than rote vocabulary learning (connecting the word to its synonyms). Some examples of Memory Strategies which are mentioned in Schmitt (1997-2000) are; an image of the word's meaning and form, studying the spelling of a word, connecting the word to a previous personal experience, and grouping words together to study them.
This teaching approach obliges students to listen to their teachers, or take notes throughout the lesson. Therefore, group work or student interaction with each other or with the teacher – which are key features of social strategies – can be rarely observed in these kinds of language classrooms. Another possible reason could be due to the EFL learning environment. In these contexts where English is not the population's native language, there are very few opportunities inside the classroom to ask for others' help for the meaning of unfamiliar words. This leads learners to rely more on other categories of strategies rather than social strategies.

2. *Do the perceptions of the undergraduate EFL learners at the Salahaddin university regarding vocabulary learning strategies differ according to age, gender and level?*

The learners' proficiency level, gender, age, development of strategy use, and context of learningare factors which influence the use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies by learners (Cohen and Macro, 2007). Gender, as a main factor that influences the use of vocabulary learning strategies, was chosen to be examined in this study.

The results of the female and male EFL learner's performance on Vocabulary Learning Strategies are presented in Table 4.7. The rank order of frequency strategy usage was similar for the female and male participants. In other words, Meta Cognitive Strategies were used most frequently by both genders (rank=1), and Determination, Cognitive, and Memory Strategies received rank numbers of 2, 3, and 4 respectively. Social Strategies, which were used least frequently, placed at rank number 5 in both female and male groups, although both female and male EFL learners were medium Strategy users.
The results are in contrast with the findings of the current study, in which, the female undergraduate learners used more Strategies than male learners. Finally, according to the results of using Vocabulary Learning Strategies and from the above discussions it can be concluded that the EFL female learners are better Strategy users than their male counterparts.

Cultural attitudes toward female learners in the participants' culture, and assuming that females are not as much in need of learning foreign language as men (because women traditionally stay at home, while men need to learn other languages for various purposes such as business or tourism) are factors that decrease female motivation to learn a foreign language. Also in EFL situations (inside and outside of the classroom) in the participants' culture, the opportunities for interpersonal relationships for females are more limited than for males. In summary, although female learners in this study used more cognitive, metacognitive, and memory strategies than male learners, this does not mean that males'

abilities in these strategies were weaker than female, but, as mentioned in the previous sections, they might use these strategies unconsciously.

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DETECTING AND CORRECTING SPEECH RHYTHM ERRORS

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ABSTRACT
Every language has its own rhythm. Unlike many other languages in the world, English depends on the correct pronunciation of stressed and unstressed or weakened syllables recuring in the same phrase or sentence. Mastering the rhythm of English makes speaking more effective. Experiments have shown that we tend to hear speech as more rhythmical than it actually is. English is a stress-timed language, and one general rule of rhythm is that an equal amount of time is taken from one stressed syllable to the next. Bolinger suggests that the most important factor for English rhythm is neither the number of syllables nor the number of stresses but the pattern made in any section of continuous speech by the mixture of syllables containing full vowels with syllables containing reduced vowels. Despite the obvious relevance of rhythm and tempo to verbal interaction, the linguistic textbooks have had nothing to say about them. In any sentence, some words carry a stress. These are the 'strong' or 'lexical' words (usually nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs). The remaining words are '*grammatical*' words and are unstressed or '*weak*'. Rhythm is the beat of one's speech, like a drumbeat, composed of such suprasegmental elements as pitch, stress and tempo. Thinking in musical terms, we can hear the musical beat of such musical forms as march, waltz and syncopated jazz. Intonation and rhythm patterns go a long way in carrying the meaning across in English. One can be speaking with perfect pronunciation, but put the stress on the wrong syllable and the whole statement may go without being understood. It is likewise with how and where the pitch and inflections rise and fall, and the tempo-rhythms of one's speech. Spoken English words with two or more syllables have different stress and length patterns. Some syllables are stressed more than others and some syllables are pronounced longer than others. It is important for non-native speakers to understand and master the rhythm of English. If the wrong words are stressed in a sentence or if all words are pronounced with the same length or loudness, the speech will be difficult to understand. Proficient pronunciation is essential to language learning because below a certain level of rhythm consciousness, even if grammar and vocabulary have been mastered, communication simply cannot take place. Language learners make pronunciation errors of two types: those involving the articulation of phones (phonemes) and those involving the use of prosody. Prosody is represented by three distinct components in the acoustic signal: (a) fundamental frequency (pitch), (b) duration (speaking rate and timing), (c) intensity (amplitude or loudness). Early prosody instruction, starting the first year of language study, could be a boon to learning both syntax and phone articulation. When listening to a foreign speaker, it is not uncommon to hear a sentence with correct phones and syntax that is hard to understand because of prosody errors. Learners of English as a foreign language must be introduced as early as possible to the rhythm of the new language they encounter, They must be taught recognition before production. Their teachers must integrate rhythm and other aspects of phonology into grammar, vocabulary and functional language lessons as well as listening and speaking activities. Teachers must do relevant drills (especially backchaining), physical movement (finger-clicking, clapping, tapping, jumping) in time to the rhythm of the sentence. They must focus on stress in short dialogues (kn you? Yes I can); invent short dialogues, paying attention to stress and rhythm by focusing on short utterances with distinctive stress and intonation patterns and a specific rhythm (long numbers, phone numbers, football results etc.). They must recite jazz chants, poems, rhymes and tongue-twisters (limericks are good at higher levels); sing along with them popular songs and jazz chants. Because phonology is a system, learners cannot achieve a natural rhythm in speech without understanding the stress-timed nature of the language and the interrelated components of stress, connected speech and intonation. Rhythm should be included into a syllabus for teaching English pronunciation is (at least) two-fold. Activities related to the correction of these errors are designed to meet students' different learning styles, namely auditory, visual, tactile, and kinesthetic learning. In this way, the goal of the "learner-centered" classroom is hoped to be pragmatically achieved.
Key Words: rhythm, pitch, unstressed, weak

1 The Concept of Speech Rhythm

The speech rhythm is an inherent, yet a very complex and elusive aspect of speech prosody (Beňuš, 2012). In linguistics, rhythm or *isochrony* is one of the three aspects of prosody, along with stress and intonation (Isochrony, 2012). Languages can be categorized according to whether they are syllable-timed or stress-timed (Taylor, 2012). Speakers of syllable-timed languages, Turkish being one of them, put roughly equal time on each syllable; in contrast, speakers of English, considered a stressed-timed language put roughly equal time lags between stressed syllables, with the timing of the unstressed syllables in between them being adjusted to accommodate the stress timing (Rhythm, Wikipedia).

