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- Social Sciences
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Manuscripts submitted may be based on research that is theoretical, practical, empirical, or exploratory.

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Roberto Bergami
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The Editors rely on comments received by the reviewers in the publication decision making process. Reviewers must not contact the authors directly, rather, they provide comments to the Editor-in-Chief for appropriate action. The process is summarised as follows:

- On receipt of double blind reviewer comment, the Editor-in-Chief consults with the Editors to reach a consensus decision in respect of reviewed articles.
- If the decision of the Editors is to proceed with publication based on the double blind review process, the Editor-in-Chief will contact the corresponding author, providing them with anonymous feedback from the reviewers.
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- It is the author’s responsibility to make alternations to their original submitted articles in accordance with the reviewer’s comments, to the satisfaction of the Editors. This process should result in an enhanced publication.

Reviewers are expected to act promptly in respect of any article assigned to them and are to notify the Editor-in-Chief immediately in respect of any conflict of interest whatsoever (real or perceived), or to be excused from a review assignment because they do not feel appropriately qualified to do the process justice. The Editors will assign alternate reviewers in these circumstances.

As reviewer reports are a critical component of the publication decision process, reviewers are expected to provide explanations for changes required, supporting their arguments as clearly and fully as possible to allow authors the maximum opportunity to make appropriate changes to their work. Reviews should be conducted on the merit of a paper, disregarding opposing ideologies and without personal criticism of authors, as such conduct is considered inappropriate.

Reviewers are expected to check that all resource materials have been duly referenced and to disclose in their report any substantial similarities discovered between the work under review and other published materials they are aware of.
Dear Readers and Friends of the Forum,

This issue of the journal represents, once again, our work in education and culture throughout the world. One of our main goals is to create awareness among people of all nations that we share a common purpose in our desire to understand one another. In addition, we reach out to educators and professionals to share concepts and practices that are universal. Above all, our yearly congress in Rome encourages individuals to meet and discuss ways to help succeeding generations create a truly global community.

Thus far, we have had representatives from more than 60 nations attend one or more of our forums. As a result, new friendships have been established. Each year, more and more people from different countries present the result of their combined scholarship. We are grateful to the authors of the papers in this journal for their continued effort to work together in spite of distance and difference.

Along with research, we are actively involved in community service in various parts of the world. In January 2014, the Worldwide Forum on Education and Culture began a joint venture with the International Committee for the Development of People (CISP), a non-governmental agency based in Rome, to help with the newest initiative: the Ethiopia Project, which provides various classroom supplies for schools in the Liben region. We hope this will be the first of many such partnerships. For more information on CISP, please see the keynote address by Mr. Paolo Dieci, senior policy advisor, who was one of the keynote speakers for 2013.

Our special thanks to those who submitted papers for this journal as well as to those who have attended our meetings in Rome. Our success, and our future, depend on individuals in all walks of life who are dedicated to improving conditions and education for people everywhere.

Sincerely,

Bruce C. Swaffield, Ph.D.
Founder and Director,
The Worldwide Forum on Education and Culture
Dear Readers of the Journal of the Worldwide Forum on Education and Culture,

On behalf of the Editors and the Editorial Board, I present you with the fifth volume of the Journal.

The Journal is a multi-disciplinary international publication, available online, that accepts manuscripts based on research that is theoretical, practical, empirical, or exploratory.

The authors of the featured titles in this issue come from different countries spread across the continents, a truly global representation. Likewise, our Editorial Board features scholars from three continents.

The collection of works in this edition represents a sample of the academic papers presented at the XII Worldwide Forum on Education and Culture held in Rome between 4 and 6 December, 2013. These particular papers were chosen by the Editorial Board, for inclusion in this edition of the Journal, after a double-blind review process involving at least two reviewers.

Much time and effort went into the preparation of this issue of the Journal. From the planning stages, the development of reviewing criteria, to the authors who submitted high calibre papers, to the reviewers who diligently carried out their task of providing valuable feedback, and to the authors again for submitting the final revised version of their research.

There are too many to thank individually, but I express my gratitude collectively to all who have worked so hard to make the Journal become a reality. I especially acknowledge the contribution and the constant dedication to the Forum by Professor Bruce Swaffield.

The Editorial Board decided to take a different approach from this volume in terms of formatting, allowing authors some latitude in choosing their preferred style, as long as consistency was maintained. We believe this acknowledges and recognises differences among the authors that come different backgrounds and cultures.

I encourage all the readers to consider making their own contributions in future editions of the Journal.

Sincerely,

Roberto Bergami
Editor-in-Chief
December 2013
Statement by IFAD President at the 12th Annual Worldwide forum on Education and Culture, Rome, Italy

A global renaissance for education: multiculturalism in the new age

Kanayo F. Nwanze, President, The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), Rome, Italy

Distinguished speakers,

Ladies and gentlemen,

It is an honour to be here at this forum on education and culture. Although my work is focused mainly on agriculture and rural development, I have been struck by how many of the topics scheduled for the next two days are also pertinent to my work.

War and conflict, migration, the evolving role of women, the dynamics of diversity – and, of course, multiculturalism – these are all important topics in the world where I work. For those of you not familiar with the International Fund for Agricultural Development, let me quickly introduce my institution.

IFAD is both a United Nations agency and an International Financial Institution. This actually makes us unique in the worlds of finance and development.

IFAD is one of the three Rome-based United Nations agencies. The others are the Food and Agricultural Organization, which is the United Nations’ biggest food agency; and the World Food Programme, which specializes in emergency food aid and food assistance.

IFAD, at age 35, is the youngest of the three. Our focus is exclusively on rural and agricultural development, creating the conditions for poor rural people to grow and sell more food, increase their incomes and determine the direction of their own lives.

IFAD has long recognized that rural people need their own institutional structures. As agriculture is their primary source of income and livelihood, it must be seen as a dignified economic activity no matter how small. What we call “subsistence agriculture” is basically a romanticizing of an under-performing agricultural system. Farming is a business. Farmers, no matter how small their farms, need appropriate capacities, learning routes and access to a range of facilities and services.

They need access to inputs and financial services, and paved roads to get their goods to market, and processing and storage facilities for what they don’t sell immediately after harvest.

They need training in livestock and crop management, and to develop their capacity to manage their farms. And, of course, they need solid links to markets. International development is about creating the conditions for these small businesses to grow and thrive.

It may not surprise you that my training is as an agricultural entomologist, and I spent thirty years doing research in the field before moving into the world of international development. My career has taken me to all parts of the world. Learning and working in multinational and multicultural environments.
Multiculturalism is, of course, a hallmark of the United Nations. IFAD has 172 Member States and employs people from 93 countries. We work in 96 countries, across Africa, Asia and Latin America. Myself, I am a Nigerian national, but as I just said, I have lived and worked in Asia, North America and Europe, as well as in Africa.

While I would not presume to lecture a group of educators on how to teach, the lessons I have learned over the decades are as applicable to the world of education as they are to the world of development. In fact, they are universal to anyone who wants to make a difference in this world.

The first is to use your knowledge – apply it and share it – and not only will you do well for yourself but you will help make the world a better place.

As a research scientist, it gave me joy to work in the lab, and pleasure when my papers were published. Knowledge can grow and have an impact only when it is shared. But as a development practitioner, I have also learned that research for the sake of research -- as a purely intellectual exercise -- is wasteful and pointless. Knowledge, particularly research, must have an application if it is going to change the world.

This leads to my second lesson, that we must always be aware that knowledge is not the exclusive domain of those with a degree in higher education.

At IFAD, we work with some of the most marginalized and disadvantaged populations in the world, living in areas that are difficult to reach, often in fragile situations and degraded environments.

Many of the people we work with have not had access to much formal education. Indeed, teaching basic literacy and numeracy is a feature of many IFAD-supported projects. Yet their knowledge of local conditions and of what their communities need is far deeper than that of the experts who parachute in for a few weeks or months.

Local people have local knowledge. They know the times of flooding, the high water marks, and which crops and livestock respond best during droughts. They understand the complex social dynamics that can sometimes impede development efforts.

And more than that, they are often very innovative, finding creative solutions to complex problems despite having few resources and little education.

At IFAD, we consult with local people from the beginning, accessing their know-how and then helping them build on it. Over the past three decades we have learned that our work can only be effective when it respects local knowledge and responds to local needs and desires. Anyone who hopes to change the world must recognize that development is not something that is done to people but something that is done by people for themselves. Poor people have as much pride as you and I. They need to be partners in their own development. Failing to respect this is an insult to their dignity, at best, and at worst leads to cultures of dependency.

The third lesson from the field is that it is critical to understand the conditions on the ground. And by this I mean the political, social and environmental conditions. Each is equally important.
One of IFAD’s most encouraging examples is a project in northern Pakistan, which started in 1998. The project has brought new roads, clean water, new crops, livestock and literacy to an area that previously had not been reached by development efforts. But it was not easy. The community was very isolated and, frankly, suspicious. At first there was strong and sometimes violent resistance. The microfinance element of the project and the formation of women’s groups were seen by some as un-Islamic.

It took four years of project staff working with community leaders to allow for the local people to realize that the project was not there to attack their religion or their culture. Gradually the project was accepted.

Today, the community has been transformed. People are growing more food, earning more money and educating their children. About 140 women’s organisations have been formed and women are starting small businesses. And the community’s young people have little interest in joining extremist groups that have flourished elsewhere in the region.

Although the project officially closed in 2008, the momentum for self-development has continued.

And here, let me break with the “rule of three” and add a fourth lesson. And that is – do not be afraid to think small. Sometimes, the simplest ideas are the best.

Recently, I visited a project in Morocco where IFAD had helped finance a three kilometer feeder road. The road was intended to reduce transportation costs. And it did. But it did so much more. A group of women from the village of Ouaouisseft told me about the hours they were now saving on transporting water. With this new and precious time, they were able to grow and sell herbs and medicinal plants. And they had even started a childcare facility in their village so that they could earn more money without their children being neglected.

In my own country, Nigeria, a programme has trained vulnerable young people in aquaculture and fish farming in a part of the country previously known for its violence. The young farmers have found that they enjoy a sense of belonging, and of taking responsibility for their vegetable plots and fish farms. Vegetable consumption in their community has improved. These young people have become role models, and today are contributing to stability and wealth creation in their communities.

At IFAD, it is our firm belief that the rural areas of our planet hold the key to solving some of the most critical challenges facing humanity. Developing these areas is central to overcoming hunger and poverty, mitigating climate change and contributing to peace and well-being. Bringing education to these areas – and being willing to learn from people whose learning comes from experience, not books – is a crucial part of the process.

I wish you a productive and informative two days.

Thank you.

A copy of this speech may also be found at: http://www.ifad.org/events/op/2013/education.htm#
Key Note Speech
12th Annual Worldwide Forum on Education and Culture
Rome, Italy

Paolo Dieci, Senior Policy Advisor, CISP (Comitato Internazionale per lo Sviluppo dei Popoli), Roma, Italy

Thanks to Bruce Swaffield and to the staff of the Worldwide Forum on Education and Culture for having invited me to this important event, providing me with the opportunity to present my organization and some activities related to education.

I will articulate my presentation in three parts: a) a short overview of CISP, which in English stands for International Committee for the Development of Peoples; b) approaches to education in African pastoral areas, with special reference to Ethiopia; c) approaches to education in a globalised world here in Europe.

1. What is CISP

The International Committee for the Development of People (CISP) is an Italian Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) established in 1983, with its head office in Rome. CISP’s principles and objectives are summarized in its Declaration of Intent and Code of Conduct for Cooperation Programmes. The Declaration of Intent entitled “For Rights and Against Poverty, approaches and operational priorities of CISP” has been elaborated with the contributions of the Rome Office and of all CISP’s offices in third countries.

Currently CISP has an annual overall budget of around 18 Million Euros and it is structured through the HQs in Rome and 23 country offices in Africa, Latin America and Caribbean countries, Europe, Asia and Middle East.

In cooperation with various local partners, CISP has carried out and carries out projects in the areas of humanitarian assistance, rehabilitation and development in more than 30 countries in Africa, Latin America, Middle East, Asia and East Europe. The Declaration of Intent identifies CISP priority areas of action as follows: a) The right to social and economic security: income generation opportunities, migration and development, food security, b) the right to health and access to water and sanitation; c) the right to future: the rights of children, adolescents and youth and the protection of the environment and natural resources; d) the right to humanitarian assistance: emergency and first reconstruction aid; e) support of public policies on social cohesion and civil society.

In the European Union countries, CISP implements projects focused on training, global citizenship education, fight against racism and social exclusion, promotion of international solidarity, and support of initiatives to enhance the role of Diasporas in the development of their countries of origin.

In close collaboration with the Institute for Advanced Study of Pavia (IUSS) at the University of Pavia and two other NGOs, CISP successfully established the Cooperation and Development School of Pavia in 1997.
Since 1997, CISP offers access to higher education training programs in the field of international co-operation in Pavia, Cartagena (Colombia), Nairobi (Kenya) and Bethlehem (Palestine).

In CISP’s view, education is primarily a universal human right; along this line our efforts are addressed towards two interconnected goals: to remove the obstacles hampering access to education of vulnerable and neglected communities and to improve education standards.

2. Education in Pastoral Areas: the case of Ethiopia

CISP gives absolute priority to education and schooling. In contexts where a large part of the population is excluded from school systems because of marginal status and poverty, CISP, with public and private partners, promotes innovative initiatives based on the logic that “where children are unable to go to school, school has to reach children”.

Statistical data of the last ten years show that also in countries recording very good achievements in the Millennium Development Goals related to education (the second and the third), enrolment and attendance are still low in pastoral areas.

For instance, in the Liben zone, in the Somali Regional State of Ethiopia, it is estimated that only 22% of school age children attend primary school. This percentage is even lower among the girls and this reality is against a national enrolment rate for primary education in Ethiopia of over 94 percent.

The Liben zone constitutes one of the nine units of the Somali National Regional State of Ethiopia. It is located at the south-western part of the state, which, after Oromia, is the second largest one of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia.

Livestock is the main source of livelihood for a population of about 1 million. Formal education is not well accepted by the pastoral communities, since it does not meet their needs, in terms of curricula, timing, distance of facilities from places where people is living. Realizing the difficulty of achieving universal primary education through formal schooling alone, the Government of Ethiopia has adopted “Alternative Routes to Basic Education”.

Accordingly, alternative basic education (ABE) was expanded. The ABE system responds to the urgent need for an education that suits the special needs and constraints of pastoral life. It provides flexible school hours, allowing pastoral children to fulfil their household responsibilities while still finding time for school. The teachers are familiar with the community, and understand the pastoral lifestyle.

ABE has extended enrolment in the country in less than three years (2006/07-2008/09) to over 900,000 children contributing additional 7-8 percent coverage to the Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) for primary education (Education Statistics Annual Abstract).

Generally, the ABE approach has great potential for reaching the out of school children aged 7-14 and particularly the girls. In the ABE centres time-tables and teaching subjects are developed in consultation with local communities in accordance with their needs.
In practical terms ABE centres are community primary education facilities recognised by the formal education system, allowing access to education to poor pastoral and agro pastoral children living in remote areas.

The main challenges to be faced regarding access to education in pastoral areas can be summarised as follows:

• The low economic status of pastoralists that severely limits their capacity to support the education system financially and materially;
• The deterrent impact of mobility and low density of population that makes the building of infrastructures and social services (road, water, health, education, etc) difficult;
• Inequitable distribution of educational services between urban and rural areas, as well as among districts of pastoralist regions;
• Low level of awareness on the importance of education and reluctance to send girls to school on the part of pastoralists;
• Occasional conflicts among different clans that arise from scarcity of pasture and water, and the subsequent displacement of families and dropping-out of school on the part of students;
• The vulnerability of pastoralist areas to repeated drought and food shortage which in turn forces students to drop-out of school in many areas where the problem is acute and school feeding program is not put in place;
• The demand for child labour in the various economic activities of the household; and
• Low managerial capacity on the part of the majority of officials and professionals at various levels of the regional education structure to execute their respective jobs efficiently.

Against the underlined constraints, some strategic choices have proven to impact successfully on both enrolment and attendance of pastoralist children, such as:

• The implementation of decentralized administrative and education system at district level and the consequent reduction of the bureaucratic ups and downs;
• The enhancement of community participation and sense of ownership in developmental activities;
• The availability of clear policy directions and strategies;
• The prevalence of conducive policy directions that encourage local and international NGOs to be engaged in pastoralist education along with the government;
• The delivery of training in good governance to local administrators;
• The development of strategies to improve community participation in school management; and
• The allocation of resources to non-salary recurrent education expenditures, in particular ABE, curricula development and training.

3. Approaches to education in a globalised world in Europe

The second case study that I present is related to one project, co-funded by the European Commission under the initiative Global Learning in the Formal Education System. The title of the project, which has duration of three years, is “Critical review of the historical and social disciplines for a formal education suited to the global society”.

The project is co-implemented by various partners in Italy, Austria, Ireland, The Netherland, Bulgaria and Czech Republic.

Through a continuous exchange between the different European NGO partners and the involved schools, the project is developing in 6 European countries didactical materials and
educational experimentations of teaching history and social subjects in a new way. The overall aim of this new methodology is to promote the understanding of global interdependence, of the causes of poverty and international inequality.

Specifically the project will promote the adoption, in European schools, of Global Learning’s issues and methodologies in the core curricula of social and historical disciplines. The assumption is that a non-eurocentric vision of the global society will help to develop a new culture of international relations and to foster a public debate closer to the global problems (primarily poverty and international inequality).

The project is being addressed towards the achievement of two kinds of results; on one side the expected impact is on the teachers skills and attitudes, on the other side the main targets are the local authorities and institutions in charge for education.

More specifically the project is developing the following lines of activities:
- a survey on the state of the art concerning the relationship between school disciplines and development education issues in 200 schools of 6 countries;
- international seminars involving 450 teachers addressed to develop a better understanding of the development issues and their link to social historical subjects;
- elaboration and endorsement by the involved schools of new teaching materials based on subjects like history, geography, social sciences;
- development in 112 schools of innovative teaching experiments in order to test the appropriateness of the teaching materials;
- final endorsement of the teaching materials by the competent local authorities; and
- creation of a permanent consultation and co-ordination transnational mechanism among the six involved countries on the integration of development issues into the secondary schools didactical curricula.

Ultimately, the project seeks to place as “core business” of the formal educational systems the development education, which is conceptualized as ”a permanent educational process aimed at increasing awareness and understanding of the rapidly changing, interdependent and unequal world in which we live”.

It seeks to engage people in analysis, reflection and action for local and global citizenship and participation. It is about supporting people in understanding and in acting to transform the social, cultural, political and economic structures which affect their lives and the lives of others at personal, community, national and international levels.

To this end, formal education has to evolve, in its teaching methodologies and approaches, being addressed to:
- foster an appreciation of the diversity of cultures and life styles
- promote mutual understanding and respect for the diversity of peoples and cultures that share this planet
- understand how humans can responsibly use of the natural resources of the earth for the production of food and non-food materials
- critically evaluate the impact of scientific, technological and economic progress
- engage critically with information and be able to recognise perspective, bias or prejudice.
4. Final remarks

The two experiences presented are totally differentiated in terms of contests of implementation, target, and methodologies. The first is about the right to education in pastoral areas and the focus is on tailoring educational activities in a way that can guarantee access to pastoral children and particularly girls.

The second experience is about European schools and the focus is on evolving the formal education system in a way that can allow young generations to better understand and manage the dynamics prevailing in a globalised world.

Should I indicate a single word to unify the two cases I would say: right. Right to education, right to understand the environment, right to get instruments and tools to cope with the dynamics of the society where the children and the young people live and grow.
The current study investigates the difference between male and female children’s using the six types of processes (material, mental, and relational processes as the main ones and verbal, existential and behavioral processes as the subsidiary ones) in experiential metafunction proposed in Halliday's(2004) Functional Grammar. To this end, 100 Persian stories written by children between 5-12 years of age and archived in Children's Book Council were selected randomly. The stories were investigated sentence by sentence and the processes inherent in the verbs of the clauses were determined. Then the frequency of occurrence of all six types of processes and their percentage on the texts were calculated. The collected data were analyzed using independent t-test. The results indicate that boys and girls differ significantly in their use of two of the main processes namely material and relational. Boys tend to use more material processes while girls use more relational ones in their stories. The participants' difference in making use of mental as well as the subsidiary processes is not significant. The use of more material processes by boys match their natural tendency towards having more physical movements and the application of more relational verbs by girls signify their being more concerned about relationships between people, things and phenomena. The findings of the current study can be useful in deciding on language teaching programs for the two genders.

Keywords: gender differences; Systemic Functional Grammar; experiential metafunction; process types

Introduction

Male and female differences have long been investigated by many researchers from several perspectives such as behavior, cognition, social relations, plays, language use and acquisition, world view, etc. the results have long been admitting or refuting the existence of any difference between the two sexes. The reasons and explanations and interpretations proposed for the differences are many. To get a closer look at this complicated issue researchers need to consider social and psychological, genetic predisposition and physiological factors. This study intended to delve into the two genders’ differences in capturing and expressing their experiences in their childhood story writing. Halliday and Mattheissen (2004) propose that humans talk about their experiences by making use of experiential metafunction of language. Experientially, a clause reports and represents changes in the world through processes, participants, and any attendant circumstances. The process component of the clause is located in the verb which unfolds through time. There are six process types in Systemic Functional Grammar. This research investigated how boys and girls between 5-12 years of age use these six types of processes to talk about their experiences in their stories.

