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Contents

Education Study

399 Lesson Context and Student Behavior in a Physical Education Class of Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders
Shawna Young

405 Spanish Television Hinder Hispanic Children’s Bilingualism Development in Texas
Yulin Feng, Ruben Olague, Armando Diaz, Valentin Ekiaka Nzai

418 Effects of Early Exposure to a Second Language on Its Proficiency at Later Age
Yen-Cheng Tseng

427 Developing Beginning Reading Skills among Primary School Pupils in Cross River State, Nigeria: A Pilot Study Report
Charity Ashelo Andzayi, Emmanuel Uminya Ikwen

439 A Survey on the Effectiveness of Inclusive Education Implementation at Elementary School
Martini Jamaris, Indina Tarjiah, Wuryani and Trisna Mulyeni

448 Teachers’ Professional Development on ICT Use: A Saudi Sustainable Development Model
Feras Mohammed Al-Madani, Ibrahim Ali Alafiaci

Cultural Study

457 Re-inventing Islamic Civilization in the Sudanic Belt: The Role of Sheikh Usman Dan Fodio
Abba Idris Adam
Lesson Context and Student Behavior in a Physical Education Class of Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders

Shawna Young

(Calendar State University, Stanislaus, USA)

Abstract: An action research study was conducted during the first year of a physical education program at a nonpublic, special education school predominantly serving students with emotional and behavioral disorders, and who are wards of the state living in group homes and foster care homes. In the role of teacher and principal investigator, the researcher conducted a year-long action research study of this program. One primary research question was the following: Is the pattern of inappropriate student behavior among students with emotional and behavioral disorders the same across different lesson contexts? Delivery of this physical education program occurred over the course of an entire school year, teaching physical education 2 days per week for 45 minutes to a group of 57 students with emotional and behavioral disorders. Thirty days were randomly selected for data collection related to this research question, recording student behavior in relation to lesson context. There were 10 lesson context categories, including: class entry; warm-up activity; fitness activity; receiving instructions; skill practice; game play; transition; waiting; equipment collection; and class exit. There were six categories of inappropriate student behavior, including: verbal aggression; noncompliance; physical aggression; walking out; running away; and property destruction. A chi-square analysis was conducted to identify patterns of student behavior across lesson context categories.

Key words: emotional and behavioral disorders; physical education; time on task

1. Background and Rationale

Research indicates that exercise has a positive effect on the behavior of individuals with emotional disturbances, and intellectual and learning disabilities (Eichstaedt & Lavay, 1992; Elliot, Dobbin, Rose, & Soper, 1994; Medcalf, Marshall, & Rhoden, 2006; Tantillo, Kesick, Hynd, & Dishman, 2002). Research also suggests that there is a relationship between increased time spent in PE and improved academic performance (Carlson, Fulton, Lee, Maynard, Brown, Kohl, & Dietz, 2008; Tremarche, Robinson, & Graham, 2007). In order to realize these potential benefits, there is an assumption that students must be engaged in the lesson and actively participating and exercising. Management of students with emotional and behavioral disorders, especially large groups of these students, maintaining high time on task and engagement, can be challenging.
1.1 Purpose

An action research study began in the first year of a 3-year pilot physical education program at a nonpublic, special education school predominantly serving students with emotional and behavioral disorders, and who are wards of the state living in group homes and foster care homes. The action research study was conducted continuously since the implementation of the program, with different dimensions of the program being examined over time. The overarching purpose of the action research study was to determine the most effective way to teach physical education to this group of students with emotional and behavioral disorders.

1.2 Research Question

The research question examined in this specific sub-study was the following:

Is the pattern of inappropriate student behavior among students with emotional and behavioral disorders the same across different lesson contexts?

2. Methods

2.1 School Site

The study was conducted at a nonpublic school in Northern California that serves as a special education placement site for surrounding school districts. The school is a middle and high school campus. At the time of the study, the school had five full-time teachers and 22 other staff members.

2.2 Student Profile

At the time of the study, 57 students were enrolled in the school and were participants in the PE program. All of the students were identified as having emotional and behavioral disorders (EBDs). Of the 57 students, 47 were male and 10 were female. Over 59% of the students were wards of the state, living in group homes or foster homes.

2.3 Data Collection

The physical education class was held two days per week, 45 minutes per session, over the course of the entire academic year. Thirty days were randomly selected for data collection specifically related to this research question. An incident report (see Table 1) was used to track the number of inappropriate behavioral incidents occurring throughout the entire lesson on the selected data collection days. Ten lesson context categories were included in the instrument, and incidents were tracked according to context.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson Context</th>
<th>Warm-up Activity</th>
<th>Fitness Activity</th>
<th>Receiving Instructions</th>
<th>Skill Practice</th>
<th>Transition</th>
<th>Waiting</th>
<th>Equipment Collection</th>
<th>Class Exit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Game Play</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Non-compliance</th>
<th>Physical Aggression</th>
<th>Walking Out</th>
<th>Running Away</th>
<th>Property Destruction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2.4 Data Analysis

In response to the research question, “Is the pattern of inappropriate student behavior among students with
emotional and behavioral disorders the same across different lesson contexts?”, a chi-square of independence was run, using IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 20, to see if there was significant difference in the occurrences of inappropriate behaviors in relation to the lesson context.

3. Results

While the chi-square analysis did indicate significant differences in behavioral incidences across lesson contexts, the chi-square statistic could not be reported because more than 20% of the cells had values less than 5, and assumptions for the validity of the test require values of at least 5 in at least 80% of the cells (Green & Salikind, 2011). Therefore, descriptive observations of the distribution from the crosstabulation was utilized to examine the patterns of behaviors across lesson contexts. Table 2 displays results of the descriptive observations of the crosstabulation of lesson context and behavior.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson Context</th>
<th>Class Entry</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>% within Lesson Context</th>
<th>% within Behavior</th>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>% within Lesson Context</th>
<th>% within Behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class Entry</td>
<td>Verbal Aggression</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>68.0%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>Verbal Aggression</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>68.0%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-comp liance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>Non-comp liance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical Aggression</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>Physical Aggression</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Walking Out</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>Walking Out</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Running Away</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>Running Away</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Property Destruction</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>Property Destruction</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Lesson Context and Behavior Crosstabulation
3.1 Descriptive Observations from the Crosstabulation

Descriptive observations can be made by lesson context, by behavior, and by behavior in association with lesson context.

3.2 Observations by Lesson Context.

- Transition elicited the greatest number of incidents, where 24.1% of the behavioral incidents occurred, followed by Receiving Instructions (13.2%), Fitness Activity (10.1%), Equipment Collection (10.1%), Entry (9.7%), then Warm-up (9.3%).
- After Class Exit (accounting for only 1.2% of behavioral incidents), Game Play yielded the lowest rate of incidents at 8.6%.