Narmour (1980) describes three categories of prosodic rules which create rhythmic successions which are additive (same duration repeated), cumulative (short-long), or countercumulative (long-short). Cumulation is associated with closure or relaxation, countercumulation with openness or tension, while additive rhythms are open-ended and repetitive (Lambert, 2010). Richard Middleton (1990) points out this method cannot account for syncopation and suggests the concept of transformation (Rhythm, Wikipedia, 2012).

The rhythm of a language is created alltogether by such patterns as pitch, loudness/prominence and tempo, loudness being the basis of rhythmical effects in English (Crystal 1997). Some kinds of formal and repetitive rhythm are familiar from music, rap, poetry and even chants of soccer fans. But all speech has rhythm - it is just that in spontaneous utterances we are less likely to hear regular or repeating patterns. (More, 2002).

The very notion "rhythm of speech" suggests that the two different utterances may share a common, underlying property, called the same "rhythm". Intuitively, this can be brought to awareness by imitating the rhythmical pattern of an utterance with nonsense syllables, as "The 'MAN in the ‚*STREET*" (where capitalized words are accented both with primary and secondary stresses), imitated with "da'DAdada‚*DA*" vs. "dadadadada" (Ameka, 1992). Notice that one can pronounce this statement at least in two different ways, either preserving the speech melody of the original utterance or in a monotone style. By pronouncing each case, i.e. the monotonous or the rhythmic version, we may wonder our utterance sounds more natural. This suggests that it is possible, at least in first approximation, to study the rhythm of speech as a function of the temporal patterning of speech, without taking into account the melodic aspects. In the case of intonation, the rhythm of speech is considered from the phonetic angle, concentrating on the ensemble of speech sound durations. All these features together constitute the temporal patterning of speech, attempting to focus on those aspects relevant to the perceived to it rhythmical structure (Nooteboom, 2012).

2 The Nature of Speech Rhythm

Every language has its own rhythm. Unlike many other languages in the world, English depends on the correct pronunciation of stressed and unstressed or weakened syllables recuring in the same phrase or sentence. Mastering the rhythm of English makes speaking it more effective. (Orion, 1997).

The notion of rhythm involves some noticeable event happening at regular intervals of time; one can detect the rhythm of a heart-beat, of a flashing light or of a piece of music. It has often been claimed that English speech is rhythmical, and that the rhythm is detectable in the regular occurrence of stressed syllables; of course, it is not suggested that the timing is as regular as a clock – the regularity of occurrence is only relative. The theory that English has stress-timed rhythm implies that stressed syllables will tend to occur at relatively regular intervals whether they are separated by unstressed syllables or not; this would not be the case in "mechanical stress." An example of such a mechanical stress is given below where the stressed syllables have numbers next to them. Here the syllables 1 and 2 are not separated by any unstressed syllables, 2 and 3 are separated by one unstressed syllable, 3 and 4 by two and 4 and 5 by three: "'Walk(1) ‚down(2) the 'path(3) to the 'end(4) of the ca‚nal(5)." ['wɔ:k ‚daʊn ðə 'pæθ → tʊ ði 'ɛnd‿əv ðə kə‚næl↓] The stress-timed rhythm theory states that the times from each stressed syllable to the next wil tend to be the same, irrespective of the number of intervening unstressed syllables. (Roach, 1983) Some writers have developed theories of English rhythm in which a unit of rhyhm, the foot, is used with an obvious paralel in the metrical analysis of verse; the foot begins with a stressed syllable and includes all following unstressed syllables up to (but not including) the following stressed syllable. The example sentence given above could also be divided into feet as follows: "'Walk(1) | ‚down(2) the | 'path(3) | to the | 'end(4) of the ca, | nal(5)." (Roach, 1983).

Experiments have shown that we tend to hear speech as more rhythmical than it actually is, and one suspects that this is what the proponents of the stress-timed rhythm theory have been led to do in their auditory analysis of English rhythm. However, one ought to keep an open mind on the subject, remembering that the large-scale, objective study of suprasegmental aspects of real speech is only just beginning, and there is much research that needs to be done (Roach, 1983).

In speaking English the natives vary in how rhythmically they speak: sometimes they speak very rhythmically (this is typical of some styles of public speaking), while at other times they speak *arhythmically* (that is, without rhythm) – for example, when they are hesitant or nervous. Stess-timed rhythm is thus characteristic of one style of speaking, not of English speech, as a whole; one always speaks with some degree of rhythmicality, but the degree will vary between a minimum value (arhythmical) and a maximum (completely stress-timed rhythm). It has been claimed that stress placement is conditioned to some extent by the influence of rhythm. In examples such as "fourteen" [ˌfɔəˈtiːn] and "Westminster" ['wɛstˌmɪnstə˞] the stress pattern does change from primary to secondary where prominence falls in the second word as in "fourteenth day" [ˌfɔə˞'tiːnθ ˌdɛːɪ], "Westminster Abbey" ['wɛstˌmɪnstə˞ˌræbi]. Because in English there is a tendency to avoid two strong stresses coexisting near each other (Roach, 1983).