Linguist framework

Language is the greatest window to human mind, and as such, it opens new horizons to understand the nature of the difference between males and females through investigating the way language is perceived, interpreted, produced and implemented by the two sexes we can
better understand their underlying differences. Linguistic investigation of the texts produced by males and females can mirror the differences in their mind, cognition and behaviour.

Bloor and Bloor (2004) believe that

The linguistic analysis of texts has many practical applications above and beyond knowledge about language for its own sake. It can help us to find out why some texts are more effective than other texts at communication or persuasion. It can help us to understand the nature of propaganda, the success or failure of some types of political speeches, or how breakdowns in communication can occur. It can even sometimes help in the identification of a criminal by revealing the likely author of a text or of a speaker on a recorded telephone conversation. That is to say, text analysis can be used as a tool for the evaluation of texts. In addition, text analysis is currently being used to give us a better understanding of the nature of language use in English in specific fields such as business or science, and such work can be applied to the design of teaching syllabuses for language learners. (p.7)

Functional linguistics is one of the most current useful, efficient and meaning-based grammars which can be applied to analyze texts and has the potential to yield valuable insights into them.

Clause is the primary unit under study in functional grammar and 'like any other grammatical unit is a multifunctional construct consisting of three meta-functional lines of meaning'. (Halliday & Mattheissen, 2004: 168) From functional grammar perspective these three 'meta-functional lines are unified within the structure of the clause'. (Halliday & Mattheissen, 2004: 168) The textual line of Theme and Rheme or the clause as message is the manifestation of organization of language which also builds the relationship between the other two meta-functions: interpersonal meta-function and experiential meta-function. In other words, the relationship between the two main meta-functions and the representation of the organization of the language itself is maintained by textual metafunction. This metafunction establishes the relationship between what is said or written and the world from one hand and the other linguistic structures of language from another hand.

The main functions of language in relationship with the social and psychological environment around us are the manifestation of our environmental understanding and interaction with others. The manifestation of our understanding and experience of the universe is the function of ideational metafunction which consists of two subcomponents: 1) experiential metafunction and 2) logical metafunction.

The representation of the interaction between participants in a linguistic interaction/exchange goes under interpersonal metafunction. The establishment and maintenance of social relationships are realized under this metafunction. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) believe that there is no facet of human experience which cannot be transformed into meaning. In other words, language provides a theory of human experience, and certain of the recourses of the lexicogrammar of every language are dedicated to that function. We call it the ideational metafunction, and distinguish it into two components, the experiential and the logical.

'Experientially, the clause construes a quantum of change as a figure, or configuration of a process, participants involved in it and any attendant circumstances'. (Halliday & Mattheissen, 2004: 169) 'This process is represented as being located in, and unfolding
through, time'. (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004: 169) The process is realized by the verb in the clause.

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 170) maintain that 'all figures consist of a process unfolding through time and of participants being directly involved in this process in some way; and in addition, there may be circumstances of time, space, cause, manner or one of a few other types'. They continue that these circumstances are not directly involved in the process. Then they propose the transitivity system and state that all such figures are sorted out in the grammar of the clause. 'As well as being a mode of action, of giving and demanding goods-and-services and information, the clause is also a mode of reflection, of imposing order on the endless variation and flow of events. The grammatical system by which this is achieved is that of transitivity. The transitivity system construes the world of experience into a manageable set of PROCESS TYPES. Each process type provides its own mode or schema for construing a particular domain of experience as a figure of a particular kind'.

Halliday and Mattheissen (2004: 171) maintain that there is a fundamental difference between inner and outer experience: between 'what we experience as going on out there on the world around us, and what we experience as going on inside ourselves, in the world of consciousness (including perception, emotion, imagination, and mental reaction)'. The prototypical form of the outer experience is that of actions and events: things happen, and people or other actors do things, or make them happen. The inner experience is harder to sort out; but it is partly a kind of replay of the outer, recording it, reacting to it, reflecting on it, and partly a separate awareness of our states of being. The grammar sets up a discontinuity between these two: it distinguishes rather clearly between outer experience, the processes of the external world, inner experience, the processes of consciousness. The clause I'm having a shower involves a material process, while the clause I don't want a shower includes a mental process. 'Material processes are the most accessible to our conscious reflection'. (Halliday and Mattheissen, 2004: 171)

Material processes are processes of doing and happening. 'A material clause construes a quantum of change in the flow of events as taking place through some input of energy'. (Halliday and Mattheissen, 2004: 179). Verbs such as happen, create, make, write, paint, open, go, etc. are used in material clauses (Halliday and Mattheissen, 2004: 179--190). They are processes that 'are concerned with our experience of the material world'. (p.197) However, mental processes are embedded in verbs such as understand, feel, think, want, perceive, decide, love, fear, etc. (Halliday and Mattheissen, 2004: 197--210)

This theory can turn into a consistent theory of experience which mirrors how humans use language to convey their experience of the world, by adding a third component; relational processes. We learn to generalize – to relate one fragment of experience to another: this is the same as that; this is a kind of the other. Here, 'the grammar recognizes processes of a third type, those of identifying and classifying; we call these relational process clauses' (p.170). Relational processes (Halliday and Mattheissen, 2004: 197--210) "serve to characterize and to identify'. (p.210) These processes model our experiences 'as being rather than as doing or sensing'. (p.211) The relationship between two things or phenomena is expressed by relational processes which are realized by linking verbs and usually the verb being. 'In other words, a relationship of being is set up between two separate entities'. Verbs like be, seem, turn (from one form to another), etc. are relational ones.
Material, mental, and relational are the major categories of processes in the transitivity system. There are three further types positioned at the three boundaries. These three types are ‘not so clearly set apart, but nevertheless recognizable in the grammar as intermediate between the different pairs – sharing some features of each, and thus acquiring a character of their own’ (Halliday & Mattheissen, 2004: 171). Between the material and mental processes are the behavioral ones: ‘those that represent the outer manifestations of inner workings, the acting out of processes of consciousness (e.g. people are laughing) and psychological states (e.g. they were sleeping)’ (Halliday & Mattheissen, 2004; 171). Behavioral clauses include ‘processes of typically human physiological and psychological behavior’ (p.248) like breath, cough, smile, dream, sing, cry, look, sit are used in behavioral clauses.

The category of verbal processes is located on the borderline of mental and relational categories: symbolic relationships constructed in human consciousness and enacted in the form of language, like saying and meaning (e.g. we say that he is going home). Verbal process (Halliday & Mattheissen: 252--256) is used in ‘clauses of saying’ (p. 252). They are between mental and relational processes. Some example verbs of this kind are say, report, ask, order, etc.

The processes of existence are located between the material and relational processes through which we express being, existence and happening (e.g. there are olive trees all over this area). They are the last type of processes. They represent that something exists or happens. Some example verbs are exist, remain, lie, stand, hang, etc.

Although they are classified into six types, ‘process types are fuzzy categories' (p.172). This is based on a fundamental principle on which the whole language system is based what Halliday and Mattheissen (2004) call systemic indeterminacy. Systemic indeterminacy means that the world of our experience is extremely indeterminate; and this is exactly how the grammar construes it in the system of process type (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999: 547--62).

**Gender differences**

Males and females seem to be different. Their differences have always been the subject of investigation for many researchers. To investigate the differences many interconnected and complex factors should be taken into account. Because of the issue’s complicated nature and due to several factors’ being at work, capturing a clear and definite understanding is hard to achieve. Furthermore the differences between the two sexes are not clear-cut. Genetic and biological predisposition is at work, however social, cultural and psychological and many other causes of the differences are of utmost importance. In order to get a lucid understanding of the subject all these factors and the complicated interaction between them should be considered. However, we can take a glimpse at the picture from different standpoints. The similarities and dissimilarities are wide and open to debate.

Zaidi (2010: 41) maintains that males and females differ not only in their physical attributes and reproductive function but also in many other characteristics, including learning processes, language development, and the way they solve intellectual problems. Sex differences have been observed in cognitive functioning and brain structure. These differences may be attributed to various genetic, hormonal, and environmental factors and do not reflect any overall superiority advantage to either sex.
Females are sometimes said to outperform males in verbal ability and speech production, and males are sometimes alleged to outperform females in mathematical and spatial abilities (Caplan, Crawford, Shibley Hyde, 1997). Wilson (1992) maintains that females are higher than males in empathy, verbal skills, social skills and security seeking, while males are higher in independence, dominance, spatial and mathematical skills, rank-related aggression, etc.

The two sexes are observed to be different in "emotion processing, including perception, experience and expression most notably reflected in greater male aggression" (Zaidi, 2010: 42). Crick & Grot彼得 (1995) also show that males are more aggressive than females. They also maintain that while young males engage in more rough-and-tumble plays, females are more nurturing. Males show more direct aggression such as pushing, hitting and punching, but females have a propensity for more indirect, relational or covert aggression (Crick & Grot彼得, 1995).

From a hormonal perspective, Moore (1966) sees males’ reporting more violent scenes related to the level of testosterone in males. Kret et al. (2012) suggest that testosterone may decrease hatred toward menacing stimuli and may facilitate approach toward signals of dominance. They also report from van Honk & Schutter, (2007) that testosterone level is a good sign of the presence of aggressive actions and dominance. It is also suggested that an administration of testosterone in female subjects leads to an impairment in the ability to infer emotions, intentions and mental states of others or cognitive empathy (Kret et al. 2012). They acknowledge that there is vast evidence for gonadal hormone control of sex differences. However, they also do admit that not all differences are due to hormonal variation but before the onset of sex differences in levels of gonadal hormones, the sex differences are found at stages as early as childhood. It is suggested that the differences can also be attributed to chromosomes also.

Geary (1998) proposes that females use language skills to their advantage. They use language more when they compete. They gossip and manipulate information. Females also use language to build relationships. In relationship building process, they pause more and allow the other friend to speak more, and offer facilitative gestures to maintain the relationship. Women are more likely to seek the company of others in times of strain, in contrast to men (Taylor et al., 2000).

Zaidi (2010: 47) claims that 'females of all ages are better at recognizing emotion or relationships than are men'. He also maintains that 'these sex-determined differences appear in infancy and the gap widens as people mature' (p. 47). He also adds that sex differences may also be shaped by culture, lifestyle, and training because it is generally believed that experience changes our brain and mind structure. However boys and girls are equally intelligent.

'Gender differences in language use are likely to reflect a complicated combination of social goals, situational demands, and socialization just to name a few' (Newman, Groom, Handelman, Pennebaker, 2008).

Research indicates that gender difference of human brain is a multi-factorial process. The reason for the differences between males and females might be not only because of sex hormones which play an important role in organizing brain functionally, but also of genetic factors. (Cosgrove, Mazure, & Staley, 2007) Witelson, Glezer, and Kigar (1995) have
interestingly found that men seem to think with their grey matter, which is crammed with active neurons, whereas women think with their white matter, which are mostly composed of connections between the neurons. Thus a woman's brain seems to have more complicated structure, and the connections might permit female brain to work faster than a male's. Burman, Bitan, and Booth (2008) have shown that those areas of the brain which are associated with language work harder in girls than in boys during language tasks. They also maintain that boys and girls use different parts of their brain while they are performing these tasks.

'Women use a variety of parts of their brains when they do a single task. The female brain is more integrated with more complex connections between both hemispheres. Thought and emotion are more complex than in the male brain' (Zaidi, 2010: 42).

Corpus callosum is a large tract of neural fibers that allows the free flow of communication between both hemispheres of the brain. Leonard, Towler, and Welcome (2008) showed that corpus callosum is larger in women, compared to men. They pointed out that the larger corpus callosum allows more transmissions between the two hemispheres, thus women use both hemispheres creating more synapses between the two sides of the brain.

From another perspective, Kret and Gelder (2012) argue that women tend to express emotion through facial expression and interpersonal communication, whereas men generally express emotions through actions such as engaging in aggressive behavior. However they contend that whereas women may be more expressive than men are inclined to recognize emotions better, this is extremely reliant on the situation and the type of emotion and does not mirror brain activity pattern. However, due to conflicting results, it is still not clear if the differences are caused by the difference in sexes (McClure, 2000) however all the differences might be because of the difference in expression of the emotion rather than the experience of the emotion (Dimberg & Lundquist, 1990). Fugate, Gouzoules, and Barrett (2009) also argue that the stereotype of women being more emotional than men is perhaps derived from an expressive dissimilarity. Women might appear to be more emotional for the reason that they are more facile with emotion language. Many sex differences are context-bound, and socialized in accordance with display rules, prescriptive social norms that dictate how, when, and where emotions can be conveyed by males and females (Fischer, Rodriguez Mosquera, van Vianen, and Manstead, 2004).

Socially speaking, the home and the school are two of the most critical environments which are of great influence in determining sex differences (Casey, 1996). If the physical environment and the people around us including peers and family members do not provide opportunities for certain kinds of activities indicating gender differences, then the distinguishing aspects will not develop. For example, a girl with only male siblings more likely develops the attributes more inclined towards boys'. The toys parents provide for their children also affects the way they develop their special attributes. In these conditions, even if the child is biologically predisposed to a certain attribute, the environmental pushes make them attain special characteristics. “The home environment which parents provide for their children may be a function in part of their own and the child’s genetic predisposition” (Casey, 1996; 48). Thus, “presence of brothers or sisters, the parents’ biological predisposition, the past experiences with their own childhood toys, and pressure from the child’s biological predispositions” (Casey, 1996; 48) may all interact to determine the gender-stereotyped behaviors. All these indicate that we face a very complicated phenomenon that is the dynamic product of many known and unknown factors’ interaction and interconnection. According to
Casey, sport for girls is becoming more socially acceptable in the US as compared to twenty years ago. With greater approval of this activity in a culture, it no longer is a good indicator of a biological predisposition. To highlight the role that society plays in humans’ development Kret et al. maintain that (2012; 1213) “the society we live in with its normative expectations has a massive impact on our gender identity” and being forced to act in conflict with these scripts causes feelings of frustration.

From a psychological view, Males and females seem to be different in some aspects. However it should be taken into account that the perception of one’s sex is more personal than social perception of the self and others. Many factors account for these differences in diverse aspects of their behaviors and attributes from social context and environmental variables to biological predispositions. The biological and environmental factors interrelate to affect the differences between the two genders. However what is transparent from literature is that neither biological nor environmental factors are the only factors responsible for gender differences (Casey, 1996).

Finally gender differences can have developmental and psychological causes and interpretations. From a Piagetian view of constructivism the way individuals construct meaning may be the function of genetic, experiential, developmental, and cultural factors. Piaget believed that construction of meaning from the environment might play more significant role on the child’s ability development than the reality of the environment. From the environmental and cultural experiences that children build up for themselves children construct their own reality of what is possible for them to achieve as a boy or a girl in a specific context. They notice and practice those aspects of their environment that are more consistent with their pre-existing interests and abilities (Casey, 1996; 50). The differences seem also to be under the influence of idiosyncratic construction of experience and meaning under the influence of diverse situations experienced by each and every individual as a boy or a girl.

Methodology

Nearly 100 short stories written by 49 male and 52 female kids were investigated according to the transitivity system proposed in Halliday and Mattheissen's (2004) Functional Grammar. The participants were between 5-12 years of age and their works were randomly selected from among those submitted to Children's Book Council by the children or their parents to be published in some kids' magazines such as Aroosake Sokhangoo (Speaking Doll). Some of the stories were selected from the published and some others were chosen from unpublished stories. Almost all of the stories were originally produced by children. This means that the stories were not a reproduction of previously heard ones. Most of the stories were in the kids' own handwriting.

The audience of the stories might have been the child's parents, peers, or some imaginary audience. They might not have thought of their works to be published. Among the stories, there were some told by children and transcribed by an adult since some of the children might not have been able to write. Stories written by children of 5-12 years of age were opted for since children are able to write or tell stories to be written after five and they reach the age of puberty after 12. Thus the participants belong to the age span of gaining the ability to tell or write a story and puberty. The stories were of various self-selected topics and enjoyed the mean length of 25 sentences.
To analyze the stories, firstly, all of the verbs implemented in the texts were identified. Then the processes embodied in the verbs were determined based on Halliday and Mattheissen's (2004) classification of verbs. The frequency of occurrence of all six types of processes and their percentage in the texts were all calculated. The verbs were all labeled as material, mental, relational, verbal, existential, and finally behavioral. The process of labeling was difficult because of the fact that processes are fuzzy categories. This means that sometimes it was very difficult to exactly determine which type of processes the verb belongs to. An independent t-test was run to compare the means of the two groups. The comparison interestingly yielded some divulging facts about the difference between females' and males' use of language and also the nature of language used by children in this age domain.

Data Analysis

Table 1: Means of material process used by male and female children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>8.90</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig = .006, df = 99, t = 2.82

The differences are significant at 0.05 level.

Table number 1 indicates that there is statistically significant difference between the extents that boys and girls make use of material processes in their stories. The mean of the use of material processes by boys is 8.89 while the same mean for girls is 6.51. It can be noticed that the amount of sig (0.006) reported below the table is smaller than 0.05 which indicates that the difference is statistically significant and the null hypothesis (there is no statistically significant difference between girls' and boys' use of material processes in their early short stories) is rejected. This means that the short stories written by males in this investigation include more material clauses in comparison with the short stories written by girls. The use of material verbs by girls is comparatively smaller.

Table 2: Means of mental process used by male and female children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig = .12, df = 99, t = -1.57

The differences are significant at 0.05 level.

It is apparent from table number 2 that male and female children differ in implementing mental verbs in their early short stories. The mean of mental verbs in the boys' stories is 1.71 while it is 2.27 in the girls' stories. The means are different and this difference indicates that the girls used more mental verbs than the boys did in the stories. However, the observed difference is not big enough to reach statistical significance. The amount of sig (.12) is larger than 0.05 indicating that the null hypothesis (there is no statistically significant difference between girls' and boys' use of mental processes in their early short stories) is accepted.
Table 3: Means of relational process used by male and female children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig = .028  df = 99  t = -2.227

The differences are significant at 0.05 level.

Table number 3 shows the means of the use of relational verbs by females (i.e. 5.46) and males (i.e. 4.08). The p-value (sig = 0.02) is less than 0.05 and we can be reasonably confident that females tend to use more relational verbs than males.

Table 4: Means of verbal process used by male and female children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig = .151  df = 99  t = -1.446

The differences are significant at 0.05 level.

It is apparent from the table that there is some difference between the means of the use of verbal processes by boys and girls indicating that girls used more verbal processes in their stories than boys did. However this difference is not statistically meaningful. The mean of occurrence of verbal processes in males' stories is 1.92 while it is 2.58 for females. Although a difference can be noticed between the two means, this difference is not statistically meaningful since the amount of sig (.151) is larger than 0.05 which indicates that the null hypothesis (there is no significant difference between males and female kids in using verbal processes in their stories) is accepted.

Table 5: Means of existential process used by male and female children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig = .821  df = 99  t = -2.226

The differences are significant at 0.05 level.

The difference between boys and girls in implementing existential processes is not tangible enough neither seemingly nor statistically. More investigation is required to reveal the differences or similarities and their reasons if existent. The mean of using existential processes in females' production is .92 while it is .88 for males. Here again, due to the fact that the amount of sig (.821) is larger than 0.05, we can conclude that the null hypothesis (there is no significant difference between males and female kids in using existential processes in their stories) is accepted.
### Table 6: Means of behavioral process used by male and female children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig= .522  df= 99  t= -.642

The differences are significant at 0.05 level.

The distance between males' and females' use of behavioral processes is not tangible. A quick look at the means of males' (.41) and females' (.54) use of behavioral verbs and the amount of sig (.522) which is larger than .05 shows that the null hypothesis (there is no significant difference between males and female kids in using existential processes in their stories) is accepted.

### Discussion

The analysis of language is a practical way of investigating gender differences. Although the differences might be in the expression of the experience and not in the experience and the construction of knowledge or the experience itself, they are valuable in understanding human nature. Analyzing the texts produced by children in a specific language, for example Persian, is of utmost importance in understanding gender differences in that particular culture and context and language. Halliday’s functional linguistic framework provides an opportunity to scrutinize a language produced for specific functions and in particular contexts.

In the texts that were studied and analyzed in the current study, we achieved a number of interesting results which need to be supported by replications and more context-specific investigations. From among six types of processes used by children, they significantly differed in using material and relational verbs. The use of mental, behavioral, verbal and existential processes by the two genders was not remarkably different.