3.3 Observations by Behavior

Verbal Aggression was the most occurring behavior, representing 44.0% of the behavioral incidents, followed by Non-compliance (23.0%), then Physical Aggression (18.7%).

3.4 Observations of Lesson Context by Behavior

- Verbal Aggression was especially prevalent during Transitions, representing 29.2% of verbal aggression incidents, Receiving Instructions (27.4%), and Class Entry (15.0%).
- Non-compliance was especially prevalent during Fitness Activity, representing 32.2% of non-compliance incidents, Warm-up (27.1%), and Skill Practice (25.4%).
- Physical Aggression was especially prevalent during Transition, representing 52.1% of physical aggression incidents, Game Play (14.6%), and Waiting (12.5%).

4. Discussion

The results of this study affected teaching strategies for this group of students, and have resulted in the following recommendations.

4.1 Minimize Time for Transitions

Minimizing time for transitions between activities increases potential active learning time and reduces opportunities for inappropriate behaviors. Based on findings of this study, as well as related best-practices literature for physical education (Buck, Lund, Harrison, & Cook, 2007; Darst & Pangrazi, 2006; Rink, 2010; Siedentop & Tannehill, 2000), the following are suggestions for minimizing time for transitions and making them more efficient.

- Establish an entry routine. Design a routine in which students enter the PE area knowing what to do immediately upon arrival. For example, as students arrive, they join a snake run in a designated area.
- Establish routines for calling attention, gathering, and dispersing students. For example, “Bring it in.” means everyone is to gather in close, from wherever they are located, in front of the teacher.
- Provide specific instructions for what to do once students reach the next location. Avoid dispersing students, and then providing opportunity for them to stand waiting once they arrive there.
- Organize and place student equipment in such a way that students can quickly and safely access the equipment for use. Avoid situations in which 50 students are forced to converge upon one bin of equipment, resulting in crowding and waiting. Instead, have equipment strategically set up before class so that it is easily accessible.
Mark areas clearly with color-coded cones, spots, and/or lines to structure the PE area. These landmarks establish areas and boundaries for activities, and enable specificity of directions.

4.2 Minimize Time Spent Giving Verbal Instructions and Information

Minimizing time spent giving instructions and conveying information increases potential active learning time and decreases opportunities for inappropriate behavior. Therefore, increasing the efficiency of delivery of instructions and information is important.

While vision is only one of several sensory systems in humans, it is the predominant sensory system (Coker, 2004; Magill, 2011; Schmidt & Wrisberg, 2008). Research suggests that 40% of the cerebral cortex is involved in processing visual information (Marieb & Mallatt, 2002), and that visually observing demonstration of motor skills is an important part of motor skill acquisition (Coker, 2004; Magill, 2011; Schmidt & Wrisberg, 2008). Further, research indicates that providing visual support for children with behavioral disorders (Jaime & Knowlton, 2007), especially in combination with verbal instruction, can enhance learning. Visual supports are any visually perceived stimuli used to assist comprehension of information (Jaime & Knowlton, 2007). Examples may include things such as pictures, diagrams, sign language, or other body movements used in concert with verbal information. Therefore, to improve effectiveness of communication of information and to reduce opportunities for inappropriate behavior, it is suggested that abundant visual demonstration be paired with short, concise verbal explanation.

4.3 Provide Students with Choices

To increase potential active learning time and reduce opportunities for inappropriate behavior, and in response to Tomlinson’s and McTighe’s (2006) call for differentiated instruction in which flexibility in instructional planning is a norm and learning differences and interests of the students are expected and welcome, incorporate choice to allow for preferences in engagement in physical activity. For example, provide students with choices of fitness exercises that accomplish a similar outcome, such as a choice between squats and stair-steps.

4.4 Provide a Balance between Fitness Activities, Skill Development, and Game Play

Invariably, the following question was asked every day of class during this study: “When do we get to play?” This phenomenon is not unique to this group of students, as the desire to play is common across many people and cultures (Darst & Pangrazi, 2006). Every PE lesson should include the following components: warm-up, fitness activity, lesson focus that includes both skill development/practice and play, and a wrap-up activity (Buck, Lund, Harrison, & Cook, 2007; Darst & Pangrazi, 2006; Rink, 2010). A rough guideline is to dedicate approximately a third of class time to warm-up and fitness activity, a third to skill development and practice, and a third to play and wrap-up (Darst & Pangrazi, 2006). It was found in this study that the amount of time that the group as a whole could spend on skill development and practice before off-task and disruptive behaviors began to escalate was variable. And it was found in this study that, aside from class exit, game play was the period of time during PE class that elicited the least number of behavior incidents. It is suggested that teachers be responsive to changing needs of the whole group as well as individuals within the group. Have extra skills and drills planned in case there is special interest in learning more on a particular day; but also be prepared to transition to game play earlier than planned on other days, sacrificing the introduction of a new skill and carrying it over to the next lesson. Ultimately, this flexibility can reduce the number of behavior incidents and increase the time students are engaged in physical activity.
Lesson Context and Student Behavior in a Physical Education Class of Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders

5. Conclusion

To optimize potential benefits of participation in physical activity, physical educators must effectively manage their classes so that students are engaged in the lesson and actively participating and exercising. This can be challenging when teaching a class with students who have emotional and behavioral disorders. Results of this study suggest that to increase potential active learning time in PE and to reduce the opportunities for inappropriate behavior, teachers do the following: minimize time for transitions; minimize time spent giving verbal instructions and information; provide students with choices; and provide a balance between fitness activities, skill development, and game play.

References

Spanish Television Hinder Hispanic Children’s Bilingualism Development in Texas

Yulin Feng1, Ruben Olague2, Armando Diaz1, Valentin Ekiaka Nzai1
(1. Department of Teacher & Bilingual Education, Texas A&M University, Kingsville, USA; 2. Texas A&M University System, USA)

Abstract: Research on media exposure, especially televisions (TVs) has documented the positive impact of media on oral fluency development and language acquisition (Bittman, Rutherford, Brown, & Unsworth, 2011; Mendelsohn, Brockmeyer, Dreyer, Fierman, Berkule-Silberman, & Tomopoulos, 2010; Pandya, 2012). However, little attention has been paid to effects of Spanish-Speaking media, especially Televisions (TVs) on Hispanic children in a predominantly subtractive bilingualism. Thus, this qualitative study aimed to initiate the discussion on the role of the U.S. Spanish Speaking TVs in fostering bilingualism — biliteracy among Hispanic children. The following research question guided this query: To what extent does Spanish TV foster Hispanic children’s heritage language (Spanish) development?

Findings suggested that the ratio of Spanish TV programs time-air for children is very low. Consequently, Spanish TV programs seem to be powerless in fostering Hispanic Children bilingualism-biliteracy development. Recommendations for elementary teachers of English language learners are drafted from the additive bilingualism perspective.