English, being a stress-timed language, another general rule of rhythm is that an equal amount of time is taken from one stressed syllable to the next, i.e. that English rhythm has an *isochrony* based on stress. This is illustrated in the following example: "What's the difference between a sick elephant and a dead bee?" ['hwɒts ðə ˌdɪfərəns → bɪˌtwiːn ə 'sɪk␣ˌɛləfənt → ˌɛnd␣ə 'dɛd ˌbiːˀ↗] (Cruttenden, 1997)
Bolinger (1981) suggests that the most important factor for English rhythm is neither the number of syllables nor the number of stresses but the pattern made in any section of continuous speech by the mixture of syllables containing full vowels with syllables containing reduced vowels. According to this theory, the basic unit of rhyhm is a full vowelled syllable together with any reduced vowelled syllables that follow it. Each rhythm unit must thus contain one and only one full vowelled syllable. This is reminiscent of the analysis of continuous speech by the stress timing theory into rhythm-groups each containing one (and only one) stressed syllable and all the unstressed syllables that follow it. There are, however, fundamental differences between the stress-timing theory and the theory of what Cruttenden (1986) calls, for want of a better word, "fullvowel timing". The folowing two examples will serve to illustrate the most crucial of these differences. "Those porcupines aren't dangerous." ['ðoʊz ˌpɔə˞kjəpaɪnz → 'aə˞nt ˌdeɪndʒərəs↓] vs. "The wallabies are dangerous." [ðə 'wɒləbaːɪz →ˌaə˞ 'deɪnddʒərəs↓] (Cruttenden, 1997).

3 The Importance of Speech Rhythm

Rhythm is one of the most pervasive aspects of the human condition; it is in the world around us and in the world within us, in our bodies and our minds, our living and our thinking (Murphy, 2004). Human language, quite predictably, is deeply rhythmic as well. In addition, we try to show that the rhythm of verbal interaction is synchronized between co-participants and, at the same time, *achieved* by co-participants. That is, the degree and kind of rhythmicity in everyday language may vary: Interactional rhythms may be shared or idiosyncratic, they may emerge or disintegrate, become more or less distinct. Finally, and most importantly, we argue that interactants' use of rhythmic structures is an important means for making interaction work. Despite the obvious relevance of rhythm and tempo to verbal interaction, the linguistic textbooks we have been trained on for generations--from Hockett's *Course* (1958) through Lyons' *Linguistics* (1968) to Fromkin & Rodman *Introduction* (1988)--have had nothing to say about them.

In any sentence, some words carry a stress. These are the 'strong' or 'lexical' words (usually nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs). The remaining words are '*grammatical*' words and are unstressed or '*weak*' (conjunctions, pronouns, prepositions, auxiliaries, articles). A typical sentence like 'It's

the **worst thing** that you could **do**' the rhythm is produced by this combination of stressed and unstressed syllables (Rhyhtm, British Council, 2007). This is a major characteristic of spoken English which makes English a **stress-timed language**. In stress-timed languages, there is a roughly equal amount of time between each stress in a sentence, compared with **syllable-timed languages** (Turkish being one of them) in which syllables are produced at a steady rate which is unaffected by stress differences. Sentence stress is an important factor in fluency, as English spoken with only strong forms has the wrong rhythm, sounds unnatural and does not help the listener to distinguish emphasis or meaning (Rhyhtm, British Council, 2007).

In phonetics, rhythm is used in speech, along with tempo, pitch and loudness to convey information about the structure and meaning of an utterance (Nordquist, 2012) Rhythm is the beat of one's speech, like a drumbeat. It may be choppy or fluid, halting. Thinking in musical terms, we can hear the musical beat of such musical forms as march, waltz and syncopated jazz. Intonation and rhythm patterns go a long way in carrying the meaning across in English (Phonics, 2012). You can be speaking with perfect pronunciation, but put the stress on the wrong syllable and your whole statement may go without being understood. It is likewise with how and where your pitch and inflections rise and fall, and the tempo-rhythms of your speech. When a student learns to use the English pitch pattern to call attention to the impor- tant words in his speech, he becomes immediately more understandable in his utterance. So as English instructors we should use these techniques in our pronunciation teaching to give our student's statements a clarity of expression. They can let their audience understand better what they're saying by watching their intonation in their sentences by jumping up in pitch on the important words and step down on the words following them. So when they follow these patterns in their speech, they become more understandable, more expressive, more interesting, and, of course, more native-like (Gilbert, 2008). The more pitch they use, the more complete they expression will be. The word that is most important in their statement depends on the situation. Finally, they have to decide on the most important idea what are the most important ideas. And use pitch to make them stand out (Phonics, 2012).

Spoken English words with two or more syllables have different stress and length patterns. Some syllables are stressed more than others and some syllables are pronounced longer than others. The same is true of phrases and sentences. Different words in a sentence have stronger stress and are pronounced longer and other words are weaker and shorter. This pattern of strong and weak stress and short and long pronunciation gives English its rhythm (Rhythm, 2012).

It is important for non-native speakers to understand and master the rhythm of English. If the wrong words are stressed in a sentence or if all words are pronounced with the same length or loudness, the speech will be difficult to understand (Phonics, 2012).

Words that have the most stress in English are called content words. Content words are usually the nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and pronouns (demonstrative, possessive, reflexive, and interrogative). These words are important to express the main meaning of the sentence such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and pronouns. The function words are weaker and shorter. They include auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, determiners, and possessive adjectives. These words are less important in expressing the meaning of the sentence. Such examples as below could well demonstrate the effect of rhythm by the prominence of certain elements in an utterance. Here those stressed syllables of content words are printed (in bold and in capital and relevant primary or secondary stress signs) should be pronounced louder and longer than the functions words (Function Word, 2012, Wikipedia): "**'WHEN** are you ***,COM***ing to **'DIN**ner?" "***,I*** have **'NEV**er ***,LIKED*** the **'COL**or ***,RED***." **"Motorcycles** can be **dan**gerous to **drive** or **ride** on." "***LAST*** month, **,CAR**ol ***,GOT*** a **'NEW** job in ***,SAN*** Fran**'CIS**co." "**'NOT**␣***,EVE***ryone ***,LIKES*** **'CHOC**olate **'ICE** ***,CREAM***, ***,BUT***␣**'I** do." "**'CHRIST**mas is my **'AB**solute **'FA**vorite **,HOL**iday."