As mentioned in the data analysis part, nearly half of the whole verbs used by boys consist of material verbs while in the girls' stories this kind of verbs comprised only one third of the processes. The use of material verbs by girls is comparatively smaller. This result seems to approve the research findings with regard to the boys' being engaged with more rough-and-tumble plays, more physical activities and movements than girls. Research has proven that boys are inclined to have much more moving through space than girls do. (Denckla, Rudel, Chapman, Krieger, 1985) The extent of using material verbs which are implemented to talk about experiences related to doing, acting, and movement also seem to go with the aggressive behaviors such as hitting, pushing and punching that boys tend to show in their plays. Boys seek dominance over their environment which can be fulfilled by acting on it.

According to van Honk & Schutter, (2007, cited in Kret et al. 2012) testosterone level is a good sign of the presence of aggressive actions and dominance. As mentioned before, Using testosterone in female subjects leads to an impairment in the ability to infer emotions, intentions and mental states of others or cognitive empathy. This natural tendency is approved by the results of this research with regard to more use of material verbs by males. In addition, the hyperactivity of boys is internationally and universally (with intentional reference to Chomsky's Universals) accepted though minor idiosyncratic and cultural differences may exist. Also, mothers carrying boys in the womb ascertain that they move...
more and show more kicking and displacement. This biological predisposition which starts from conception is culturally and socially stimulated and promoted in later life. In adulthood, males show a higher tendency for having and achieving higher managerial possessions. The point is that material orientation may get tuned to more abstract materialism such as love for top ranking positions and being bossy and even ordering. The type of language boys use to speak about the world surrounding them and their experiences is different from that of girls and reflects the way they think. Language is the mirror of mind and the way our mind is structured is represented in language. Above and beyond, this finding seems to reflect cultural, social and linguistic characteristics of the participants of the study. To arrive at certain conclusions more studies need to investigate the difference in making use of material verbs and their probable causes.

From a biological standpoint, it is found that despite boys, girls use different parts of their brain while they perform language tasks. From a neurobiological viewpoint, as Witelson et al. (1995) maintain, males seem to think with their grey matter, which is packed with active neurons, whereas females think with their white matter which for the most part consists of connections between the neurons. This functional difference among males and females could be related to or the cause of the way that female and males use relational verbs in their early story telling/writing language in childhood. As maintained by Zaidi (2010) "women are better than men in human relations, recognizing emotional implications in others and in language, emotional and artistic expressiveness, esthetic appreciation, verbal language and carrying out detailed and preplanned tasks" (p. 43). Women are more likely to seek the company of others in times of stress, compared to men.

This characteristic might be a further justification for more use of relational verbs by girls. It was referred to in the literature review section that females also use language to build relationships. This might be one of the possible reasons that females are inclined to use relational verbs. Probably that is why in most public relations departments you find women. They are better mediators and this may go back to their genetic predisposition and cultural/social force later in life. To reemphasize, as we mentioned earlier there might be some idiosyncratic and cultural differences which are in need of further investigation. This finding can be looked at from cultural, social and even mental perspectives, since gender differences are to a great extent bound to these factors which have noticeable impact on gender differences.

As we discussed earlier, boys are more physically active than girls and this might be due to the fact that they think more with their neurons in the motor area thus they use more material verbs. Females, most probably, use the neural networks in the limbic system more than their male counterparts to think and decide and this might be one of the reasons that leads to making more use of relational verbs and trying to perceive, figure out and talk about relations between and among things, people, phenomena etc. "Women use a variety of parts of their brains when they do a single task. The female brain is more integrated with more complex connections between both hemispheres. Further research may show that complex relation-based brain structures might influence the way and the extent to which female kids use relational verbs in their stories. It might be claimed that females' and males' natural predisposition seem to play a role in the way they use language besides important factors such as cultural and social incentives.

Literature also supports the claim that females are more expert in developing and maintaining relationships with other people. This can be related to the finding of this investigation in...
regard to relational processes: girls use relational verbs more than boys do because females are more concerned with relations or because they are pre-wired genetically to do so. Thousands of years of cave life have trained them to act in a way to make relations in the cave easier and better in the absence of male partners having left the cave for hunting. By developing relations and maintaining them, females seek security for themselves and their kids. This is mutually caused by and causes the way relational verbs are used. It seems boys try to prove themselves to others while girls look for being with others in their plays and this proves the fact that girls look for developing relationships and in their language they perceive and talk about relationships more. This ever present seek for starting and maintaining relations has both verbal and non-verbal manifestations.

As Piaget argues the construction of individual meaning and knowledge is the product of genetic, experiential, developmental, and cultural factors. From the environmental and cultural experiences that children build up for themselves children construct their own reality of what is possible for them to achieve as a boy or a girl in a specific context and Iranian context is not an exception. Iranian culture’s unique pattern has particular manifestations in Persian language use pattern and this needs further investigation.

Many sex differences context dependent, and socialized in accordance with display rules, prescriptive social norms that dictate how, when, and where emotions can be expressed by males and females (Fischer, Rodriguez Mosquera, van Vianen, and Manstead, 2004). As mentioned above, nevertheless due to conflicting results, it is still not clear if the differences are caused by the difference in sexes (McClure, 2000) yet interestingly, all the perceived differences might be caused by the difference in expression of the emotion rather that the experience of the emotion (Dimberg et al, 1990). All these demand further investigation.

The findings of this research could also be used in education. Learning patterns particularly language learning patterns of the two genders seem to be different and this difference should be taken into account in developing educational materials for children. Materials, if not specifically developed for one gender, might need to strike the required balance between what is necessary for both sexes in order to be impartial and objective in creating equal opportunities for the two sexes. This is more demanded in primary education where children grow basic understanding of their surroundings to use in their future life. The assessment system could also be influenced by being knowledgeable about the differences in making use of language. For instance the assessors’ might be urged to develop some gender-specific blueprints to evaluate the learners.

**Conclusion**

The current study demonstrates a systematic difference in the way that girl and boy children use language in terms of Halliday and Mattheissen's (2004) proposed transitivity system. The main focus of this research was on the six processes in the transitivity system than detailed investigation inside each process type. However this study can be a starting point for some more comprehensive research into gender differences in children's language based on Halliday's systemic functional grammar.

The two genders seem to be different in two of the main processes and this can be very meaningful. From a psychological perspective, it is generally believed that boys' and girls', plays, language, cognition, individual and social behavior, etc. are at least partially different.
In other words, girls behave, play, and even perceive the world differently from boys. Psychologists believe that boys in their plays, for instance, desire for strong/intense impact on their environment and also they are engaged with more muscular actions. They are more active and more aggressive whereas girls are calmer, stiller, and prefer to follow the rules and regulations of games in their plays. Boys look for dominance on their peers and change the rules and regulations of the games and try to set themselves free and prove themselves to others.

Psychologists also believe that for boys playing is a means to prove themselves to others, while for girls it is a means to be with others (Ahmadvand, 2002). Girls prefer to gather together in their free time and talk, but boys prefer to jump up and down and chase each other. The behavioristic trait of girls, in general, is to avoid aggression and to be more influenced by others for example peers.

Boys, who use material processes more, might be more influenced by these processes in their behavior and mind. Their behavior can also mutually influence their language due to the mutual relationship between language and mind. This can help us to better understand the nature of child language especially Persian child speakers.

These findings prove that Halliday and Mattheissen's classification of processes suits human nature and can be used as a criterion to study human language and gender differences. Educationalists can utilize the findings of this kind in developing more comprehensive and balanced materials and test for children.

Finally, the comparison needs to be replicated across culture, languages and times to reach a conclusive wrapping up. Moreover, different factors like experience, environment, culture, genetic predisposition, and many more should be taken into account.

References


Diversity, Immigrants and Health Education

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Abstract

Diversity among refugee and immigrant populations in American schools has made it necessary for health educators to understand the health needs and health-seeking behaviors, attitudes, cultural nuances, and perceptions about health of various groups. Two strategies to accomplish this are the Ulysses Syndrome and Cultural Competency Continuum. The Ulysses Syndrome focuses on the often-misunderstood psychosocial challenges and stress experienced by immigrants in their departure from the home country, and the adaptation to a different environment. The Ulysses Syndrome forms the gateway between mental health and mental disorder. The other means is through developing cultural competency. Understanding the 6 levels of the cultural competency continuum enables health educators to integrate cultural proficiency practices into individual health education practices. Understanding diversity and the Ulysses Syndrome and developing cultural competence is a long-term and on-going process. This process is complex, but essential in order to build a framework from which to address the health needs of a diverse society.

Keywords: diversity, cultural competence, Ulysses Syndrome, immigrants, culture, health education

Diversity and Health Education

There are currently significant demographic changes taking place in the United States that are having a direct impact on health education and public health. Data from the Census Bureau (2010) show that minority populations have grown dramatically with immigrants coming from all over the world. This diversity among immigrant populations in America has made it necessary for health educators to understand the health needs and health-seeking behaviors, attitudes, cultural nuances, and perceptions about health of various groups. To gain this understanding requires acknowledgement of the Ulysses Syndrome and awareness of one’s cultural competency. The Ulysses Syndrome focuses on the often-misunderstood psychosocial challenges and stress experienced by immigrants in their departure from the home country, and the adaptation to a different environment. The process of utilizing the principles of the Ulysses Syndrome and developing cultural competence is complex and on-going, but crucial to building a framework to address the health needs of a diverse society.

Diversity is a dynamic philosophy of inclusion based upon respect for cultures, beliefs, values, and individual differences of all kinds. Diversity respects and affirms value in differences in ethnicity and race, gender, age, sexual orientation, socio-economic status, linguistics, religion, politics and special needs (Betancourt, Green, & Carrillo, 2002). Diversity is also viewed as a commitment to understanding and appreciating the variety of characteristics that make individuals unique, promoting an atmosphere that embraces and celebrates individual and collective achievement (The University of Tennessee Libraries
Diversity Committee, 2003). A new vision for diversity is needed that also examines not only the typical racial/ethnic or gender composition of a population, but also how different groups perceive and interact with the environment, political and ideological beliefs, and equity in access to opportunities and care (Clayton-Pedersen, Parker, Smith, Moreno, & Teraguchi, 2007).

Culture is a concept that is organic and constantly evolving. Culture, essential for the existence of a society, is comprised of values and beliefs (Chamberlain, 2005); is learned, shared, and transmitted from one generation to next (Beyer, 2003; Chamberlain, 2005) and helps organize and interpret life. It includes thoughts, styles of communicating, ways of interacting, views on roles and relationships, values, practices, and customs (Robins, Fantone, Hermann, Alexander, & Zweifler, 1998; Donini-Lenhoff & Hendrick, 2000). Culture also includes a number of additional influences and factors, such as socioeconomic status, physical mental ability, sexual orientation, and occupation (Betancourt et al., 2002). According to Cross, Bazron, Dennis, and Isaacs (1989), culture impacts our lives as it determines on the most fundamental level the way in which we perceive our world, how we assign meaning to what we see, and how we respond to it. People of one culture share a specific language, traditions, behavior, perceptions and beliefs respective of their culture. Culture gives them an identity, which makes them unique and different from people of other cultures.

Our understanding of our own culture and cultures other than our own will impact how we interact with people not of our culture. Limited understanding can lead us to making mistaken assumptions, judgments and placing unclear expectations on others. Cultural misunderstandings and conflicts arise mostly out of culturally-shaped perceptions and interpretations of each other's cultural norms, values, and beliefs. Although many dimensions of culture are universal, there are many dimensions along which cultures differ. This variance in basic values results in cross-cultural miscommunication and strife. Each culture also defines health in a unique way. Health is defined by cultures as a group’s view of the physical, mental, emotional, and social components required in a healthy person (Cushner, 2002; Giger & Davidhizar, 1991). Culture is a very important aspect and significant part of our lives, personally and professionally, and a crucial factor for ensuring effective and efficient services to our communities. Therefore, it is essential for health educators to understand the effects of culture on health and educate themselves further about the particular needs of various ethnic groups.

**Immigrant Populations**

Of major concern to health educators in the United States are the health needs of immigrant populations. According to the International Organization for Migration an immigrant is a non-national who moves into a country for the purpose of settlement (2004). When examining individuals from immigrant groups, it is important to determine whether the individual is a migrant, first generation immigrant, or refugee; the length of time he or she has lived in the country and the reason precipitating the immigration. Immigrant populations are very diverse; originating from different regions of the world, representing many cultures and languages, migration patterns, legal status and reasons for migrating. Immigrants’ education levels and occupations range from the illiterate manual laborer to the high-skill professional.
Not surprisingly, this diversity translates into different health profiles for sub-populations of immigrants (UNSD, 2013). The increasing population growth of cultural and ethnic communities, each with their own cultural traits and health profiles, presents a challenge to health education. A major way to address this challenge is by improving health educators’ understanding of the health needs of newly arrived immigrant populations.

Migration and the Ulysses Syndrome

Migration is a complex undertaking with often-profound impact on humans. As they strive to integrate into a new cultural setting, all immigrants move through an adjustment process marked by specific stages of adjustment (Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1989; Cushner, 2002; Trifonovitch, 1977). These stages of immigration have been extensively written about and often referred to as culture shock (Mavrides, 2009; Huff, 2009; Oberg, 2009; Yeh & Mayuko, 2002). Although multiple versions of these stages exist, it is generally accepted that there are at least five distinct phases: honeymoon stage, conforming stage; negotiation or resistance and immersion stage; adjustment or introspection stage, and finally mastery or the integrative awareness stage.

Newcomers first enter the honeymoon or conforming phase where the new intercultural experience first appears to be like heaven, albeit overwhelming (Cushner, 2002; Yeh & Mayuko, 2002). Experiencing and adjusting to the physiological and psychological changes moves the individual into the conformity stage. In this stage, cultural differences result in tensions and frustrations which may lead into the stage of dissonance. This is a critical stage as ethnocentric reactions emerge and subjective cultural factors collide (Trifonovitch, 1977).

Then, the second phase is a stage of resistance and immersion, characterized by hostility, or by a strong withdrawal and search for a sense of identity. Immigrants begin to emerge from this reactive, hostile stage as they begin to understand and accept cultural subjectivity. In the next phase, the stage of introspection, there is a concern and empathy not only toward own self, others of the same minority group, but also toward others of different minority groups (Atkinson, et.al., 1989). It is considered a relief phase, accompanied by humor and joy and helps individuals begin to understand subjective cultural aspects. In the final stage, the stage of integrative awareness, there is a selective appreciation and selective trust towards some of the members of the dominant group. This is also known as the stage of home or adaptation, when people are able to interpret and interact from both cultural perspectives (Cushner, 2002).

It is important to recognize that people travel through these stages in multiple ways and varying timeframes. Most people require sufficient time to move through the stages and understand subjective cultural changes in enough depth to live effectively. Understanding this process is essential for health educators. Educators should expect that families and individuals will experience multiple changes and reactions that will impede their learning and full functioning.

As they navigate these stages, the lives and livelihoods of first generation migrants are often threatened by various health problems that arise from the migratory and adaptation processes. The health effects are multiplied because the stressors are intense, multiple and chronic, appear out of their control, occur with little social support (Blascovich, Spencer, Quinn, & Steele, 2001). Nostalgic of their native land, immigrants, often experience time when physically they feel exhausted and suffer from migraines, weariness, insomnia, fatigue,
gastric and osteo-physical complaints. Psychologically, they often suffer from feelings of loneliness, hopeless, irritability and regret; experience memory loss; and even experience suicidal thoughts. The stress is often pervasive and chronic as some immigrants struggle for many years to survive and constantly worry about the future. Self-esteem and self-efficacy often fall as language and cultural barriers create insurmountable challenges (Diaz-Cuellar, 2007).

For millions of individuals, immigration today presents stress levels of such extreme intensity that they exceed the human capacity of adaptation (Achotegui, 2009; Chang, Garcia, Huang & Maheda, 2010). These persons are, therefore, highly vulnerable to the immigrant syndrome with chronic and multiple stress, known as the Ulysses Syndrome. The Ulysses Syndrome identified first by Joseba Achotegui from the University of Barcelona, describes a series of symptoms usually found in new immigrants, that involve chronic stress and include self-esteem issues. The term Ulysses refers to the Greek hero who spent ten years living in a distant land suffering countless adversities, and another ten seeking to return to his home city (Homer, 2004). The significance of Ulysses’ story is such that the term Odyssey is defined as a complex and treacherous journey in multiple languages and multiples cultures around the world.

According to Achotegui (2009), the most important stressors faced by newly arrived first generation of migrants are: a) social isolation, loneliness and forced separation, especially in the case when an immigrant leaves behind his or her spouse or young children; b) the sense of despair and failure of the migratory goals and absence of opportunity; c) the survival factor to feed oneself, to find a roof to sleep under; d) the afflictions caused by the physical dangers of the journey undertaken, and the typical coercive acts associated with journeys by groups that extort and threaten the immigrants; and e) discriminatory attitudes in the receiving country including in the case of undocumented immigrants, the constant fear of detention and deportation (Achotegui, 2009). This combination of loneliness, the failure to achieve one's objectives, the experiencing of extreme hardships and fear forms the psychological and psychosocial basis of the Ulysses Syndrome.

As new immigrants deal with these factors they move through seven levels of grief: 1) grief for the family and loved ones; 2) grief due to encounter with a different language and the subsequent inability to communicate needs, feelings and ideas; 3) grief of culture, especially customs, sense of time, religion, values; 4) grief of homeland, landscape, the light, the temperature, the colors, smells; 5) grief of social status; 6) grief in relationship to the peer group along with prejudices, xenophobia or racism; and 7) grief due to risk regarding physical integrity such as dangers in the migratory journey, dangerous jobs, or changes in diet (Achotegui, 1999). These seven levels of grief can be lived in simple, complicated or extreme way, as the response to the efforts of the migrant to adapt to the new environment (Achotegui, 2012).

The stressful experiences during migration, the experience of becoming a racial/ethnic minority, subjected to discrimination and racial conflict with other groups, damages the mental health of migrants and appears to have long lasting effects on the mental health of immigrants (Ornelas & Perreira, 2013). The health system often does not provide adequately for these patients: either because this problem is dismissed as being trivial, or because this condition is not adequately diagnosed. The Ulysses Syndrome is an emerging health concept that focuses on the often-misunderstood psychosocial challenges, including varied forms of recurring and protracted stress experienced by immigrants in their departure from the home
country and attempts in adaptation to a different environment. The key contribution of this concept is the elucidation of the direct correlation between the extreme levels of stress and the onset of psychological and psychosomatic symptoms. The delimitation and denomination of the Ulysses Syndrome contributes to the avoidance of the incorrect diagnosis of many immigrants as depressive (Achotegui, 2009).

In the United States, biomedical approaches view these symptoms not as a reactive response to the predicaments met by the newcomers, but as signs of depression. First generation immigrants are treated as being depressive or psychotic with a series of treatments that instead of mitigating, may turn into additional stressors for the immigrant. Standard diagnostic criteria applied to members of different cultural groups pose various levels of discriminatory practices. While in ethno-medicine the existence of the spiritual world is widely considered, standard diagnoses fail to capture the knowledge, attitudes, practices, values, and beliefs of those from other cultural groups. The diagnosis of depression fits into a particular Western medical and cultural model, which reduces the psycho-social problem to that of an individual who in the diagnosis, is abstracted from a socio-economic content, and then held solely responsible for his/her mental wellbeing (Foucault, 2005).

It is of paramount importance to state that the symptoms suffered by these immigrants pertain to the mental health sector of healthcare, which is broader than the psychopathology. The table below highlights how understanding of the Ulysses Syndrome forms a gateway between mental health and mental disorder.

Table 1: Ulysses Syndrome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mental Health</th>
<th>Ulysses Syndrome</th>
<th>Mental Disorder</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mental health is a state of well-being in which an individual realizes his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and is able to make a contribution to his or her community. In this positive sense, mental health is the foundation for individual wellbeing and the effective functioning of a community.</td>
<td>A series of symptoms that affects migrants confronted with multiple and chronic levels of stress. Note that if they are offered a job or an opportunity to move out of these levels of stress, they respond positively and take the opportunity. Therefore, they are not “depressed”. The objective of intervention would be avoiding the worsening conditions, so that they do not suffer a standard mental disorder.</td>
<td>A mental disorder or mental illness is a psychological or behavioral pattern generally associated with subjective distress, anxiety, depression, or disability that occurs in an individual, and which is not a part of normal development or culture. Such a disorder may consist of a combination of affective, behavioral, cognitive and perceptual components.</td>
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Social support becomes increasingly more important in maintaining the mental and physical health of immigrants and their communities. Migrants lacking the necessary healthy support are exposed to a higher risk of moving into severe mental disorders (Achotegui, 2012). Although, in comparison to first generation immigrants, second generation immigrants in the United States are more likely to achieve higher earnings and are less likely to live in poverty...
increased health does not always follow. For example, depression in Latinos is highly correlated with the amount of years spent in the United States. Latinos have very strong family bonds which, in spite of economic, educational, and lower socioeconomic status, help them move forward in life. However, as Latino immigrants acculturate it becomes increasingly harder to maintain those family connections, stress levels rise, and the children begin to lose their cultural connection in favor of developing an American lifestyle, and the incidence of illness increases (Chang et al., 2010). Building social cohesion in communities is essential in maintaining better health. Social support has a protective effect in preventing or decreasing the risk of development of illness, especially in second generation immigrants confronted with acculturation and the impact of oppression and marginalization (Marmot & Wilkinson, 2006; Unnatural Causes, 2008).