Keywords: Spanish Television, Spanish media outlets, bilingualism-biliteracy, Hispanic

1. Introduction

According to the National Center for the Education Statistics (2012), the number of English language learners (ELLs) has dramatically increased in the nation. Specifically, Texas is the second-largest state to have a large population of ELLs enrolled in public schools (Flores, Batalova & Fix, 2012), which is historically inhabited by Hispanics who mainly speak Spanish at home and within their communities. These ELLs often experience an achievement gap compared with their native-English-speaking counterparts (Sandberg & Reschly, 2011), poor
Spanish Television Hinder Hispanic Children’s Bilingualism Development in Texas

educational outcomes and slow improvement on state assessments (Honigsfeld & Giouroukakis, 2011; Xu & Drame, 2008), as well as receiving inappropriate instruction in classrooms (Xu & Drame, 2008).

In addition, Reyna & Ekiaka (2012) research on vocabulary acquisition suggested that Hispanic elementary school children arrive at schools when they already lag behind in their first and second languages. Once being behind, they generally remain behind and suffer higher dropout rates as a result.

Research (Bittman, Rutherford, Brown, & Unsworth, 2011; Mendelsohn, Brockmeyer, Dreyer, Fierman, Berkule-Silberman, & Tomopoulos, 2010) on media exposure, especially television (TV), has documented media’s positive impact on oral language development and language acquisition. For example, Alzboon, Irshid, Al-Slaihat, Attiat, & Alkhayat (2011) found that first secondary students watched various TV programs to increase their language achievement. Although researchers have written about mainstream English media, especially targeting infants and toddlers (Mendelsohn, Brockmeyer, Dreyer, Fierman, Berkule-Silberman, & Tomopoulos, 2010; Vaala, Linebarger, Fenstermacher, Tedone, Brey, Barr, Moses, Shwery, & Calvert, 2010), little attention has been paid to ethnic media.

Our own research findings (Feng & Ekiaka, 2010) published by the MEXTESOL Journal suggested that new Chinese immigrant students spent an average of 6.04 hours daily being exposed to ethnic media which helped them strengthen their heritage language and cultural fluency and proficiency. Given the fact that many Spanish-speaking children live in subtractive bilingualism settings (Subtractive bilingualism means that becoming monolingual in English), a deeply embedded in the ecological system (including K-12 school systems), they were practically forced to become monolingual in English quickly. Therefore, the authors wonder if age-appropriate Spanish-language TV is available in the current U.S. media market for Hispanic children as an opportunity to enhance their heritage language learning.

This paper examined the messages contained in Spanish-language TV to evaluate the power of Spanish TV programs in strengthening the Spanish language among Hispanic children (US and Foreign-born). We attempted to answer one fundamental question: To what extent does Spanish-language TV foster Hispanic children’s heritage language (Spanish) development? Certainly, the answers to this aforementioned question evoke parental awareness, spark interest, and stimulate critical thoughts and discussions regarding the role of Spanish-language TV in strengthening Hispanic children’s heritage language in a predominantly subtractive bilingualism setting. For this reason, we examined the contents of 16 Spanish-language TV programs in order to determine the types of messages Hispanic children are watching. To that end, this study employed an ethnographic content analysis (ECA) or qualitative document analysis to examine the content presented in Spanish-language TV and targeted audiences.

To help our readers better understand the structure of this article, first we will provide an overview of some studies related to the topic of inquiry before describing our research methods. Afterwards, we will present the findings of our qualitative document analysis and recommendations for parents, teachers, and Spanish-speaking TV business, bearing in mind that the terms It is worth to underline that the terms Spanish TV, Spanish TV programs, Spanish TV channels, Spanish-language TV and Spanish-language TV programs are used interchangeably in this paper.

2. Literature Review

Even though there were some debates as to whether children younger than two should watch any TV or
Spanish Television Hinder Hispanic Children’s Bilingualism Development in Texas

media (Linebarger, 2004), several studies (Alzboon, Irshid, Al-Slaihat, Attiat, & Alkhayat, 2001; Krcmr & Grela, 2004; Krcmar, Grela, & Lin, 2007) have shown that media, in general, and television, in particular, to be related to toddlers, infants, or children’s early language learning. In high-order communication skills research, Krcmar, Grela, & Lin (2007) described 46 preverbal toddlers’ (15-24 months) vocabulary and investigated the roles of TV watching affecting toddlers’ development of novel words. Toddlers were introduced target words in five different conditions: (a) adult in video, (b) children’s program, (c) joint reference, (d) discrepant reference, and (e) no word. Results show that the joint reference condition, which was the combination of face-to-face adult-to-child interaction and adults in video, helped toddlers effectively identify the target words.

Rather than simply claiming that linguistic input from TV is associated with increases or decreases in young children’s language outcomes, program types and videos are important resources to benefit from. Linebarger (2004) examined different types of educational TV programs on children’s communication skills and found that watching certain TV programs were positively/negatively related to vocabulary size or expressive language use depending on language-promoting strategies employed in TV programs. She further concluded that “content matters most, especially for the youngest children who have a significant dearth of experience. Children will learn whatever they are allowed to view. It is up to parents, educators, and producers to provide them with the best and most appropriate content possible” (p. 21). Based on the above literature, it might be stated that mainstream English-language TV and media could be very effective tools for English language learning when program types, language-promoting strategies, and adult-and-child interactions are taken into account.

Some scholars (Alzboon, Irshid, Al-Slaihat, Attiat, & Alkhayat, 2001; Krcmr & Grela, 2004; Krcmar, Grela, & Lin, 2007; Mahtani, 2008) also have documented the importance of English-language media in minorities’ socio-cultural identities. A claim (Krcmar, Grela, & Lin, 2007) has been made that mainstream English-language media provide sources of information regarding “immigration patterns and ideologies of assimilation, integration, and segregation” (Mahtani, 2008, p. 640). In other words, when minorities are shown in English-language media, it is primarily in news and stories about immigration. However, Larson (2005) found that minorities are excluded from English-language media, which set them apart from out-group people and reinforce the “disconnect” between minorities and mainstream media (Nguyen, 1999). Such exclusion “reinforced their low status and signified exclusion from American society, because the function of news is to reflect social reality” (Larson, 2005, p. 82).