Many scholars agree – Eskenazi (1996) being one of them – that pronunciation teaching methods supporting both articulation of phonemes with an emphasis on prosody, i.e. the intonation and rhythm of speech have great contribution to the results to be achieved for a language teaching program. Eskenazi claims that proficient pronunciation is essential to language learning because below a certain level of rhythm consciousness, even if grammar and vocabulary have been mastered, communication simply cannot take place (Eskenazi, 1996).

4 How to Detect and Correct Rhythm Errors

Language learners make pronunciation errors of two types: those involving the articulation of phones (phonemes) and those involving the use of prosody (Hişmanoğlu, 2007). Prosody is represented by three distinct components in the acoustic signal: (a) fundamental frequency (pitch), (b) duration (speaking rate and timing), (c) intensity (amplitude or loudness). These components underlie the rhythm and intonation of speech. Phone correction is important during the first year of language study because proper articulatory habits enhance the intelligibility of students' speech. But intelligible speech does not rest solely on correct phones. After the first year of study, pronunciation correction must definitely shift to prosody. Because it is the appropriate prosody which guides the flow of speech in a way to improve intelligibility even when phone targets are not reached (Celce Murcia & Goodwin, 1991).

After year one, pronunciation correction centers almost entirely work on prosody (Eskenazi, 1996). Even when phone targets are not reached, correct prosody guides the flow of speech in a way that affords comprehension. And the measures of what the speaker needs to improve on must have distinct elements that can be practiced and understood. Promising work in this domain includes comparison of language rhythm constructs (Tajima, 1996) and work on automatic detection of the sentence accent (Sautermeister, 1996).

While correcting oral mistakes made during class discussions, there are basically two schools of thought: 1) Correcting them often and thoroughly 2) Letting beginning students make mistakes and correcting advanced students often (Moraeas, 2008). Many teachers take a third route which is called the 'selective correction'. In this case, the teacher decides to correct only certain errors. Finally, many teachers also choose to correct students *after* the fact. Teachers take notes on common mistakes that students make. During the follow-up correction session the teacher then presents common mistakes made so that all can benefit from an analysis of which mistakes were made and why (Beare, 2012).

Early prosody instruction, starting the first year of language study, could be a boon to learning both syntax and phone articulation (Jackson, 2011). Because speakers prepare the syntax of a sentence they want to say at about the same point as they prepare prosody, incorrect word order will not fit the "song" that it is to be sung to. Self-correction then comes into play as students rearrange syntax to give a better fit to prosody. (Because the "song" is considered as a whole and the syntax as a concentration of elements, the student should tend to rearrange syntax and not prosody.) Phones may benefit from early prosody training, for example, in the case of stressed and unstressed vowels in English. If a target vowel is unstressed and the Turkish speaker uses a tense (stressed) vowel that is close to the target in articulatory space, self-correction should follow because the speaker's longer tense vowel will not "fit the song" well (Eskenazi, 1996). For example, if the stressed "this" in the sentence "I want **'THIS** present" is shorter and softer than the surrounding vowels, the student will automatically correct the prosody by its context with help of such other examples as in "**'THIS** is yours," where the word is not so short and the speaker must make more effort to retain the shortened form just learned (Eskenazi, 1996).

Such prosody correction systems called CALL and FLUENCY use visual displays on more than oral instructions which will be critical to prosody correction by curves on displays. For example, Video Voice (Micro Video, 1989) uses histograms to represent intensity (over time) and xy curves for pitch (over time).

Correcting prosody is at least as important as correcting phones (Accoustics, 2012). When listening to a foreign speaker, it is not uncommon to hear a sentence with correct phones and syntax that is hard to understand because of prosody errors. Yet we also hear sentences with correct prosody and faulty phones or syntax that we understand perfectly well. It should be assumed that suprasegmental (prosodic) aspects of speech should be tied to segmental (phonemic) information—for example, by showing pitch trajectories (contours over segments) and pitch anchor points (centers of stressed vowels). In a prosody error detection Project called SPELL researchers deal with speech rhythm by showing segmental duration and acoustic features of vowel quality (predicting strong vs. weak vowels) (Seter, 2012).

5 The Methodology for Teaching Rhythm

In order to establish efficient oral communication in English, the key is to pronounce it clearly and naturally by using the correct pattern of rhythm. The first step in teaching English rhythm is to make students aware of stress points within sentences. The students' problems with the word rhythm of English are that they often misplace the stress and give each syllable, whether it is stressed or unstressed having the same length; thus, the vowels in the unstressed syllables are not reduced. As for their problems with the sentence rhythm of English, one is that they put stress on too many words, for they don't know what kinds of words need to be emphasized; the other is that they tend to separate words during speech without linking them together. In order to help such students speak English naturally, their English teachers should pay more attention to teaching the rhythm of English (Lin, 2012).

All students learn that long words, such as "impossible," carry at least one stressed point (im**'POSS**ible) as well as individual words within sentences either as primary or secondary prominence on certain syllables. Teacher Joe uses the following sentences to illustrate this point when he teaches: 1. **'JOE ,*LIKES* 'JOKES.** (3 syllables, 3 stress points) 2. ,**KATHY 'ISN'T ,HUNG**ry**.** (6 syllables, 3 stress points) 3. A**,MAN**da **'DOESN'T** like **'EL**ephants. (9 syllables, 3 stress points) (Teaching Rhythm, 2012). He says these sentences to his students slowly, letting them hear that all three take about the same amount of time. So, as a feature of the English language, the key to its rhythm is the number of stress points and NOT the number of syllables! And then he lets his students practice them. Here are four ways that Teacher Joe often uses in his pronunciation class:

1. Repeats and Claps – He leads his students by clapping his hands with each stress point; repeats until all students can follow along and makes it like a song!