The Ulysses Syndrome poses a powerful challenge to the dominant approaches. It is a non-clinical and more comprehensive assessment of the plight of newly arrived immigrants who suffer from chronic and multiple stress syndromes. This calls for prevention, not just at the individual level, but also at the community level at large. Within each community, the health educator must utilize programs and resources that address the cultural values, beliefs and practices of that group or groups. A key strategy is to utilize the experts in the community and develop community with their input. The Health Workers (CHWs)/Promotoras model utilizes natural leaders in each community. CHWs act as cultural “bridges” between communities and institutions. They are trained to deal with the health problems of community members, and to work in close collaboration with the health services. The CHWs / Promotoras, many of whom have had the same or similar experiences, have developed strong levels of resilience and play a vital role in supporting those going through the migratory process, to achieve their goals without compromising their health condition (Waitzkin, 2006). Based on their own experiences, CHWs can fortify the personal resilience of newly arrived migrants, by employing relevant techniques from their common culture to alleviate grief and generate a sense of empowerment (Schoeller-Diaz, 2012).

With the culturally and linguistic appropriate approaches used by Community Health Workers (CHWs) / Promotoras and culturally competent health educators, the first generation of immigrants are not left in isolation, but integrated and made aware of the importance of keeping and maintaining strong ties with his/her language and culture as the most empowering factors in the overall wellbeing (Diaz-Cuellar, 2007). By identifying community problems, developing innovative solutions and translating them into practice, “CHWs/Promotoras can respond creatively to local needs and achieve dramatic improvements by reaching the ‘hard to reach’ community members and linking them to resources and advocating on their behalf” (Diaz-Cuellar, 2007, p.197).

Finally, to work most effectively in immigrant communities, health educators must develop a basis of trust with immigrants and families. To develop that trust, health educators must first understand the stages of an immigrant’s journey to adaptation in a new country and acknowledge the multiple and chronic stressors associated with the immigrant experience. Educators must. attain “an ethno-relative perspective, an expectation that one will have significant adjustments to make when living and working with others as well as an ability to understand components of one’s own and others’ subjective culture” (Cushner, 2002, p. 88). Health educators who are working with immigrant populations need to advocate for a socio cultural approach using culturally sensitive health educators alongside indigenous linguistically and culturally competent community health educators or Promotoras for the identification and help to newly arrived migrants experiencing the Ulysses Syndrome. It is
imperative that the health issues related to high levels of stress associated with immigration be addressed and the right to health be ensured.

Developing Cultural Competence

Cultural competence is based on the core principles of culture. These principles include that culture is a predominant force in peoples’ lives; people are served in varying degrees by the dominant culture; people have personal identities and group identities; diversity within cultures is vast and significant and each group has unique cultural needs that cannot be met within the boundaries of the dominant culture. Cultural competence manifests in individuals, communities, schools, and organizations and occurs developmentally in all settings. The role of the health educators is to help individuals and entities move positively forward towards cultural competency. Health educators, in fact, have an inherent responsibility to become culturally competent (Luis & Perez, 2003).

With these understandings, culturally competent health educators, first, need to be aware of their own cultural identity, cultural values and cultural assumptions, and determine how their identity and value orientation might affect their professional practice and relationship with other health educators from different ethnic groups. As cultural competence is having the capacity to function effectively within the context of the cultural beliefs, behaviors, and needs of clients and their communities, establishing relationships with the individuals and family before, during and after care are essential. Communication is essential, but communication can be inhibited by language barriers, literacy levels, cultural beliefs and alternative health beliefs or practices. Since cultural competence is a developmental process, it requires an understanding of the several key social determinants including socioeconomic status and its impact on health disparities from a racial and ethnic vantage point; understanding treatment-seeking behaviors based on diversity and cultural nuances specific to cultural and ethnic groups; and taking into account how language can be a barrier to optimal health care (Chamberlain, 2005).

The need for cultural competence is compelling. First, it is a necessary response to the increasing ethnically, culturally and linguistically diverse populations and changing immigrant patterns within the United States. Second, it is a tool to eliminate long standing disparities of the health status of people of diverse backgrounds while helping to improve the quality of care and health outcomes. Cultural competency is one the main ingredients in closing the disparities gap in health care practices. “Quite simply, health care services that are respectful of and responsive to the health beliefs, practices and cultural and linguistic needs of diverse patients can help bring about positive health outcomes” (USDHHS, 2012, p.23). Culture competency practices influence health, healing, and wellness belief systems; how illness, disease, and their causes are perceived; the behaviors of patients/consumers who are seeking health care and the delivery of services by the provider who looks at the world through his or her own limited set of values.

Cultural competence can be taught and learned and requires a commitment to individual growth. Challenging one’s social conditioning and cultural incompetence is the essence of the developmental process of cultural competence (Goode, 2004). The core principles mentioned above are embedded in the six levels of the cultural competence continuum. They include cultural destructiveness, cultural incapacity, cultural blindness, cultural precompetence, cultural competence, and cultural proficiency. Not intended to be viewed in a linear fashion, the benefits of using the cultural competence continuum is that it enables healthcare
educators and public health entities to determine their level of cultural competence and what steps should be considered to achieve cultural proficiency.

The first level, cultural destructiveness, is focused on seeing differences and stomping them out. Any perceived or real differences from the dominant mainstream culture are punished or suppressed and viewed as destructive to cultures and the individuals within these cultures. At this level, it is assumed that one’s race or culture is superior, views other cultures as subhuman and focuses on the elimination of other people's cultures. In essence it is using one’s power to eliminate the culture of another (Chamberlain, 2005). Examples of cultural destructiveness with immigrants includes genocide and xenophobia. At this level, we see a hatred towards undocumented immigrants played out when immigrants are being injured or killed at the border by vigilante groups. To a lesser extent, it is also seen in classrooms when a group is excluded from the health education curriculum.

The second stage of cultural incapacity involves seeing the differences and making them wrong. It is based on the belief in the superiority of one's own culture and in behavior that dis-empowers another's culture. At this stage, cultural differences are neither punished nor supported and there is no attention, time, teaching, or resources devoted to understanding and supporting cultural differences (Huang, 2002). This can be seen in disproportionate allocation of resources to certain groups, expecting “others” to change, avoidance or exclusion of groups from the health curriculum, or a lack of an equal representation of staff/administrators that reflect diversity in the community. At this stage, the system remains extremely biased and assumes a paternal posture towards “lesser” races. Examples with immigrant populations would be incidences of racial profiling and discriminatory hiring and housing policies. Agencies that support discriminatory hiring practices convey subtle messages to immigrants that they are not valued or welcome. Clearly the central theme at this stage is on who does belong and who does not belong in US society. This stage is represented by the platitudes in the news such as “secure the border and keep them out”, “deport them”, “treat them like criminals for entering without papers”, “they’re taking American jobs”, and “they are draining the economy.” These inaccurate simplistic statements fuel the beliefs at this stage and cause many immigrants to live in constant fear of deportation.

The third stage is cultural blindness where one sees the difference, but acts as if he/she doesn’t. Here people do not recognize cultural differences among and between cultures, and act as if the cultural differences do not matter or are inconsequential. No resources, attention, or time are devoted to understanding cultural differences making the ability to effectively work with a diverse population severely limited (Robins, et al, 2011). Examples include health educators who experience discomfort in noting difference or who believe their program does not need to focus on cultural issues. These educators believe everyone learns the same and that they are not prejudiced as they so not see color or culture in their students. Culturally blind agencies are characterized by the belief that approaches traditionally used by the dominant culture are universally applicable and no changes or adaptations are needed. Examples of cultural blindness with immigrants include the cultural stratification that occurs in employment, education and government.

The next stage, cultural precompetence, involves seeing the differences, but responding inadequately to redress non-liberating structures, teaching practices, and inequities. Here individuals have an awareness of the limitations of their skills or an organization's practices when interacting with other cultural groups and attempt with limited skills to change (Donini-Lehnoff & Hedrick, 2000). At this stage, the health educator might delegate diversity work
to others or use a quick fix, packaged short-term program, like an activity during Black History or Hispanic month. Often there are unclear rules, expectations for all staff. At this stage, health educators often provide professional development on different distinct cultures to raise awareness and skills. There is not yet an integration of knowledge.

The fifth stage, cultural competence, involves seeing the differences, and understanding the difference that difference makes. Here individuals interact with other cultural groups using the five essential elements of cultural proficiency; assessing culture; claiming the differences and valuing diversity; reframing the differences or managing the dynamics of difference; adapting to the differences and diversity; and changing practices for differences. At this stage individuals learn to value and respect cultural differences, and attempt to find ways to celebrate, encourage, and respond to differences within and among themselves, while they pursue knowledge about social justice, privilege and power relations in our society (OMH, 2009; Robins, et.al. 2011). The culturally competent educator seeks advice and consultation from the minority community. At this stage, the health educator supports on-going education of self and others, models behaviors that look at another’s perspective through another lens, and serves as an advocate for all constituencies. There is continuing self-assessment regarding culture, careful attention to the dynamics of difference, and use of multiple adaptations to prod더 models to better meet the needs of minority populations. A prime example of this stage is the use of Community Health Workers as described previously. As a means of supporting and honoring the cultural beliefs of a community, community members are equal and active participants in all aspects of living within that community.

The final stage of cultural proficiency involves seeing differences and responding positively and in an affirming manner. Individuals focus on esteeming culture, knowing how to learn about individual and organizational culture, and interacting effectively in a variety of cultural environments. Individuals recognize and respond to cultural differences and successfully redress non-liberating structures, teaching practices, and inequities (Chamberlain, 2005; OMH, 2009; Robins, et al., 2011). Here the health educator supports personal change and transformation, serves in alliance for groups other than one’s own; differentiates to the needs of all learners, and incorporates the community in planning and implementing appropriate programs and services.

Cultural competency is an ongoing journey that can be led by health educators who use the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, and performance styles of diverse learners to make learning more appropriate and effective for them. The degree of cultural competence a health educator achieves is based on growth in attitudes, policies, and practice. Attitudes change to become less ethnocentric and biased, policies change to become more flexible and culturally impartial, and practices become more congruent with the culture of the client. To be a culturally competent educator involves that one acknowledges the legitimacy of the cultural heritages of different ethnic groups, as worthy content; builds bridges of meaningfulness; uses a wide variety of instructional strategies connected to different learning styles; recognizes and utilizes the learners’ culture and language in instruction; respects the learners’ personal and community identities; acknowledges learners’ differences as well as their commonalities; promotes equity and mutual respect among learners; and motivates learners to actively participate in their learning (Gay, 2000). Likewise, according to Robins et al. (2011), there are six essential elements of culturally proficient instructors. These are assessing culture by being aware of ones’ own culture; valuing diversity by developing a community of learning with students; managing the dynamics of difference by appreciating the power of conflicts and being able to resolve them, adapting to diversity by committing to
continuous learning; and institutionalizing cultural knowledge by working to influence public health organizations and systems.

**Conclusion**

Understanding diversity and immigration and developing cultural competence are long-term and on-going processes. To be culturally competent, individuals need to learn about themselves, to learn specific information about a community, and simultaneously learn how to treat each person as a unique individual who is not necessarily representative of his or her whole group. Health educators need to examine specific cultural values of groups as well individual information about a person’s status as a newcomer, immigrant or refugee. This delicate balance is not easy to learn, but it is essential in order to build a cultural competent framework from which to address the needs of multicultural communities in the United States and it is our best hope for a better future.

Integrating knowledge about the Ulysses Syndrome and cultural competency practices into individual practices of health educators and public health organizational policies is a call to action. When an individual adopts cultural proficiency, the essential elements become the standard practice. People and their organizations become culturally proficient when specific strategies and behaviors are practiced consistently (Robins et al., 2011). Cultural proficiency is an inside-out approach as it first involves primarily learning about oneself. Consequently, educators who are working to become culturally proficient must continue to learn, seeking information about the people they teach and integrating the culture and context of people with whom they work. One of the most difficult parts of this growth is processing one’s own issues regarding power and oppression. This involves developing the capacity to confront personal issues with power and oppression, to recognize these issues and process feelings, acknowledge biases and prejudices, and draw new conclusions about oneself (Robins et al., 2011). In addition, health educators need specific skills and techniques to manage the dynamics of difference to facilitate effective cross-cultural communication and to develop facilitation skills to foster healthy communication, to encourage critical reflection and to engage with the learners as a community of practice.

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¿Donde Están los Libros? Looking for Spanish Books in Schools

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Abstract

This paper describes part of an ecological study of the Spanish print environment in one community in central Los Angeles. We conducted a “community study” in order to examine the impact of Proposition 227, California’s restrictive educational linguistic legislation on the students in the community. Here we report findings from teacher surveys, classroom observations, and an interview with one biliterate first grade student. We examine access and availability of Spanish reading materials and explore the implications for the literacy development of Spanish speaking emergent bilinguals.

Keywords: Biliteracy, bilingual education, Spanish print

Introduction

“My teacher tells us we cannot get Spanish books because we’re not in a Spanish class. We’re in an English class so our teacher tells us only to get, um, English books. And if you make a mistake and you got a Spanish book, you get to change it because our teacher has a little library.” (Susana, 6 years old, biliterate).

Research indicates that children benefit when they are encouraged to develop a reading habit and interest in reading from an early age (Allington, 2011; Krashen, 2004, Smith 1998). For those students who come to school speaking a language other than English it is further argued that reading ability is best developed in the native language and can be readily transferred to a second language (Baker, 2011; Cummins 2000). This suggests that reading interest should be encouraged in the primary language. If this is true, second language learners need to have access to books as well as other print materials (e.g., newspapers, magazines) in their primary language.

Despite the historic debate over language of choice for initial literacy instruction (Baker, 1992, Rossell, 1992) proponents of bilingual education agree that learning to read and write in one’s native language is an efficient path to English proficiency (Baker, 2011; Cummins, 2000, Krashen, 1994, Krashen and Biber, 1988, Collier, 1992, Ulanoff, 1995, Willig, 1985). Seminal studies in California (Krashen, 1999, Krashen and Biber, 1988, Ramirez, 1992) clearly demonstrated successful academic achievement for English learners who have had the benefit of properly implemented bilingual programs. A comprehensive national, longitudinal study (Thomas & Collier, 2002) came to strong conclusions regarding the role of first language (L1) instruction on achievement in the second language (L2) stating that “the strongest predictor of L2 student achievement is amount of formal L1 schooling. The more L1 grade level schooling, the higher the L2 achievement” (p. 7).

Notwithstanding the various cycles of the “reading wars” nationwide (Allington, 2002, Allington and Woodside-Jiron, 1999; Coles, 2000, 2003; Foorman, Fletcher, Francis, and Schatschneider, 2000; Garan, 2002) and a political move toward an English only ideology in
the US (see Gandara & Hopkins, 2010 for a review of restrictive US educational language policies, and Ulanoff and Vega-Castaneda, 2003 and Wentworth et al. 2010 for a discussion of the impact of such a policy in California) there is a substantial body of research that recognizes the importance of biliteracy development that includes reading in the primary language (Cummins, 2003, Krashen, 2003) and access to a wide variety of multicultural literature (George, Raphael and Florio-Ruane, 2003). Garcia (2003) argues that English learners (ELs) need “…opportunities to read and use narrative and informational texts that are academically challenging in the native language” (p.) 47.

While it has long been argued that students become better readers by reading (Smith, 1988), it makes sense that students should have access to a great number of books in order to feed a healthy reading habit. Krashen (1987) makes the case that children get the majority of their books from libraries (p. 4) but it has been found that there is often limited access to books in languages other than English in most school and public libraries. Pucci (1994) and Pucci and Ulanoff (1996) explored the library collections of several schools in Los Angeles that had large percentages of Spanish speakers and found that there was limited availability of Spanish books. Pucci (2000) examined the maintenance of Spanish literacy by Salvadorans in Los Angeles and found a direct relationship between access to print and primary language literacy practices.

This notion of access to primary language print has been severely challenged in several states where the restrictive language policies mentioned above have impacted both instruction and the greater issue of access to reading materials. This paper explores the availability of Spanish print materials more than ten years after the passage of such legislation in California, Proposition 227, which calls for classroom instruction to be conducted “…overwhelmingly in English.” It is commonly accepted that Proposition 227 has had widespread effects on classroom instruction (Gándara and Hopkins, 2010; García and Curry-Rodriguez, 2000; Rumberger and Gándara 2000; Ulanoff and Vega-Castaneda, 2003), including the elimination of the use of books in Spanish in many elementary classrooms and, therefore, libraries. This paper explores classrooms, teachers and students in terms of access and availability to reading materials in Spanish and the implications for literacy development for Spanish speaking children.

**Buscando los libros/Looking for the books**

We began this exploration as part of an ecological study of the print environment of one neighborhood in central Los Angeles. We conducted a “community study” in order to examine the impact of Proposition 227 on the residents of the community and here we report on the findings from teacher surveys, classroom observations, and an interview with one biliterate first grade student. The community in Los Angeles that we examined has a large Latino presence. Salvadorans hold a slight majority in this area, but other Central American groups are represented as well. Guatemalans have a notable presence, and there are also Panamanians, Nicaraguans, and Hondurans residing in the area. There is also a significant population of people from México, as well as a group of Koreans. There are extremely few Anglos, African-Americans or non-Korean Asians living in the immediate area.

Despite the high concentration of Spanish speakers in this area of Los Angeles, instruction in public schools is largely delivered through the medium of English. In fact, although Los Angeles County has the highest proportion of ELs in the state, 355,639 or approximately 23%
of the total California number, only 6% receive bilingual instruction there (CDE, 2013a). The
data set consisted of teacher surveys, semi-structured and informal teacher interviews and
classroom and school library observations. Data were also collected from one biliterate first
grade student who was videotaped reading in both Spanish and English and also interviewed
regarding the books and her access to Spanish reading materials at school.

We surveyed forty bilingual teachers who work in this area in central Los Angeles regarding
the availability of Spanish print materials in their schools and classrooms. The surveys were
intended to be anonymous and included both open and close-ended questions regarding the
numbers of books as well as changes in the school library collection since the implementation
of Proposition 227. Most of the bilingual teachers were working on emergency permits, and
although bilingual, were instructing in English. Teacher experience varied from 2 months
teaching experience to six years. We asked the teachers to request information from their
school librarians regarding the numbers of books in the school collection as part of the
survey.

We then conducted semi-structured interviews in classrooms and libraries at four schools and
also met with one group of twenty-three bilingual teachers to discuss access to Spanish print
materials in their schools and classrooms. Field notes were gathered during informal
interviews of community members as well as during classroom and library observations and
the group teacher interviews. When permitted, we audio taped the interviews and took
photographs of classroom and school libraries. We gathered field notes during all
observations. Data were also collected from district websites and included library collection
maps as well as information about school demographics and number of books in school
library collections.

We examined the data to look for themes related to access to reading materials in Spanish.
We looked for responses that were reflected across contexts and for matches and gaps
between the survey responses and what we observed at the schools. Themes that emerged
from this analysis included a decreased availability of Spanish print materials even in schools
with a high concentration of Spanish speakers, as well as an attitude among school librarians
and some teachers that there was no longer a need for Spanish materials or for native Spanish
speakers to read them. We also found a small cadre of bilingual teachers who were somewhat
resisting these patterns and affording their students access to Spanish books, sometimes
covertly.

¿Dónde están los libros?/Where are the books?

Two major themes emerged from the examination of the survey, observation and interview
data: limited availability of Spanish books and print and shifting attitudes toward the use of
Spanish books and print with restricted access to those books and print that were found.
There was, of course, some overlap between themes. We found that while there were some
Spanish print materials available in classrooms and school libraries, there was a notable
decline in the availability and access to these materials in recent years. Furthermore, there has
been a not-so-subtle shift in the past five years in the attitudes toward the use of Spanish print
materials as classroom resources. This shift was observed to varying degree in all schools that
we visited and appears to have affected students’ (and teachers’) access to Spanish print
materials.
Availability of Spanish books

Thirty-five surveys from bilingual teachers in thirty-three schools were returned. The overwhelming majority of the teachers (n=31) were teaching in English-only environments, although some gave primary language support to their students who were mostly native Spanish speakers. The percentage of Spanish speaking students at each school ranged from 60% to 99% with a mean of 87%. All schools but one new private school awaiting funding had an on-site library.

Of the thirty-two schools libraries, all had collections of Spanish books, but only twenty reported on the size of the collection, which varied from 10 books to 4,000 books. The number of Spanish books ranged from 100 to 4000, but there was such high variance in the number that the mean is not reported here as it would not adequately represent the number of books per school. Data were unavailable for six schools and the remaining surveys either reported numbers in percentages without the total number of books in the schools or gave vague answers such as few. According to the survey responses, twenty-two schools have books in Spanish at all grade levels.