Baffoe (2012) and Mahtan (2008) also argue that racial minorities have been underrepresented and misrepresented in mainstream English-language media. Due to negative news, portrayals, images, and identities of people of color, some individuals envisage that minorities are threats to the social structure, inscrutable, dangerous, and linked to criminal activities and deviant patterns of behavior (Aguirre, Rodriguez, & Simmers, 2011; Larson, 2005; Mahtani, 2008; Nguyen, 1999). Mastro & Tukachinsky’s (2011, p. 916) literature review illustrates that unfavorable and inaccurate racial/ethnic stereotypes in media lead to the cultivation of negative perceptions towards minorities. Mahtani (2008) also found that English-language media do not provide spaces where minorities could see their ethnic, cultural, and immigrant identities as well as rich social life in the United States. The negative effects of TV on children’s beliefs and perceptions are also documented. “[W]hat children think of various ethnic minorities such as blacks, Hispanics, or Asian Americans is often influenced by what they see on television programs and advertising” (Hae-Kyong & Reece, 2003, p. 42). Perhaps, issues that are of concern to minority groups and communities in the United States get very little attention in the mainstream English language media. It therefore behooves minorities to seek their ethnic media to connect themselves to their ethnic society (Zhou & Cai, 2002).
Recently, ethnic media continue to grow at an extraordinary pace in America society, especially Spanish-language media (Campo-Flores, 2007; Canto, 2005; Min & Guoxuan, 2002; Nealy, 2008). Ethnic or foreign-language media are increasingly being recognized as an important tool to develop individuals’ language and cross-cultural competences and own identity (Cormack, 2005). For example, Min & Guoxuan (2002) found that “In its increasing proportion of local reporting or locally produced programming, the ethnic media fulfills an important function as an information agent by keeping immigrants of diverse backgrounds well informed of their two social worlds” (p. 432). Involved minorities are privy to information about how they adapt to mainstream society and culture as well as developments of their country of origin, which are not covered in mainstream media (Nguyen, 1999). And “it is extremely important to be aware and informed of the news in both cultures because of their daily involvement in both societies” (p. 44), Nguyen (1999) said. Minorities also rely on ethnic media to reach their ethnic groups and communities.

Nguyen (1999) stated that even though the establishment and availability of ethnic media is varied among different ethnic groups, there are still some characteristics. He further summarized the following: “In the early stages of most ethnic media, print is the primary medium due to the support from parent companies overseas, low printing and distribution costs, and a high literacy rate among new immigrants. Broadcast media is slower to emerge because of difficulties in distribution, with the exception of Hispanic media. With the emergence of cable and satellite TV, in-language media has overcome early-stage obstacles and could feasibly surpass in-language print media within a few years” (p. 44)

In this study, the authors analyzed Spanish-language TVs broadcast in basic cable package in South Texas region (South of Austin-Houston to the Mexican Border) to evaluate their impact on fostering Hispanic children’s bilingualism in a predominantly subtractive setting where they are implicitly and explicitly forced to become monolingual in English quickly.

3. Method

This research project employed an ethnographic content analysis (ECA) or qualitative document analysis to examine the content presented in Spanish-language TVs and targeted audiences. The emphasis of ECA is on “concept development, data collection, and emergent data analysis through repeated study of the content” (Gormly, 2004, p. 223). An ECA is used to collect numeric and narrative data when studying documents like TV new and movies (Altheide, 1987).

To obtain the sample, apurposeful sampling was selected. For this qualitative study the selection of TV programs was based on the following criteria: (1) Spanish-language TV programs, (2) children TV programs, and (3) educational TV programs.

In the process of data collection, the authors calculated the total numbers of Spanish-language programs available from TV, and 206 results were found. These Spanish-language TV programs were classified into two as adults and children, and 26 results that targeted children audiences were found. In order to narrow the sample, of 26 children’s TV programs, 16 Spanish-language TV programs were selected for the sample because those were identified as educational purposes and met the above criteria. The selections of numbers of sample are illustrated in the Figure 1 below.
4. Findings

Table 1 provides a summary of a list of Spanish-language TV programming, hours and days. The findings of this study show that all children’s TV focuses heavily on entertainment and commercial advertisement, and only a few TV programs focus on education. Of the educational TV, it only targets children aged 5 to 12. The authors will then briefly describe content coverage in Spanish-language TV in the United States following by the Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Channel</th>
<th>Hours</th>
<th>Day</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Univision</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Saturday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galavisión</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Monday to Friday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azteca América</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Monday to Friday and weekends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telemundo</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Telefutura</td>
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<td>Weekends</td>
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</table>

4.1 Univision

Planeta U (English: “Planet U”), usually called TuPlaneta U (English: “Your Planet”), is a three-hour block of children’s programming that airs on Saturday mornings in the Spanish language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schedule</th>
<th>Lunes</th>
<th>Martes</th>
<th>Miércoles</th>
<th>Jueves</th>
<th>Viernes</th>
<th>Sabado</th>
<th>Domingo</th>
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<tr>
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<td>TuDesayunoAlegre</td>
<td>TuDesayunoAlegre</td>
<td>TuDesayunoAlegre</td>
<td>TuDesayunoAlegre</td>
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<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
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<td>Crema de Concha de Nacar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
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<tr>
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<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
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<tr>
<td>9:00 AM</td>
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<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>Planeta U</td>
<td>Para Volver a Amar</td>
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<tr>
<td>10:00 AM</td>
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<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>DespiertaAmérica</td>
<td>Planeta U</td>
<td>Al Punto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:00 AM</td>
<td>Casos de Familia</td>
<td>Casos de Familia</td>
<td>Casos de Familia</td>
<td>Casos de Familia</td>
<td>Casos de Familia</td>
<td>Crema de Concha de Nacar</td>
<td>RepúblicaDeportiva 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Galavisión

During this ECA, the following TV programs were the only ones targeting children broadcasted in Galavisión: Chespirito, El Chapulín Colorado; El Chavo del 8 and La Güereja y algomás. According to IMDb (2012), Chespirito is a sketch-based comedy for mature kids because it has some political humor. Roberto Gomez Bolanos is one of the most important comedians in Mexican history and the Top-10 of Mexican comedians. His sketches are based on the best known characters, El Chavo (the kid), El Chapulin Colorado (the red cricket), Chompiras (this is not a word). These characters are really funny and make good physical comedy. This successful show has been translated to Chinese, Russian, French, English and Italian.

In the same vein, “El Chapulín Colorado was a television series, both created and played by Chespirito. It was a parody of superhero shows like Superman and Batman. A typical episode would have some person get in some kind of trouble and then say out loud, “Oh! and who can help me now?” and the Chapulin Colorado would burst in through the nearest door or window. He would be dressed in red tights and yellow shorts and he had a big yellow heart on his chest with the letters “CH” in red which stood for Chapulin (Mrotek, 2012). Similarly, Roberto Gomez Bolanos starred El Chavo del 8 which depicted the funny and touching stories of a poor, orphan and disaster kid called “Chavo” in a poor neighborhood (IMDB, 2012).