2. Repeats with Body Movements – He moves his body up with each stress point; makes it seem like a silly dance; his students laugh at this, but they always remember!

3. Marks the Stress Points – He gives his students five or six sentences on a sheet of paper; his students must listen and put a dot over each stress point; he gives feedback and has his students repeat each sentence out loud at the end.

4. Counts the Stress Points – He reads five sentences or play them from a CD or cassette tape. His students must write down how many stress points there are in each sentence. He does the first sentence quickly as an example, then goes through the rest rather quickly. (It is better if students write the

number on a piece of paper, rather than say the number out loud, because it forces all students to listen carefully!) (Teaching Rhythm, 2012).

As a general rule, English tries to avoid having stresses too close together. Knowing which syllables should be stressed, using weak pronunciation forms, linking word up and using the correct intonation patterns, among others, will help our students pronounce English sentences with a correct rhythm, especially when reciting nursery rhymes, poems and singing songs. Students should watch such suprasegmental features as pitch, primary, secondary patterns in though groups broken by junctures (Phonemic Awareness, 2012).

“**,HICK**ory **'DICK**ory ,**DOCK** → The **'MOUSE** ran␣,***UP*** the **'CLOCK ↓” “,*DO*␣**it → ac**'**CORD**ing to ***,PLAN*** **↓**” “I’d ***,LIKE*** to → **'CASH**␣a ***,CHECK*** **↓” “,GIVE** me → a **'BURG**er with **,CHEESE ↓”** “,**HE**’d **,RATH**er → **'TAKE** the **,BUS ↓”** “**'WHO** is the **,MAN** → I **,SHOULD 'SEE** ↗” “**,I’ll 'HAVE** her → **'CALL** you **,BACK** ↓” (Grant, 1993)

In order to help his students to understand the relationship between stress and meaning Teacher Jo could have his students work in pairs. While Student 1 is saying sentence (a) or (b), Student 2 has to identify a stressed syllable and make an intelligent guess by choosing an appropriate answer: 1. (a) Is it ele**men**tary? No, it’s advanced. (b) Is it a **le**mon tree? No, an orange tree.
2. (a) What’s for **rain**? An umbrella. (b) What’s **for**eign? Another language.
3. (a) Is that **Eu**rope? No, it’s China. (b) Is that your **rope**? No, it’s hers
(Gilbert, 1993).

Learners of English as a foreign language must be introduced as early as possible to the rhythm of the new language they encounter, which is an unavoidable requirement of the oral communication (Maniruzzaman, 2012). However it is unfortunate that such learners are often introduced first to written forms and the complexities of spelling. Learners whose mother tongue is phonemic or syllable-timed like Turkish have particular problems when it comes to the rhythm in English. Pronunciation teachers of English should therefore remember to provide their students with natural models of the new target language before introducing them the written form. They must use natural language themselves in the classroom, encourage their learners to listen carefully to authentic speech. They must teach them recognition before production. They must integrate rhythm and other aspects of phonology into grammar, vocabulary and functional language lessons as well as listening and speaking activities. They must do relevant drills (especially backchaining), physical movement (finger-clicking, clapping, tapping, jumping) in time to the rhythm of the sentence. They must focus on stress in short dialogues (kn you? Yes I can). They must invent short dialogues, paying attention to stress and rhythm by focusing on short utterances with distinctive stress and intonation patterns and a specific rhythm (long numbers, phone numbers, football results etc.). They must recite jazz chants, poems, rhymes and tongue-twisters (limericks are good at higher levels); sing along with them popular songs (the rhythm of English lends itself to rock and pop music, while rap involves fitting words into distinct beat). Jazz chants, with their inherent natural rhythm provide for students practice the sentence rhythm with their clear and strong one-two-three-four beat (Graham, 1992).

Because phonology is a system, learners cannot achieve a natural rhythm in speech without understanding the stress-timed nature of the language and the interrelated components of stress, connected speech and intonation. It is important to remember that there is a place for phonology in nearly every lesson. Rhythm is both a feature of and product of the phonological structure of English. The phonology of any language is a system, so that a change in one part of the system will affect some or all of the other parts. The inclusion of speech rhythm in many pronunciation teaching materials is an aim to help learners acquire English rhythm, with its perceived tendency towards stress timing, particularly if their first language is one with a tendency towards syllable timing. In stress-timed speech rhythm, stressed syllables are perceived as occurring at regular time intervals, which leads to a

variation in the duration of syllables, or, more accurately, vowels in syllables. In syllable-timed rhythm, each syllable is perceived as a single rhythmic beat, with less variation in syllable duration (Pike 1945; Abercrombie 1967; Grabe and Low 2002).

A decision over whether Speech Rhythm should be included into a syllabus for teaching English pronunciation is (at least) two-fold (Reed, 2012). First, it needs to consider what the role of speech rhythm is in interaction, and what therefore the interactional gain would be for non-native speakers in acquiring native-like speech rhythm. Ways to resolve the various problems, such as missing final consonants, misplaced stress in sentences, and misused intonation patterns, should be discussed in the three areas of pronunciation: sounds, stress & rhythm, and intonation. Activities related to the correction of these errors are designed to meet students' different learning styles, namely auditory, visual, tactile, and kinesthetic learning. In this way, the goal of the "learner-centered" classroom is hoped to be pragmatically achieved (Lin, 2012).