We visited four schools from one large urban school district (Hollyland, Eureka, Violetta and DePaola, all pseudonyms) during the course of this study and our observations in those schools served to both support and, at times, contradict the survey responses. We observed both classrooms and school libraries during three of the school visits. At the fourth school, only the school library was observed and number of Spanish books is unavailable because no librarian or teacher was there at the time (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Percent ELs</th>
<th>Estimated Number of Library Booksa</th>
<th>Estimated Number Spanish Library Booksb</th>
<th>Approx. Percent Spanish Library Books c</th>
<th>Spanish Print in Library?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eureka</td>
<td>2372</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>7,500-9,999</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>09%</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hollyland</td>
<td>1323</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>12,500-14,999</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violetta</td>
<td>1688</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>12,500-14,999</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DePaola</td>
<td>1207</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>7,500-9,999</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Based on teacher survey responses.
c. Based on midpoint of range.

There were Spanish books in the four school libraries that we observed. Spanish books were mixed in with the English collection and identified with an orange dot. Librarians at three of the sites told us that this was district policy. Hollyland School also had Korean books mixed in with the rest and these had a different colored dot on them for identification. The libraries at Eureka, Violetta and DePaola had print in Spanish, but it was very limited at Eureka and DePaola.

The library at Violetta School, which has about 1500 Spanish books, had the most visible Spanish print. Signs around the library were both in English and Spanish and directed students, teachers and parents to the different sections of the library. This library was very student and family centered. It has a door that opens to the street for parents to come and use...
the library throughout the school day. While we observed the library, we noticed that several parents entered, browsed the shelves and checked out books, mostly in Spanish.

Teachers from twenty schools reported that there are now fewer books in Spanish as a result of Proposition 227. Elena, a teacher who had been at her school for four years stated, “[There are] incredibly less amounts than before. The textbooks/library books were quietly disposed of in the school trash bins.”

Teachers were also asked why they thought this was true. Steve, another teacher who has been at his school for four years commented, “Since Prop 227 passed, most of the materials purchased at school have been done for English [speaking] students only. I was talking to a colleague who teaches a bilingual class and he said that this year his class is lacking a lot of instructional materials in Spanish. He is thinking of teaching [in] English next year.”

Maria, who had been at her school for fourteen years, the first twelve as a paraprofessional lamented, “Yes, it has changed. There are less books in Spanish available. For example, before you could find a social studies book in both languages. Now you find the English version only Most Spanish books were given away to students. Very few books are available in our school library now.”

Ana complained, “The books disappeared. A lot of material was thrown away or given to students.”

This particular teacher told us how the librarian, a native Spanish speaker herself, had approached her regarding the Spanish books that were to be discarded. She covertly gave them to the teacher so she could either use them or give them to students to read. The underlying message was that she should tell no one about the even.

There was some good news. Two teachers indicated that the number of books has stayed the same and eight teachers indicated that there are more books in Spanish now, including a private school teacher who indicated that there were ten Spanish books in the school library. No information was available from the remaining schools as the teachers have not been at the school long enough to judge. One bilingual teacher even said, “The amount of bilingual books has begun to increase. More books are needed in our individual classrooms.”

Another teacher told us, “Right now we seem to have many resources in Spanish.”

Also of interest, surveys from teachers at all thirty-two schools with libraries indicated that students visit the library and are allowed to check out books. Teachers reported that students checked out between one (individual student) and 160 books per month (class total); the majority of the respondents indicated that students either checked out one book per month or one book per visit from the library. Two of those schools prohibit Kindergartners and Pre-K from checking out books. More than half the teachers (n=19) reported taking their students to the library at least once a month but one teacher indicated that she was prohibited from taking her students to the library because of past overdue books:
“…my past students had not turned in their books so I had no access until they returned them.”

Another teacher complained that sometimes she was unable to keep her weekly appointment at the library because
“…sometimes you are so busy with [the district-mandated reading series] that you might forget to go.”

**Shifting attitudes and denied access**

Twenty-eight teachers told us that there are Spanish books in their classrooms, but none were seen in any of the four classrooms visited.
“Many class libraries have Spanish books and students are allowed to read them. During independent reading, students are allowed to read any books of their choice.”

This is not always the case. José, a first grade teacher, complained
“I am not allowed to read to them in Spanish but students can read in Spanish during free reading time.”

Roberta, a second grade teacher, lamented,
“My students read in English. The passing of 227 has not given students a choice. Reading of Spanish text has been gradually withering away since the passage of 227.

There was no Spanish print in any of the three classrooms we visited. And despite one of the teachers responding that there were Spanish books in his classroom, none were observed during our visit (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1: Classroom library.**
Several other teachers attached classroom photos to their surveys demonstrating the presence of Spanish books in their classrooms. These teachers indicated that some of their students, those who feel more comfortable reading in Spanish, do choose to read Spanish books during independent reading time. One teacher told us, apart from the survey that she had turned in, that the librarian covertly gave her most of the library’s Spanish book collection, thus making it unavailable to other students at the school.

The librarians at each school site told us that less Spanish books were being ordered to replace old ones that were discarded. The librarian at the large public library told us a similar story, stating that since there was now limited teacher demand for Spanish books, she was no longer ordering many. The librarian at Hollyland, who is actually a second grade teacher responsible for the library as well, told us that since Proposition 227 she has mostly stopped buying Spanish books, except for class libraries for the bilingual classrooms. We asked if students in structured English immersion ever checked out Spanish books and she told us that it was not permitted because it might confuse the students. This was mirrored in the survey responses. One teacher told us:

“Many teachers do not allow their students to check out Spanish books.”

Only nine teachers, including the only two who are currently teaching in bilingual settings, indicated that they have Spanish print in their classrooms, and again, none was seen in the four classrooms that we observed. Comments regarding the lack of Spanish classroom print stress the fact that the district and individual schools discouraged, and in some cases do not allow, the use of Spanish print.

“I was told by teachers who had been at the school for some years. They said they had to take down Spanish charts, words, even books because the administration did not approve of it.”

For the teachers reported the presence of Spanish print, most indicated that it was used for labels, bulletin boards and flyers that go home to parents. The notable exceptions, of course, were the two bilingual classrooms where Spanish print was used throughout the classroom.

Seventeen respondents said that there is Spanish print at the school site, and this was seen in three of the four schools during our observations. This print was mostly on signs for parents, flyers that go home to parents and announcements. Twenty-five responses indicated that there is less Spanish print at the school since the passage of Proposition 227. Of note is the fact that teacher at the private school indicated that there is now more print due to the implementation of a Spanish as a second language class, a class for native English speakers. During our observations we found environmental print in Spanish in the halls on bulletin boards and announcements for parents at all four schools we visited, echoing the survey responses.

A student’s perspective

In the course of our exploration we interviewed one first grade biliterate student, Susana, who was six years old and in the first grade in a school in our central Los Angeles neighborhood. We interviewed Susana about the books she reads in school, and her responses mirrored the teacher survey and interview responses regarding shifting attitudes and restricted access to Spanish books. Before her interview she read us a story in Spanish (Buenas noches luna, Brown, 1995) and a story in English (a considerably more difficult story). After reading both stories she proceeded to ask comprehension questions in English about Buenas noches luna.
Susana entered kindergarten after the passage of Proposition 227 and was taught to read in English. She is completely bilingual as are both her parents. Her father is a native English speaker and her mother is a native Spanish speaker.

Susana has access at home to books in both Spanish and English and her facility with reading in both languages is clear. But when asked whether she reads Spanish books in school, she emphatically states that she is not allowed to check out Spanish books.

“My teacher tells us we cannot get Spanish books because we’re not in a Spanish class. We’re in an English class so our teacher tells us only to get, um, English books. And if you make a mistake and you got a Spanish book, you get to change it because our teacher has a little library.”

We noted with great concern that Susana perceives it to be a “mistake” to check out a Spanish book, despite the fact that she has experience reading books in Spanish at home. Many of the teachers in both survey responses and during interviews indicated that teachers in their schools were restricting access to Spanish books and some indicated that they were doing so as well. As we previously stated, this was accepted as fact by one of the librarians we interviewed.

Conclusion: Implications for second language literacy

The purpose of this paper was to explore the Spanish print environment in schools in central Los Angeles in the aftermath of Proposition 227, which limits the use of primary language instruction in public schools in California. According to the teachers we surveyed and interviewed, as well as our own observations, there is a notable lack in the availability of Spanish print materials in both classrooms and school libraries, but this was most notable in the classrooms. Teachers and school librarians in schools that no longer offer Spanish instruction consistently told us that they had their Spanish books “taken away” or that they were told to throw them out or destroy them. Survey responses and our own observations indicated that there are few Spanish books and little Spanish print in classrooms and throughout schools, with the exception of bilingual classrooms.

Since proponents of bilingual education have long supported the use of the primary language to support literacy development (Cummins, 1994), it is important to examine the availability of print materials in languages other than English as a means of supporting literacy development, both in the primary language and in English. Proposition 227 and the anti-immigrant wave on which it rides have already changed classroom instruction for many English language learners, limiting and/or eliminating bilingual education programs in the schools. The findings of this study show that this change has also spread to the access to reading materials in the native language. If the second language learners in our schools are to become literate participants in the community, it is critical that we reverse this trend, providing access to print materials and finding ways to make such materials available to the students who need and want them.

The following are three recommendations for providing print materials in Spanish to promote second language learning.

1. Work with schools to develop international libraries (Emmelhainz, 2014) that incorporate books in Spanish and/or other languages that are present in the school. This work might include fundraising, donations, and other means of providing the books to the schools. Emmelhainz notes that in the U.S. there is even less access to
non-fiction books than to fiction books and further suggests focusing on local and less well-known authors to contribute to the library.

2. Provide access to electronic materials through online digital libraries. One example is the International Digital Children’s Library (ICDL). The mission of the ICDL “is to support the world’s children in becoming effective members of the global community - who exhibit tolerance and respect for diverse cultures, languages and ideas -- by making the best in children's literature available online free of charge”. The ICDL was founded by a research team from the University of Maryland. Its goal is to amass more than 10,000 books in more than 100 languages. While the library also serves researchers, it includes books targeted at children aged 3-13 and includes books that are freely available in the public domain. See the ICDL website for more information (http://en.childrenslibrary.org/index.shtml).

3. Consider using e-books, where access to e-readers and tablets is available. Riesenber (2014) reports that the Spanish e-book market, which has consistently lagged behind the market for e-books in English, has recently increased. This increase is due to more titles in Spanish being made available for e-readers, and also to the fact that there has been an increase in e-reader purchases by Latinos/Hispanics. Schools throughout the U.S. are now using more tablets for instruction, so this might be a promising solution. Spanish language magazines and newspapers are also available for reading on e-readers and tablets.

When considering these recommendations it is also important to be aware of the quality and authenticity of such books, especially when teachers are not proficient in Spanish. Ernst-Slavit and Mulhern (2003) suggest that if that is the case, teachers should consider bilingual books as an option. In addition, administrators and teachers can work together to find solutions to promote the use of Spanish books in the classroom. Teachers need to become active in school and district-wide politics, attend board meetings, enlist parent support for increased access to Spanish print materials, and serve on school, district, and state task forces to work toward change.

Furthermore, there has been recent movement in terms of Proposition 227. The California Bilingual Education Amendment would essentially repeal Proposition 227 and allow non-English languages to be used in public educational instruction. The proposed constitutional amendment is sponsored in the California legislature as Senate Bill 1174 or the “Multilingual Education for a 21st Century Economy Act”. If SB 1174 is approved by the state assembly it will be on the general election ballot in November.

References


Cultural Conditioning: Influences on Critical Thinking

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Abstract

To determine whether cultural conditioning influences critical thinking, we utilized qualitative data from a literature review by comparing critical thinking focusing on but not limited to Europeans and Asians. The research questions were the following: How does cultural heritage impinge or assist critical thinking skills and abilities? How does cultural influence determine the way individuals critically think of government authority, moral and immoral judgment, decisions, and organizational success? Can individual frames of reference related to a culture influence or bias the thought process or differently affect the critical thinking process? The literature review indicated that cultural conditioning and language do affect an individual’s thought and decision-making process. Because educational institutions have diverse cultures among faculty, students, and staff, the academic environment provides an opportunity to view cultural conditioning and its effect on critical thinking during the decision-making process. In higher education, case studies have provided a means for students to respond to questions, issues, and challenges that provide reasonable alternatives influenced by cultural conditioning. Research on understanding critical thinking and influences by culture can assist in developing awareness of differences in the decision-making processes and might eliminate many of the misunderstandings incurred when leading a group toward strategic thinking and planning.

Keywords: cultural conditioning, critical thinking, cultural differences on thinking, influences on decision making.

Introduction

Critical thinking within our multicultural workforce can enhance outcomes toward a productive involvement within any organization if cultural influences are addressed, and critical thinking techniques are applied. At a time when computers are processing commands, the outcome does not provide for differences in cultural influences during the decision-making process. We believe that those cultural influences of government authority, moral judgment, and individual frames of reference all influence the thought process. Our greatest asset is the ability to become aware of cultural conditioning and its effect on critical thinking. We suggest that critical thinking skills be observed within and among multicultural environments to ultimately expand and improve workforce productivity.

Understanding Cultural Conditioning for Effective Decision-Making

In this culturally diverse and globalized world, differences of opinion on decisions often appear based on individual backgrounds. Such differences are not always based on facts,
logic, or evidence. Instead, they are often based on what is known as cultural conditioning. That is, thought processes and decision-making abilities are often narrowed by cultural background or heritage. Current work-force demographics are increasing the diversity of decision making within teams in organizations. Labor and Population, a RAND Corporation report by Karoly and Panis (2004) demonstrated how the workforce is becoming more diverse in both race and ethnicity. Figures cited in the report indicate the declining share of Whites in contrast to Hispanics and Asians. The Hispanic population doubled in size between 1980 and 2000 and is projected to continue to 17% in 2020. Asians were also projected to increase their share of the population to 17% by 2020. Karoly and Panis summarized the characteristics of the United States workforce as follows: The most notable feature is the declining share of Whites in contrast to the growth of all minority populations, particularly Hispanics and Asians and Pacific Islanders. Consequently, the U.S. workforce population will include larger percentages of new cultures. We sought to determine cultural conditioning relevant to an understanding of the dynamics that define the relations among members of various cultural groups. A critical thinker analyzes the assumptions, motives, and causes in addition to reassessing the explanation of individual reasoning. Inquiring into an individual’s cultural heritage to determine whether cultural conditioning interferes with or assists critical thinking and the decision-making process would provide an understanding of the differences of opinion among the members of the organizational workforce.

Colombo, Cullen, and Lisle (2010) indicated that cultural conditioning could be an asset in critical thinking because many bicultural or bilingual students appear to be proficient critical thinkers and often are able to lift the obstacles of cultural myths, mores, beliefs, or ideas. Therefore, if people recognize the role that cultural conditioning can play in individual thought processes and decision making, critical thinking can then be applied as a remedy to such biases, allowing groups to develop the best solution possible for a given situation rather than the most culturally appropriate or dominant one.

Colombo et al. (2010) reviewed the concepts of cultural conditioning and critical thinking and looked at the way that cultural conditioning can affect individual thought processes and decision making in varying cultures. They examined this issue as it occurs within an organizational and educational setting and provided various solutions on how to address the issue to improve the decision-making process among diverse team members.

The Influence of Cultural Conditioning on Critical Thinking

In 1871, E. B. Taylor defined culture as “that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs, and many other capabilities and habits acquired by [members] of society” (as ctd. in Soules, 2013). Thus, cultural heritage is the development of culture and behavior derived from an individual’s background. Cultural heritage can also be viewed as an area based on a person’s activities and lifestyle. Scholars may debate whether cultural heritage is inherited or achieved through experiences. Buckland (1997) posited that any heritage is what the people have developed; cultural heritage is derived from the thoughts that either preceded or existed within their thinking and those who had been or are being influenced by their surroundings.

In our definition of cultural conditioning, culture is passed down in society throughout generations and focuses on attitudes, opinions, and values. It conditions members of that society to hold certain beliefs, social norms, and settings applicable to the time and place of the people’s lives. Cultural conditioning represents beliefs and acceptance of certain areas in
the individual’s own and other cultures: social behavior and status, sexual roles, religion, government, and the economy. Critical thinking involves challenging such assumptions and assists with expanding perceptions about each situation to provide the best direction suited for a particular situation. Are some critical thinking skills universal, or are they altered based on cultural beliefs? Are critical thinking skills swayed as individuals seek solutions to problems or plan goals and strategic plans to achieve an organizational vision? What are the barriers to the critical thinking process and to effective critical thinking? Is such thinking a structural path toward reasoned judgment without any bias of cultural and social backgrounds? In the United States, critical thinking is viewed as a systematic approach toward evaluating a situation in an unbiased way and toward seeking clarity, accuracy, relevance, logic, relevance, and fairness. Critical thinking is classified differently from thinking by itself because the former involves a specific method in which information is organized and treated (Defining Critical Thinking, n.d.).

As noted by Doherty, Hansen, and Kaza (n.d.), the ability to think critically is more important in the Information Age than ever before because an explosion of content is now provided through the World Wide Web as well as through expanded global coverage through TV, satellite, and cable networks as well as traditional media outlets. Since the advent of the information explosion, much of what has been disseminated is in the form of misinformation and disinformation. The average citizen has limited analytical training on a given topic of discussion and lacks the ability to think critically about this information, which is becoming increasingly important. Many individuals cannot determine whether information is fact, opinion, or fiction. The media should be continually challenged to determine whether or not information is unbiased and has validity, reliability, and relevancy to the subject at hand. We believe that critical thinking, which involves a continuous search for accuracy, relevance, logic, and fairness within all cultures, can assist in that process.

In a 2013 interview, Lera Boroditsky stated, “Learning another language is not just a matter of learning to speak differently; it is also learning to think differently” (Einhorn, 2013). For language instructors, this connection between words and thoughts goes to the heart of teaching language and poses questions for English-as-a-second-language teachers about cultural understanding. Throughout our academic and nonacademic careers, when asking bilingual and multilingual colleagues if their thinking is altered when using a nonnative language, they often indicate that they do think differently. We believe that those who are able to speak one or more nonnative languages respond differently when speaking or thinking in another language. Our colleagues have also indicated that their responses and decisions seem to improve when conveying their thoughts in another language. If people differ in their thinking when expressing themselves in other languages, culture could also play an influential factor in conveying their thoughts and methods of thinking.

Keysar, Hayakawa, and Au (2012) indicated that thinking in a foreign language results in more rational decision making and reduces decision-making biases. Results from studies in Korea, France, and the United States have indicated that asymmetry disappears when making decisions in a foreign language. Also indicated was that people pursue more rational decisions when solving a problem in a foreign or nonnative tongue. Keysar (2012), Professor of Psychology at the University of Chicago, along with coauthor graduate students Sayuri Hayakawa and Sun Gyu Au, noted that foreign language provides a distancing mechanism that moves people from immediate intuition to a greater deliberate mode of thinking.

Levinson and Majid (2011) reviewed the question of people who think differently when speaking nonnative languages, indicating that senses and thoughts might begin with a
foundation to convey veridical information and inferences. However, individuals may absorb language in cultural categories and discriminate by selecting what their heritage and culture have found to be useful. Levinson and Majid concluded that more focus and research are needed on individual differences; they are confident that language and culture influence cognition.

It is known that various cultures throughout the years have different perceptions about religion, science, administrative process, and the definitions of winning and losing. In addition, what is considered achievement in one culture may differ in another. Furthermore, culture exists within cultures or subcultures that have varying religious, social, economic, and ruling barriers toward critical thinking. We believe those cultural influences of government authority, moral judgment, and frames of reference all influence thought processes and often hinder critical thinking. To those who see religion as authority, cultural conditioning leads to selective visions and perceptions, which decreases the objectivity of the thought process. Religious or government authority might be accepted without question. Authority impresses, influences, and often intimidates people to such an extent that they parallel their own values, beliefs, and judgments to those areas defined by leaders. Authority plays a critical role in influencing the thought process. However, the best way to improve decision-making is by gathering and deciphering information using critical thinking (Reading Services Department, n.d.). Cultural influences may affect thinking styles and influence personal thinking preferences. They may also affect judgment and inhibit the unbiased fashion that is sought in most critical thinking strategies regarding organizational goals and missions.

The origination of critical thinking dates back to the teachings, mission, and vision of Socrates (469-399 BCE; Paul, Elder, & Bartell, 1997). Socrates enjoyed discussions with Athens’ citizens while questioning their “truth.” He formulated a method of probing questions for which people were unable to rationalize or justify their claims to knowledge. Socrates is considered the father of critical thinking because he sought facts and evidence and looked for logic and clarity in thinking. Other philosophers such as Plato, Aristotle, and other Greek philosophers continued this critical thought process through the Middle Ages and Renaissance. Numerous writers followed who recognized the importance of carefully gathering evidence and training their minds to think in a systematic format, utilizing questioning to seek facts, evidence, responses, and judgment.

**Thinking, Decision-Making, and Culture**

Although the critical thinking process has not been used to confirm the foregoing beliefs, we have been exposed to several attitudes concerning cultural differences. For example, Asian individuals appear to be precise in their thinking due to Buddhist traditions of logic. Japanese individuals believe, figuratively, that the one who stands out the most gets hit on the head. On the other hand, the French pride themselves on being logical and pioneers of rational thought and Cartesian logic. Americans tend to be open to original, creative thinking and often utilize an entrepreneurial spirit even within large organizations. Latin Americans often think with their emotions and focus on family traditions and thought. If a degree of truth lies in these generalities, are perceived beliefs a basis for the decision-making process?