Besides Bolanos’ series, La Güereja y algomás portrayed a 4-year-old Mexican girl who goes to school but whose home life tends to be a little wacky. La Güereja’s hair is in two ponytails, and she wears a long dress. After three seasons, this TV program underwent a major change. It became Güereja de mi vida. Castro was the only supporting cast member returning from the previous series. The La Güereja series was one of two Televisa series appearing in which adult actors played children. See Appendix #1 for a complete Galivision, Azteca America, Telemundo and Telefutura programming.

5. Discussion

Our contention must be presented in three intertwined contexts: historical, political and socio-cultural. It must also be understood that Spanish-language television in the United States is a reflection of what is produced by Latin American media giants with the mindset of a population strictly and evidently adhered to their geopolitical space and needs — which may fall far away from the experience of Hispanics in the U.S. Moreover, television productions made in Mexico rebroadcast in the United States impact a nostalgic population that is historically trained to be subservient in their places of origin, as opposed to programming which is both educational and inspirational.

Also historically, the production of television programs in Mexico has been attached to a political motive, simply because “Television is the most powerful medium of mass culture in Mexico” (Ross, 2003, p. 81). Additionally, the programs seemingly enjoyed by all demographic segments are designed to perpetuate such relationship between the television industry and the Mexican government. In this framework, entertainment and news productions are geared to satisfy the financial needs of media outlets and the government’s strategy to retain control of mass culture.

Evidence of this premise is very well known by Mexican historians, political researchers, journalists, and the population at large. One small example occurred in the northern town of Juarez, in 1983, during the mayoral election which, in retrospect, ended decades of the Revolutionary Party’s (PRI) monopoly in power. A television reporter armed with the now defunct ENG Ikegami camera covered that election and was able to capture images
of Mexican soldiers taking away ballot boxes from electoral precincts. Such action by uniformed servants of the country could hardly be misinterpreted or misconstrued. The election was a breaking point in Mexican politics and the result of years of activism by the opposing National Action Party (PAN) in that U.S.-Mexico border town. By the time the reporter got back to the TV station on the next business day, he had lost his job and had been asked to surrender the videotape containing such images. Such scenario is not novel; and, it serves as evidence that government and the private media enterprise are colluded in a large-scale strategy to dominate the population. Nothing in that context can possibly absorb the possibility of educational television programming; much less when the content is absorbed “as is” by Spanish television networks operating in the United States.

The essence of the television industry in Mexico (from its beginnings to present time) shares a structure that belongs to the government and that, by many measures, has remained stagnant for decades. The recent incarceration of one of the most powerful figures in Mexico’s educational secretariat is also an element of a story which implicitly points to a historical divide between television production and education, if such far-fetched link ever even existed.

Our literature review points in two directions: one, mainstream television in the U.S. is not inclusive or progressive and it aligns itself with the social features of the predominant White culture; two, Spanish TV in the U.S. is not designed for Hispanics in general, 2d or 3d generation Hispanics or even Latin American audiences who are considered new arrivals. There is one protruding aspect in both instances: U.S. television production (or in Mexico for that matter) does not concern itself with its impact on the education of its audiences, children or adults, as our investigation shows.

As we discuss next in our conclusion, television content in the United States should undergo a meaningful reform if media is to play an integral part of a society bombarded with superficialities and trivial matters. The influence of television programming on our population is far more severe than the content included in any course, at any level, anywhere in the country, for any kind of student. More importantly, education is not a requirement of the FCC as much as, say, public service announcements or public affairs programs — both a must under federal law regulating TV stations.

6. Conclusions & Recommendations

Based on an accumulated experience in television programming as well as TV audience in Mexico and the United States, the authors’ conclusion must be seen as a proposal: a comprehensive view of how U.S. television (mainstream or Spanish) is uninterested in educational goals for a population which is constantly and increasingly reaching out to media for professional, cultural and even personal needs. Television is naturally linked to education; people look up to characters on screen and on-air personalities with the intent of searching for their own identity or trying to create one (Comstock & Scharrer, 2010).

It does follow from the above that the “role of social cognition” (pp. 282–288) is now a validated element which can be used to promote the reform of broadcasting laws; we believe these should be more aligned with the educational goals of our country. Of course, our intent is not to promote the end of commercialization or marketing; however, we do believe television should play a more important role in the education of the U.S. population, particularly the focus of this study: Hispanic children.

The current findings are aligned with previous literature that suggested that Spanish-language media outlets in general and TV in particular, have continued to grow in mainstream society (Campo-Flores, 2007; Canto, 2005;
Nealy, 2008). But it is not being used to its fullest potential to help Mexican American children maintain and develop their Spanish language and culture. We propose it has not been used at all, in any capacity. Actually, documental analysis suggested two critical gaps related to this topic of inquiry.

First, most Spanish-language media hit the airwaves, offering entertainment and advertisement instead of education as well as targeting young adult is and adults instead of children. Second, inevitably, English-language TV programming is still the predominant outlet in the U.S. media market. Concern about the dramatic decrease in Mexican American children’s exposure to Spanish-language media has prompted a vigorous debate on the positive and negative effects of English-language TV and media on young viewers from Spanish speaking families.

The fact is Children English-Language TV is currently benefiting from the empty media space that Spanish Televisions are not targeting. In other words, this media hole, created by the absence of Spanish-speaking children TV programs/Channels, is well used by mainstream English TVs (with higher ratios time – air devoted to children) which hinder Hispanic children’s bilingualism-biliteracy development in a heavily subtractive bilingualism setting. Therefore, by devoting a limited amount of programs and time — air targeting Spanish-speaking children, Spanish Media outlets, mainly the Mexican-leaning ones, are ipso facto hindering Hispanic children, especially Mexican and Mexican Mexican-American ones, bilingualism - biliteracy development.

Based on the foregoing conclusions and relevant literature, the following recommendations are made:

(1) The United States government should prioritize the reform of its broadcasting laws in order to make education an element of media, in general.

(2) Media organizations should provide minority groups with spaces that they could (a) see their life or themselves represented in mainstream English-language media, (b) feel they belong and are integrated into the mainstream society, (c) receive fair media access (Brown, 2011; Tsfati, 2007).

(3) With respect to the diversity in media, individuals who control media outlets in South Texas should take the differences, perspectives, and voices of minority groups into account. Nguyen (1999) reminded us “Just look around. The reality now is diversity. And in order to have diversity, you must first have differences in culture and the attitudes, opinions and beliefs that shape it. And so, while the world still could sing in perfect harmony, the lyrics would surely be a cacophony” (p. 44).

References
Spanish Television Hinder Hispanic Children’s Bilingualism Development in Texas

No. 1, pp. 107–122.