6 Conclusion

Intonation and rhythm patterns go a long way in carrying the meaning across in English. One can be speaking with perfect pronunciation, but when the stress is put on the wrong syllable, the whole statement may go without being understood. Proficient pronunciation is essential to language learning because below a certain level of rhythm consciousness, even if grammar and vocabulary have been mastered, communication simply cannot take place. So English teachers must integrate rhythm and other aspects of phonology into grammar, vocabulary and functional language lessons as well as listening and speaking activities. Learners cannot achieve a natural rhythm in speech without understanding the stress-timed nature of the language and the interrelated components of stress, connected speech and intonation. Correcting prosody is at least as important as correcting phones. When listening to a foreign speaker, it is not uncommon to hear a sentence with correct phones and syntax that is hard to understand because of prosody errors. Yet we also hear sentences with correct prosody and faulty phones or syntax that we understand perfectly well. In order to establish efficient oral communication, the key is to pronounce English clearly and naturally by using the correct pattern of rhythm. The first step in teaching English rhythm is to make students aware of stress points within sentences. As a precaution to better rhythm skills on the part of learners of English as a foreign language, they must be introduced as early as possible to the rhythm of the target language. Only thus they could be skilled in the oral communication in it. The teachers attempting to correct their students' fossilized rhythm disorders must do relevant drills, physical movement in time to the rhythm of the sentence. They must focus on stress in short dialogues. They must recite jazz chants, poems, rhymes and tongue-twisters; sing along with their students some popular songs. The inclusion of speech rhythm in many pronunciation teaching materials is a sure method to help learners acquire English rhythm, with its perceived tendency towards stress timing. Many activities related to the correction of rhthm errors are designed to meet students' different learning styles, namely auditory, visual, tactile, and kinesthetic learning. In this way, the goal of the "learner-centered" classroom is hoped to be pragmatically achieved. Several modern prosody correction systems such as CALL and FLUENCY should be used in computerized pronunciation activities on the the visual display through curves to support the oral instructions in the classroom for prosody correction.

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PERCEPTIONS OF EDUCATION INTERNS ON THE MANAGEMENT OF CLASSROOM BEHAVIORS

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ABSTRACT
Teacher quality is one of the most important indicators of students' academic achievement. Lack of preparation is cited as one of the reasons why teachers leave their teaching profession.According to literature, teachers believe that students with disabilities in inclusive settings may detract from the instructional time as such students might be slow learners and have behavior problems and will require educators with specialized teaching skills. The participants of the study included students from an education faculty during their final semesters.Quantitative research methods were employed to examine interns' readiness and knowledge of evidence-based practices to manage classroom behaviors for students with disabilities in inclusive classrooms. The findings suggested that there was evidence that some teaching interns felt uncertain of their ability to manage classroom behaviors.Many participants expressed that they were uncertain about how they may cope with the pressures of classroom behavior management.

Key words: Teacher preparation, behavior management, teacher internship, inclusive education

Introduction

Several laws about students in special education have been mandated to provide effective and appropriate education. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EHA) was enacted in 1975 to stress the importance of mainstreamed educational settings. One of the important purposes of the act was to provide least restrictive environment for students in special education programs. Such laws has dramatically increased the demands that all teachers encounter in the educational settings. According to EHA, schools needed to establish a continuum of placement options (Kavale and Forness, 2000). In 2001, the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) was enacted as it required classroom teachers to teach more complex curriculum to the growing number of public school students who are economically disadvantaged and have difficulty in reaching educational resources at home (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

Inclusive education is a philosophy and educational approach, which provides learning opportunities for both students with disabilities and those without disabilities (Idol, 2006). Inclusive environments allows educators to incorporate students with disabilities into the regular learning settings rather than exclude them from these environments (Norwich, 1999). According to research, the centerpiece of inclusive education is the academic success of all students (Dukes and Lamar-Dukes, 2006). Teacher interns have developed an opinion that having students with special needs in the classrooms will be very challenging for new teachers (Polloway, Patton, and Dowdy, 2001). They believe that students with special needs would detract from the instructional time as theymight be slow learners and have behavior problems and will need educators with specialized teaching skills. However, research suggests that students in inclusive classrooms would consistently benefit from such settings compared to those receiving special education services in segregated settings (Booth, Ainscow, Black-Hawkins, Vaughan, andShaw, 2000; Kalambouka, Farrell, Dyson, andKaplan, 2005). Studies have indicated that teachers teaching in inclusive settings should not be concerned about having students with special needs as students with disabilities in such settings perform closer to students without disabilities on classroom tasks and achievement tests (Wagner, Newman, Cameto, andLevine, 2003).

Some of current research shows that teacher interns have the feelings of incapability about adequacy and preparedness in the classrooms (Katz, 1972). In addition, they have established substantial concerns about their inadequacy in classroom management (Burden, 1979; Fuller, 1969; Fuller and Brown, 1975; Katz, 1972). These concerns have been the focus of some of the educational institutions to not only examine the outcomes of their teacher programs, but assess the strategies that lead to such

outcomes (Slavin, 2007). These measures are crucial with respect to teachers' teaching and classroom management readiness (Cooper, Kurtts, Baber, and Vallecorsa, 2008).According Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), teacher education programs have focused on improving teacher effectiveness, providing information to educators and families to improve students' learning, implementing college standards for better educational practices, and providing support for student achievement in the nation (ESEA, 1965). Along with EHA and NCLB acts, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA) of 2004 also stress the importance of developing content knowledge that helps regular education teachers and special education teachers improve their teaching strategies for diverse learners such as students receiving special education services (Boe, Shin, and Cook, 2007).

Having negative feelings towards teaching profession may affect teacher retention. Teachers leave their professions due to having difficulty in managing student behaviors and increasing students' academic achievement (Darling-Hammond, 2010).They also indicate that inadequate preparation for their classes may be a strong indicator for their leave as well (McKinney, Haberman, Stafford Johnson, and Robinson, 2008). Research suggests that teachers, who are successful in behavior and classroom management may establish an effective learning environment and remain in teaching profession for many years (Reschly and Holdheide, 2008).

Some research put emphasis on importance of evidence-based practices such as strategies to respond to discipline problems, reward appropriate student behaviors, observe students' academic success, maximize teaching content, and monitor expectations (Simonsen, Fairbank, Briesch, Myers, and Sugai, 2008). School districts in the US have been implementing evidence-based practices to support teachers in their classroom management strategies (Sugai and Horner, 2006). Although teachers in the field somewhat feel that they are ready to successfully address inappropriate student behaviors, it is difficult to indicate the same for teacher interns (Cooper et al.,2008). Teacher interns especially feel inadequate about students with disabilities in inclusive settings (Billingsley, Israel, and Smith, 2011; Regan and Michaud, 2011). They believe that having students with special needs in inclusive settings would require extra effort, time, and specialized teaching skills in various learning tasks. Therefore, some teacher preparation programs in the colleges create very dynamic curriculum for teacher interns so that they would not feel inadequate once they are in the field.