**European Heritage Basis for Thinking**

Critical thinking within European culture emerged during the Renaissance era among the
English, French, and Italians from spoken and written discourse on art, religion, and government. The search for truth was based on analysis, questioning assumptions, and philosophical insights. The Europeans provided a basis for the present cultural and critical thinking in existence today. In the Renaissance age (15th and 16th centuries), a flood of scholars in Europe began to think critically about religion, art, society, human nature, law, and freedom within the world. They proceeded with the assumption that most of the domains of human life were in need of analysis and critique. Among these scholars were Colet, Erasmus, and Moore in England who followed up on the insight of the ancients (Foundation for Critical Thinking, 2004). In France, the writings of Descartes focused on systematic discipline toward thinking critically, indicating that all thoughts should be questioned and tested. In Italy, Renaissance thinking brought about writings such as Machiavelli’s *The Prince*. Machiavelli identified existing politics, critically analyzed and assessed what was occurring, and opened the area of critically analyzing the inconsistencies of the political aspects at that time (Foundation for Critical Thinking, 2004). Several other intellectual freedom and critical thought scholars emerged through the Renaissance. In France, the Age of Enlightenment brought about thinkers who felt that when the human mind was disciplined by facts, logic, and evidence, an individual could determine the social and political forces of the world. Several of the French thinkers identified as critical thinkers were Bayle, Montesquieu, Voltaire, and Diderot, who considered the value of intellectual discipline to be analytical and questioning of criteria (Foundation for Critical Thinking, 2004).

**Asian Development toward Critical Thinking**

Some Japanese students, for example, have been identified as lacking critical thinking skills based on their hesitancy to question views. However, trends in education focus on the new Japanese students who have a voice in their train of thought, as evidenced by a study of 70 Japanese students at Hokkaido University in Sapporo, Japan (Stapleton, 2002). Stapleton’s results suggested that former constructs describing Asian students have changed to that of a new Asian learner who speaks as an individual and not as a conveyor of group consensus.

In Davidson’s (1994) study of critical thinking in Japan, the assumptions were that Japanese individuals have cultural obstacles involving antirational ideological customs, habits, and traditions as well as prejudices and conforming natures. These areas do not encourage diversity of opinions. The Japanese educational process also inhibits critical thinking, because many entrance examinations to other schools and colleges are based on rote memorization. However, Davidson’s study indicated that a reformation of the educational system is taking place toward a critical thinking method and the inclusion of studies that promote reasoning.

Geary, Fan, and Bow-Thomas (1992) of the University of Missouri compared the performance of 52 elementary Chinese students with students from the United States regarding mathematics problem solving and critical thinking. Both observation and direct questioning techniques were used while observing students engaged in four problem-solving strategies: counting out loud, using fingers as manipulatives, breaking down problems, and using memory skills. The researchers found that the Chinese students used more developmentally mature methods to solve mathematics problems. When the problems become difficult, the Chinese students were able to break them down into smaller components, whereas the American students had difficulty. The Chinese students were able to obtain the correct answers three times faster than the American students. Apparently, American students are taught only one way of solving mathematics problems (Su & Su,
Because of cultural conditioning in the western world, American students are usually not able to break down problems into smaller components toward solving problems; thus, cultural differences are a significant factor (Geary et al. 1992; Su & Su, 2004).

**Importance of Critical Thinking in Organizations**

Cultural conditioning affects individuals’ thought processes and decision making. These biases do not occur just in the personal or social world but in the professional world as well. Such biases can have serious effects on the kind of decisions that are made in the organizational world and can influence the effectiveness of strategic planning. When a diversity of individuals is placed in groups to form strategic planning, cultural backgrounds emerge and influence what or how people think. Thus, there is often conflict among the members of a group when formulating strategic policies for organizations. Critical thinking is perhaps one of the best tools available to leaders and managers when trying to overcome cultural biases in decision making. It is a step-by-step process and a rigorous approach to identifying reliable and objective information that can lead to effective decision making and strategic planning.

**Critical Thinking as a Tool for Overcoming Cultural Bias in Strategic Planning**

Strategic planning is a process that needs to be understood in all languages. Critical thinking can indicate how a decision was reached, based on the outcome of a specific plan focused on the success factors of greater profits, greater economy, a political victory, or enhancement of education and health. Because critical thinking is one of the solutions to analyzing and solving problems as well as effective decision making, perhaps the best method of working with a culturally diverse team is to introduce a problem or concern and then to pursue the critical thinking steps needed for effective strategic planning. When identifying the critical thinking process that leads toward successful decision outcomes, individuals may begin to understand that people from various cultures think differently when determining options and alternatives. Petress (2004) identified seven critical thinking characteristics that should be present within the decision-making process: Sufficiency, Relevance, Reliability, Consistency, Recency, Access, and Objectivity.

By using these criteria to guide the strategic decision-making process, cultural influences that sometimes cause obstacles toward effectively “conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating” (“Defining Critical Thinking,” para. 1), information can be reduced and the decision-making process toward a strategic plan can be improved.

**Conclusion**

Universities with diverse cultures among faculty, students, and staff are the training grounds for expanding and improving cultural critical thinking toward global solutions. The academic environment provides an opportunity for youth to see a variety of opinions in logic and facts believed to be based on traditions. For example, when students are able to analyze case studies regarding the traditions of different towns; they can understand facts and reasons within the decision-making process. During our experiences in teaching mathematics and utilizing the case-study method in teacher education and organizational leadership, students pursued the critical thinking process and were most successful with logical and evidential outcomes. Those students who used critical-thinking addressed these exercises by first responding to questions involving the issues and challenges within the case; second, by
providing a reasonable number of alternatives with consequences and solutions; third, by selecting the best alternative; and fourth, by supporting and defending the decision and indicating whether the decision was reasonable and possible. This process often allowed students to arrive at new conclusions about strategic planning and new visions and missions for growing organizations than would otherwise be the case.

Numerous executive education programs focus on critical thinking for successful organizations. Many business and education colleges worldwide are increasing their offerings of critical thinking courses and programs of instruction for organizational executives. In his 2007 book *The Global Business Leader: Practical Advice for Success in a Transcultural Marketplace*, Brown (Dean of INSEAD International College in Switzerland) indicated that an awareness of what is going on in the rest of the world is critical to creating an effective transcultural environment. Brown added that diversity is crucial for success in cultural sensitivity and the decision-making process in teams. In the international marketplace, a diverse team is a must. In the current environment, creating a team with a global point of view is imperative, which does not mean having team members who have traveled and racked up air miles. What it does mean is inviting people who bring different cultural perspectives to the team and those who understand that they will encounter cultural differences and be sensitive to these differences (Brown, 2007).

A significant role in decision making brought about by multicultural workers who employ critical thinking will be the future of successful organizations. Understanding critical thinking and its influence on culture can eliminate many of the conflicts that arise within international, multinational, and unilateral organizations within the team decision-making process. With the emergence of outsourcing services as well as goods, critical thinking should be practiced by all to achieve workable goals and objectives in globalized and multicultural organizations. Critical thinking skills and reasoned decision making within and among the expanding multicultural workforce cultures will result in more educational, cultural, and productive involvement. The Information Age continues to expand, causing enormous changes affecting organizations, especially government and educational systems. Individual critical thinking, as well as within and among teams, that leads toward effective organizational decisions is crucial to understanding, accelerating, and guiding business, industry, education, and government. In the midst of the information explosion, when our global communications as well as our organizational and social commands are being processed through digital communications, our greatest asset will continue to be our critical and creative thinking.

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Discovery Learning: In-service Teachers’ Classroom Immersion from Theory to Practice

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Abstract

In-service teachers in a bilingual/bicultural graduate course were immersed on a classroom teaching mode as “explorers” and gained an understanding of the concept of an explorer teacher in working with language and culture diverse students through discovery learning. Participants were able to become student-learners in a classroom setting and transfer theoretical knowledge into their classroom practices in working with English language learners.

Key Words: discovery learning, explorer classroom, explorer teacher, exploratory practice, case study methods.

Theoretical Framework

Discovery Learning

Research has demonstrated that people learn best when they are actively involved in the learning process (Freeman & Freeman, 2001). Discovery learning is an inquiry-based approach to teaching that transform students from knowledge consumers to knowledge creators and interpreters. Being a paradigm of constructivism, the learner is an information constructor; constructing new information linked to the learner’s prior knowledge. Knowledge is acquired through involvement with content instead of imitation or repetition (Kroll & LaBoskey, 1996). The Discovery Learning Project at the College of Natural Sciences of the University of Texas at Austin, has listed the following learning goals that supports the premise that knowledge can be constructed by the learners rather than “bank” from the teacher: (1) to develop systems of instruction that cause all students to think and work more creatively and to accept responsibility for their own learning, (2) to encourage students to develop problem-solving strategies for confronting the unknown or unfamiliar; and (3) to instruct future present and future teachers K-12 on the development and implementation of discovery learning techniques.

Developed primarily by the psychologist Bruner, discovery learning believes that it is best for learners to discover facts and relationships for themselves. As an instructional strategy that encourages the student to become a problem solver, discovery learning enables educators to accomplish three educational purposes: (1) to help students think and find things out for themselves; (2) to help students to do their own research: collect, organize, and analyze information to reach their own conclusions; and (3) to help students use their highest-order thinking skills: analyze, synthesize and evaluate the information (Jenkins, Metcalf, & Cruickshank, 2003)
Exploratory Practice

Freeman and Freeman introduce the concept of an “explorer teacher” who can provide the best education for second language students by planning educational experiences that take into account factors from the two worlds, the school and the larger society that student live and experience daily. As mainstream classroom teachers working with these second language learners, they bring to the school setting their attitudes and values that are shaped by the mainstream society. Likewise, these mainstream teachers can benefit from examining their attitudes and values and also by considering the values and attitudes that their second language learners bring to school (Freeman & Freeman, 2009). Allwright (2005) an “exploratory teacher” the one that create a potentially productive way of integrating research and pedagogy by exploiting the already familiar and trusted classroom activities as ways of exploring the things that puzzle teachers and learners about what is happening in their own classrooms. In this way, teachers can improve their practice by becoming researchers in their own classrooms (Freeman & Freeman, 2009). Allwright (2005) describes this “exploratory practice” as an indefinitely sustainable way for classroom language teachers and learners, while getting on their own learning and teaching, to develop their own understanding of life in the classroom. A curriculum that engages students in exploratory learning requires a view of the learner as an explorer. As such, in explorer classrooms, students ask questions, they initiate investigations, they are involved in diverse experiences, they constantly interact, and they engage in meaningful activity.

Freeman and Freeman (2009) list the following explorer learning principles that should guide our participants in their own classrooms:

- Principle # 1: Show respect for their students and organize curriculum round themes so students can investigate from whole to part;
- Principle # 2: Students’ personal inventions are refined as they move toward conventional ways of using language and understanding content area concepts; and.
- Principle # 3: Teacher focus on their learners and builds on their strengths.

Findings

Case Method

Research indicates that case studies in training both pre-service and in-service teachers provide them with a variety of opportunities to broaden and expand their teaching skills and problem solving abilities (Ashbaugh & Kasten, 1995; Miller & Kantrov, 1998). Teachers who wish to understand the complex interaction of factors affecting the performance of their students can benefit from conducting case studies on their own (Freeman & Freeman, 2001). The teacher’s engagement in this learning experience is called “authentic learning”. Successful, engaged learners are responsible for their own learning. They are able to define their own learning goals and evaluate their own achievement. They are able to transfer knowledge to solve problems creatively. Engaged learning also involves being collaborative—that is, valuing and having the skills to work with others (North Central Regional Educational Laboratory).
Methodology

Participants

A group of 25 in-service teachers pursuing a Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) or a Master of Science in Instruction (MSI) were enrolled in master-level course: Teaching in Culture and Language Diverse Classrooms” at a Midwest four-year institution of higher education. Fourteen of the participants were pursuing the Masters of Arts in Instruction with the bilingual approval. These are teachers who hold a standard teacher certificate in elementary education from the state certification board, but who lack the 18 credit hours required for the bilingual approval. The other 11 participants were pursuing the Masters of Arts in Teaching with the bilingual approval. These are classroom teachers who have made a career change and because of their ability to teach in a language other than English to elementary school children K-9, the state board of education have made them eligible for employment under a provisional teacher certificate for a maximum period of six years.

Program Design

Participants were required to pursue and complete successfully 18 credit hours for the bilingual approval. One of the required courses is BLBC 440: Teaching in Culture and Language Diverse Classrooms. The course aims at the development of a methodology for teaching language/culture diverse students by comparing and contrasting a wide range of linguistically/culturally different groups and the identification of the most effective and efficient techniques compatible with multicultural learning situations.

The required textbook “Between Worlds: Access to Second Language Acquisition” by Freeman and Freeman intends to give teachers in a graduate education program: “a text that described different theories of language acquisition and also provided examples for putting theory into practice… the text needed to address social, political, and cultural factors that influence students’ learning…We begin this textbook with case studies of several English language learners. Teachers who wish to understand the complex interaction of factors that affect the performance of their students can benefit from the reading of these stories and from conducting case studies of their own. These case studies help show how factors from both the world of the school and the world outside the school influence the academic performance of second language students” (pp. xii; 1).

Instructional Delivery

The instructional delivery and the case studies presented in the textbook helped to engage the participants on a participatory teaching approach of discussion, analysis and reflection on linguistic and cultural issues impacting the academic achievement of English language learners. The instructional activities that students and faculty member were engaged during the 16 weeks of instruction were highly interactive. The student-centered teaching approach became the primary mode of teaching. Participants were engaged into a primary instructional activity: groups presentations on the socioeconomic, cultural, linguistic and home and community issues that impact English language learners academic achievement and identifying the effective teaching practices that teachers can use in working with their diverse
classrooms and gain the knowledge and skills to better provide an authentic learning environment for all their students who are between worlds: the school and outside the school. The participants were also required to work in groups the final section of each chapter labeled “Applications” in order to explore in more detail the concepts from each chapter and delineate strategies of how to apply these activities in their classroom and prepare a teaching-log to be shared on the following meeting class. The interactive and dynamic discussions let not only to the expansion of the ideas but to bring theory into classroom practices.

The classroom environment became an “explorer classroom” where the participants became explorers who continually were revising their understanding as they live through and reflect on the new experiences encountered through the readings and class discussions/interactions and the use and practice of those teaching principles in their own classrooms. The course expectations were for the participants to transform their own classrooms into “an explorer classroom” when ‘working with multilingual students.

Findings

The engagement of the participants as “explorer students” and ultimately transforming them as “explorer teachers” was the primary goal of the teaching experience to encounter in BLBC 440: Teaching in Culture and Diverse Classrooms. At the conclusion of the course, the participants were asked to assess the extent of which the group discussions and reflections on the socioeconomic, cultural, and linguistic and home and community issues transform their teaching approach with culturally and linguistically diverse students. The participants assessed their learning experiences by responding to the following two open-ended summative questions: (1) To what extent the class of BLBC 440 provided you an opportunity to become an explorer student as well as an explorer teacher?, and (2) How do you see yourself promoting the concept of explorer in your students?

The following two charts briefly summarize the participants responses clustered on explorer teaching principles as seeing themselves as an explorer student in class and as an explorer teacher in their own classroom.
### Chart 1- Teachers’ responses as explorer students in class by explorer teaching principles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explorer Teaching Principles</th>
<th>Student Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Principle # 1** Show respect for their students and organize curriculum round themes so students can investigate from whole to part. | • I was able to gain a better understanding of the concept of an explorer teacher and improve my instruction.  
• In the explorer teacher concept, students are allowed to drive their own instruction. With this class at [this university] I have been thoroughly empowered with all philosophies we have shared from the textbook and the [instructor]. |
| **Principle # 2**: Students’ personal inventions are refined as they move toward conventional ways of using language and understanding content area concepts | • We talked many important issues and as a class, we were able to form intelligent discussions concerning all issues we touched on.  
• The class provided the background and knowledge of issues or processes related to the explorers’ classroom. It gave opportunity to be an explorer student since most of the chapters were presented by students themselves (group presentations) which had to be based on research and extensive reading. The class made me realize the importance of being an explorer teacher in order to support my students as much as possible.  
• The chapters and classroom presentations provided me strong information on how to effectively organize and run an explorer classroom. |
| **Principle # 3**: Teacher focus on their learners and builds on their strengths. | • This class reinforces to understand that teachers need to respect & provide activities for each student in the classroom.  
• This class taught me to have confidence in my students’ abilities and be able to stand back and let them explore in their own way. |
Chart # 2: Teachers’ responses as explorer teachers in their classrooms by explorer teaching principles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explorer Teaching Principles</th>
<th>Student Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Principle # 1 Show respect for their students and organize curriculum round themes so students can investigate from whole to part. | • Providing instruction that encourages inquiry and investigation.  
• I see myself as a facilitator of learning process. I should take care of providing many interesting materials, literature, games, computer software, appropriate internet resources; all of these to provide opportunities for exploring and learning.  
• Respect the learner cultural background.  
• Making sure they feel comfortable participating and sharing and feel proud about their background. |
| Principle # 2: Students’ personal inventions are refined as they move toward conventional ways of using language and understanding content area concepts | • I promote higher order of thinking and problems solving in my students; I allow them to explore and be in charge of their own learning by completing center activities.  
• I’ve come to believe that the teacher does not have to know all the answers. We learn just as our students learn.  
• I see myself promoting the concept of “explorers” on my students by learning with them and from them and making their experiences pleasant. |
| Principle # 3 : Teacher focus on their learners and builds on their strengths | • Create activities that connect to each individual background, culture & ways of life; and provide fun activities for a multicultural classroom.  
• Provide hands-on activities and small group activities.  
• I would definitely implement this concept in my classroom. I want them to be curious, aware and eager to learn about new knowledge and challenges. |

Conclusions and recommendations

Through discovery learning, as an instructional approach with in-service teachers, it was evident that at the conclusion of the BLBC 440 course, the participants have become more aware and sensitive to the need of teachers to acknowledge, respect, and value the linguistic and cultural differences of their students, and to help them become explorer of their own learning. Several themes were identified within the responses of the participants in both categories, when they were learners and when they were teachers. Within the category of
participants as learners, two themes were identified: understanding of discovery learning approach and implementation of this approach within their teaching.

Participants pointed out that through the use of applications within the BLBC 440 course, they were able to gain a better understanding of the concepts of an explorer teacher, different philosophies within this approach, and how to effectively organize curriculum and run an explorer classroom. In terms of the second theme identified within this category, implementation of this approach within their teaching, participants expressed that some of the advantages of using this approach in the way they understand teaching. For instance, one of the participant pointed out the importance of being an explorer teacher in order to support the student learning. Other participants highlighted how important is for their teaching to respect and provide activities for each student in the classroom.

In the second category, when participants responded from their role as teachers, two main themes were identified, curriculum enrichment and transformative role. Participants’ responses support the idea that discovery learning has the potential to enrich the curriculum in several ways: knowing the students, diversifying the curriculum, developing critical thinking skills and collaborative learning.

Using discovery learning as way of knowing who their students are, participants emphasized that they need to create activities that connect to each individual background, culture and way of life by providing engaging activities for the multicultural classroom. In addition, other participants saw the advantage of this approach in terms of creating a classroom environment in which students feel comfortable participating and sharing who they are. Moreover, they consider vital for students to feel proud of who they are within the classroom environment.

Diversifying the curriculum was a sub-category identified by the participant. They identified several tools that may help them to diversify the curriculum, for example: 1) providing interesting materials for students, 2) the use of games, and 3) the use of computer software to provide opportunities for exploring and learning. By identifying these tools, it became clear to the researchers that participants could develop their praxis.

Critical thinking development was the third sub-category identified. According to the participants by gaining an understanding of the discovery learning, they were able to create a classroom environment that promotes higher learning thinking skills in their students and allow them to explore and be in charge of their own learning. This is consistent with one of the learning goals of the Discovery Learning Project at the College of Natural Sciences of the University of Texas at Austin.

The last sub-category identified within the curriculum enrichment was collaborative learning. Participants see the value on creating activities that connect to each individual background, cultures and ways of life. In addition to provide fun activities for a multicultural classroom. Participants also see the potential of discovery learning in providing hand-on activities as well as small group work.

The second theme surfaced from the participants’ responses in seeing themselves as transformative explorer in their classroom. Two main sub-categories emerged from this theme; facilitator and learner. From a facilitator approach, participants see themselves in the role of a facilitator in the process of teaching and learning. As a learner, on the other hand, participants come to believe that the teacher does not have to know all the answers, and they
learn just as our students learn. In this sense, discovery learning helps in the creation of a
learning community that constructs understandings and knowledge with both teacher and
students, to help them become true explorers.

The impact that the course made on the participants’ views of the linguistic and cultural
differences on their students, is evident of the need for teacher preparation programs that a
multicultural course be required as part of teacher certification programs across state in order
to help mainstream classroom teachers to help English language learners to become
successful and productive citizens between the two worlds that are part of their social and
educational context within this mainstream society.