## Appendix 1 Some Spanish TVs Weekly Programming Schedule (First Quarter of Year 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schedule</th>
<th>Lunes</th>
<th>Martes</th>
<th>Miércoles</th>
<th>Jueves</th>
<th>Viernes</th>
<th>Sábado</th>
<th>Domingo</th>
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<td>Chespirito</td>
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<td>HOY (Lo Mejor de Hoy)</td>
<td>HOY (Lo Mejor de Hoy)</td>
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Spanish Television Hinder Hispanic Children’s Bilingualism Development in Texas
## Spanish Television Hinder Hispanic Children’s Bilingualism Development in Texas

### Azteca América

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<th>Jueves</th>
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<td>Cambio de Vida</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Vidas la limite</td>
<td>Los 25 mas</td>
<td>Vaqueva</td>
<td>La historia detrás del mito</td>
<td>Taxi Libre</td>
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<td>12:30</td>
<td>HistoriasEngarzadas</td>
<td>Vidas la limite</td>
<td>Los 25 mas</td>
<td>Vaqueva</td>
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Spanish Television Hinder Hispanic Children’s Bilingualism Development in Texas
### Telefutura

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schedule</th>
<th>Lunes</th>
<th>Martes</th>
<th>Miércoles</th>
<th>Jueves</th>
<th>Viernes</th>
<th>Sabado</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6:00</td>
<td>¡QuéLocura!</td>
<td>¡QuéLocura!</td>
<td>¡QuéLocura!</td>
<td>¡QuéLocura!</td>
<td>¡QuéLocura!</td>
<td>ProgramaComercialPagado</td>
<td>ProgramaComercialPagado</td>
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<tr>
<td>7:00</td>
<td>Veredicto Final</td>
<td>Veredicto Final</td>
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<td>Plaza Sésamo</td>
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<tr>
<td>8:00</td>
<td>Locura De Amor</td>
<td>Locura De Amor</td>
<td>Locura De Amor</td>
<td>Locura De Amor</td>
<td>Locura De Amor</td>
<td>Reino Animal</td>
<td>Aventura Animal</td>
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<td>9:00</td>
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<td>Reino Animal</td>
<td>Cine en Familia: Los Cuatro Mosqueteros</td>
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<td>Cine en Familia: Los Cuatro Mosqueteros</td>
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<td>11:00</td>
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<td>Almorzando con las estrellas: Nunca Te Olvidaré</td>
<td>Cine en Familia: Fluke Un Tiro de Suerte</td>
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<td>12:00</td>
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<td>Cine en Familia: Mi Amigo Shilo 3: Salvando A Shilo</td>
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<tr>
<td>13:00</td>
<td>Mujer Casos de la Vida Real</td>
<td>Mujer Casos de la Vida Real</td>
<td>Mujer Casos de la Vida Real</td>
<td>Mujer Casos de la Vida Real</td>
<td>Mujer Casos de la Vida Real</td>
<td>Cine en Familia: El Gran Derby</td>
<td>Cineplex: Vigilantes de las Calles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:00</td>
<td>¿Quién Tiene La Razón?</td>
<td>¿Quién Tiene La Razón?</td>
<td>¿Quién Tiene La Razón?</td>
<td>¿Quién Tiene La Razón?</td>
<td>¿Quién Tiene La Razón?</td>
<td>Cineplex: Con La Frente en Alto: La Venganza</td>
<td>Cineplex: Vigilantes de las Calles</td>
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<tr>
<td>15:00</td>
<td>Laura</td>
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<td>Laura</td>
<td>Cineplex: Con La Frente en Alto: La Venganza</td>
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<td>16:00</td>
<td>Laura</td>
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<td>Cineplex: Asesino A Sueldo</td>
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<tr>
<td>17:00</td>
<td>El Chavo</td>
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<td>El Chavo</td>
<td>El Chavo</td>
<td>Cineplex: Asesino A Sueldo</td>
<td>Cineplex: Viaje Mortal</td>
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<tr>
<td>18:00</td>
<td>Carita de Ángel</td>
<td>Carita de Ángel</td>
<td>Carita de Ángel</td>
<td>Carita de Ángel</td>
<td>Carita de Ángel</td>
<td>Rompiendo Límites</td>
<td>Cineplex: Viaje Mortal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19:00</td>
<td>Cineplex: El Dorado</td>
<td>Cineplex: El Castigador: Zona de Guerra</td>
<td>Cineplex: Kennedy: La Pregunta No Quiere Callar</td>
<td>Cineplex: Eragon</td>
<td>Cineplex: Jack Hunter y La Estrella Celestial</td>
<td>Choques Extremos</td>
<td>Cine de las estrellas: Cazadores A Sueldo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Spanish TV programs targeting children are highlighted in yellow.
Effects of Early Exposure to a Second Language on Its Proficiency at Later Age

Yen-Cheng Tseng

(Department of Business Administration and Language Education Center, Chang Jung Christian University, Tainan, Taiwan)

Abstract: With the globalization, more and more people have the opportunity and need to use a second language (L2). Many countries implement foreign language instructions at earlier ages, and some researchers proposed that a child be at an optimum age for language learning, with the puberty marking the offset of the critical period. On the basis of empirical studies, this review evaluates whether early exposure to an L2 leads to a higher level of its proficiency at later age, particularly as measured by standardized tests. The early exposure examined in L2 studies is usually the “age of arrival” (AOA), defined as the age at which a person begins to live in the L2 environmental. Many studies on the acquisition of English as an L2 in an L2 environment found AOA affected ultimate attainment of L2 and could serve as a predictor of L2 proficiency independent of social, environmental and affective variables. In addition, this review found studies on the acquisition of languages other than English were also limited and observed inconsistent results. Therefore, more research should be conducted on the effects of early classroom exposure on L2 learning and the age factor in the acquisition of an L2 other than English.

Key words: early exposure, second language, language acquisition, standardized test

1. Introduction

With the economic globalization, more and more people have the opportunity and need to use a second language (L2) as a tool of communication. This trend drew the attention of the educators and policy-makers to gearing up foreign language instruction in the early grades. Foreign language programs are introduced at various grades in different countries: in France, a compulsory L2 is introduced at the start of secondary schooling, but 94% of the pupils at public schools start learning a foreign language at 5 years old; in Germany, foreign languages are compulsory from age 10 to 11; and in Denmark, English as the first foreign language is compulsory for all pupils from age 9 to 10 (Ward, 2002). To evaluate the effects of early exposure on acquiring an L2, a considerable number of studies were conducted on the relationship between the age of first exposure and the level of proficiency one can finally achieve in an L2. Still, researchers argue today about whether there is an optimal or a critical period for L2 acquisition.