Purpose of the study

It is evident that teacher preparation programs focus on providing foundational strategies, which will serve as a capstone experience for teacher interns (Backhus and Thompson, 2006; Fernandez and Erbilgin, 2009; Kenny, 1998). Teacher interns obtain a teacher experience in the form of a semester-long internship. The internship usually take place in the final semester of teacher interns' baccalaureate study. By having the internship, teacher interns obtain an opportunity to refine their knowledge and successfully implement it in real-world situations. The aim of this study was to examine undergraduate teacher interns' preparedness when implementing classroom management strategies in inclusive classrooms. The study includes the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of readiness among teacher interns for managing the behaviors of students in inclusive classrooms?

2. How does the readiness of teacherinterns from different majors for managing the behaviors of students in inclusive classrooms differ from one another?

Table 1: Percentages of teacher interns participating in the study

Group	N	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Early Childhood Education	32	14.9	14.9
Elementary Education	42	19.5	34.4
English L.A. Education	44	20.5	54.9
Mathematics Education	34	15.8	70.7
Science Education	30	14.0	84.7
Social Sciences Education	33	15.3	100.0
Total	215	100.0	

Methodology

Setting

The survey was conducted at a large research university in the Midwestern United States, having an enrollment of 30,786 students. When the study took place, the college of education had an enrollment of 790 students. The number of faculty members were about 75. The college had the degree programs of Early Childhood Education, Elementary Education, Language Arts/English Education, Mathematics Education, Science Education, Social Sciences Education, Special Education, and World Language Education. Students from most of those programs participated in the study (Table 1).

Table 2: Percentages of genders participating in the study

Group	N	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	116	54.0	54.0
Male	99	46.0	100.0
Total	215	100.0	

Sample

A non-random sample was obtained in collaboration with the head of the Science Education Department. All students in the sample enrolled in a teaching internship program (N = 215).The sample included 116 female and 99 male participants (Table 2). A survey consisted of 15 questions was distributed to the participants. The participant were given enough time to answer all questions on the survey.

The Instrument

The surveyused in the study is called*thePre-Service Teachers' Perceptions of Readiness for Behavior Management*(PSTPRBM). The instrument included 15 items and was developed by Garland, Garland, and Vazquez (2013). They validated the survey items through factor analysis. Results indicated that the instrument had three factors: Factor 1 = Preparedness (items = 5, 6, 9, 1, and 10), Factor 2 = Accommodations (items = 8, 4, 2, 7, 13, and 14), and Factor 3 = Communication (items = 11, 3, 12, and 15).The rating scale of the instrument had five possible answers (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly agree).Before this study was conducted, the instrument was pilot tested for its reliability, and coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951) was found as .81.

Data Analysis

The study took place in a research university. The participants answered 15 questions on the survey. After the data were collected, they were imported into SPSS 20.0 for further analysis.The data were analyzed based on means, standard deviation, and ANOVA tests. The mean scores of each question

and subscales were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Perceptions of education interns from different majors were analyzed by ANOVA test.

Results

The findings of the study are presented according to the mean scores of education interns on each item of the PSTPRBM survey. In addition, the scores of teacher candidates from each teaching major are compared on the basis of preparedness, accommodation, and communication.

Table 3: Summary of ranges, means, and standard deviations on items of PSTPRBM survey

Group	N	Min-Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Q5	215	1-5	3.13	1.29
Q6	215	1-5	3.00	1.27
Q9	215	1-5	3.34	1.13
Q1	215	4-5	4.72	.44
Q10	215	3-5	4.26	.77
Q8	215	1-5	2.73	.89
Q4	215	2-5	3.39	1.03
Q2	215	2-5	4.13	.80
Q7	215	1-5	2.57	.98
Q13	215	1-5	3.87	.95
Q14	215	2-5	3.13	.83
Q11	215	1-5	3.97	.95
Q3	215	1-5	3.66	1.01
Q12	215	2-5	4.11	.83
Q15	215	1-5	3.36	1.11

Note.PSTPRBM = Pre-Service Teachers' Perceptions of Readiness for Behavior Management.

The mean values on each items showed that education interns scored the highest on item 1 (M =4.72, SD = .44) and lowest on item 6(M = 2.57, SD = .98) of the survey (see Table 3). Education interns had high scores on item 10 (M =4.26, SD = .77), item 2 (M =4.13, SD = .80), and item 12 (M =4.11, SD = .83), and low scores on item 8 (M =2.73, SD = .89).

Table 4: Summary of ranges, means, and standard deviations on subscales of PSTPRBM survey.

Group	N	Min-Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Preparedness	215	2.40-5.00	3.69	.49
Accommodations	215	2.17-4.33	3.30	.38
Communications	215	2.25-5.00	3.78	.51

Note.PSTPRBM = Pre-Service Teachers' Perceptions of Readiness forBehavior Management.

Education interns had different scores on the subscales-preparedness, accommodations, and communications- of PSTPRBM (see Table 4).They had highest mean score on communications (M = 3.78, SD = .51) and lowest mean score on accommodations (M = 3.30, SD = .38). Education interns also scored considerably high on preparedness (M = 3.69, SD = .49).

Table 5: One Way Anova test results between groups

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Preparedness	10.58	5	2.11	10.58	.000
Accommodations	6.92	5	1.38	11.97	.000
Communications	16.74	5	3.34	17.13	.000

Data analysis from Anova tests showed that there were significant differences on mean scores between education interns on preparedness with conditions F(5, 209) = 10.58, p = .00, $\eta 2$ = 10.58, on accommodations with conditions F(5, 209) = 11.97, p = .00, $\eta 2$ = 6.92, and on communications with conditions F(5, 209) = 17.13, p = .00, $\eta 2$ = 16.74(see Table 5).

