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FROM THE EDITORS

This issue of Educational Planning covers from educational planning theories to policy planning implementation, professional development planning and overseas student teaching planning. We will lead our readers to many countries in the world. First, Nir from Israel starts us with the theoretical perspective of procrastination and what it means to the process of educational planning. Then, Ford introduces her model of professional development to equalize the learning environments. Momoh and Ofoegbu present us with the challenges facing Nigerian educators for the implementation of educational policies. Then, Jiang, Lim, DeVillar and Delacruz share with us their experiences working with student teachers teaching abroad.

Nir's study attempts to explore if perceived certainty and low risk promote individuals' tendency to procrastinate. Findings show that less certain circumstances promote proactivity and a tendency to take immediate measures, whereas higher certainty promotes procrastination evident in a tendency to avoid and delay action.

Ford's article explores a theoretical model of professional development that combines the goals of further equipping teachers through professional development while at the same time equalizing learning environments for the students. The model involves purposeful convergence of critical self-reflection, cultural proficiency training, and knowledge of self-determination theory.

The aim of the Momoh and Ofoegbu paper is to examine the challenges of the implementation of education policies for sustainability in the Nigeria education system. It is observed that proper planning at the formulation stage, capacity for implementation and accountability, involvement of stakeholders in policy formulation as well as monitoring and evaluation are indices for effective implementation.

Finally, the study presented by Jiang, Lim, DeVillar and Delacruz investigates the degree to which former student teachers abroad have transferred, adapted and integrated previous experiences gathered in their student teaching abroad (STA) settings to (a) positively shape the current culturally responsive context of their U.S. classrooms and (b) enhance the instructional and curricular experiences of their increasingly diverse students. Findings of the study demonstrate that benefits of international student teaching experiences transfer to current practicing teachers as they work with diverse learners in U.S. classrooms.

In the articles selected for publication in this issue, the authors are touching on different aspects of international educational planning. While Nir focuses on the factors that could possibly contribute to successful planning without procrastination, Ford initiates a model of planning professional development to equalize learning environments. Then, Momoh and Ofoegbu bring our attention to the educational policy planning and implementation in Nigeria. The international perspective of educational planning in this issue is further broadened by Jiang, Lim, DeVillar and Delacruz who report the findings of their study on the impact of effective planning for student teaching abroad.

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August, 2019

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THE SURPRISE OF THE EXPECTED: SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR PROCRASTINATION

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ABSTRACT

While certainty is considered a psychologically desired state, the possibility of departure from the current study is that it may also have some negative consequences if it promotes a sense of serenity which in turn encourages procrastination and the tendency to postpone essential activities. The current study attempts to answer the following question: To what extent do perceived certainty and low risk promote individuals' tendency to procrastinate? One hundred and twenty-five BA and MA students studying towards their degree in education participated in a three-stage study that assessed their preference towards certainty, level of procrastination and the relationship between perceived certainty and procrastination. Findings show that less certain circumstances promote procrastination and a tendency to take immediate measures, whereas higher certainty promotes procrastination. Evidence in a tendency to avoid delay activities. Hence, certainty may be counter-productive when its future effects are taken for granted. Implications are further discussed.

INTRODUCTION

During my professional career, I have always been amazed by the fact that most people who fail to show up on time to meetings travel relatively a short distance compared to those who do come on time. While attempting to solve this riddle I found out that this phenomenon has a rather simple and straightforward explanation: It appears that individuals set their departure time according to their perceived uncertainty. Those coming from nearby offices feel more confident that it will take them just a few minutes to get to the meeting room and, therefore, set out shortly before the meeting begins. However, those coming from a distance exhibit awareness of the many unexpected delay-causing events that can occur on their way and as a result start their travel much earlier to ensure they reach the meeting on time. Such occurrences which are rather frequent suggest a possible connection between the level of certainty individuals perceive and their tendency to therefore procrastinate. This is the focus of the current study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is most likely that the first decade of the 21st century will be remembered as a period that established the notion that uncertainty and instability are two dominant and immanent features of our daily reality (Gainey, 2009). Uncertainty is generally viewed as an aversive state and a source of threat, stress (Ferris, Fedor, Chachere & Pondy, 1989; Ferris, Russ & Fandt, 1989; McGregor, Nash, Mann & Phills, 2010; Proulx, Heine & Vohs, 2010) and risk (Grote, 2015) that individuals are motivated to reduce (Bar-Anan, Wilson & Gilbert, 2009; Heine, Proulx & Vohs, 2006; Hogg, 2007).

Feelings of uncertainty are associated with instability (Latack, 1986) and signal a lack of information and confidence in current information either about the environment or about the self. Often, the sense of uncertainty is aggravated when individuals fail to adequately predict future outcomes (Haas & Cunningham, 2014) that follow major transitions (Ashford, 1988). Studies indicate that uncertainty promotes individuals' tendency to adopt a conservative mode of operation and to stick to their prior values, attitudes and beliefs (McGregor, 2006; Proulx & Heine, 2008;

Proulx, Heine & Vohs, 2010) while attempting to increase their notion of stability. By gaining information, people learn to predict and control their environment, to decrease their perceived uncertainty and, in doing so, to increase their adaptability (Inglis, 2000).

Uncertainty is also considered a stressor in professional life and its negative influences are well documented (Hui, & Lee, 2000; Kivimäki, Vahtera, Pentti & Ferrie, 2000; Paul & Moser, 2009). For example, employees experience high job stress and their attitudinal and physiological outcomes are negatively affected (Doby & Caplan, 1995; Fox & Ganster, 1993; Ganster, 1991) when experiencing uncertainty on the job (Latack, 1986). Uncertainty also promotes the fear of making mistakes (McWilliam & Perry, 2006), encouraging individuals to take preventive measures that may increase their sense of certainty and control.

One prominent example of this tendency may be evident in the growing investment per capita on insurance policies characterizing Western societies. For example, according to a OECD report, the individual investment in insurance policies increased between 2006 and 2011 in Australia from \$2,226 to \$3,365 and in the USA from \$4,768 to \$5,499 (OECD, 2014). Although insurance policies do not prevent undesired or unexpected occurrences from happening, they allow better coping with the negative psychological consequences which follow uncertainty and unpredictable events.

While certainty is a psychologically desired state, the point of departure for the current study is that it may also have negative consequences if it promotes a sense of serenity which in turn encourages procrastination and the tendency to postpone essential actions. Assuming that perceived certainty inhibits the initiation of proactive measures, individuals may find themselves unprepared when anticipated events take place.

Proactive Behavior and Procrastination

Proactive behavior implies taking action and making things happen before some future event takes place rather than just waiting for something to happen and reacting to it. Many research findings show that proactive behaviors are strongly associated with positive outcomes (Crant, 2000; Grant, Parker & Collins, 2009; Seibert, Kraimer & Crant, 2001; Thompson, 2005; Van Scotter, Motowidlo & Cross, 2000). In this sense, procrastination, evident in the tendency to postpone action, may be considered a maladaptive behavior.

Definitions of procrastination tend to be almost as plentiful as the people researching this phenomenon. Nevertheless, they all share a common denominator emphasizing the postponing, delaying or putting off of a task or decision. Procrastination leads to dilatory behaviors that limit performance and impede individuals' ability to reach their goals (Chun Chu & Choi, 2005; Steel 2010). One procrastinates when one delays the beginning or completion of an intended course of action (Beswick & Mann, 1994; Ferrari, 1993; Lay & Silverman, 1996; Milgram, 1991) in many cases - until deadlines approach (Gersick, 1989).

It is worth noting that procrastination differs from simple decision avoidance representing people's original intention to avoid or delay their decision regarding future action (Anderson, 2003). Procrastination is extremely prevalent in the general population (Steel, 2007) and appears to be a troubling phenomenon. Studies have shown that procrastinators perform more poorly overall (Steel, Brothen & Wambach, 2001) and are more miserable in the long term (Lay & Schouwenburg, 1993; Tice & Baumeister, 1997).

Procrastination may also have dangerous implications. For example, Akerlof (1991) and O'Donoghue and Rabin (1999) consider young workers' inclination not to allot funds for retirement savings to be a form of procrastination evident in the tendency to begin preparations for later years far too late. The tendency to procrastinate is often considered an irrational reaction to circumstances

that are perceived by individuals as conflictual and risky (Akerlof, 1991; Burka & Yuen, 1983). It is also associated with low conscientiousness and high impulsivity (Dewitte & Schouwenburg, 2002; Gustavson et al., 2014; Rebetez, Rochat & Van der Linden, 2015).

The point of departure for the current study is that procrastination is not necessarily an irrational reaction to conflicting aversive or risky circumstances. Rather, it may occur when individuals encounter high-certainty and low-risk circumstances fostering the notion that there is no need to take immediate action. In this sense, it is suggested that procrastination may follow rational, non-impulsive thinking inhibiting the need for an immediate action. Perceived high certainty and low risk may encourage individuals to postpone action and may therefore undermine their tendency to undertake proactive measures.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The current study focuses, consequently, on the relation between perceived certainty and procrastination. It attempts to answer the following question:

To what extent perceived certainty and low risk promote individuals' tendency to procrastinate?

METHODOLOGY

This study is based on data containing the responses of 124 randomly sampled students studying towards their Bachelor and Master degree in education.

The first data set is used to assess the extent to which individuals have a cognitive preference for events and alternatives characterized by a greater degree of certainty. This was done using the Ellsberg paradox. This paradox in decision theory is based on the assumption that individuals overwhelmingly tend to avoid ambiguity. Therefore, they have a preference for alternatives which seem to guarantee specific odds compared to those characterized by completely ambiguous odds. As a result, they are more likely to choose a known over an unknown probability of winning even if the known probability is low and the unknown probability could be a guarantee of winning.

The Ellsberg paradox is used in three different experimental conditions. In the first condition, students were presented with two urns each containing 100 balls and were told that urn no. 1 contains 50 red and 50 black balls while urn no. 2 contains 100 balls and no information was added regarding the balls' color. In the first experimental condition, students were asked to choose an urn and take out a black ball. They were told that if they succeeded, they would receive \$100. The second experimental condition was characterized by increased risk as students were told that failure to take out a black ball would result in a \$10 penalty. In the third experimental condition some information regarding urn 2 was provided as students were told that the person who was in line before them took out a black ball from urn 2.

The second stage of the study was designed to enable assessing the extent to which procrastination is related to future events characterized by different degrees of certainty.

The group of students was randomly divided into two sub-groups. Each sub-group was asked to refer to the following scenario:

You are an elementary school principal. Next to your school is another elementary school and students in the neighborhood can choose between the two schools. Registration for the next school year starts at the beginning of January and ends by the end of June. On January you received a memo from the municipality saying that following the demographic changes in the neighborhood and the cancellation of the zoning policy, your school is likely to experience a decrease in student enrollment.

To create different conditions in terms of the level of certainty experienced by each group, we manipulated the value referring to the percentage of students that each school is likely to lose in the following school year. The first sub-group was told that school was likely to experience a 10% decrease in student enrollment (high-certainty scenario) while the second sub-group was told that enrollment would decrease by 50% (the low-certainty scenario). Respondents were given a list containing six possible actions they may choose to take in order to enable better coping with these newly created circumstances. Then, they were asked to indicate whether they intended to take any of these actions and, if so, when they intended to initiate this action on a time scale ranging from January to June. Two types of proposed actions comprised this list: actions to be performed within school (take no action, calling a teachers meeting and calling for a meeting with parents) and actions that were externally oriented (applying to the municipality, applying to the newspaper and conducting various marketing activities).

In the third stage of the data collection process, the responses of students in both sub-groups to the Procrastination Scale for student populations developed by Lay (1988) were compared using a *t*-test procedure. This was done to control for students' level of procrastination. Students' background variables including gender, level of academic degree, year of studies, area of studies and religiosity were also collected and compared between groups.

FINDINGS

Results of data analysis indicate a clear preference for certainty and information in all three experimental conditions presented in relation to the Ellsberg paradox.

In the first experimental condition, 82 students chose urn no. 1 (with the 50%-50% ratio of black and red balls), only 10 students chose urn no. 2 and 33 responded that they have no preference between the two options. Most of the students preferred urn no. 1 although they had no way of telling whether this was actually the best option as there was no information regarding the ratio of black and red balls in urn no. 2.

In the second experimental condition, when risk was added (a wrong choice would lead to a \$10 penalty), only slight differences which were not statistically significant were obtained compared to the initial choices made by the students: 83 students chose urn no. 1, 7 chose urn no. 2 and 35 responded that they had no preference between the two jars.

However, when additional although irrelevant information regarding urn no. 2 was added in the third experimental condition, the number of students who selected urn no. 2 increased significantly (see Figure 1); 73 students chose urn 1, 25 chose urn 2 and 27 responded that they had no preference. The differences found between students' choice in the first and third experimental condition were statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 127.30$; $df = 4$).