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On the basis of neurological development, Penfield and Roberts (1959) proposed that a child be at an “optimum” age for language learning because of the neural plasticity of the child's brain, which makes it receptive and well adapted to the development of speech mechanisms. They argued that “the child’s brain has a specialized capacity for learning language — a capacity that decreases with the passage of years” (p. 240). Specifically, they believe the age of the learner is the most important factor in the language-learning process and, if language learning is to be successful, it must take place before puberty. In line with Penfield and Roberts, Lenneberg (1967) proposed that between the age of two and puberty the human brain shows the plasticity which allows a person to acquire the first language (L1) in childhood. He concluded that “puberty marks a milestone for the facility in language acquisition” (p. 168). Lenneberg’s Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) concerns L1 acquisition initially, but he moved on to address the issue of L2 acquisition noting that children have a greater propensity for acquiring foreign languages before the early teens than after the late teens (Lenneberg, 1969).

Acknowledging that there might be a period after which language acquisition becomes more constrained, many researchers evaluated the age factor in acquiring L2, and the CPH was found to be relevant for the acquisition of L2 in various linguistic domains such as pronunciation (Oyama, 1976; Asher & Garcia, 1969; Flege et al., 1995a, 1995b; Moyer, 1999) and morphosyntax (Johnson & Newport, 1989; DeKeyer, 2000).

Nevertheless, even among those who advocated the CPH, there are still controversies regarding the best age to start and the critical period for each linguistic domain in L2 learning. On the basis of their study, Walberg et al. (1978) concluded that “there is no evidence for early-age sensitivity to language” (p. 436). In the same year, Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle (1978) explored the L2 skills in groups of young, teenage children and adults who learned Dutch and drew the conclusion that “a critical period extending from 2 to 12 does not exist” (p. 1125). As the doubts remain, the objective of this review, therefore, is to evaluate whether early exposure to an L2 leads to a higher level of its proficiency at later age, particularly as measured by standardized tests, and thus to identify the effects of age on each linguistic domain in L2 learning, if the answer is positive.

2. Effects of Early Exposure on Acquisition of English as an L2 in an L2 Environment

Krashen et al. (1979) proposed that, on the basis of a review of literature, there are three generalizations concerning the effects of age on the rate and eventual attainment in L2 acquisition: (1) adults proceed through early stages of syntactic and morphological development faster than children (where time and exposure are held constant), (2) older children acquire faster than younger children, and (3) acquirers who begin natural exposure to L2 during childhood generally achieve higher L2 proficiency than those beginning as adults (p. 202). To assess the relationship between early exposure and proficiency level, the current review will begin with examining the studies focused on the third generalization. The early exposure examined in L2 studies is usually the “age of arrival” (AOA), defined as the age at which a person begins to live in the L2 environmental (Asher & Garcia, 1969; Oyama, 1976, 1978; Johnson & Newport, 1989; Patkowski, 1990; Flege et al., 1999) (Table 1). Although sometimes the term age of learning (AOL) was used to represent AOA (Flege et al., 1995a; 1995b), AOL may be misleading because people may begin to learn L2 before the arrival in the L2 environment. For the third generalization proposed by Krashen et al. (1979), AOA is more pertinent, particularly when there was no exposure to that L2 before the arrival.
### Table 1  Effects of Early Exposure on Acquisition of English as a Second Language (L2) in an L2 Environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study (Country)</th>
<th>Study Populations</th>
<th>AOA (^1) (years)</th>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Test (^2)</th>
<th>Major Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asher &amp; Garcia, 1969 (U.S.)</td>
<td>71 Cuban immigrants, 30 Americans</td>
<td>7 to 19</td>
<td>pronunciation</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>age ≤ 6 had the greatest probability of achieving a near-native pronunciation; children 6–10 years old are more accurate in producing elicited phonological structures, but children 11–15 years old performed better in morphosyntactic tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fathman, 1975 (U.S.)</td>
<td>200 public school students with diverse language backgrounds</td>
<td>3 to 14</td>
<td>syntax, morphology</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>children 11–15 years old performed better in morphosyntactic tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oyama, 1976 (U.S.)</td>
<td>60 Italian immigrants</td>
<td>6 to 20</td>
<td>pronunciation</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>children 11–15 years old performed better in morphosyntactic tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oyama, 1978 (U.S.)</td>
<td>60 Italian immigrants</td>
<td>6 to 10, 11 to 15, 12 to 20</td>
<td>ability to integrate meta-linguistic knowledge</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>children 11–15 years old performed better in morphosyntactic tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flege et al., 1995a, 1995b (Canada)</td>
<td>240 Italian immigrants</td>
<td>2 to 23</td>
<td>pronunciation</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>children 11–15 years old performed better in morphosyntactic tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flege et al., 1999 (U.S.)</td>
<td>240 Korean immigrants</td>
<td>1 to 23</td>
<td>phonology, morphosyntax</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>children 11–15 years old performed better in morphosyntactic tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Johnson &amp; Newport 1989 (U.S.)</td>
<td>46 Chinese and Korean immigrants</td>
<td>3 to 7, 8 to 10, 11 to 15, 17 to 39</td>
<td>syntax, morphology</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>children 11–15 years old performed better in morphosyntactic tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dekeyser, 2000 (U.S.)</td>
<td>57 Hungarian immigrants</td>
<td>1 to 40</td>
<td>pronunciation, morphology</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>children 11–15 years old performed better in morphosyntactic tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tsukada et al., 2005 (U.S. and Canada)</td>
<td>108 Korean immigrant children and adults with 2 to 6 years of residence as well as English-speaking children and adults</td>
<td>6 to 14 in children, 21 to 38 in adults</td>
<td>pronunciation</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>significant effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kang &amp; Guion, 2006 (U.S.)</td>
<td>10 English monolingual, 10 Korean monolingual, 10 early Korean-English bilinguals, 10 late Korean-English bilinguals</td>
<td>mean = 3.8 in early bilinguals, mean = 21.4 in late bilinguals</td>
<td>phonology</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>significant effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MacKay et al., 2006 (Canada)</td>
<td>138 Italian immigrants</td>
<td>7 to 36</td>
<td>pronunciation</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>significant effect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) age on arrival; \(^2\) standardized test(s) applied

Across the related studies, AOA remains the strongest predictor of the ultimate attainment of L2. Asher and Garcia (1969) compared 71 Cuban immigrant children between the age of 7 and 19 with 30 American children in their pronunciation of English sentences to examine the optimal age for children to develop native-like pronunciation. Each participant was asked to read the same set of four sentences, and the audio-recording was judged by 19 American high school students as “native speaker”, “near native speaker”, “slight foreign accent”, and “definite foreign accent”. Recordings from Cuban immigrants and American were mixed, and the mode of the decisions was adopted as the final score. The results showed the greatest probability of achieving a near-native pronunciation of English when the children were 6 or under. Specifically, while none of the immigrants was classified as “native speaker”, among those who had lived in the States for 1 to 4 years, the proportion of
achieving “near native speaker” was 50%, 22%, and 8% respectively in those whose AOA was 1–6, 7–12, and 13–19 years; among those who had lived in the States for 5 to 8 years, the proportion was 71%, 46%, and 17%, respectively. They speculated that the child’s observed language facility in the natural setting may be due to learning the foreign language in a physically active, play situation, whereas adults do so in a non-physically active, non-play situation. This study seemed to confirm the “the younger the better” anecdote in acquiring the native-like pronunciation, but no statistical tests were performed to evaluate the differences among the groups, even though the number of participants in each group was generally small. Furthermore, only inter-observer reliability was assessed (70%), and the validity was less than 80% (only 23 of the 30 American participants were put into the “native speaker” category).