Table 6: Multiple comparison between groups on Preparedness

Teacher		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Early Childhood Education	Elementary Education	.39*	.104	.003
	Mathematics Education	.58*	.110	.000
	Social Sciences Education	.71*	.110	.000
Elementary Education	Early Childhood Education	-.39*	.104	.003
	Social Sciences Education	.31*	.104	.028
English L.A. Education	Mathematics Education	.29*	.102	.043
	Social Sciences Education	.43*	.102	.001
Mathematics Education	Early Childhood Education	-.58*	.110	.000
	English L.A. Education	-.29*	.102	.043
Science Education	Social Sciences Education	.44*	.112	.001
Social Sciences Education	Early Childhood Education	-.71*	.110	.000
	Elementary Education	-.31*	.104	.028
	English L.A. Education	-.43*	.102	.001
	Science Education	-.44*	.112	.001

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Study findings showed that there were significant differences on mean scores of preparedness among education interns. Teacher candidates in Early Childhood Education obtained the highest mean scores (see Table 6).The difference on mean scores between Early Childhood Education teachers and Social Sciences Education teachers was the highest (p = .00). On the other hand, the difference on mean scores between English L.A. Education teachers and Mathematics Education teachers was the lowest (p = .043).

Table 7: Multiple comparison between groups on Accommodations

Teacher		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Early Childhood Education	Elementary Education	.23*	.079	.042
	English L.A. Education	.41*	.079	.000
	Mathematics Education	.59*	.083	.000
	Science Education	.36*	.086	.001
	Social Sciences Education	.43*	.084	.000
Elementary Education	Early Childhood Education	-.23*	.079	.042
	Mathematics Education	.35*	.078	.000
English L.A. Education	Early Childhood Education	-.41*	.079	.000
Mathematics Education	Early Childhood Education	-.59*	.083	.000
	Elementary Education	-.35*	.078	.000
Science Education	Early Childhood Education	-.36*	.086	.001
Social Sciences Education	Early Childhood Education	-.43*	.084	.000

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

After analyzing the multiple comparison results between each major, the results indicated that there were significant differences on mean scores of accommodations among education interns. Education interns in Early Childhood Education had the highest mean scores (see Table 7). The difference on mean scores between Early Childhood Education teachers and Mathematics Education teachers was the highest (p = .00). However, the difference on mean scores between Early Childhood Education teachers and Elementary Education was the lowest (p = .042).

Table 8: Multiple comparison between groups on Communications

Teacher		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Early Childhood Education	Mathematics Education	.35*	.108	.014
	Social Sciences Education	.93*	.109	.000
Elementary Education	Social Sciences Education	.68*	.102	.000
English L.A. Education	Social Sciences Education	.74*	.101	.000
Mathematics Education	Early Childhood Education	-.35*	.108	.014
	Social Sciences Education	.57*	.108	.000
Science Education	Social Sciences Education	.65*	.111	.000
Social Sciences Education	Early Childhood Education	-.93*	.109	.000
	Elementary Education	-.68*	.102	.000

English L.A. Education	-.74*	.101	.000
Mathematics Education	-.57*	.108	.000
Science Education	-.65*	.111	.000

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The multiple comparison results between each major showed that there were significant differences on mean scores of communications among education interns. Education interns in Early Childhood Education had the highest mean scores (see Table 8). The difference on mean scores between Early Childhood Education teachers and Social Sciences Education was the highest (p = .00). However, the difference on mean scores between Early Childhood Education teachers and Mathematics Education teachers was the lowest (p = .014).

Discussion

This study sought insight into teacher interns' perceptions of readiness for managing the behaviors of students in inclusive classrooms. Upon the analysis of the findings, some of the pre-service teachers had mixed feelings about their ability to manage classroom behaviors. Many of the participants stated that they were aware of the fact that students receiving special education services have legal rights. In addition, they suggested that they needed to be aware of students, who were on medication. Federal acts such as EHA require schools and teachers to understand the conditions of their students and establish a continuum of placement options (Kavale and Forness, 2000). On the other hand, many respondents expressed their mixed feelings about how they should provide opportunities for individual and group work on assignments. Teacher interns also indicated that they might have difficulty to understand whether seating arrangements of students may promote positive behaviors or negative behaviors in inclusive classrooms.In parallel findings, Katz (1972) found that teacher interns have the feelings of incapability about adequacy and preparedness. In addition, they have negative opinions about how inclusive settings may be challenging teaching environments as such places may require extra effort and specialized teaching skills from new teachers (Polloway et al., 2001).

Although the perceptions of readiness of teacher interns from different majors for managing the behaviors of students in inclusive classrooms differed from one another, many respondents suggested that having a more initial exposure could solidify foundational pedagogies of best practices in behavior management in inclusive classrooms. In addition, they expressed that they were uncertain about how they may cope with the pressures of classroom behavior management and whether they were confident enough to have ability to manage student behaviors. These findings mirror previous study findings which report the importance of evidence-based practices that include strategies to monitor student behaviors and to respond to discipline problems (Simonsen et al., 2008; Sugai and Horner, 2006). Such practices would help teacher interns to be successful in managing student behaviors and increase teacher retention (McKinney et al., 2008; Reschly and Holdheide, 2008).

In looking toward future studies on perceived readiness of teacher interns and given the state of available teacher programs, institutes of higher education may seek to develop and evaluate teacher preparation curricula that help teacher interns gain confidence in order to cope with managing student behaviors in inclusive classrooms. By utilizing effective teacher preparation curricula that allow teacher candidates to have immediate feedbacks about their behavior management skills, teacher interns may obtain a strong sense of belief to overcome discipline problems (Rock, Gregg, Gable, and Zigmond, 2009; Scheeler, McKinnon, and Stout, 2012). Possibilities may include having larger sample sizes from different colleges in order to be able to generalize study findings.

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