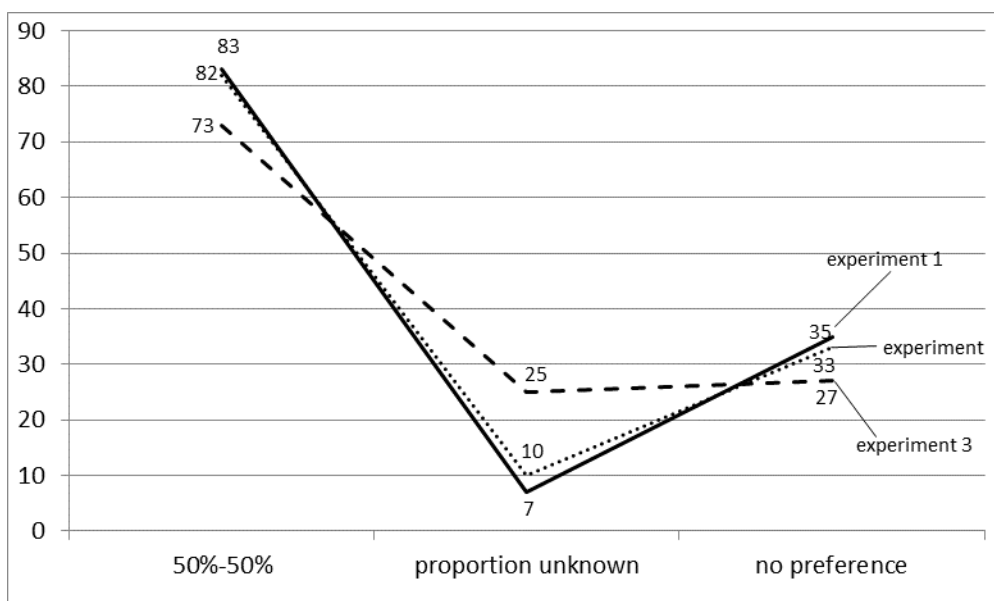


Figure 1: Individual choices: three experimental conditions

These findings support our initial assumption arguing that individuals are more likely to prefer alternatives that seem to provide more information and certainty even if this information is irrelevant or misleading.

Certainty and The Tendency to Act Proactively

Based on the scenario presented to the respondents, the second phase of the data analysis attempted to assess the relation among certainty, proactive behavior and procrastination.

This analysis was performed in two sequential phases. Initially, the tendency to act proactively was explored. The choices made by individuals in the high-certainty scenario sub-group (group 1: 10% decrease in student enrollment; $n=62$) and the low-certainty scenario sub-group (group 2: 50% decrease in student enrollment; $n=62$) were compared when asked what actions they intended to take following the anticipated decrease in student enrollment in their school. Next, the time rankings (i.e., when each activity should begin) attributed to each activity were averaged and group means were compared using a *t*-test procedure.

Respondents were allowed to make as many choices they wanted. Therefore, the total number of proposed actions evident in Figure 2 exceeds the total number of students who participated in the study. An accumulation of the total number of proposed actions reveals a different pattern in terms of the number of actions proposed by individuals in each sub-group. When looking at the number of proposed actions it is evident that the tendency to act proactively is less prevalent in the high-certainty group (sub-group 1) compared to the low-certainty group (sub-group 2).

To allow better assessment of sub-groups' proactive orientation, a further analysis was performed based on the six response options representing two different orientations: an inward orientation, referring to activities performed within school (doing nothing, calling for a teachers meeting or parents meeting) and an outward orientation (applying to the municipality, applying to the newspaper and conducting various marketing activities).

Responses were graded so that each respondent obtained two scores representing his/her internal and external orientation (each orientation was graded between 0 when no choices were made and 3, in case all options associated with the particular orientation were selected).

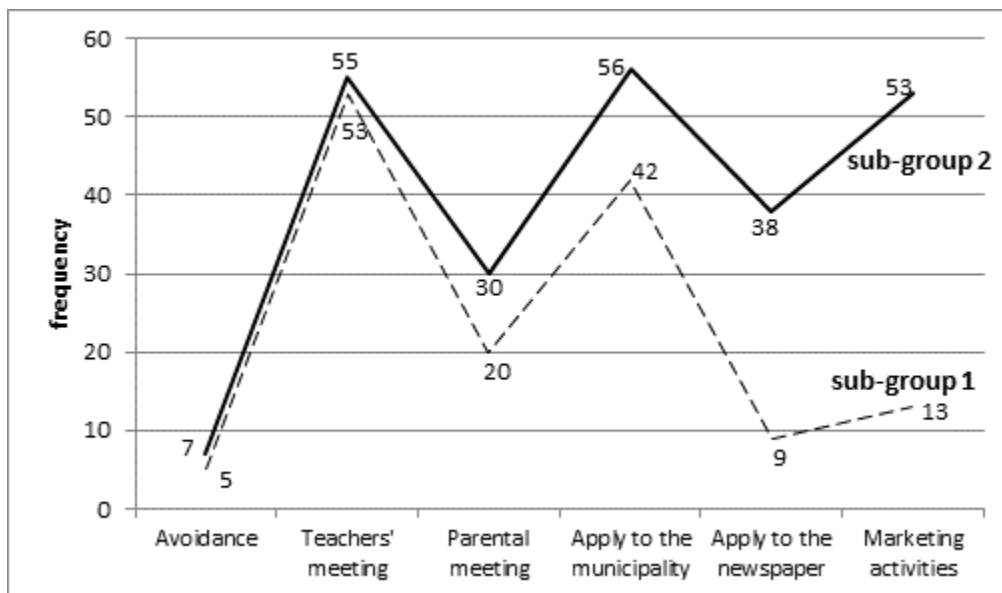


Figure 2 The tendency to act proactively

When the groups' proactive choices were compared according to their internal ($t = -2.527$; df. 121; $p < .005$), or external ($t = -11.473$; df. 106; $p < .001$) orientation, statistically significant differences are found. It is evident that the low-certainty sub-group appeared to be more proactive both internally ($M = 1.49$; $sd = .504$) and externally ($M = 2.58$; $sd = .622$) compared to the high-certainty sub-group ($M = 1.27$; $sd = .449$ internally, and $M = 1.24$; $sd = .591$ externally). Hence, it appears that those exposed to certainty to a greater extent are less inclined to take action and act proactively.

The final phase of the data analysis focused on the average time assigned for the initiation of each activity by members of each sub-group, and group means were compared.

The scenario presented to the respondents clearly indicated that registration to schools starts at the beginning of January and finishes by the end of June creating a six months' interval during which an activity can or must take place. Respondents were instructed to indicate when they would start each action they intended to take. Ratings were performed on a six-point time scale ranging between 1 (January), indicating the tendency to take immediate action (low procrastination) and 6 (June) indicating the tendency to postpone action as much as possible (high procrastination).

Using the t -test procedure, the time ratings assigned to each action are compared between the high and low certainty sub-groups. In the high-certainty sub-group, respondents indicated they would call for a teacher meeting around April, whereas respondents in the low-certainty sub-group suggested to do so in January. This pattern was also obtained for three other activities: calling a parents meeting, applying to the municipality, and initiating marketing activities.

	High certainty sub-group	Low certainty sub-group	
Calling a teachers meeting	$M=3.60$; s.d.=.14	$M=1.16$; s.d.=.42	$t = 16.122$; df. 105; $p < .001$
Calling a parents meeting	$M=4.00$; s.d.=1.89	$M=2.12$; s.d.=1.31	$t = 4.178$; df. 49; $p < .05$
Applying to the municipality	$M=3.61$; s.d.=1.28	$M=1.35$; s.d.=1.49	$t = 7.861$; df. 96; $p < .001$
Initiating marketing activities	$M=3.30$; s.d.=1.60	$M=2.34$; s.d.=1.13	$t = 2.505$; df. 63; $p < .05$
Applying to the newspaper	$M=2.33$; s.d.=1.41	$M=1.76$; s.d.=.80	$t = 1.617$; df. 46; $p < n.s.$

Table 1 Differences between the sub-groups in the time frame assigned for each activity

These results indicated that overall individuals referring to the high-certainty scenario tended to postpone their actions to approximately two months before the deadline. These time frames were two months later compared to those assigned by individuals who responded to the low-certainty scenario.

These findings seem to be directly related to the research manipulation performed on students' percentage of enrollment in school as no statistically significant differences were found between the sub-groups in the level of procrastination using the Procrastination Scale for student populations (Lay, 1988) (high-certainty group $M=3.16$; s.d.=.30; low-certainty group $M=3.13$; s.d.=.26; $t = .508$; df. 119) or, in individual background characteristics such as gender, level of education, age and religiosity.

DISCUSSION

The findings obtained in the current study lead to three main insights. Initially, in line with evidence coming from other studies (for example, Camerer & Weber, 1992; Heath & Tversky, 1991; Rubaltelli, Rumiati & Slovic, 2010) our findings indicate that people prefer alternatives that seem to be clearer and more certain as they have a preference for the known over the unknown. This preference is also known as the Certainty Effect (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979): individuals are encouraged to choose alternatives that offer more certain information since they consider them safer. This may be true especially **when individuals are exposed to ambiguous and uncertain conditions**. As our findings indicate, the tendency to prefer alternatives that appear to offer more information exists even when this information makes little or no real contribution to the quality of future decisions, or when it is misleading. In this sense, the choice between the alternatives that followed Ellsberg's paradox reflects a rational tendency to lean on the best available information even when this information limits the forming of beliefs or choices with confidence (Epstein & Le Breton, 1993). Our findings indicate that individuals do not exclusively act rationally based on the quality of information they have while confronted with ambiguous circumstances. It appears that the tendency to avoid ambiguity and uncertainty is likely to undermine individual judgment and the estimation of existing information and, as a result, to negatively influence the quality of decisions (Al-Najjar & Weinstein, 2009). Although some research evidence suggests that individuals give equal weight to gains and losses (Yechiam & Hochman, 2014), our results show that lack of certainty

strongly influences individual judgment as people are more likely to focus on potential losses than on possible gains. They tend, therefore, to prefer alternatives that appear to be more certain.

A second insight refers to the relation between certainty and the tendency to act proactively. While previously reported studies have demonstrated the negative consequences associated with uncertainty evident in the level of anxiety (DiFonzo & Bordia, 2002), psychological strain (Spector, 2002; Terry & Jimmieson, 1999), learned helplessness (Martinko & Gardner, 1982), and quality of performance (Jimmieson & Terry, 1999; Orpen, 1994), our findings suggest that certainty may also have some negative consequences. Such consequences may be evident in the tendency to postpone activities rather than adopt a proactive mode of behavior. It appears that certainty produces serenity which seems to have a dual effect: on the one hand, it promotes tranquility which decreases individual stress; on the other hand, it inhibits proactive behaviors. This effect is rarely discussed in the literature and its negative consequences are less documented compared to the rich body of empirical findings testifying to the negative implications associated with uncertainty.

Finally, unlike previous studies reporting that procrastination is associated with higher levels of anxiety, stress and fear of failure (Ferrari et al., 2005; Ferrari & Tice, 2000; Schraw, Wadkins & Olafson, 2007; Wolters, 2003), and that procrastination is more likely to follow less stable and more situationally determined influences (Lay, 1992; Milgram, Dangour & Raviv, 1992; Saddler & Buley, 1999), our findings suggest that certainty may lead to procrastination as well. It appears that individuals confronting relatively stable and certain circumstances are more likely to delay their actions compared to those who perceive the circumstances to be uncertain.

IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Certainty may be counter-productive if future events are taken for granted, undermining required preparations. Hence, it appears that certainty and uncertainty seem to be equally problematic: while perceived uncertainty may have negative impacts evident in the stress and risk it produces, perceived certainty may also have negative effects if individuals postpone their actions and fail to take required measures on time.

Certainty seems to promote a tendency towards procrastination leading to delays in the performance of tasks. Based on our findings, it is suggested that individuals in general, planners and organizational leaders in particular, must be aware of this bias. They need to take actions intended that promote the stability and certainty of their organizations and, at the same time, ensure that procrastination is avoided so that they do not become victims of their own success. Such awareness is important in order to promote individual and organizational effectiveness and decrease the chances that certain and anticipated events will take them by surprise.

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APPENDIX

Procrastination Scale

	Extremely Uncharacteristic	Moderately Uncharacteristic	Neutral	Moderately Characteristic	Extremely Characteristic
	1	2	3	4	5
1.	I often find myself performing tasks that I had intended to do days before.				
2.*	I do not do assignments until just before they are to be handed in.				
3.*	When I am finished with a library book, I return it right away regardless of the date it is due.				
4.	When it is time to get up in the morning, I most often get right out of bed.				
5.	A letter may sit for days after I write it before mailing it.				
6.	I generally return phone calls promptly.				
7.	Even with jobs that require little else except sitting down and doing them, I find they seldom get done for days.				
8.	I usually make decisions as soon as possible.				
9.	I generally delay before starting on work I have to do.				
10.*	I usually have to rush to complete a task on time.				
11.	When preparing to go out, I am seldom caught having to do something at the last minute.				
12.	In preparing for some deadline, I often waste time by doing other things.				
13.*	I prefer to leave early for an appointment.				
14.*	I usually start an assignment shortly after it is assigned.				
15.	I often have a task finished sooner than necessary.				
16.	I always seem to end up shopping for birthday or Christmas gifts at the last minute.				
17.	I usually buy even an essential item at the last minute.				
18.	I usually accomplish all the things I plan to do in a day.				
19.	I am continually saying "I'll do it tomorrow".				
20.	I usually take care of all the tasks I have to do before I settle down and relax for the evening.				

Source: Lay, C. H. (1988). The relationship of procrastination and optimism to judgments of time to complete an essay and anticipation of setbacks. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 3(3), 201-214

EQUALIZING LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS THROUGH A MODEL OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT CONVERGING CRITICAL SELF-REFLECTION, CULTURAL PROFICIENCY, AND SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

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ABSTRACT

This article explores a theoretical model of professional development that combines the goals of further equipping teachers through professional development while at the same time equalizing learning environments for the students. Any steps toward equalizing learning environments helps to close the opportunity gap and decrease the achievement gap for those students that are experiencing high levels of success. The model involves purposeful convergence of critical self-reflection, cultural proficiency training, and knowledge of self-determination theory. A brief explanation is provided for each of the model elements as well as a picture of what the convergence might look like and a plan for implementation and future research.