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Abstract

One of the tools that is widely used now to increase awareness of products and services and to generate customer flow is gamification. However, public attention needs to be drawn not only to consumer goods and services. Certain social aspects seem to be very open for public participation, such as urban planning. This field might seem to be boring and corrupt, and therefore often left out of consumer interest. However, gamified tools might help to change the state of things and draw more attention to and increase public participation in the planning process. This was also one result from a pre-test group which discussed the topic and the survey questions. The research we conducted was aimed at answering the question “Will people be more willing to get involved in urban planning if it is gamified?” In order to answer the question, a survey was conducted. The survey consisted of three main parts to find out the current levels of awareness and participation and evaluate the willingness of the respondents to change their behaviour if the process of urban planning is gamified. The results show that for majority of the aspects of urban planning we cover, gamification will be the tool to attract more participants. The results also show that the majority of respondents believe in individual effort to influence the process in both gamified and non-gamified cases.

Keywords: urban planning, gamification, marketing, awareness, public attention, public participation

Introduction

As kids, we start interacting with the world through games. We get introduced to basic concepts and models of the world; we get involved in activities by getting a reward and so on. This process of applying game mechanisms and techniques in non-game context is gamification. Later on, gamified processes follow us at school when we are trying to get the best grade and be on the leader board, when we get medals for participating at sports, at our job when we get promoted to a new position. It seems that - visible or not – gamification is everywhere and it is already a part of our everyday life, promoting goods, services, lifestyles and attracting our attention to global highlights. However, there are areas that seem to avoid gamification. Mainly, those are the spheres that are controlled by government, for example, urban planning. Several projects on urban planning were already conducted, however, they were short-term projects that involved a limited number of people and once the project was...
completed, all the activities supporting the process were stopped. Therefore, the main goal of this research is to find out if it is possible to draw public attention to urban planning by using gamification techniques.

The main reason for selecting this topic was the value exchange potential of gamification of urban planning. The central concept of the gamification framework is generating value for users, however, in the case of urban planning, the process of value generation and pursuit is two-sided. Thus while the user obtains the desired products and services, the urban planning industry benefits from shared ideas, additional resources and decreased costs. The survey was mainly targeted at Bachelor and Master students of management. This target group was selected because they are familiar with gaming trends and techniques and they represent typical future decision maker. Combined, these aspects should evaluate the present situation and provide a picture of future potential.

Theory of Urban Planning

How are the cities formed? Many countries follow a formal planning system which is based on those from other more established and developed countries. However, the ability of such a system to function, influence the land management in cities and towns is strongly influenced by a range of local, national and international forces. Thus, regardless old or new, the urban planning system is shaped by the context it operates in.

The decisions and strategies in urban planning need to be developed within an understanding of the economic, demographic, environmental and socio-spatial aspects that affect the planning systems. The following aspects should be taken into consideration:

Globalization. It is still argued to which extent globalization has affected the existing organizational forms, however there is no doubt that strengthening and internationalization of capital was highly supported by communications and transport technology.

1.1 Labor markets and income changes

A shift from manufacturing towards service industry resulted in a polarization of occupational and income structures in urban labor markets. Polarization is especially evident in the urban areas that experienced an influx of low-skilled migrants. While some cities benefitted from the migration of manufacturing plants, others suffered the effect of de-industrialization and therefore experienced income polarization more severely.

The effect has been less dramatic in the cities that are receiving Foreign Direct Investment and urban projects and programs. On the other hand, the countries that are subjected to International Monetary Fund structural adjustment policies and the contraction of public sector jobs have been affected in a much more negative way.

These economic and policy processes have resulted in rapid growth of the “informal sector”. Thus informal entrepreneurs are taking over the sectors that were abandoned by public and formal private sectors. In certain areas informality, in terms of income generation, forms of

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settlement and housing and other aspects, has become a dominant model of behavior rather than an exception.

Future development trends however suggest that urban planning in many areas (especially the developing southern areas) will take place in the context of high poverty and informal economic activity. New planning forms should acknowledge and consider the interests of low income groups and put more focus on supporting informal economic activities rather than ignoring or suppressing them.

1.2 Urban government

Usually local government is the most responsible party in charge of formal urban planning systems. However, globalization processes have transformed the role of local governments in many parts of the world. Thus the shift from 'government' to 'governance' is very notable, where non-state actors are getting more involved and active in the process of governing. For example, in certain areas (especially in the global South) real estate investors and developers are often taking one of the leading roles in urban development and decision-making.

1.3 Civil society

Society is no longer silently accepts the decisions of the planners. On the contrary, any planning decision is more likely to be executed if it is broadly supported or at least passively agreed on. It should be mentioned that more homogenous civil societies are more likely to debate planning decisions and reach a sustained consensus. Planning processes can be much more complicated in highly diverse societies with high crime rates. The other aspect that should be taken into consideration is the views of citizens on civil society. For example, in certain countries, society is often driven by religious movements, in this case the pursuit of basic social demands is likely to be on the second place after the interests of religious communities.

1.4 Urbanization

The 20th century in general was a period of major urban transformation. Firstly, all urban centers were affected by globalization processes. This effect is especially notable in the cities with high racial and income diversity, which seem to be more spatially divided and fragmented. Secondly, planners have to adjust to the rapid growth of urban population and the urban area. This growth demands the appropriate infrastructure and development.

Environmental and natural resource challenge for planning. Sustainable development is one of the core issues of urban planning and policy development. The main difficulty is the integration of sustainable development into planning agendas, as they are operated by different government institutions and are subject to different policies and legal frameworks. One of the most important issues nowadays for urban planning is the effect of climate change. The planners should ensure that the settlements are kept away from areas likely to flood, support and develop agriculture to build an assured food supply, and overall promote, develop and enforce local climate protection measures.

Another core issue is the depletion of raw materials and mineral resources, especially oil. The increasing use of oil permitted and promoted urbanization, and at the same time created a new urban form – suburbia. The inhabitants of this area are highly dependent on vehicle
transport. Furthermore, oil as an energy source can be considered one of the drivers of globalization and the growing economy, making it possible to move both goods and people quickly and cheaply over long distances. There is an ongoing debate about the issue of “peak oil”. The major concern is the effect of increasing energy costs on urban areas. The responses to the post oil era from the planning side can take the form of the development of public transport and pedestrian-based movement systems and areas, a shift towards more compact and integrated cities, and more localized food and production systems.

Urban socio-spatial change. One of the main changes planners were confronted with is the shift from 'uniplex' to 'multiplex' cities, which are dynamic and tend to interact between each other. Thus the administrative boundaries became less meaningful and clear for definition of social and economic relations.

On the other hand, cities have become more fragmented due to labor market polarization and income inequality. In this case, suburban areas, ethnic enclaves and ghettos contrast with the areas built for advanced services and the production sector, luxury retail and entertainment and so on.

Thus the trend of emphasizing the market forces of the cities can also be noted. 'Competitive cities' in this case are trying to attract investment tourists and the residential elite and therefore have a planning policy that reflects these goals.

All in all, some researchers argue that inequality and fragmentation in the cities is often the result of planning, as it excludes and criminalizes certain forms of informality (such as informal settlements) and promotes others (such as middle class driven poverty). 4

One of the trends in urban development is the U-city (ubiquitous city). The main goal of the U-city is to create value in knowledge based communities. The U-city aims to create the environment where any citizen can get any service anywhere anytime through Information Communication Technology (ICT) devices. Intelligent services include home banking, telecommunicating, teleconferencing, telemedicine, intelligent transportation system as well as remote sensing, monitoring and control of urban infrastructure.

Unlike the virtual city, where the urban elements are visualized within the virtual space, U-cities function through computer chips or sensors, connected to urban elements, which allows ubiquitous communication from person to person, person to object and object to object.

The key technologies used in a U-city include:

- Broadband Convergence Network, which is a core of ubiquitous computing service.
- High Speed Downlink Packet Access and Wireless Broadband, which allow mobile access to the contents that would normally be seen on a PC.
- Ubiquitous sensor network
- Fiber to the Premise (FTTP)
- Radio Frequency Identification (RFID)
- Internet Protocol (Ipv6)
- Augmented Reality

Global Positioning System (GPS) and more. The use of these technologies makes it possible to provide a range of services and helps to involve citizens in the decision-making and development processes.

The services provided by U-cities cover all aspects of citizens' lives, such as family, business, economy and public administration. The 'smart city' which includes smart home, smart transport, medicare, education and so on, is also a part of U-city services. Overall, the range of U-city services can be categorized as follows:

i) U-life services – include services such as home networking, which then makes it possible to control home appliances remotely; home banking and various multimedia services.

ii) U-business services allow companies to cut costs through eliminating the costs of offices and often travel costs and speeding up the processes, through introducing tools like media conferencing, information management and the virtual market.

iii) U-government – U-services that allow improvements in various areas controlled by government, for example, pollution control, public safety, transportation, and so on.

iv) Location-based services (LBS) allow the users to receive advertising and other information over their cell phones based on their current location. These services can be especially useful in the emergency cases when the emergency services (medical, police or fire-fighters) have to be dispatched to the correct location.

v) Intelligent Transportation Systems insure mobility for everyone and allow businesses to provide quick responses to market needs.

vi) Smart and Intelligent Buildings allow the management of building system or several disconnected building systems.

vii) Teleport and Intelligent Buildings offer a range of telecommunications across a variety of media, land development opportunities and ensure network distribution among the users in the area.

Another trend in urban development is smart growth. The concept was first formulated in late 1990s by the American Planning Association. The main idea of smart growth is to create a supportive environment for refocusing a share of regional growth within central cities and inner suburbs. This is intended to strengthen the regional economy, improve the quality of life of the residents and protect and restore outer area natural resource systems.

The following activities are intended to ensure the smart growth of the cities:

1. Growth control is aimed at accommodating a larger share of projected growth within designated areas and limiting the growth outside these areas and in environmentally threatened areas.

2. Inner-area revitalization is aimed at orientating state, federal, regional, nonprofit and individual actions to support neighborhood revitalization efforts; evening out local tax yields to provide funding for new and improved public services; accommodating future land development; adapting existing structures to serve market demands more effectively.

3. Design innovations will create attractive and functional communities focused on the urban centers; expand opportunities for social, economic and cultural exchange; design convenient, safe and integrated living and working environments; improve the infrastructure to support all types of development.

5 Towards ubiquitous city: concept, planning, and experiences in the Republic of Korea, Sang Ho Lee, Jung Hoon Han, Yoon Taik Leem and Tan Yigitcanlar
4. Land and natural resource preservation aims to develop more compact urban growth forms and promote development that sustains the supply of natural resources and their consumption over time.

5. Transportation reorientation is intended to improve regional access to all forms of goods and services, support non-motorized forms of transport, and insure the availability and functionality of public transport in areas of future development.

The main benefit of smart growth is notable savings in multiple areas:

- **Land savings:** consumption of underdeveloped land will be decreased and the amount of land available for recreation will be increased. Land consumption for residential and non-residential purposes will be reduced through assistance to land-purchase programs.

- **Road savings:** smart growth will allow a reduction in traffic and therefore will decrease road infrastructure costs. Growth and development of inner-urban and suburban areas should encourage non-automobile travel.

- **Infrastructure savings.** Concentration of town house and multifamily developments in central areas would allow the reduction of the number of water and sewer laterals and enable the greater sharing of trunk lines.

- **Development cost savings** will occur through slight increase in density and greater variety of housing, which should enhance its availability. Further growth of multifamily developments will also allow cost savings on the development of a separate infrastructure serving single family development.

- **Public service cost savings** will occur in the areas where the public service system is established and complete, as there is more excess capacity in service delivery.  

Another current trend in urban development is shrinking cities – densely populated urban areas with a minimum population of 10,000 residents that have faced population losses in large parts for more than two years and are undergoing economic transformation with some symptoms of a structural crisis (according to Shrinking Cities International Research Network). One of the main reasons for existence of shrinking cities is the shift from manufacturing to service industries, which has resulted in unemployment and outmigration (e.g. Pittsburgh, St. Louis). Other reasons include suburbanization, war, natural or human-induced disasters, and aging or low-fertility rate population. As planning is mostly growth oriented, planners find it difficult to accept the need for shrinkage planning. Mostly they aim for regaining economic growth in order to regain population, however, very few shrinking cities are likely to get back to prosperity. The main planning approach of planning shrinking cities should be to create a realistic vision of shrinkage and the opportunities it provides, thus making the cities greener, more compact and more sustainable.

One of the opportunities shrinking cities offer is urban greening, which, due to vacant land resources allow planned and natural reforestation. This shows measurable environmental and economic benefits for the cities such as energy savings, carbon sequestration and a reduction in urban heat-island effects. Besides, community gardens and market gardens can be developed on vacant land resources, allowing the urban population access to affordable, healthy and locally grown food.

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Another concern of researchers is the quality of life in shrinking cities. Even though some researchers argue that shrinking has a negative impact on the population staying in the city, others believe that a decreasing population adds value and gives a voice to the most excluded citizens.

One of the topics of discussion with regards to shrinking cities is the rightsizing of infrastructure. Thus, excessive infrastructure capacity can be sold to neighborhood communities. Besides, rightsizing may include such actions as closing roads or depopulating the neighborhoods. All in all, flexibility should be added into urban planning, providing on-demand infrastructure services.

De-densification is also one of the issues of shrinking cities that has to be resolved. There are two key models of reconfiguring urban settlement patterns.

One model is urban islands, which is based on building a city within a city, where areas of dense urban development concentrated within existing urban footprint are determined to be the most viable remaining areas. The population of the surrounding areas is relocated and the areas would be demolished.

An alternative model of de-densification suggests that dispersed vacancy should be used to reduce overall the density of the city. Thus existing property owners are encouraged to take over surrounding vacant lots, while agreeing to maintain their land to established standards.7

The green city is another emerging trend in urban development. The main issue of the planners promoting the green city development is finding a compromise between sustainable growth, economy development and equitable distribution.

Green developers try to take an interdisciplinary point of view on all aspects, thus integrating environmentalists’ and social theorists’ points of view. Ultimately, the goal of green developers is to find the compromise which will allow sustainable development and will at the same time be economically and socially beneficial. However, researchers argue that pure sustainability in urban planning is yet to be reached, and is still at conceptual phase.

On the path towards sustainable development the steps are still too vague and have to be defined more precisely. It should not be forgotten that social views on sustainability cannot be black and white and that actions towards sustainable changes should be taken in steady, consistent manner. Besides, the idea of sustainability should be expanded from only the ecological aspect, to include sustainable political and economic systems as well. In addition, a distinction should be made between specific and general sustainability. Specific sustainability applies to a single sector or locality, while general sustainability targets cross-sectoral and global themes. There are two political approaches that should be mentioned as the ways to achieve sustainability. The first is political pluralism, which encourages the use of the political arena to decide conflicts and issues directly or indirectly via political debates and a voting system.

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7 Planning Shrinking Cities by Justin B. Hollander, Urban and Environmental Policy and Planning Department, Tufts University, Karina Pallagst, Institute of Urban and Regional Development, University of California, Berkeley Terry Schwarz, Urban Design Center of Northeast Ohio, Kent State University, Frank J. Popper, Bloustein School of Planning and Public Policy, Rutgers University and Environmental Studies Program, Princeton University
The other strategy is to develop market mechanisms that will allow the linking of ‘economy’ and ‘environment’. The market in this case represents the arena where society balances the competing values. In all these approaches to green development, the planner's role is to organize the decision-making processes and shape the decision-making structure, and be a neutral moderator in the debate.

One of the key aspects of green development is bioregionalism – the idea of rescaling communities and economies according to the ecological boundaries of the regions. It is believed that the residents of smaller, self-sufficient regions will be more aware of the causes and effects of their environmental actions, therefore reducing the impact. This kind of development, however, requires rebuilding and reconsideration of the regional infrastructure by urban planners, without providing any foreseeable or defined outcome. 8

The following suggestions and methods can be offered to renew and improve the planning process.

Institutional context of urban planning:
- Integrated development planning. Local governments should be oriented to development and the line function departments should be better linked with each other. Thus planning should be connected to budgeting and implementation. This process is what is termed Integrated Development Planning and should be supported on the national level.
- Participatory budgeting. The details of this approach may vary from city to city. The main idea is to allow citizens or local communities to participate or vote on budget planning. In terms of urban planning this approach is short term and very focused on the community or local scale issues, rather than city-wide issues that need to be taken into consideration. The solution in this case can be making Participatory Budgeting a part of the overall planning strategy.

UN Urban Management Program. It was started in 1986 by the Urban Development Unit of the World Bank in partnership with United Nations Centre for Human Settlements. 120 cities in 57 counties were involved in this program. The overall mission was to promote socially and environmentally sustainable human settlements, provide adequate shelter for everyone and reduce urban poverty and social exclusion. According to this program the whole local government should be in charge of urban planning, rather than a single department, therefore connecting planning to all other aspects of strategic development.

Regulatory aspect of urban planning. This aspect has always been rather resistant to change, especially in the areas where private property is protected by law and the land management system allocates legal rights of development. As a result, the planning aspect turns out much easier to reform than the land management aspect, which makes the implementation of a spatial plan difficult. One of the concerns of an extension of regulatory system is its possible negative impact on informal areas, in favor of new planned areas.

Urban land law and tenure. This is one of the core aspects of urban planning in a country's urban land law. The promotion of urban change and development depends on the reforms affecting regulation of property rights, the process of urban land development, policymaking.

and management. One of the obstacles to revising the urban land law is the common assumption that freehold is the best form of property ownership - land use management systems and infrastructure are tied to this form. In this case, land carries a commodity function rather than a social function and becomes, as a result, an object of speculation promoting social exclusion.

Planning in the peri-urban areas. Urban dwellers seek to get hold of land while avoiding the high cost and threats of urban land regulations, and so move out to peri-urban areas. These areas are highly mixed in use and also highly dynamic and unstable, which makes them hard to plan and service. The main issues of planning are jurisdictional problems of mixed tenure systems and the fragmentation of settlements. Often these areas exist outside municipal boundaries as an administrative no-man's-land. Peri-urban areas require a planning approach that is different to both rural and urban planning. In the long term, the methods should combine urban, rural and regional planning, targeting sub-regional to community levels.9

Methodology

An online survey was conducted in order to find out if people would be more willing to join the process of urban planning if it was gamified.

This method was chosen for following reasons:

- Population access. Online survey provides the opportunity to reach out to diverse demographic groups, therefore providing broader perspective on the topic.
- Cost saving. Multiple platforms provide the opportunity to run online surveys for free.
- Time saving. Most survey platforms also provide the opportunity to export the result. It saves time needed for statistical analysis of the results.
- Anonymity. Since the respondents do not have to disclose their names, they then to participate more willingly and respond to the questions more truly.

This research method face issues such as incomplete responses or multiple submissions; but the problem of multiple submissions can be easily eliminated through tracking the respondents' IP addresses. In order to collect complete responses, a reminder can be set up for the cases when a user tries to skip a question. There is no solution, though, for when a user decides to quit the survey and close the browser window.10

On the pretesting phase of the survey it was found that several questions did not meet the goal of the survey. Questions with unclear wording were identified and corrected.

The survey consisted of three parts. The first part contained general demographical questions such as age and occupation. The second part was aimed at finding out how aware the respondents are and how involved they are in urban planning. The third part contained questions that were designed to evaluate if people would be more willing to join the process if it was more playful and game-designed. The questions in the second and third parts were formulated in a way that would cover all the main fields of urban planning where public contribution is necessary, suitable and appreciated. These areas were aesthetics, safety and security, reconstruction and renewal, transport, economics and environmental factors. The questions in parts 2 and 3 were paired together, i.e. a question in part 2 would evaluate how

aware is the respondent of the topic and the similar question in part 3 would evaluate how willing the respondent would be to join a gamified process.

In short, the questions would review general trends and evaluate the chances of urban planning being marketed to the public.

**Findings**

The first part of the survey was aimed at establishing the general profile of the respondents. In total, 70 people participated in the survey. 52 of the participants filled out the survey completely. The majority of the respondents were Bachelor and Master students aged 19 – 30 (Fig. 1, 2 and 3), spending between 5 and 8 hours daily on the Internet (Fig. 4). When asked how they evaluate their participation in the development of the state on the scale 1 to 5 (1 the lowest, 5 the highest; Fig. 5), 80% of the respondents evaluated their participation as 3 and lower.

The second section was dedicated to finding out how aware the respondents are of urban planning and how much they participate in it. They were asked:

- Are you tracking the energy consumption of your household?
- Do you participate in local political life?
- Do you consider your city to be secure and protected?
- Do you participate in reconstruction/renewal action in your area?
- Do you pass on information about traffic interruptions/abandoned vehicles/etc. to the responsible bodies?
- Did you ever try to propose any aesthetic improvements to your city?

The questions were formulated in a simple way, so that the topic of the survey remains clear and each question could be answered without any doubt or concern. The majority answered 'No' to 5 out of 6 questions (Fig. 6-11). This correlates well with the respondents' evaluation of their participation in their local urban development.