INTRODUCTION

Educators are expected to understand how to create atmospheres conducive to social and emotional learning based on the understanding that academic learning is not the only type that helps students become successful in life. Being equipped to address all the needs of all students at all times is a lofty yet noble educational goal worthy of attempting to achieve. To attain success in this arena requires educators grow through experience and are provided appropriate and on-going professional development that aids in that growth.

Research is ongoing to investigate effective methods to improve or expand educator professional development and to eradicate classroom disparities. Much research has produced useful strategies and ideas; however, much remains to be done. The purpose of this article is to propose a model that could help get closer to the goal of adding to educator training while also working toward the goal of eradicating learning environment disparities. This article will give a brief review of why it is imperative to equalize many aspects of learning environments and then will go on to give a brief overview of each component of the proposed model and then explain how professional development based on the combination of understanding and practicing *critical self-reflection*, a knowledge of and willingness to grow in *cultural proficiency*, and a grasp of the tenets of *self-determination theory* (SDT) can help educators create healthier learning environments for all of their students including those that may be less comfortable in traditional schools, such as those that are minorities in comparison to their peers, that fall lower on the socio-economic scale, or who have diverse learning abilities. Evidence is plentiful that each of the elements that make up this model can improve educational settings; however, I am proposing that the convergence of all three may be more effective than each one being practiced alone.

EQUALIZING LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

The quality of learning environments can be improved and therefore equalized through examining and improving different aspects of the environment such as the physical

built environments and classroom layouts (Earthman & Lemasters, 2011; Ford, 2016; Uline & Tschannen-Moran, 2008), resource availability and technology use (Dey, 2017; McKnight et al., 2016), the quality of teachers (Goldhaber, Lavery, & Theobald, 2015) and the cultures and climates within schools (Uline & Tschannen-Moran, 2008). The professional development being proposed in this article would focus on the method of improving educator training and the choices they make affecting the cultures and climates being created within classrooms.

Horace Mann labeled education ‘the great equalizer,’ and whereas it could be, education is often not equalizing because it is not being offered equitably, and at times is even increasing the opportunity gap experienced by students. Carter and Welner (2013) point out that it is the differences in educational opportunities that contribute to the differences in student outcomes. The differences in quality of learning environments are essential parts of the differences in opportunities (Carter & Welner, 2013). Achievement gaps can be identified along racial and ethnic lines as well as along socio-economic lines. Wherever that one group of students is performing below another group of students, achievement gaps exist, and can often be traced back to opportunity gaps. These gaps can be shown clearly through comparing schools on issues of overcrowding, building conditions (HVAC, lighting, air quality), available technology, aesthetics, etc. Whereas those elements, and others, need to be addressed, those are not the environmental inequities focused on for this article. The inequities to be addressed here are subtler and can often be seen in different classrooms within the same building. When observers walk down halls in a school, whether the school is elementary, middle, or high, they can often identify classrooms where learning is taking place, students have general positive well-being, and at least a functional quality motivation. At the same time, they can identify those where this is not the case. These differences are based more on the feel of the environments and the relationships established between teachers and students.

The very classrooms students are attending are either led by teachers who are mindful of the effects their choices make or they are not. They are led by teachers who recognize and appreciate cultural differences or they are not. They are led by teachers who care about the well-being and motivational quality experienced by their students or they are not. Just as with any professional development, this model of converging concepts will not help improve teachers who are not willing to improve, however for those that are, this could provide a new set of tools for them to experience success. The demands on teachers are high and in many ways increasing. Therefore, they need to be equipped to meet those demands and equalize their learning environments or maintain a high quality environment once it has been attained. High quality learning environments should be available to all students and this proposed PD model is one way to insure teachers are equipped with the knowledge and skills to create such environments to the best of their abilities and in spite of the other restrictions they encounter in their schools and classrooms.

CRITICAL SELF-REFLECTION

One of the elements that construct the model being proposed for this article is critical self-reflection. A variety of definitions of critical self-reflection exist and for the purposes of this paper the one that will be used is provided by Liu.

Critical reflection is a process of constantly analyzing, questioning, and critiquing established assumptions of oneself, schools, and the society about teaching and learning, and the social and political implications of schooling, and implementing changes to previous actions that have been supported

by those established assumptions for the purpose of supporting student learning and a better schooling and more just society for all children. (2015, p. 144).

Strong educator training programs include instruction and practice on critical self-reflection, since this practice is not always intuitive. Reflection benefits all aspects of teaching and works well with most, if not all educational, motivational, and developmental theories as well as other concepts of effective environment establishment and evidence-based pedagogies. However, to be comprehensive and effective in improving education, training in critical self-reflection should contain both considerations of content and process (Liu, 2015). Without self-reflection on content understanding and application, many lessons teachers receive through their preparation programs and their professional development are not applied or if they are, they are not applied in long-term or in a manner allowing for genuine growth for the educators. Without considering process, reflection may not go deep enough to be useful (Korthagen & Vasalos, 2009). Thorough reflection helps with knowledge, skills, and dispositions (Shandomo, 2010).

Shandomo (2010) discussed how the ideas of being a reflective teacher go back to Dewey, “who maintained that reflection is an important aspect of learning from experience. Reflective thinking leads educators to act deliberately and intentionally rather than randomly and reactively.” (p. 103). If PD can be designed to help educators be more intentional in their actions, choices, and pedagogies, improvement will be experienced immediately after the PD, and hopefully maintained through the forward momentum of continual growth. Shandomo (2010) concludes that “the primary benefit of reflective practice for teacher candidates is a deep understanding of their teaching styles and an ability to define how they will grow toward greater effectiveness as teachers” (p. 112).

Self-reflection can help teachers to recover and retain positive well-being for themselves and in addition create an atmosphere of well-being for their students. Meeting the psychological needs of all the students while teaching can be overwhelming. “Teaching closely resembles clinical psychology, but it takes place in an environment more like that of factory production” (Glickman, Gordan, & Ross-Gordan, 2018, p. 27). Teachers often cope with the overwhelming stressors, by either leaving the profession or by closing off from alternative teaching methods and keeping a rigid structure in their classroom (Glickman et al., 2018). Frustrated teachers that leave the profession no longer have the ability to positively affect their students. Frustrated or overwhelmed teachers that stay and limit their openness to their students are not creating environments conducive to student well-being. It is the teachers that stay and find and use the tools to stay emotionally and psychologically well that go on to help their students experience an environment that promotes wellness. Critical reflection facilitates well-being and introspective learning about values, beliefs, knowledge, and experiences that contribute to perspectives of one’s self, other people, and the world (Shandomo, 2010).

Writing can be an effective practice for teachers to use for self-reflection giving them a method “to remember, recall, reconstruct, re-create, and represent what they learn” (Shandomo, 2010, p. 102). A model of reflection such as the ALACT model can also be an effective method (Korthagen & Vasalos, 2009). The steps of the ALACT model of reflection include action, looking back, awareness, creating alternatives, and trial. When used with the onion model (a model giving reflectors a variety of layers to reflect on) ALACT has shown to be an effective way of reflecting with more depth and success (Korthagen & Vasalos, 2009). Reflection should not be a means to a quick fix but should rather be a cyclical ongoing process

of development (Korthagen & Vasalos, 2009). True and deep self-reflection takes into account the actions as well as the state of mind and emotional well-being of the person doing the reflecting (Korthagen & Vasalos, 2009). Educator training containing specific assignments and projects that prioritize critical reflection may assist in solidifying the desired practices for each educator (Shandomo, 2010).

CULTURAL PROFICIENCY

The second element of this proposed model and a concept that requires critical self-reflection is cultural proficiency. Lindsey et al., (2018) list the tools of cultural proficiency as 1) the barriers, 2) the guiding principles, 3) the continuum, and 4) the essential elements. The *barriers* to cultural proficiency include yet are not limited to privilege and entitlement, systems of oppression, and unawareness and resistance. The *guiding principles* are needed to combat the barriers and, whereas the list is long, these principles can be seen as the “core values, the foundations” (Lindsey et al., 2018, p. 7) of cultural proficiency. The cultural proficiency *continuum* is a great graphic for helping individuals visualize where they would find themselves on a horizontal scale that has on the far left, cultural destructiveness, and on the far-right, culturally proficiency (See Figure 1.) Between destructiveness and proficiency, from left to right are cultural incapacity, cultural blindness, pre-competence, and competence. The three stages on the left are based on the barriers to cultural proficiency and those that fall on the right side of the *continuum* make up those based on the *guiding principles*. The *essential elements* are what a culturally proficient person would be capable of and willing to do, such as, assessing, valuing, and managing differences.

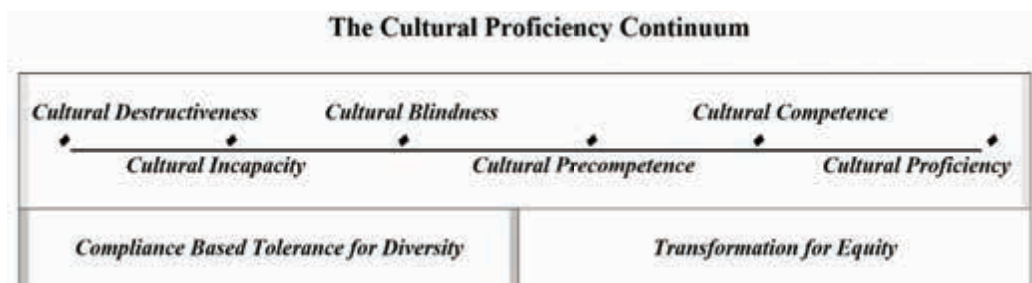


Figure 1. *The cultural proficiency continuum graphic (Lindsey et al., 2018). Used with permission.*

Educators, like all individuals, fall somewhere on this continuum. Educators that are trying to be culturally proficient are likely on the right side of the continuum and are attempting to establish learning environments that are friendly and conducive to all of their students. Educators that are uninterested in recognizing and valuing the cultural differences of their students are closer to the left of the continuum and are unable to create a high-quality learning environment for all of their students. Educators that fall on left side of the continuum may be exhibiting blatant behaviors against students in their classes. Educators near the middle may be unknowingly talking and acting in ways that are detrimental to their students. Awareness will either push them to the right if they acknowledge they need growth and they genuinely want to reach all of their students, or awareness can help to identify an unwillingness of the individual to adapt and thus categorize a movement to the left.

School leaders will do well to educate themselves and be ready and willing to meet with their teachers wherever they are on the continuum, and either guide them to the right side or encourage them to find another field of work. Ultimately cultural proficiency helps teachers to stop seeing differences as problems and to start embracing and learning from each unique culture represented within their classrooms, moving from deficit-based thinking to value based (Khalifa, 2018; Lindsey et al., 2018).

Even in schools that are predominantly one culture there will be benefits from learning and changing the mindset about other cultures. Even if there are only a couple students from other cultures they should not be expected to abandon their entire culture for the culture that is in control. This should be the case for students and also for faculty and staff. Students from the majority and the minority cultures benefit from more awareness. The school culture improves, and the environment becomes more representative of the global culture students will experience once they leave the K12 environment (Lindsey et al., 2018).

To be truly able to create equitable learning environments for all students a willingness to be culturally proficient is critical. One point about cultural proficiency is that to be truly proficient; individuals need to continue to grow. Once you arrive at proficiency the target may move, making critical self-reflection an imperative aspect of remaining on the right side of the *continuum*. Individuals also must be aware that in some areas of diversity they may be more proficient than in others, which again requires constant reflection and growth.

SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

So far this article has covered the importance of critical self-reflection and the importance of cultural proficiency training for educators. Next the discussion moves to self-determination theory (SDT) as it applies to equalizing learning environments and promoting high quality motivation in students. SDT is a macro theory of motivation, development and well-being that explores types of motivation rather than just measuring quality (Ryan & Deci, 2017). The types of motivation either fall into the category of intrinsic or internal motivation or extrinsic or external motivation. Intrinsic motivation comes from within a person based on personal interest and enjoyment and extrinsic motivation comes from outside of a person based on consequences, such as rewards or approval. Intrinsic motivation is naturally autonomous and volitional, and extrinsic motivation is only as autonomous as the behavior it motivates is integrated by the individual (See table 1). The more autonomous forms of motivation are the healthiest forms. Intrinsic motivation, by its very nature of being highly autonomous is often a healthy form of motivation. Extrinsic motivation on the other hand varies greatly in levels of autonomy or volition and therefore varies in levels of health (See Table 1).

As can be seen in Table 1, extrinsic motivation can be introjected or internalized and can still be self-determined and volitional. A more detailed explanation is beyond the scope of this article however would be helpful to grasp more fully before planning and designing professional development using SDT. Another important tenet of SDT is that people have three basic psychological needs that when satisfied lead to the healthier forms of motivation. These needs include autonomy, competence and relatedness (See Table 2).

Table 1: *Types of Motivation as defined by Ryan and Deci, (2017)*

	Motivation Orientation	Autonomy/ Control Continuum
Intrinsic	Personal interest, enjoyment	Highly autonomous, volitional
Extrinsic	External consequence, reward, approval	Can be autonomous or controlled
Levels of extrinsic internalization		
Externally regulated	Controlled by outward forces	Controlled
Introjection	Controlled by negative inward forces	Negative internal control
Integrated	Volitional internal forces	Volitional/Autonomous

Table 2: *Basic Psychological Needs as defined by Ryan and Deci, (2017)*

Need	Definition
Autonomy	Self-endorsement, ownership, and self-regulation
Competence	Development of skills, understanding, and mastery
Relatedness	Connection and involvement with others

Since SDT is concerned with social conditions that either enhance or diminish individual's perceptions of the meeting of their basic psychological needs, it is a great theory to use when examining learning environments that affect student motivation, social emotional and academic development, and well-being. SDT has been applied and tested in a plethora of contexts including in learning environments to examine what types of environments meet these needs and what types of environments thwart these needs (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Across such experimental studies, it was found that when external factors were used in controlling ways, they tended to undermine intrinsic motivation. Yet when contexts supporting autonomy, competence, and relatedness (e.g., by providing choice, positive feedback, and empathy), intrinsic motivation was enhanced (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 354-355).

In other words, studies show that students are more apt to thrive in environments that meet the basic psychological needs as defined by SDT. Studies also provide evidence that environments that thwart these needs have negative effects including evidence of biological stressors (Reeve & Tseng, 2011). When needs are met, and a higher quality motivation is attained, students are more curious, more creative, more productive, more compassionate, experience more integration, tend to be more fully functioning and flourishing, and experience other positive improvements (Ryan & Deci, 2017). When needs are not met, students tend to be more self-focused, defensive, unmotivated, aggressive, antisocial, fragmented, and exhibit depleted motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

"SDT posits that the need supports found in schools and classrooms affect childhood, adolescent and emerging adult development, achievement outcomes, and well-being" (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 352). Children are required to go to school and the environments they are in are either supportive of high quality motivation or they are thwarting and harmful. "Certain classroom climates ignite this powerful fuel for learning, whereas others smother it." (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 354). Reeve and Jang (2006) created a helpful list of teacher behaviors that either support or thwart autonomous or healthier types of motivation. They defined behaviors that are perceived as supportive to include teachers making time for students' independent

work, giving students time to talk and then purposefully listening to what they have to say, encouraging student effort, and acknowledging student experiences and perspectives. Teaching behaviors identified as more controlling and needs thwarting included not giving the students enough time to work independently, stating answers too quickly when students just needed more time to work through the problems/work, being demanding and directive, and using controlling language.

When SDT is being taught to teachers, a couple of important ideas to point out are that curriculum design is not often naturally supportive of meeting the basic needs and the demands for high-stakes testing is often perceived as controlling and need thwarting. Also, a focus on performance as opposed to mastery goals creates a non-nurturing environment. Teachers who are aware of the detrimental effects of these demands may be better able to compensate in their individual classrooms and still create an environment that is more conducive to high quality motivation and ultimately to student success. SDT has benefits to improving classroom environments as a stand-alone theory and combining it with critical self-reflection and the tools of cultural proficiency will only improve the effects it can have on equalizing learning environments.

CONVERGENCE OF THEORIES

In order to equalize learning environments, educators need to be able to look deeply at not only their behaviors, but also what internal and external factors are causing those behaviors. Once educators become more self-aware of their values and beliefs, they may choose to adapt even deeply held convictions in order to behave in a manner that is more conducive to producing a classroom culture where all students, even those normally underserved, feel their basic psychological needs are being met through appropriate autonomy support, competence support, and healthy relationships. Teachers will be equipped to show genuine care and interest in all of their students' outcomes and futures.

When classroom environments are clouded with beliefs and behaviors that thwart the needs of any student the needs of all students are affected. Yet when teachers embrace this integrated model of PD using SDT to illicit healthy forms of motivation in students, using the knowledge of cultural proficiency training to embrace and value all students, and critically self-reflecting to adjust and improve, educators can create healthier environments for all of their students and ultimately help all of their students reach higher levels of success.

Below is a simple Venn diagram that shows how all of the concepts overlap. How at times only two are overlapping, however, how all three converge in the center (See Figure 2).

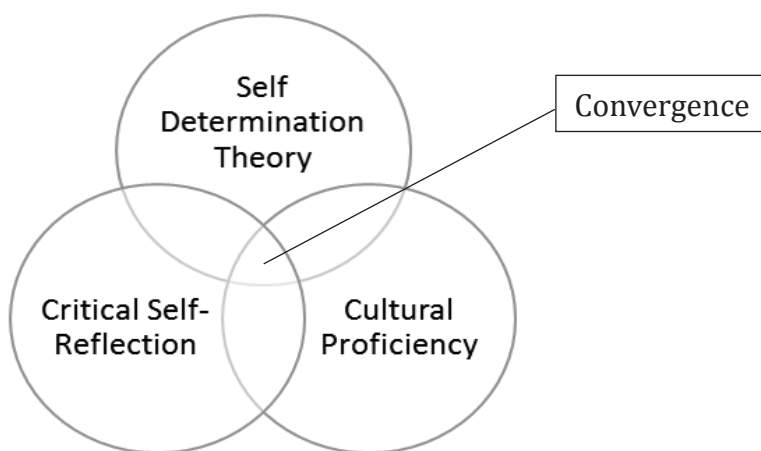


Figure 2. *The convergence of critical self-reflection, cultural proficiency, and self-determination theory.*

As shown in the sections on each element, each can be beneficial when applied alone. However, when they are used together, learning environments can be transformed. When critical self-reflection is used with cultural proficiency the atmosphere of the learning environment will be renovated into one where each student feels valued and welcomed. However, without a focus on the basic psychological needs, not all students may experience high qualities of motivation. When the teacher recognizes through reflection that one or more students may not feel this way, the teacher will adjust to improve the environment. When cultural proficiency is merged with self-determination theory, the atmosphere may feel accepting and motivating at the start, however, may become stagnant or worse yet, not change when the cultural make-up of the students' changes and the teacher has not recognized these changes through reflection. When two of the concepts are merged an improvement can be seen, however, a ***convergence of all would create a dynamic and constantly improving atmosphere that is motivating and conducive to all learners*** (See Table 3).

With the perspective or angle provided by this convergence model, teachers would possess another set of tools that when used with other best practices, could greatly impact their ability to create optimal environments for all their students to excel. "Critical reflection blends learning through experiences with theoretical and technical learning to form new knowledge constructions and new behaviors or insights." (Shandomo, 2010, p. 101). As this model is approached, teachers will solidify the knowledge gained and as they self-reflect they will learn to make the most use of their own strengths, while also learning to compensate in areas where they experience weakness.

Table 3: *Combining the Concepts and Theories*

	Critical Self-Reflection	Cultural Proficiency	Self-Determination Theory
Critical Self-Reflection		Atmosphere of acceptance but may lack motivation	Motivating atmosphere conducive to some but not all
Cultural Proficiency	Atmosphere of acceptance but may lack motivation		A motivating atmosphere that may not change as the needs change
Self-Determination Theory	Motivating atmosphere conducive to some but not all	A motivating atmosphere that may not change as the needs change	

Critical self-reflection on cultural issues is extremely important to individuals who are not from underserved populations since they do not have the expanded view of their peers and/or students who are minorities. If they are unable to see from others' perspectives through lack of experiences, then reflecting on what it may be like would be a start to establish empathy and valuing what these peers and students can contribute (Khalifa, 2018). Combining cultural responsiveness and SDT during critical self-reflection would encourage teachers to examine how their students, who come from different cultural backgrounds, view their autonomy support, competence support, and feelings of relatedness.

In addition to being able to see from a variety of perspectives, self-aware teachers know their strengths and weaknesses, their teaching choices and style, their world view that shapes their values, their level of cultural proficiency or cultural receptiveness and competence, and the motivational style they tend to employ and are more effective at reaching a wider range of students. By being aware and by adapting as their school culture and students require, they are much more able to create an equalized learning environment for all of their students.

According to the first proposition of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (n.d), teachers should be committed to student learning. Other propositions mention monitoring student learning and learning from experience. Being self-reflective as an educator is a critical aspect of being committed, being able to monitor, and being able to learn from experience. Being committed to student learning also requires being able to relate to and guide all students, which requires cultural awareness and a basic understanding of motivational theory. The type of professional development being proposed here would be in support of these standards.

PLANNING EDUCATOR TRAINING WITH THIS KNOWLEDGE

Teachers have requirements for ongoing professional development to maintain their licenses or certifications. Planning PD that meets this requirement while also equipping teachers to equalize their classroom environments could be highly effective in improving education outcomes. According to Korthagan, (2017), professional development has different levels 1.0, 2.0, and 3.0. With professional development 1.0, the approach is theory to practice. The progression from there with professional development 2.0 is workplace learning with an increased focus on practice. Moving on from there is professional development 3.0 which combines the professional and personal pieces of teaching (Korthagen, 2017).

The type of professional development being proposed would fall into the Level 3.0 category as there would be a focus on the profession while also focusing on the personal

aspects of teaching through deep and thorough critical self-reflection. This model is in line with Korthagen's (2007) claim that the person of the teacher needs to be part of the foundation of educator learning no less than theory and practice. By emphasizing critical self-reflection, the person of the teacher, is directly and consistently involved in the model. In order for school leaders or others that design and deliver professional development to make effective use of this model or any other model, they would need a thorough understanding of each concept and how each can be effectively used on its own and together to produce a high quality training.

Korthagen discussed the importance of using reflection as a tool to improve professional development. What is being proposed here, to converge self-reflection with cultural proficiency and SDT would encourage educators to reflect on their current cultural competency journeys, and whether they are meeting the basic psychological needs of their students. True critical self-reflection in this model would entail deep reflection on how teachers interact with students from their own culture and from outside of their own culture and would also challenge these teachers to reflect on whether they are meeting or thwarting the basic psychological needs of all their students. Korthagen also pointed out that reflection helps bring to the surface much of the learning and experiences that have influenced the educators and that may otherwise remain below the surface of consciousness. In other words, reflecting will cause the teachers to begin to think about classroom happenings and their own behaviors and reactions that may have otherwise gone unnoticed and not contributing to their personal growth as well as their growth as constantly improving teachers.

As far as the logistics of planning for this model of PD, a workshop could be created that would introduce educators to all of these topics during one long session or ongoing workshops could be established that would introduce them to one subject or module at a time. The latter plan would allow for more in depth study into each topic, however, would be most beneficial if the curriculum builds from one subject to the next, clearly tying them together in a cohesive manner and providing practical steps to incorporate when the educators return to their classrooms. Considerations would need to be made to adjust the length and depth on each topic as educators may vary in the knowledge and understanding they possess prior to the start of the PD.

LIMITATIONS AND PLANS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This proposed model is theoretical in nature. Empirical research could be done to determine the validity of this model by providing training that incorporates the three elements as discussed and then evaluating the outcomes. This could be done with groups where one receives the treatment and one does not, or it could be done as pre-post design. Studies could be either qualitative or quantitative in nature. Qualitative studies could seek out themes from students whose educators have implemented the model. Quantitative studies could use a number of available scales created through SDT research to assess students' type of motivation and levels of well-being in treatment and no treatment groups or before and after educators implement the model.

Very often, educator training and professional development already converge one or more concepts or theories, however the intentional nature of creating models of convergence may be determined to be beneficial and other models that combine two or more concepts could be created, implemented, and assessed for effectiveness. In this article the motivational and well-being element is SDT, however other motivational theories, well-being theories, or even developmental theories could be applied in a manner similar to what is being suggested. SDT is a great theory to use here because it specifically considers the effects of environments

on the quality of motivation, however, other concepts or theories may also be effectively combined in other models.

CONCLUSION

With a solid understanding and practice of critical self-reflection, a move toward cultural proficiency, as well as a solid grasp of creating a healthy and motivating classroom environment, teachers can create an atmosphere that equalizes the opportunities their students experience and ultimately shrinks the achievement gap in their classrooms. The creation of a model of convergence of these ideas is not expected to be a panacea as there are many other factors that affect learning environments and ultimately student success, nor is this to say other ideas and models would not also be effective. The hope is to demonstrate that, by converging the ideas of critical self-reflection with other ideas and tools, teachers are more prepared to self-improve for the better of all of their students. It is not a naïve notion to think that making differences in individual classrooms is the way to make national and even international change.

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NIGERIAN EDUCATION POLICIES: CHALLENGES OF IMPLEMENTATION FOR SUSTAINABILITY

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ABSTRACT

Every society has its own method of training and developing its citizens which is expressed as policy frameworks to be implemented to achieve desired goals. The Nigerian Education Policies are formulated to ensure that her children have the high quality education that which is sustainable. While it is acknowledged that educational policies in Nigeria are formulated to ensure quality and sustainability, they are also expected to contribute significantly to economic growth and in the generation of opportunities. The aim of this paper is to examine the challenges of the implementation of education policies for sustainability in the Nigerian education system using the Universal Basic Education and the 6-3-3-4 education policies. It is observed that pre-requisites at the formulation stage, capacity for implementation and accountability, involvement of stakeholders in Policy formulation as well as monitoring and evaluation are indices for effective implementation. The paper acknowledges that the implementation of laudable policies is fraught with challenges such as undue government interference, teacher quality and quantity, examination malpractice and infrastructural defects and deficits, leadership and inadequate funding. The paper therefore recommends that policy implementation summertime, the Ministry of Nigerian, corruption lack of integrity and discipline should be addressed to support sustainability in the education system.

INTRODUCTION

Over the past decades, an increasing number of educational stakeholders have championed policy innovations as key strategies for improving educational outcomes for all learners. In Nigeria the pressure on the education system to deliver high quality sustainable education to its citizens appears to have encouraged the number of policy reforms. These reforms which were imposed by the colonial government could be traced back to educational codes and ordinances of 1882, 1887, 1916, 1922, 1926 and 1948 (Azike, 2013). They culminated into the first National Policy on Education published in 1977 but became operational in 1981 and have continuously been revised as a guide to educational program implementation in order to meet national needs and aspirations. According to Azike, during these stages of educational development, Nigerians were not actively involved in the formulation of the ordinances which were used as guidelines in the administration of education in Nigeria. What is noteworthy is the fact that nine years after Nigeria gained independence from Britain in 1960; she set up the Nigerian Curriculum Conference that reviewed the old and identified new national goals for the Nigerian Education system. The Conference was clearly a major landmark and a great leap in the history of education in Nigeria. The recommendations made by the conference gave birth to the introduction of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1975, the first National Policy on Education in 1977 and the adoption of the 6-3-3-4 system to replace the 6-5-4 system of education in 1985. This period witnessed unprecedented growth at all levels of education.