The second part consisted of the following questions:

- If you find out from the news that your local energy supplier is rewarding households that manage to reduce their energy consumption, would it influence your decision to track (reduce) the energy consumption of your household?
- If you find out that your local political party created a social network where the political decisions of your community were discussed and agreed with active representatives, would it increase your interest in activities of the party?
- Imagine that you could join a voluntarily “superhero league” organized by a well-known sports brand to monitor security in your area, competing with volunteers from other areas for the highest level of security. Would you be interested in such an initiative? Will it stimulate your interest in the brand and make you use its products more frequently?
- If you find out that one of your favourite brands starts a voluntary reconstruction project that consists of 5 stages, and your expertise would be suitable to complete one of the stages, would you join the project to show your support for the brand?
- Imagine that at the stations of main local gas reseller you see banners that claim you will be rewarded with free rides/gas vouchers at every branch of this reseller if you
support transport-organizing activities (i.e. reporting traffic jams, abandoned vehicles)? Would you start using gas stations of this reseller more frequently in order to report and claim the reward?

- Your local fashion brand starts a competition for the best billboard in a campaign that will be placed in numerous spots, therefore affecting the aesthetic view of your city. Would it raise your interest for the activities of the brand and make you pay more attention to how billboards affect the look of your city?

The questions in this part were designed in a way that gave the respondents the opportunity to imagine urban planning as a gamified process. It should be also mentioned that the questions of the first part were taken as a base for the questions of the second part, meaning the questions can be paired by theme. The result in this case turned to be completely the opposite. Majority of the respondents answered 'Yes' to 4 out of 6 questions (Fig. 12-18).

The question of safety and security of the state deserves a special mention. In the first set of questions 77% of respondents claimed they believe their city to be safe and secure (Fig. 8). Therefore, in the second set of questions, only 42% of respondents showed the willingness participate in activities to increase the safety levels of their state (Fig. 15).

Another question that should be mentioned is the question concerning the transportation system. The majority of respondents claimed they do not participate in any transport-related activities and they would not be willing to do so even if a reward were offered by a gas reseller (Fig. 17). The reason for this could be the demographical profile of the respondents: as mainly students participated in the survey, it could be assumed that they do not posses cars and therefore were not interested in gas as a reward. For future research the question of car ownership should be added to the demographical part of the survey in order to obtain more precise results.

Each set contained a question about the value of individual effort in urban planning. In both cases the respondents say individual effort counts to make a change, which shows that in a properly set up process, more and more people would be willing to take urban planning initiatives. All in all the results show that when applying gamified marketing strategies such as rewards, badges and titles to social areas such as urban planning will provide positive results. Involving brands and using social media and social networks will also increase participation and attract more attention to the problems of urban planning.

Results

Figure 1: Age
Figure 2: Education

Figure 3: Occupation
Figure 4: How many hours a day do you use the Internet?

- Student, 80%, 56
- Worker, 0%, 0
- Scholar, 0%, 0
- Self-employed, 3%, 2
- Employer, 1%, 1
- Manager, 4%, 3
- Skilled employee, 11%, 8

3-5, 57%, 40

less than 2, 6%, 4

more than 8, 23%, 8

6-8, 14%, 10

Figure 5: On the scale 1 to 5 (1- the lowest, 5 the highest) how much do you believe you are participating in development of your state?
Figure 6: Are you tracking the energy consumption of your household?

Figure 7: Do you participate in your local political life?
Figure 8: Do you consider your city to be secure and protected?

Figure 9: Do you participate in reconstruction/renewal action in your area?
10: Do you report traffic interruptions/abandoned vehicles/etc to the responsible institutions?

No, 87%, 52
Yes, 13%, 8

Figure 11: Have you ever tried to propose any aesthetic improvements to your city?

No, 77%, 46
Yes, 23%, 14
Figure 12: Do you believe that individual efforts can influence the economic development of the community?

Figure 13: If you find out from the news that your local energy supplier is rewarding households that manage to reduce their energy consumption, would it influence your decision to track (reduce) the energy consumption of your household?
Figure 14: If you find out that your local political party created a social network where the political decisions of your community were discussed and agreed with active representatives, would it increase your interest in activities of the party?

Yes, 75%, 39
No, 25%, 13

Figure 15: Imagine you could join a voluntarily “superhero league” organized by a well-known sports brand to monitor security in your area, competing with volunteers from other areas for the highest level
of security. Would you be interested in such an initiative? Would it stimulate your interest in the brand and make you use its products more frequently?

Figure 16: If you find out that one of your favourite brands starts a voluntarily reconstruction project that consists of 5 stages, and your expertise would be suitable to complete one of the stages, would you join the project to show your support for the brand?

Yes, 42%, 22
No, 58%, 30

Figure 17: Imagine that at the stations of main local gas reseller you see banners that claim you will be rewarded with free rides/gas vouchers at every branch of this reseller if you support transport-organizing

Yes, 60%, 31
No, 40%, 21
activities (i.e. reporting traffic jams, abandoned vehicles etc)? Would you start using gas stations of this reseller more frequently in order to report and claim the reward?

Figure 18. Your local fashion brand starts a competition for the best billboard for a current campaign that will be placed in numerous spots, therefore affecting the aesthetic view of your city. Would it raise your interest for the activities of the brand and make you pay more attention to how billboards affect the look of your city?

Figure 19: Do you agree that if every member of the community had an action plan according to their role in society and actively participated in local planning, and if decision-making was promoted by
opinion leaders through news, articles, posters etc., every individual action would be effective for the economy in general?

![Pie Chart](image.png)

Yes, 77%, 40

No, 23%, 12

Conclusion

The results show that for majority of the aspects of urban planning we discussed, gamification is the tool to attract more participants. The results also show that the majority of respondents believe in individual effort to influence the process in both gamified and non-gamified cases. Interactive ways of gamification, including several people, supported by social media e. g. are very attractive for most of the people. If they have the impression in addition, that they can learn, participate and influence decisions of the daily life around them, gamification is the tool of choice. The survey shows in addition, that gamification should be used more often in politics, society and business, especially in processes of information and decision making.

References


Mutual Cultural Influence of Colonization and Migration

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Introduction

This paper gives a brief description of part of a two-year (2010-2012) project called Comenius Lifelong Learning Program sponsored by the EU and carried out by eight European partner schools, belonging to eight EU country members, namely Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Romania, Bulgaria and Hungary. It mainly focuses on the second year of the project and the work produced in this context by the Italian School.

Aims

The main aims of the project may be summarized as follows:
- Using English as the common language for communication and study;
- Getting to know each other (students and teachers) and establishing a good common understanding basis overcoming cultural differences;
- Exchanging info and producing data and learning material, such as CD’s, posters, flyers, questionnaires, quizzes etc., using Information Technology; and
- Exchanging trips with the other seven European countries. According to the initial agreement, all partners took several trips to the other partner-countries and students were hosted at homes very different from their own. The Italian School (Istituto G. Caetani) participated in 6 trips, to France, Spain, Portugal, Romania, Hungary and Greece.

Some data about the Italian school

The school is called “LICEO GELASIO CAETANI” and it is a state Secondary school situated downtown Rome. Being located at a short distance from San Peter’s Basilica, the Vatican Museums, the Courts, the TV Headquarters and the shopping district it has a cosmopolitan atmosphere. On the other hand, due to its accessibility from urban, suburban and even rural areas around north western Rome, the school population comes from an extremely wide range of social, economic and cultural backgrounds.

The school population

There are over 100 teachers and about 1004 students out of which 861 are girls and 143 are boys. The students’ age ranges from 14-19. The majority of students are Italian living in Rome or the outskirts. It is one of the distinguishing characteristic traits of the school, however, that over the last ten years the percentage of foreign students, children of migrant workers from European and non-European countries has been constantly increasing. Social, cultural and intercultural integration, therefore, has been developing into one of the school’s top priority aims. Currently the percentage of foreign students or students with a migratory background is about 8.6% of the school population. This plurality depending on the variety of students’ social, cultural, religious and ethnic backgrounds makes the School quite different from other schools in Rome, where the social background depends on the geographic location.
Courses and facilities

The School offers three different full courses (sections) that develop into five forms covering five years of study, according to the Italian Law on Secondary Education. At the end of the fifth year, students take a School leaving examination that allows them access to jobs and Universities. The courses are Linguistic and Human Sciences. There is a wide range of subjects taught, some of which are common to all sections, such as Italian Language and Literature, Mathematics, English, History, Religious Education, Science, French and Physical Education, as well as Latin, Spanish, Psychology, Philosophy, Pedagogy, Sociology and Economics.

International relations

The School teachers have experience in various international and inter-European projects, such as participating in Comenius Programs, organizing language Courses abroad, carrying out student exchanges, trips and other Intercultural Projects involving groups of students and teachers.

The sub-project

During the second year of the project, the Italian students had to present material pertaining to the cultural development in Renaissance Europe, under the subtitle “Colonies of the Mind”. The following are some data concerning the sub-project:

- **Time and curriculum**: October 2011- March 2012, ie 6 months in all, and it was part of the school curriculum that year;
- **Students’ Level of English as L2**: Intermediate to Upper Intermediate and Advanced
- **Students’ age range**: 16-19;
- **Students involved**: The students involved were about 40 and came from two different forms. They were of Italian and non-Italian origin. Not all of them participated in the trips abroad, but all of them studied the materials; and
- **Material**: The Italian school focused on the study of the Renaissance painting by Rafaello Sanzio over the period 1509-1511. It is entitled *The School of Athens* and it can be found in the Sala della Segnatura in the Vatican Museum.

Why choose *The School of Athens*?

A number of reasons exist as the choice of this painting, including:

- The significance of the painting, besides its artistic quality, relies on the fact that the painter himself meant it to be a link between ancient and contemporary human thought;
- The closeness of the school to the Vatican Museum gives the opportunity to visit and study it both in the preparatory phase and during visits of foreign student-hosts in Rome;
- The subject of the picture offers a unique opportunity for interdisciplinary and cross-cultural reference and integrates various school subjects sometimes taught in isolation; and
- The picture is so famous that it is still used as trademark or logo by Mass Media all over the world therefore it gives students in-depth knowledge of Mass Communication tools in the modern world.
Brief description of the painting

The most relevant features of the painting may be summarized as:

- *The School of Athens* is a pictorial expression of what Renaissance stands for, that is the revival of classical culture (the Fine Arts, Science, Philosophy and Thought) in the 15th and 16th centuries. In this painting, Raphael (1483-1520) brought ancient and modern together by painting thinkers, scientists, mathematicians, architects and philosophers of antiquity in the guise of men of his own day and vice versa. This is the focus of the painting and the main reason why it was chosen.

- Right in the centre of the painting there are the two ancient Greek philosophers, whose works are the fundamentals of philosophy, Plato (428/427BC-348/347BC), and Aristotle (384 BC–322 BC). Heraclitus in the foreground looks like Michelangelo (1475-1564) the famous sculptor, architect and painter of the Sistine Chapel ceiling. Sometimes the reference is even threefold: for example, the man on the right bending with a pair of compasses in his hand is Bramante (1444-1514) the Renaissance architect who planned St Peter’s Basilica. He is also Euclid, the creator of modern Geometry, and Archimedes, the physicist. Many other interesting details and curiosities about the painting were found out by the Students browsing the web.

Methodology

First of all, each student was provided with a picture of the painting. All students were given a list of data with the main characters and then they were asked to make a text out of it (Widdowson, information transfer). The text should resemble the above mentioned description.

A lot of interdisciplinary issues were also discussed, such as painting, architecture, philosophy, history, religion, science and music. Obviously the language level was tailored to the students’ level as well as their general knowledge. The next step was for Italian students to present and analyze the painting to the other European students abroad.

Psychology teachers contributed to the production of extra reading material that was translated in English and presented to Italian students. This material, which was given in a quiz format, turned out to be highly motivating (Krashen, the affective filter) not only as reading material but also as a starting point for debate and discussion because every student was curious to know about themselves and the philosopher they seemed to resemble. A CD and a DVD with the main issues were also produced.

The School of Athens in the 21st century - Use Your Illusion

A detail from The School of Athens can be seen on the cover art of the Guns N’Roses albums entitled *Use Your Illusion I* and *II*. This detail was elaborated by Mark Kostabi, an American artist, in 1991. The students researched the meaning and its link to the painting. The detail is taken from the upper right hand corner of the painting and it shows Pyrrho of Elis, an ancient Greek philosopher, teaching a barefoot boy who is taking down notes. Pyrrho’s philosophy
stands on the claim that “humanity is unable to know the inner substance of things, only how things appear”. The motto of the album “Use your illusion” encourages us to follow our dreams no matter how risky and deceptive they may prove to be. This is the teaching of the philosopher and the message of the album. Probably the boy is the human kind, Learners of all ages in search for knowledge (compare to Widdowson’s distinction between Learner and Student). The subtitle of the Project itself is Life-Long Learning Program. Some of the songs in the album were played by the guitar and sung by all students.

**Photography**

Some of the students made a picture of a *tableau vivant* they produced imitating *The School of Athens* on the staircase of the school. This is shown at Figure 1.

*Figure1: Tableau Vivant – student reproduction of the School of Athens setting*

**Conclusions**

The students’ motivated participation was demonstrated by the various activities they carried out on their own beyond the teacher’s guidance, such as the *tableau vivant*, the meaning of *Use Your Illusion Album*, the adaptation of *The School of Athens quiz*, the music they chose to play from the Album as well as the number of details and curiosities about the painting
they found out browsing the web. This confirms Vygotsky’s theory on interaction with peers as an effective way of developing skills and strategies, the basis of cooperative learning.

Last but not least, trips and exchanges gave all Students, independently of their origin, the chance to feel what it means to be “different” and the need to do their best to achieve comprehension and integration.
Multiculturalism and Health in Italian Schools

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Abstract

This paper describes a research project aimed at providing both employment for students and recognizing the quality of health care received by immigrant patients who attend the offices of general practitioners in the City and Hinterland of Bari.

Keywords: multiculturalism, health education, secondary school, immigrant patients, general practitioners

Introduction

This paper describes a research project in Bari (Italy) and surroundings that involved students, medical practitioners and immigrants.

On April 23, 2013, following an agreement among University of Studies of Bari (Italy), the General Practitioners Association of Bari and Secondary Vocational School “De Lilla” of Conversano (Bari), a research and training project was established, devoted to a group of 19 students. The project was named: “Immigrants in Apulia (Italy): right to health and social equity”.

This project was aimed both at providing employment for students and at recognizing the quality of health care received by illegal immigrant patients who attend the offices of the general practitioners in the City and Hinterland of Bari, starting from a Law of Apulia Region, to be precise the one dating December 4, 2009, n°32.

That law is titled “Standards for the reception and the integration of immigrants in Puglia”. It is based on the principles of the “Ottawa Charter for Health Promotion” (WHO, Ottawa, November 21, 1986: Health promotion focuses on achieving equity in health). Health promotion action aims at reducing differences in current health status and ensuring equal opportunities and resources to enable all people to achieve their fullest health potential. This includes a secure foundation in a supportive environment, access to information, life skills and opportunities for making healthy choices. People cannot achieve their fullest health potential unless they are able to take control of those things which determine their health. This must apply equally to women and men.

The Law of December 4, 2009, n° 32, states: “illegal immigrants have the right to choose a general practitioner and a pediatrician practitioner” (n° 5, c., C, D, E).

Even though legislation is very advanced, it is necessary to form an alliance between scientific research and the school system, both in order to convince politicians to apply the Law, and to promote intercultural sensitivity, mostly in younger generations.
The research and training project: “Immigrants in Apulia (Italy): right to health and social equity”, included both an intercultural formative stage, and a brief following job experience in the offices of general practitioners in many towns of the Hinterland of Bari, such as Polignano a Mare, Mola di Bari, Noicattaro and Conversano.

The offices of the general practitioners provide, in fact, the professional figure of a secretary / office assistant who can receive patients, write a health profile, and refer them to the general practitioner. Student engaged in the Stage 1 activity and in the Research Program were called, in the first instance, to observe and assist this professional (training activity), and, subsequently, to request information to immigrant patients about their health conditions (research activity).

The research activity was considered to be of utmost importance due to the data being gathered. Data was obtained through the administration of a survey questionnaire, distributed with the assistance of a Researcher.

Objectives and phases of the training/research project

The Project was based on two primary objectives:

i) **Objective 1**: Opinions of health professionals (general practitioners) about the needs of immigrant patients, with particular regard to their level of social inclusion and health; and

ii) **Objective 2**: Opinions of immigrant people, with particular regard to those who are not provided with regular residency permit, about their health problems and their level of welfare and social inclusion.

The project was developed in three phases, described below.

**Phase 1**

Awareness and orientation training activity of the students group involved in the Project about the main social and intercultural issues of a globalized world. This part of the project was jointly conducted by:

- Prof. Giulia Monteleone a teacher of the Secondary School “De Lilla”, who performs the function of tutor teaching; and

- Dr. Pasquale Renna (the author if this paper) a researcher from the University of Bari Aldo Moro who, on behalf of the General Practitioners Association of the City of Bari offers specific training designed to prepare students for their new learning environment – the general practitioner’s office - in which they act during the course of their training/research activity. Their activity was performed *in situ* in the laboratories of general practitioners of the City and the hinterland of Bari.

In Phase 1, the university researcher has a particular role to play and specific functions to perform within a 40 hour training time-frame. The main activities are:

a) Train students who are to perform the internship in the offices of general physicians in specific issues that are the same that currently confront practitioners, that is, study and research the quality of health care for illegal immigrant patients, in order to develop an in-depth understanding of the environment and type of assistance these individuals experience. The specific activities of this internship provide the students with an awareness of the universal right to basic medical care for all human beings, as established by the WHO and the Ottawa Charter.
b) Sensitization and guidance of student trainees in the development of a closed-answer questionnaire, to be administered together with general practitioners, to illegal immigrants who attend their offices.

The 40 hours training program took place between May 8 and 24, 2013. In this phase, two meetings with general practitioners specialized in intercultural and sexual medical problems were provided to the group of students involved in the research. The meetings were addressed by leading health practitioners with significant experience in the care and treatment of immigrants and, in particular, with a wealth of knowledge and skills relevant to issues related to sexuality in health education, especially in an intercultural context.

Phase 2.
Specific activities conducted in the offices of the general practitioners of the Greater Metropolitan Area of the City of Bari, in addition to which the following towns were also involved in: Noicattaro, Polignano a Mare, Conversano, Mola di Bari. These activities were conducted over a period of two weeks, accounting for 80 hours of practical education and training.

Activities under this phase were led by Prof. Giulia Monteleone and Dr Pasquale Renna. As part of this phase student trainees became familiar with the activities of the secretariat of the general practitioner, and also administered the questionnaire survey to immigrants.

In this phase, in particular Dr Renna carried out the following functions:
• planning and facilitation of learning activities in studies of general practitioners;
• ensuring the quality and effectiveness of the training program co-designed between School and Health System of the Towns of the Hinterland of Bari;
• assessing and evaluating student progress and the effectiveness of training activities.

Phase 3.
Processing of data and discussion of results.

The entire project was delivered between May and August 2013. The schedule of activities was:

viii) Classroom laboratory activities (May, 2013);
ix) Specific training on gender and sexual health problems in general and on health problems of immigrant people in Italy by family practitioners working in the City of Bari (June, 2013);
x) Development of the questionnaire survey (June, 2013);
x) Stage working sessions in the City and Hinterland of Bari (Italy) within general practitioners consulting rooms (July and August, 2013); and
xii) Data processing and discussion on the results of the research activity (work in progress at the time of writing this paper).

Preliminary results of the research activity

The questionnaire administered to illegal immigrant patients of general practitioners contains 22 items, which were analyzed by two methods:
a) All answers given by respondents regardless of gender and class were analyzed. Simple tables were created, reporting both absolute and percentage values, and their graphical representations.
b) Contingency tables were created showing both the absolute and percentage values and related graphical representations.

Preliminary results indicate that, from the inquiry by the offices of general practitioners, both regular and illegal immigrant patients in Puglia are well treated by the primary care professionals: general practitioners. The results indicate patients do not have any difficulty in either the care relationship with their doctor, nor in accessing primary care. These findings are significantly important since in Puglia, and more generally in Italy, the general practitioner has become a valuable resource for the promotion of health through specific educational activities.

**Conclusions**

The aim of this research project was to introduce and involve secondary school students to the administration and practices of general practitioners laboratories. This process turned students into emerging researchers, by virtue of them having developed and administered a questionnaire to immigrant patients. During this process, they were able to learn much about the important social role of the general practitioner, who is among the major Italian authorities who monitor and attempt to solve the health needs and social well-being of the population.

This project is worthwhile in terms of: student personal development (the wealth of learning during the project); community engagement (student engage with medical practitioners as well as illegal immigrants); social perspective (illegal immigrants are the focus of health care). Consequently, on the outcomes of this process is greater understanding between the relevant parties and a reduction of negative perceptions about illegal immigrants – a factor that is generally accepted to exist.

It is recommended that projects like these should be adopted/rolled out into other cities and regions in Italy and that consideration be given to the development of similar programs in other EU nations and beyond where illegal immigration is known to be a significant issue.

**References**