According to the National Policy on Education, primary education begins at the age of six. The child spends six years at this level and graduates with the Primary School Leaving Certificate. Thereafter, he/she moves to the secondary school level, where the first three years is spent in the Junior Secondary School (JSS) and the next three years in Senior Secondary School

(SSS). Subsequently they advance to any respective tertiary institution including the University for a minimum of four years having obtained a minimum credit pass in five subjects including English Language and mathematics in SSS. It is intended that every learner, who has gone through the 9-years of basic education (6-years of Primary schooling and 3-years of JSS), should have acquired appropriate levels of literacy, numeracy, and manipulative and communicative skills. Learners at this stage are equipped with lifelong skills as well as ethical, moral and civic values needed for laying a solid foundation for scientific, technological, political, economic and cultural development. Hence the revised basic education curriculum comprises subjects such as mathematics, basic science/technology, religion and national values, cultural and creative art, business studies, Nigerian Language, prevocational studies, English studies, French and Arabic languages (Federal Ministry of Education, 2013). These subjects emphasize value re-orientation, poverty eradication and employment generation capabilities in learners.

Over the years, the National Policy on Education has witnessed some fundamental changes in pursuance of the goal of socio-economic and technological transformation of Nigeria. To this end a review and introduction of some components of the Universal Basic Education (UBE, 2004) was carried out. These fundamental reviews included:

- i. Functional literacy education for adults above 50 years
- ii. Early child care development and education
- iii. Technical and Vocational education and training
- iv. Continuing Education program for those who left school before they could learn how to read or write
- v. Nomadic education program

While the main goals of the UBE include

- i. Universal access to basic education
- ii. Eradication of illiteracy in Nigeria within the shortest possible time
- iii. Engendering a conducive teaching and learning environment.

Thus the priority of Nigeria Education policies at all levels is guided by the principle that quality education can contribute significantly to economic growth and income generating opportunities for sustainable development. Various educational programs have therefore been designed to achieve the broad national goals as stated in the National Policy on Education to accommodate the primary, secondary and tertiary education program (FRN, 2014).

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL POLICY ON EDUCATION

The National Policy on Education (NPE) is full of innovations meant to position science, technical and vocational education. Some of these innovations include the integration of basic education in the Quranic school program, introduction of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) into the school system, open and distant learning programs and prescription of French language as a second language in the primary and secondary curriculum, establishment of the Teachers Registration Council and expansion of the National Mathematical Centre among others. The expected change envisaged from the innovations is through the Universal Basic Education (UBE) program which is a major component of the 6-3-3-4 system of education. However, successful implementation of this policy has been a major source of concern to stakeholders.

Policy implementation is the translation of the goals, and objectives of a policy into an operational program. Three elements are involved here: structure or an existing agency, translation of specific rules and guidelines and resources which must be allocated to address specific problem addressed by the policies. A critical stage in policy implementation is the formulation stage. At this

stage, proper planning must be the focus as emphasized by Nwagwu (2002) in his opinion about the Universal Basic Education (UBE) program. He asserts that it is unfair to dwell on the problem of implementation for a scheme whose basic problem was the unrealistic definition of goals at the formulation stage. It therefore means that the goals of any policy must be clearly spelt out at this stage. Furthermore, Momoh (2012) posits that while certain policies may be implementable, they may not be conducive to the large objectives being sought due to lack of capacity to implement or conflict with other policy goals. Changes introduced by such policies thus become inappropriate.

Furthermore, Aluede (2006) cited poor planning, inadequate finance and general lack of accurate data of children as some of the reasons for the poor implementation of the Universal Basic Education scheme. Also, low access of Federal Government FGN-UBE intervention funds and poor accountability and transparency in the utilization of the funds coupled with low budgetary allocation to education made the implementation of the policy unsuccessful. Federal Government of Nigeria accused States of delay in providing counterpart funds without which they cannot access the grants. This has contributed to infrastructural decay in most public schools. These lapses on the part of policy makers are at the root of implementation problem that follow. This paper focuses on the implementation of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme enacted to lay a solid foundation for the Nigeria education system and the 6-3-3-4 School System meant to produce graduates that are self-sufficient and capable of providing the much needed manpower for the country's development.

The Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme

The Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme shows how a laudable programme can be doomed from inception. Obayan (2000) queries government's readiness to provide the logistics required for the programme; infrastructure and manpower requirement and noted that the opportunity cost that goes with its implementation was not considered. Nationwide the scheme has run into hitches. In a study carried out by Eddy and Akpan (2009) in Akwa Ibom state, it was discovered that poor planning was one of the major problem that is facing the successful implementation of the program. This confirms Adamaechi and Romaine (2000)'s assertion that proper planning has been found to be at the root of the success of every good educational policy or program. Without proper planning the best education program is bound to fail. Similarly, Monitoring and evaluation is another area of concern when planning the implementation of educational policies. McLaughlin (2001) opined that it may be possible to implement a bad or incorrect policy, but in most cases, the planning does not address pertinent issues such as monitoring and evaluation, even classroom instruction is taken for granted. Taking a further analysis of the UBE scheme in Delta state, Aluede (2006) opined that poor supervision and monitoring of the UBE centers among other factors are constraints affecting the success rate of the program in the state.

The 6-3-3-4 School System

Another poor performance in policy implementation is presented in the 6-3-3-4 school system, a sound policy which was haphazardly implemented. The system was stalled at its inception when it was feared that students on completion of the first 6 years (Primary School) and second 3 years (Junior Secondary School) might not have the chance to proceed to the university level (Ofoegbu, 2017). This is because another 3 years (Senior Secondary) of schooling with a minimum of 5 credits including mathematics and English is required to enter the university. Besides, the high level manpower needed for the developmental efforts in the country is produced in the university. This indicates that there will be deficiency in this area if they end their schooling at the junior school level. The policy equally took cognizance of the need for technical manpower for a growing economy as

was in the case of Nigeria. Hence in the first 3 years, students are expected to be equipped with the technical know-how to make them self-sufficient and independent if they choose not to go further in studies. However, the vocational aspect of the system was abandoned to the extent that the equipment purchased for the purpose were destroyed, stolen, or allowed to rot away while still in their containers. This has led to a situation where if a student decides to drop out on completing the junior school, he is ill-equipped to face the challenges of self-sufficiency thus constituting a liability to his family. Here is a policy well-articulated and operational in other Anglophone West African countries but which due to selfishness and inefficiency on the part of policy makers and administrators was jettisoned right from inception.

Another flaw in the implementation of the policy was the administration of the schools. The Junior and Senior Secondary sections were expected to have different administrative heads even while sharing the same building. This led to unhealthy rivalry with each school-head wasting time and resources fighting themselves for supremacy rather than projecting ways to advance the advantages of the system. This adversely affected the effective administration of the schools as it led to a state of confusion with disjointed, misdirected and unhealthy competitive responses to an otherwise well intentional policy (Ofoegbu, 2017).

From the ongoing discourse, one may be tempted to ask if the 6-3-3-4 system of education has achieved its goals. The fact that children spent 6 years in the secondary school instead of the previous 5 years for the same examination of WAEC implies that the old system continues to operate using the name of the new policy. The impression given is that the problem of seeking quality and sustainable education tend to ignore what has already been laid down as roadmaps to achieve desired objective leading one to conclude that there is nothing much to show in the direction of achieving and sustaining the desired quality of education in Nigeria. Thus, compared with the pre and post-colonial era, what is lacking in today's educational system is integrity and discipline in observing and holding on to the rule of the system which is the essence of sustainability (Ofoegbu, 2017).

Involvement of Stake-holders in Policy Formulation

A glaring case was the controversial proposed sale of the Federal Government Colleges (FGC) in Nigeria which was trailed by criticisms. Admission into the junior school section of the college was halted followed by protests by workers of the college resulting in the underutilization of physical and human resources in the school. Eventually, government abandoned the proposed sale of the college and normal academic work resumed in the school after four years.

It is generally accepted that the quality of teachers is the largest single determinant of the quality of education because they are the drivers of the system. Hence it is generally accepted by researchers that education policies and programs depend primarily on what teachers make of them. Issues of adequacy and the specific roles of teachers in this regard is a cause for concern. It is obvious that most educators are not involved at the conceptualization and formulation stage of policies, and are not properly trained before a particular policy is introduced. McLaughlin (2001) stated that unless there is mutual adaptation process in which local educators tailor a given program to their local needs and circumstances, difficulties in implementation will persist. Further research has also shown that policies initiated by government without the input of implementers, is unlikely to be implemented in line with the spirit of the policies, government's expectations, and relevant rules and regulations.

Accountability in Implementation

Over the years, mismanagement and corruption are twin issues that have bedeviled the education system in Nigeria. Education policies in Nigeria are fraught with unwarranted interferences

of politicians. Politicization of education policies has greatly hampered implementation with gross disregard for academic quality and excellence. Despite the fact that funding of the education system in Nigeria is yet to meet the 26 percent UNESCO recommendation, Nigeria Government as the major financier of education in Nigeria is expending a huge amount of funds through its various agencies like the National Commission for Nomadic Education, Education Trust Fund (ETF), Industrial Trust Fund (ITF), National Science and Technical Fund (NSTF) and the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND) which is saddled with the responsibility of managing and disbursing tax money to public tertiary institution in the country. Besides, trillions of naira has been allocated to the education sector over the years; from 1999 to 2013, the total budget allocated to education is 1.290 trillion naira (FRN, 2014). It therefore appears that, it is not the quantum of money appropriated to the sector that is the problem, but its effective utilization is the main concern.

The fundamental challenge of education in Nigeria is the many decades of poor sector governance and entrenched dysfunction with no mechanism of accountability and performance. Though the sector lacks optimal funding level, it has benefitted from the increased yearly budgetary allocation to education both at the national and state to local levels. For instance, the 249.08 billion naira allocated to education in 2010, 306.3 billion in 2011, 400.15 billion in 2012, 426.53 in 2013, 439 billion in 2014 to 492.34 billion in 2015, 367.73 billion in 2016 and 448.01 billion in 2017 (Budget Office of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2017) is an indication of government's huge expenditure on education over the years. Students' academic achievement both at the state and federal level does not show a corresponding increase in performance. The current situation of students' poor academic achievement in both internal and external examination is not reflecting the huge investment government and parents are spending on their children's education. Throwing money at the system rather than addressing the systemic structural and institutional bottleneck will not yield the desired result. Such dysfunctions include low enrolment, completion and progression rates at all levels of education; low student population and poor quality of learning outcomes; inappropriate curriculum needs, poor school management inequalities in terms of gender (females are underrepresented in both pupil and teacher numbers) a sharp divide between rural and urban school, and between the northern and southern states. Others include insufficient attention given to early childhood care and education with poorly prepared teachers, poor literacy, numeracy and life skills evident in the prevalence of examination malpractice and cultism, ineffective planning, management and monitoring as a result of weak systems of data collection, analysis and dissemination. The result of these anomalies in the system has led to the expansion of private schools with the consequential exodus of stake holders in the State sector. Therefore it can be safely said that accountability and not more funding is needed for the education sector to thrive in Nigeria.

Another major task in policy implementation is taking into account recurrent cost, and the implication of population growth. Hence before enacting ambitious policies, the economic implication must be considered otherwise implementation becomes ineffective. Accountability must also pertain to the content of the education system in terms of relevance to our circumstances as a nation. Some questions arise from this discourse on accountability: Who plans our education system? Is the education budget adequate and is its implementation transparent? Do we have a data on school enrolment at all levels? Is the school environment conducive for teaching and learning? Are the schools adequately staffed with qualified teachers? Do the reality on ground tally with government claims on the success achieved in the education system? These and many other questions are yearning for answers.

Another major clog in accounting for how educational funds are expended is corruption. Transparency International (TI) has consistently ranked Nigeria as one of the most corrupt countries in the world. Sequel to this is Okoroma (2003)'s assertion that corruption has contributed to stagnate

the development of education in Nigeria confirming Mathew (1916)'s argument that there is high level of corruption in every sector of the economy, education inclusive. He asserts that money appropriated to education is mismanaged or misappropriated noting that, despite the huge monies allocated to education, there is nothing to show for it in terms of infrastructural facilities and performance of pupils/students in external examinations. It has also been observed that there is delay in the release of the funds allocated to education as well as assessing the funds leading to infrastructural decay in schools. This also leads to lack of adequate funds to pay staff salaries and other emoluments. Whereas timely release and assess of funds is needed to drive the objectives of education, pay salaries, provide infrastructure, training, purchase of equipment and facilities.

CHALLENGES OF IMPLEMENTATION FOR SUSTAINABILITY

Nigeria education template is almost faultless as it makes allowance for continued growth and sustainability to meet new challenges including necessary adjustments in the care of persons displaced internally as a result of local strives and upheavals (Ofoegbu, 2017). However, when the issue of the Nigeria education system is raised, the first set of problems that comes to mind indicating the poor performance of the sector includes:

- i. Vitiating of rules and misapplication of social influence
- ii. Undue government interference
- iii. Examination malpractice
- iv. Poor student performance
- v. Deterioration of facilities
- vi. Inadequate teaching and learning facilities and equipment
- vii. Infrastructural defects and deficits
- viii. Poor implementation of educational policies
- ix. Teacher quality and quantity
- x. Quality of leadership
- xi. Inadequate funding
- xii. The mindset of Nigerians

(Nwagwu, 2002; Odia & Omofonwan, 2000; Nwadiani, 2012; Momoh, 2012; Ofoegbu, 2017).

Nigerian education does not lack good planning and excellent formulation. Given the bear facts of the true situational reality, the problem of Nigerian education goes deeper than lack of facilities, inadequate funding and so on. It involves the totality of sustainability by implementing policies to the letter.

CONCLUSION

Nwagwu (2001), Enemu (2000), Aluede (2006), Ibadin (2008) and Ofoegbu (2017) have critically reviewed some government policies from inception and the summary of their work is that laudable government policies have failed as a result of poor planning and haphazard implementation with glaring cases of contradictions and confusion and lack of accountability. The paper has revealed that the Nigeria education system has laudable policies like the Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme and the 6-3-3-4 school system that are bedeviled with systemic problems and poor implementation due to faulty planning at the conception stage. The paper also has highlighted the twin issues of mismanagement and corruption which have led to poor sector governance and entrenched dysfunction with no mechanism of accountability and performance. The effect of accountability in implementation and the implication of considering the economic impact of any policy before enactment was discussed. The importance of ensuring that implementers of educational policies

and other stakeholders like teachers, school managers and parents are actively involved at the enactment stage was raised. Process monitoring and evaluation, and adequate funding and facilities were found to be areas of concern when planning the implementation of educational policies. This paper acknowledges the importance and essence of educational policies and concludes that it is impossible to bring about quality education without addressing policy stability, implementation and sustainability.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are thus proffered to ensure sustained implementation of educational policies in Nigeria.

- i. Sudden policy implementation summersaults, the mind set of Nigerians, corruption, integrity and discipline could be addressed to support sustainability in the education system.
- ii. An ongoing policy could be implemented over a period of time (10-20 years or more) to address inadequacies or shortcomings from the implementation which is the essence of sustainability.
- iii. Policies may not need to be radically replaced or jettisoned while the country is getting ready to fully understand its operation.
- iv. Governments and their agents, and policy makers may not want to overturn healthy policies before implementation takes root and replace it with a new one.
- v. Involvement of stakeholders like teachers, parents and educational managers will facilitate implementation of educational policies.

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EFFECTS OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENT TEACHING ON U.S. CLASSROOMS PRACTICE: UNDERSTANDING INSTRUCTIONAL TRANSFER, ADAPTATION AND INTEGRATION

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ABSTRACT

This study utilized an online survey instrument to investigate the degree to which former student teachers abroad have transferred, adapted and integrated previous experiences gathered in their student teaching abroad (STA) experiences in semester-long international school, classroom, and cultural settings to (a) positively shape the current culturally responsive context of their U.S. classrooms and (b) enhance the instructional and curricular experiences of their increasingly diverse students. Participants were K-12 teachers who previously completed a semester-long international student teaching experience at a large public university in the Southeastern US from 2002 to 2014. Findings of the study demonstrate that benefits of international student teaching experiences transfer to current practicing teachers as they work with diverse learners in US classrooms. The findings contribute to the research literature regarding the relationship between student teaching abroad experiences and their transference, adaptation, and integration into the classroom practice of beginning teachers in U.S. schools—an area in which research remains sparse.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

Public schools in the United States continue to serve an increasingly racially, ethnically and culturally diverse and growing student population. Student teaching abroad programs represent one approach among US Colleges of Education in providing experiences to meaningfully provide future teachers with experiences that will enable them to interact effectively and productively with the increasingly diverse student population enrolled in U.S. schools. This study investigates the degree to which former student teachers abroad have transferred, adapted and integrated previous experiences gathered in their student teaching abroad (STA) experiences in semester-long international school-, classroom-, and cultural-settings to (a) positively shape the current culturally responsive context of their U.S. classrooms and (b) enhance the instructional and curricular experiences of their increasingly diverse students.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As new teachers reflect on their own classroom practice, many engage in self-reflection on their past student teaching experience. Student teaching is the culminating experience of a teacher preparation program and meets the requirements of a high-impact experience (HIE) as discussed by Kuh (2008). HIEs include first year seminars and experiences, common

intellectual experiences, learning communities, writing intensive courses, collaborative assignments and projects, undergraduate research, diversity/global learning, ePortfolios, service learning, internships, and capstone courses and projects. HIEs have influenced the way individuals receive and process new information (McKim, Latham, Treptow, & Rayfield, 2013). They challenge individuals to develop new ways of thinking and responding to a circumstance.

Diversity and global learning is one of the identified ten practices of a HIE (Kuh, 2008). Colleges and universities have different courses and programs to help students explore cultures, life experiences, and worldviews that differ from their own. Diversity and global learning can also be augmented by participating in study abroad experiences. Peeler, Duncan-Bendix and Biehl (2018) examined U.S. students' perceptions of their experience in learning areas of curriculum design through an innovative study abroad program in Scandinavia. One particular aspect of the program was designed for students to foster cultural and global engagement. Results from their study indicated that college students reported they "gained knowledge about diversity and considered issues from the perspectives of local and global communities" (p. 130). These findings closely relate to the fact that, "through global learning, students should become informed, open-minded, and responsible people who are attentive to diversity across the spectrum of differences" (Hovland, 2014, p. 1). Thus, through study abroad and student teaching experiences abroad, candidates can become better prepared to meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse learners.

While nationally the number of U.S. students studying abroad for credit during 2016-2017 grew 2.3 percent, only a small percentage of student teachers take advantage of global learning experiences during their college education (NAFSA, 2014; Shaklee & Baily, 2012). A 21st century educator should be proficient in technology, collaborate effectively, adapt their teaching styles to include different modes of learning, and advocate for the profession. Global awareness has also been noted in literature to be one of the 21st century skills educators should foster among students (Kaufman, 2013; Zhao, 2009). Educators teach in a globalized world in which it is essential for them to be open to new and different cultures (Zhao, 2009). Furthermore, learning, as we know it, continues to evolve. For instance, learning is no longer only an individual process of information absorption. Rather, learning is commonly viewed as a cultural and social process of engaging with and making sense of the changing world around us (Carr & Cameron-Rogers, 2016). Menard-Warwich and Palmer (2012) discussed that as teacher candidates encounter others and use their own reflection in study abroad experiences, they can experience "otherness" and learn from it. Similarly as Medina, Hathaway, & Pilonieta (2015) recommended, "teacher education programs should strive to provide future teachers opportunities to study abroad and live the experience of being the other" (p. 87).

Global and Cultural Awareness

Batey and Lupi (2012) examined the cultural awareness experiences of students in a short-term teaching internship program between the University of North Florida (UNF) and a university in Plymouth, England. The authors found that students' reflection papers highlighted their cross-cultural adaptability drawn from Kelley and Meyers (1995) inventory. First, the students discussed their emotional resilience as some felt a minimal amount of discomfort, uncomfortable being in new surroundings, and they expressed culture shock. The study also found that students spoke on flexibility and openness as UNF students often embraced the differences they perceived, particularly when it came to family time, traveling, and friends.

The students in Batey and Lupi's (2012) study also demonstrated perceptual acuity and personal autonomy. The UNF students expressed an awareness of how they may have

been viewed by others (southern hospitality). The student reflections also indicated a range of confidence levels in the interactions with unfamiliar people, and a sense of respect for others and their value systems.

Does a study abroad class and experience make a difference in students' global awareness? Wang, Peyvandi, and Coffey (2014) administered a global awareness survey, which indicated "significant and positive differences in the students' global awareness score before and after they completed the study abroad class" (p. 151). In their study business majors took a study abroad class at their home campus for four weeks, then spent the last two weeks studying abroad. As the authors asserted, "A student must go to a foreign country to experience cultural, economic, political, and social differences from the home country; that is, going beyond the classroom or reading textbooks" (p. 157).

Student Teaching Abroad

A review of recent literature on student teaching conducted abroad indicates the three interrelated themes of personal growth, professional growth, and global awareness (Chao, Xue, Jetmore, Fritsch, Kang, & Xu, 2019; Doppen & An, 2014; Slapac & Navarro, 2013). Slapac and Navarro (2013) conducted a study on two semester-long student teaching abroad programs. Their findings indicated that the student teachers gained new perspectives on the teaching and learning processes, and increased in areas of global awareness, self-efficacy, self-confidence, persistence, and perceived marketability. Doppen and An (2014) surveyed 40 preservice teachers who participated in student teaching abroad over the course of seven years. Both studies indicated similar results. First, the overseas student teaching experience enhanced student teachers' global awareness and increased the student teachers' ability to consider multiple perspectives (Slapac & Navarro, 2013). Personal growth was made as student teachers developed self-efficacy in which they experienced opportunities abroad that "made them more independent, confident, adventuresome, accomplished, and courageous" (Doppen & An, 2014, p. 68). Self-efficacy is defined as the belief in one's ability of doing something (Bandura, 1986). Their self-efficacy also transferred into their future classrooms as they used various strategies to integrate global education into their curriculum when they returned.

Adewui (2008) conducted an analysis of student teaching abroad on former students' professional teaching in K-12 schools. The results of his study described four themes that emerged including an impact at the personal level, classroom level, school level, and community level. At the personal level student teachers felt they were more marketable as compared to student teachers who traditionally taught in the U.S. Student teachers also commented on the ways the host country affected the ways they viewed education and the world. At the classroom level, these student teachers shared their stories, which challenged stereotypes and immersed their own students in the culture of the host country. The experience also helped them connect and form bonds with students from the country they had student taught in. Their experiences also had an impact in the community as the student teachers presented at conferences across their state to discuss the impact and benefits student teaching abroad provided them.

A 2017 study conducted by Doppen and Diki "sought to identify preservice teachers' perceptions of their student teaching abroad experiences and the effectiveness in preparing them to be globally competent educators upon completion of their student teaching semester and again, two years after" (p.78). Findings showed that student teachers who taught abroad developed global-minded approaches and the experience increased their global awareness and confidence.

Previous research by Jiang and DeVillar (2011, 2013) and DeVillar and Jiang (2012) at times in collaboration with colleagues (DeVillar, Bryan & Jiang, 2006; Jiang, Coffey, DeVillar & Bryan, 2010; Jiang, DeVillar & Drake, 2016) present on-going empirical evidence relative to the diverse effects of student teaching abroad experiences on student teachers' cultural, professional and personal development. Further, the findings from the study by DeVillar and Jiang (2012) indicated the transfer and adaptation of skills, techniques, and knowledge obtained from their student teaching abroad experiences, coupled with their self-assessed confidence in accessing, devising and using instructional materials in a creative, flexible and low-cost manner. Most importantly, the participants in this study considered student teaching abroad as a value-added experience with respect to the development and application of culturally responsive pedagogy in their US classrooms.

Most recently, research has found that the process of teaching abroad has become a multifaceted process of "organic learning" which reflects a global interplay of "social-cultural, institutional-individual, and the local-global" (Chao, et al., 2019, p. 7). Using participant interviews, observational field notes, artifacts, and participants' written journals as data sources, Chao, et al. (2019) found that teacher candidates' identities were artifacts, which arose from the social interaction in and through their experiences abroad. The teacher candidates in the study also recognized "the symbolization of identity and its power relation to societal and cultural norms" (p. 26). Through their journal reflections, these teacher candidates engaged in thinking like a critical teacher and developed their teacher identity.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study drew upon the Socio-Cultural Learning Theory (Vygotsky, 1978) and Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977). These theories are situated in the understanding of how learning occurs when a learner is exposed to a cultural environment that is different from his/her own. First, socio-cultural learning theory emphasizes that human interaction plays a considerable role in the development of cognition. This theory also asserts that people learn from each other through observations, interactions, imitation, and modeling.

Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory maintains that learning is an interrelationship between behavior, environmental factors, and personal factors. The learner acquires knowledge as his or her environment converges with personal experiences and characteristics (Bandura, 1994). Self-efficacy is a central focus of Bandura's research as well. "The concepts learned through the international experience increases students' self-efficacy by transferring the attained knowledge to their teaching practice in the field, resulting in greater professional and personal development" (Mikael, 2010, p. 24). When placed at a school in a host country, a student teacher's limitations are challenged, which fosters self-efficacy. This self-efficacy fosters change in the student teachers when he/she is challenged with diverse students and/or cultures.

METHOD

Research Participants

Participants of the study are K-12 teachers who previously completed a semester-long international student teaching experience at a large public university in the Southeastern US. The former student teachers participated in a semester-long student teaching abroad program during their final semester of undergraduate study as their practicum in one of six countries: Belize, China, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, or Uganda from 2002 to 2014. Their

majors included Elementary Education, English Education, Social Studies, Music Education, Art Education, History Education, Middle Grades Education, Physical Education, Math Education, and Science Education. Through their program of study at the University, they had taken course work that focused on diversity and multicultural education including education foundation courses as well as contents and assignments relevant to culturally responsive teaching. Once they were accepted into the semester-long student teaching abroad program, they also received several orientation sessions in which they were introduced to the language and culture of host country as well as the respective school contexts and requirements. During the orientations, there was an emphasis on preparing them to adjust and adapt to the new culture and learning about and from the host culture. During the student teaching abroad program, they were also required to participate in 15 hours of community service in the local community which helped them to engage with the local culture in addition to living with local families.

The survey in this study examined the perceptions of the former international student teachers regarding the transfer, adaptation and integration of their international student teaching experiences to their current instructional practices in their US classrooms, which are increasingly diverse across important demographic dimensions. The survey was distributed electronically

to approximately 200 former participants; of these 200, 57 participated in the online survey (28.5%). The participants included current K-12 teachers who teach in pre-K ($n=2$), elementary ($n=13$), middle ($n=7$) and secondary schools ($n=35$) with contents ranging from language arts and math, to social studies, science and art/music (see Table 1).

Table 1. Demographics of survey respondents

		Survey Respondents
Total number of participants		57
Gender	Males	12
	Females	45
Racial/Ethnic groups	White	44
	African American	5
	Asian	2
	Hispanic American or Latino/a	5
	Others	1
Current teaching assignment	Mathematics	5
	Language Arts	12
	Social Studies	8
	Science	7
	Music/Art	3
	ESL	6
	Generalist	13
	Others	3

Instrument

Instrumentation included an online survey of Student Teaching Abroad Experience (STAX) which consisted of a section to capture respondents' demographic information, a general questionnaire with a combination of 24 Likert and non-Likert items, and an additional questionnaire with 9 Likert items relevant to subject matter specific teaching. For Likert survey items, the participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement using a 6-point scale (6= strongly agree, 5= agree, 4= somewhat agree, 3= somewhat disagree, 2= disagree, and 1= strongly disagree). A list of non-Likert items are provided in appendix B.

Data Analysis

The data, without identifiable personal information, were entered into a computer database. Cases with missing values in a subscale were excluded from all statistical analysis for that subscale. The data were analyzed using the SPSS version 17.0 for Windows. The relationship of K-12 teachers and the attributes of international student teaching experiences have not yet been investigated, thus we performed exploratory factor analyses (EFA) with a maximum likelihood method in order to determine underlying constructs of the survey questions (see Table 2). Factor solutions and associated eigenvalues were analyzed to determine the best fit for the dataset. Factors loading at 0.45 or less were eliminated for the final survey (Pett, Lackey, & Sullivan, 2003). Cronbach's alpha was computed to assess the internal consistency reliability and how closely related a set of items as a group is.

RESULTS

Validity and Reliability

After poorly loading items were eliminated a four-factor solution based on 33 items was created, and accounted for 73% of the total variance. The four subscales (see Table 2) include (1) interest in language and culture, (2) personal development, (3) cultural development, and (4) professional development with Cronbach's alpha's ranging from 0.63 to 0.81 (see Table 3). A complete list of questions that fall under each construct, with descriptive statistics, is provided in appendix A.

Table 2. The questionnaire construct group; see Appendix A for actual items

Subscale	Description
Interest in language and culture	This factor indicates the degree to which respondents show their interest in the culture and language of the host country.
Personal development	This factor indicates the degree to which the international student teaching program contributed to their personal development.
Cultural development	This factor indicates the degree to which the international student teaching program contributed to their cultural development.
Professional development	This factor indicates the degree to which the international student teaching program contributed to their professional development such as instructional practice and content-specific pedagogy.

Estimates of internal consistency reliability were calculated for the total scale and each subscale. Cronbach's alpha for the overall STAX survey was 0.72. Along with reliability analysis, there were no significant gender, age, or ethnic/race differences found. Initially an EFA with 42 items was conducted; however, there were 4 items with low factor loading (< 0.50) and 5 items with low Cronbach's alpha values from the reliability test. So these 9 items were removed and another EFA with 33 items was made (see Table 3). The first factor ("Interest") consisted of 5 items and accounted for 14.83% of the variance in the model. The second factor ("Personal development") consisted of 6 items and accounted for 19.14% of the variance in the model. The third factor ("Cultural development") consisted of 8 items and accounted for 22.33% of the variance in the model. The fourth factor ("Professional development") consisted of 14 items and accounted for 16.03 % of the variance.

Table 3. Results of rotated factor loadings

Item	Interest	PerD	CulD	ProD
1	0.716			
2	0.621			
3	0.598			
4	0.634			
5	0.736			
6		0.629		
7		0.583		
8		0.734		
9		0.682		
10		0.639		
11		0.738		
12			0.837	
13			0.726	
14			0.625	
15			0.726	
16			0.692	
17			0.827	
18			0.625	
19			0.794	
20				0.578
21				0.591
22				0.632
23				0.643
24				0.528
25				0.594
26				0.527

27				0.486
28				0.736
29				0.635
30				0.655
31				0.597
32				0.637
33				0.713
Eigenvalue	4.53	5.06	6.82	5.51
Cumulative %	14.832	33.971	56.297	72.327
Cronbach's α	0.72	0.68	0.81	0.63

International Student Teaching Experiences

Positive STA experiences. The STAX participants demonstrated a high level of agreement (i.e., agree or strongly agree) to statements about their growth through STA experiences. The mean score of the items associated with development (i.e., professional, cultural, and personal) was 4.71 ($SD = 0.92$ with 1 = “strongly disagree”; 6 = “strongly agree”). The statements with mean scores above 5 (“agree”) included: “I took full advantage of my STA instructional experience” ($M=5.2$; $SD=0.93$); “I took full advantage of my STA cultural experience” ($M=5.4$; $SD=0.61$); and “My personal development was significantly increased as a result of my STA experience,” ($M=5.1$; $SD=0.83$). As for professional development the ratings of agreement ranged from very few disagreements ($n=5$) to many agreements ($n=50$; two missing responses) with varying degrees. More specifically, participants indicated that qualities such as flexibility, open-mindedness, and resourcefulness were strengthened during STAX (see Figure 1). Participants also indicated that skills such as cultural diversity were identified as the most developed area during STAX and classroom management was recognized as the least developed area during STAX (see Figure 2).

Figure 1. Number of participants who agreed to their growth with regard to educator qualities

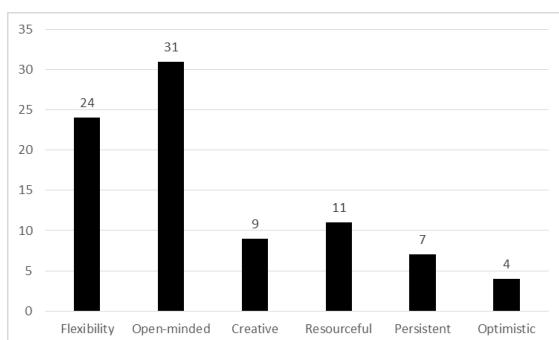
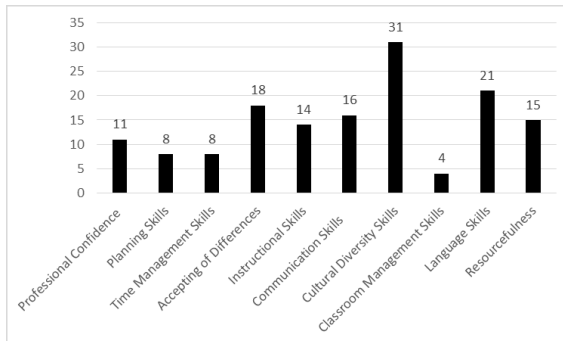
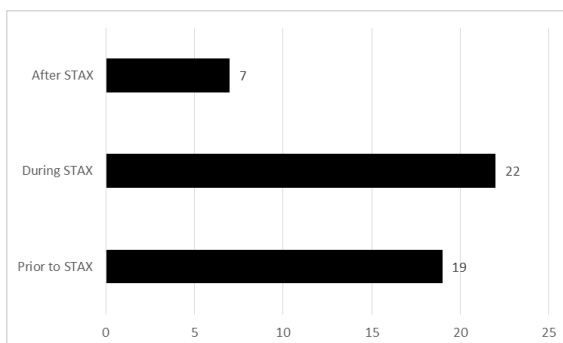


Figure 2. Number of participants who agreed to their growth with regard to instructional skills



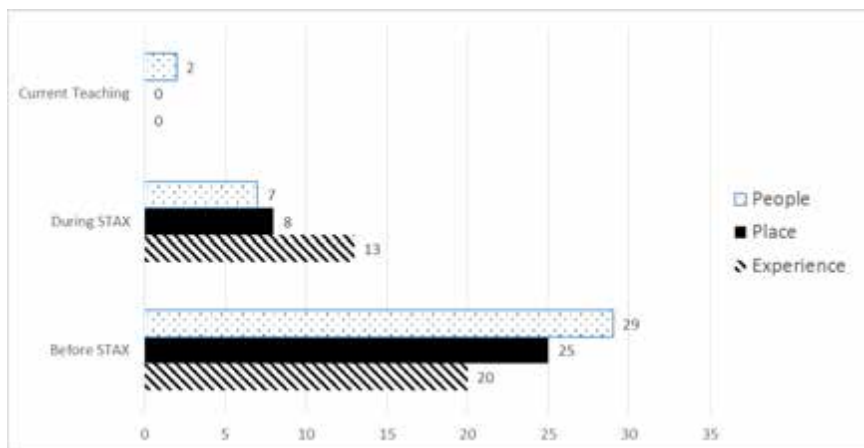
Increased understanding on people, places, and different experiences. The STAX participants indicated initial interest in new experiences during STAX, and their responses indicated that their appreciation of different cultures and languages increased during STAX. For example, 38 out of the 57 (67%) participants responses stated that they strongly agreed that they took full advantage of STA cultural experiences; most participants (34 out of 57) stated that they strongly agreed that their personal developments were significantly increased as a result of STA experience; and 46 out of the 57 (81%) participants agreed to the statement, “My STA experiences significantly increased my appreciation of a culture different from my own.” With regard to developing a sensitivity to language in classroom, most participants (44 out of 57 respondents) agreed that they realized the importance of using students’ native languages to support their learning – 19 participants said it was before their STA experience and 26 participants said it was after their STA experience with reference to the timing of the realization (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. The timing of realization on the importance of language in students’ learning



With regard to developing open-mindedness towards people, place, or experience, more participants indicated that their open-mindedness began before STAX than either during STAX or their current teaching with reference to the timing of the occurrence (see Figure 4).

Figure 4. The timing of the occurrence of open-mindedness



Use of STAX skills in the classroom. STAX data indicate that participants believed certain professional skills developed during STAX were more relevant than others in the qualities that impact classroom practice. For example, technology integration was most related to the participants' skills of flexibility ($n=22$), and interaction with students was most related to participant's open-mindedness ($n=25$), while lesson planning was identified as being most associated with participants' creativity ($n=15$). STAX data also demonstrate the ways in which participants incorporate cultural perspectives in classroom teaching: reading materials ($n=9$), various media ($n=7$), instructional examples ($n=18$), and activities ($n=17$). However, the following ways were shown to be not utilized as often as the ones previous mentioned: handouts ($n=0$), test items ($n=1$), guests ($n=1$), and field strips ($n=0$).

Regarding STAX and its impact on the content instruction participants agreed that skills related to teaching Problem Solving were rated as the most developed during STAX (Mathematics); and skills related to teaching Literature were rated as the most used in current teaching (Language Arts). In Social Studies, it is statistically significant ($t(18) = 12.69$; $p < .00$ one-tailed) with student t-test with the participant group mean score vs. the group mean score of 3 ($M=3$; $SD=$ unknown) that corresponds to the statement, "somewhat disagree," that participants have a high agreement to the following statements: (1) "I am now more aware that the social language proficiency of my students is not a reliable indicator of their understanding of history-specific language ($M=5.7$, $SD=0.43$)," and (2) "I include more stories, myths and legends from around the world to explain how events are viewed by world cultures ($M=5.5$, $SD=0.74$)."

Additionally, STAX data imply that participants prioritized the skills developed during STAX, unlike their actual skills for instruction. For mathematics, participants ranked Problem Solving as the most developed skills during STAX followed by Numbers and Operations, Algebraic Thinking, Measurement and Data, Geometry, and Statistics/Probability. But they ranked Algebraic Thinking as the most used skilled for instruction after STAX, followed by Problem Solving, Statistics/Probability, Geometry, Number and Operations, and Measurement and Data. English teachers ranked English Grammar as the most developed skills during STAX followed by Literature, Writing, and Multimodal Text; however, English

Grammar was one of the least used skills for instruction after STAX, while Literature (ranked first), Writing, and Multimodal Text were considered as important skills for instruction.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

A salient finding was that teachers who engaged in student teaching abroad settings transferred, adapted, and integrated skills, as well as techniques and knowledge, to their U.S. classrooms. The findings of the study further contribute knowledge and understanding of opportunities and constraints upon practicing teachers to transfer, adapt and integrate relevant aspects of their student teaching abroad experiences to various types (e.g., urban, suburban, private, public) and levels (primary and secondary, including distinct subject matter areas associated with the latter level of schooling) of US classrooms (DeVillar & Jiang 2012).

Doppen and Diki (2017) found similar results as they followed up with teachers more than two years after their student teaching abroad experiences. Participants felt both a personal and professional impact as they found their teaching to be more global-minded than before. Three main themes emerged from the study including the participants reporting; increased confidence in differentiation, an increased ability to adapt to change, and that the opportunity was the best student teaching experience to prepare them for their future (Doppen & Diki, 2017). As shown in the results to our study above, teachers were more aware of differentiation techniques, discussed their flexibility within the classroom, and had positive student teaching abroad experiences.

The findings from the survey results indicate that the participants' student teaching abroad experiences enabled them to develop diverse teaching practices more so than if they had student taught in the US. The teachers surveyed agreed that they came to realize the importance of using students' native languages to support their learning. As Hauerwas, Skawinski, and Ryan (2017) asserted, "More US classrooms have emergent bilinguals with varying language proficiencies and different cultural backgrounds who require instruction to be relevant to their background" (p. 202). Their study also found, teacher candidates had a greater awareness of the challenges of learning languages after teaching abroad because they too had to learn another language as they communicated with locals in everyday situations (Hauerwas, Skawinski, & Ryan, 2017). Language served as a catalyst for empathetic response as well a challenge when the teachers found themselves in the language role of the "other" while abroad.

In addition, the student teaching abroad experience added value in terms of cultural and language experiences and resultant sensibilities and behaviors, and, at the same time, prepared the former student teachers to develop their self-confidence, open-mindedness and flexibility. This study's findings further support previous literature affirming international experiences can play a crucial role in the development of a commitment toward developing an emergent awareness of diversity issues, and inform practices, which collectively impact positively their classroom practices in US schools (Adewui, 2008; Batey & Lupi, 2012; Cushner & Mahon, 2002; DeVillar & Jiang, 2012; Discroll, Rowe & Thomae, 2014; Doppen & An, 2014; Lupi & Turner, 2013).

The finding that participating teachers consider that their international student teaching experience positively impacted their teaching and professional character confirms well-organized, long-term student teaching abroad programs to be an innovative strategy that positively influences pre-service teachers' intercultural development in ways not possible in domestic student teaching experiences (Cushner & Brennan, 2007; Cushner & Mahon, 2002;

Merryfield, 1994; Paccione, 2000; Quezada, 2004; Roberts, 2003; Schneider, 2003). In many ways pre-service teachers who teach abroad are able to consider multiple viewpoints and perspectives as they plan, instruct, and assess. Their world-view increases as a result of their experiences and they are able to shift their thinking from “here’s how we view it” to “here’s how others view it”. (Shirveley & Misco, 2015, p. 113).

Similarly, Landa, Odon-Holm, and Shi (2017) found that teacher candidates who studied abroad and then returned to teach in the US realized “the American approach to teaching and learning is not universal” and “they began to consider that what they saw in another country did not need to stay in that country” (p. 264). After experiencing cultural immersion, these teachers were then able to engage their own students in compelling, deep thinking conversations which were reflected from their past cultural encounters.

In sum, the findings further demonstrate the benefits of international student teaching experiences to current practicing teachers as they work with diverse learners in US classrooms. The international student teaching experience in multiple country contexts added value to student teachers in terms of enhanced cultural and language experiences, sensibilities and behaviors. The current research findings may contribute to teacher educators’ and educational administrators’ understanding of advantages associated with international student teaching programs, thus enhancing the development of such programs and provision of such experiences to more pre-service teachers in teacher education institutions in the United States. The findings contribute to the research literature regarding the relationship between student teaching abroad experiences and their transference, adaptation, and integration into the classroom practice of beginning teachers in U.S. schools—an area in which research remains sparse.

The final benefit of this study was that this type of student teaching experience may increase the professional marketability of future graduates in the K-12 school setting. This finding is consistent with Shiveley and Misco’s (2012) study which indicated that administrators who hired teachers (in a Midwestern state) believed that when all other variables were equal, a preservice teacher who had experience teaching abroad was more highly regarded than those who did not have such an experience.

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Appendix A: Survey questions with the indication of related factors, means and standard deviations

	Interest in language and culture	Personal development	Cultural development	Professional development	M	S.D.
1. I took lessons to learn the language of the host country prior to my arrival there.	X				3.2	1.24
2. Prior to arriving in my host country, I appreciated what a culture different from my own had to offer.	X				4.2	0.86
3. I have wanted to develop or improve my foreign language skills while teaching in the US.	X				4.4	0.75
4. I chose my host country partly because the people there did not mainly speak English.	X				5.3	1.13
5. Part of the reason I chose my host country was the degree of its cultural diversity.	X				5.4	0.94
6. My personal development was significantly increased as a result of my STA experience.		X			5.2	0.83
7. My experiences as a US classroom teacher have confirmed for me that the personal development I achieved during STA was more relevant than had my student teaching occurred in the US.		X			4.5	0.73
8. I chose to student teach internationally to develop as a person in ways I considered not possible had I chosen to do my student teaching in the US.		X			4.4	0.92

9. I consider that I developed to a greater degree as a person while I was student teaching internationally than had I student taught in the US.		X			4.2	0.78
10. The personal development I experienced while student teaching internationally has helped me be a better teacher <u>in the US</u> .		X			4.6	1.23
11. My open-mindedness toward different people, places, and experiences increased during my STA experience.		X			4.6	0.65
12. I took full advantage of my STA cultural experience.			X		5.4	0.61
13. My experiences as a US classroom teacher have confirmed for me that cultural development I achieved during STA was more relevant than had my student teaching occurred in the US.			X		4.8	0.72
14. My STA experience significantly increased my appreciation of a culture different from my own			x		4.9	0.84
15. I realized the importance of using students' native languages in the classroom to support their learning			x		4.7	1.32
16. My desire to develop or improve my foreign language skills increased <u>during STA experience</u> .			X		4.5	0.92
17. <u>During my STA experience</u> , I greatly appreciated the degree of cultural diversity in my host country.			X		4.8	0.42
18. Now, as a teacher in the US, I appreciate even more the degree of cultural diversity in my host country.			X		4.4	0.74
19. I incorporate different cultures in my teaching.			X		4.7	1.45
20. I took full advantage of my STA instructional experience.				X	5.2	0.93

21. My experiences as a US classroom teacher have confirmed for me that the professional development I achieved during STA was more relevant than had my student teaching occurred in the US.				X	4.5	1.15
22. My ability to meet the learning needs of English Learners in my classroom increased as a result of my STA experience.				X	4.8	0.92
23. I became aware that STA would enable me to develop diverse teaching practices more so than if I had stayed in the US to do my student teaching.				X	4.9	0.78
24. Currently in my US classroom, I utilize the diverse teaching practices that I learned while STA.				x	4.6	1.34
25. I have used skills learned in my STA experience for my <u>math</u> instruction.				X	4.9	1.32
26. In order to be usable for <u>math</u> instruction, I have had to modify what I learned in my STA experience.				X	4.8	1.11
27. I use these adapted skills for my <u>math</u> instruction.				X	4.8	0.93
28. I have used skills learned in my STA experience for my <u>language arts</u> instruction.				X	5.1	0.65
29. In order to be usable for <u>language arts</u> instruction, I have had to modify what I learned in my STA experience.				X	4.6	0.72
30. I use these adapted skills for my <u>language arts</u> instruction.				X	4.4	1.13
31. I have used skills learned in my STA experience for my <u>social studies</u> instruction.				X	4.8	0.68
32. In order to be usable for <u>social studies</u> instruction, I have had to modify what I learned in my STA experience.				X	4.6	0.78
33. I use these adapted skills for my <u>social studies</u> instruction.				X	4.4	0.98

Appendix B: List of Non-Likert items

* I have improved my foreign language skills while teaching in the US in the following ways (check as many as apply):

- ☐ Formal Lessons
☐ Using a foreign language in the classroom
☐ Using a foreign language outside the classroom
☐ Speaking another language when traveling outside the US
☐ Writing in another language (electronically or otherwise)
☐ Other (please specify): _____

* I developed the following professional skills by student teaching abroad:

	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
Professional Confidence	___	___	___	___	___	___
Planning Skills	___	___	___	___	___	___
Time Management Skills	___	___	___	___	___	___
Accepting of Differences	___	___	___	___	___	___
Instructional Skills	___	___	___	___	___	___
Communication Skills	___	___	___	___	___	___
Cultural Diversity Skills	___	___	___	___	___	___
Classroom Management Skills	___	___	___	___	___	___
Language Skills	___	___	___	___	___	___
Resourcefulness	___	___	___	___	___	___

* I strengthened the qualities below during my student teaching abroad experience.

	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA
Flexible	___	___	___	___	___	___
Open-Minded	___	___	___	___	___	___
Creative	___	___	___	___	___	___
Resourceful	___	___	___	___	___	___
Persistent	___	___	___	___	___	___
Optimistic	___	___	___	___	___	___

* Currently, in my US teaching experience, I apply one or more of these qualities in the classroom (Check all that apply):

	Flexible	Open-Minded	Creative	Resourceful	Persistent	Optimistic
<input type="checkbox"/> Technology Integration	___	___	___	___	___	___
<input type="checkbox"/> Schedule Changes	___	___	___	___	___	___
<input type="checkbox"/> Lesson Planning	___	___	___	___	___	___
<input type="checkbox"/> Instructional Delivery	___	___	___	___	___	___
<input type="checkbox"/> Classroom Management	___	___	___	___	___	___
<input type="checkbox"/> Interactions with Students	___	___	___	___	___	___
<input type="checkbox"/> Media Selection	___	___	___	___	___	___
<input type="checkbox"/> Test Preparation	___	___	___	___	___	___

___ Faculty Meetings	___	___	___	___	___	___
___ Parent Conferences	___	___	___	___	___	___
___ Other (please state) _____						

* I incorporate different cultural perspectives in the following ways:

	Always	Mostly	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
___ Reading Materials	___	___	___	___	___	___
___ Videos/Other Media	___	___	___	___	___	___
___ Handouts	___	___	___	___	___	___
___ Test Items	___	___	___	___	___	___
___ Instructional Examples	___	___	___	___	___	___
___ Activities	___	___	___	___	___	___
___ Guests	___	___	___	___	___	___
___ Field Trips	___	___	___	___	___	___
___ Other (please specify) _____						

Appendix C: List of subject matter items not used for the analysis of survey reliability and validity:

Mathematics:

75. I developed specific skills related to teaching Number & Operations in my STA experience. If you answered SA, A, or SWA to the items above, please respond to the question below:
- 75a. I use specific skills related to teaching Number & Operations learned in my STA experience in my major area of instruction.
76. I developed specific skills related to teaching Measurement & Data in my STA experience. If you answered SA, A, or SWA to the items above, please respond to the question below:
- 76a. I use specific skills related to teaching Measurement & Data learned in my STA experience in my major area of instruction.
77. I developed specific skills related to teaching Statistics & Probability in my STA experience. If you answered SA, A, or SWA to the items above, please respond to the question below:
- 77a. I use specific skills related to teaching Statistics & Probability that I learned in my STA experience in my major area of instruction.
78. I developed specific skills related to teaching Algebraic Thinking in my STA experience. If you answered SA, A, or SWA to the items above, please respond to the question below:
- 78a. I use specific skills related to teaching Algebraic Thinking learned in my STA experience in my major area of instruction.
79. I developed specific skills related to teaching Geometry in my STA experience. If you answered SA, A, or SWA to the items above, please respond to the question below:
- 79a. I use specific skills related to teaching Geometry learned in my STA experience in my major area of instruction.
80. I developed specific skills related to teaching Problem Solving in my STA experience. If you answered SA, A, or SWA to the items above, please respond to the question below:
- 80a. I use specific skills related to teaching Problem Solving learned in my STA experience in my major area of instruction.

English:

- 81. I developed specific skills related to teaching English grammar in my STA experience. If you answered SA, A, or SWA to the items above, please respond to the question below:
- 81a. I use specific skills related to teaching English grammar learned in my STA experience in my major area of instruction.
- 82. I developed specific skills related to teaching writing in my STA experience. If you answered SA, A, or SWA to the items above, please respond to the question below:
- 82a. I use specific skills related to teaching writing learned in my STA experience in my major area of instruction.
- 83. I developed specific skills related to teaching literature in my STA experience. If you answered SA, A, or SWA to the items above, please respond to the question below:
- 83a. I use specific skills related to teaching literature learned in my STA experience in my major area of instruction.
- 84. I developed specific skills related to teaching multimodal texts in my STA experience. If you answered SA, A, or SWA to the items above, please respond to the question below:
- 84a. I use specific skills related to teaching multimodal texts learned in my STA experience in my major area of instruction.

History:

- 85. Since my STA experience, I am more aware of the need to cater for the cultural needs of my students when I plan history lessons.
- 86. Since my STA experience, I am now more flexible in using different approaches to engage all my students when teaching any aspect of social studies.
- 87. Since my STA experience, I now am more likely to use a regional or thematic approach when teaching history.
- 88. Since my STA experience, I now allow my students to talk to each other about history assignments in their first language.
- 89. Since my STA experience, I assign my students to do group work more often.
- 90. Since my STA experience, I am more aware that asking my students to question the authority of historical sources, individuals, or events may be challenging for them.
- 91. Since my STA experience, I now use more diverse historical narratives in my history teaching.
- 92. Since my STA experience, I am careful when using historical terms to explain them with examples that are familiar to all my students.
- 93. Since my STA experience, I am now more aware that the social language proficiency of my students is not a reliable indicator of their understanding of history-specific language.
- 94. Since my STA experience, I am more aware that I need to teach students how simple prepositions work in history questions and texts.
- 95. During my STA experience, I developed additional skills to cater for the multiple learning preferences of my students
- 96. During my STA experience, I developed additional skills that help me teach all my students to understand how to ask questions about historical sources.
- 97. During my STA experience I developed additional skills that helped me teach my students how to understand historical concepts.
- 98. Since my STA experience, I am more likely to ask my students for help in pronouncing the names of historical actors or events.

99. Since my STA experience, I am more likely to ask my students about their personal World History stories.
100. Since my STA experience, I am more likely to illustrate historical content with personal experience encountered teaching social studies abroad.
101. As a result of my STA experience, I include more stories myths and legends from around the world to explain how events are viewed by world cultures.
102. Since my STA experience I am more aware of how I address my students' parents.

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50th Anniversary Conference - 2020

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ORGANIZATION

The Society was founded December 10, 1970 in Washington, DC. Over 50 local, state, national, and international planners attended the first organizational meeting.

Since then its continued growth demonstrates the need for a professions organization with educational planning as its exclusive concern.

PURPOSE

The International Society for Educational Planning was established to foster the professional knowledge and interests of educational planners. Through conferences and publications, the society promotes the interchange of ideas within the planning community. The membership includes persons from the ranks of governmental agencies, school-based practitioners, and higher education.

MEMBERSHIP IN THE SOCIETY

Membership in the society is open to any person active or interested in educational planning and the purposes of the Society. To join the Society or renew a membership please complete and submit the enclosed form.

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