In order to investigate the age-related limitation on the learning of phonology, Oyama (1976) recruited 60 Italian-born immigrants to examine their degree of accent. She collected two samples from each subject; one was the reading of a short paragraph containing a number of phonological variables, and the other was a brief casual speech, evoked by a request to recount an experience in the participant’s life. The study showed a strong effect of AOA, but virtually no effect of the length of stay in the United States. In a later study, Oyama (1978) divided 60 Italian immigrants into three groups according to AOA in the United States (6–10, 11–15, and 12–20 years old) to investigate the comprehension of speech and applied the masked speech test to tap the subjects’ ability to integrate meta-linguistic knowledge including phonology, syntax, intonation and redundancy patterns. She found a strong age effect, not only on the ability to speak an L2 with a convincing accent, but also on the ability to understand it effectively, although the results did not imply that late learners had difficulties comprehending under normal circumstances. Oyama (1978) argued that the CPH is consistent with factors such as motivation and input.

Flege et al. (1995a; 1995b) used AOL to represent AOA to study 240 native speakers of Italian who had arrived in Canada between the age of 2 and 23 years and had lived there for at least 14.6 years and found that AOL (AOA, in fact) exerts a powerful influence on the overall degree of perceived foreign accent in the pronunciation of English sentences. In a similar study of 240 native speakers of Korean who had arrived in the United States between the age of 1 and 23 years and had lived there for at least 8 years, Flege et al. (1999) applied three methods to evaluate the CPH: discontinuity test that accounts for age-related changes in L2 acquisition, pre/post correlation test that computes the correlation between AOA and L2 performance, and matched subgroup that tests the hypothesis that factors associated with AOA, rather than AOA itself, are responsible for what have been interpreted as “age” effect in previous studies. Taking variables correlated with AOA into account and examining AOA effects on two language domains (phonology and morphosyntax), they found that AOA constrains the learning of L2 phonology to a greater extent than L2 morphosyntax, which supported the argument raised by Pakowski (1990) earlier. The scores obtained from the grammaticality judgment test also agreed with the results of Johnson and Newport (1989). These studies not only provided support to the CPH, but also indicated that the critical period may have different effects on different linguistic domains.

Among the linguistics domains, pronunciation is the most frequently studied. To compare English vowel production and perception by Korean adults and children English learners, Tsukada et al. (2005) recruited 108 participants, including equal numbers of children and adults as well as equal numbers of native English speakers, immigrants with 2 to 4 years of residence, and immigrants with 4 to 6 years of residence (six groups with 18 each). The participants’ perception of English vowels was assessed using a categorical discrimination test employed in many previous studies, and they found that Korean children discriminated English vowels more accurately than adults but less accurately than native English-speaking children. They also found that Korean children produced
significantly larger between-vowel contrasts than adults but did not differ from native English-speaking children. MacKay et al. (2006) studied 138 Italian immigrants to Canada aged 40 to 71 years with AOA ranging from 7 to 36 years and applied analysis of variance and principle components analysis to evaluate the effects of AOA while taking other correlated variables such as chronological age and length of residence into account. They found that variation in AOA and language use, but not chronological age or residence duration, accounted for a significant amount of variance in the foreign accent ratings. The findings of the study were interpreted to mean that AOA effects on foreign accent are due to the development of the native language phonetic system rather than to maturational constraints on L2 speech learning.

There are also studies on specific linguistic features. For example, to study the effects of age of acquisition (similar to AOA) on the interaction of Korean and English stop systems in Korean-English bilinguals, Kang and Guion (2006) recruited 40 adult participants, including 10 each of four groups: native monolingual speakers of English, native monolingual speakers of Korean, early Korean-English bilinguals (mean age of acquisition = 3.8 years), and late Korean-English bilinguals (mean age of acquisition = 21.4 years). They analyzed production of Korean and English stops in terms of three acoustic-phonetic properties: voice-onset time, amplitude difference between the first two harmonics, and fundamental frequency. They found that early bilinguals were more likely to be native-like in production of English and Korean stops and maintain greater independence between Korean and English stop systems than late bilinguals. Specifically, while early bilinguals were not different from the monolinguals of either language, late bilinguals were different from English monolinguals for English voiceless and voiced stops in all three properties. Considering the independence of the two stop systems, they speculated that late bilinguals seem to have merged English voiceless and Korean aspirated stops, whereas early bilinguals seem to have two independent stop systems. Johnson and Newport (1989) recruited 46 native speakers of Chinese or Korean with variable AOA in the U.S. but similar lengths of exposure and divided them into four groups according to AOA (3–7, 8–10, 11–15, and 17–39 years old). Through the grammaticality judgment test, they observed a clear and strong relationship between AOA and the L2 level in terms of knowledge of English syntax and morphology. With experiential and attitudinal variables considered, they argued that AOA has a clear independent effect on ultimate L2 performance. Furthermore, they found the relationship between AOA and L2 performance was linear up to puberty, and after puberty the performance was low and unrelated to AOA; this finding is not only an evidence of the existence of an age factor, but also a direct support for the CPH, indicating the critical period is before puberty. Following Johnson and Newport (1989), Dekeyser (2000) recruited 57 adult native speakers of Hungarian and asked them to perform the similar grammaticality judgment test. The results confirmed the findings of Johnson and Newport (1989) and supported the CPH. As the results implied that explicit learning processes were necessary for achieving a high level of competence in an L2 after childhood, Dekeyser argued further that the study provides evidence for Bley-Vroman’s (1988) Fundamental Difference Hypothesis, which postulates that no adults can reach a native level of competence in L2 morphosyntax unless they have been able to rely on explicit, analytic, problem-solving capacities. The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis is in line with the CPH stating the critical period accounts for implicit learning of abstract structures.

There is also a body of counter evidence to the CPH, and many studies showed that the age factor favoring younger students holds for phonological abilities only. Fathman (1975) found that children 6–10 years old were more accurate in producing elicited phonological structures, whereas children 11–15 years old performed better in morphosyntactic tasks. Specifically, older learners were able to learn and produce higher order structures more quickly than younger learners. Therefore, it is very important to refer to the target linguistic domain when
addressing the issue of critical period. Many other studies did not include participants with AOA before and after the puberty and thus were less convincing in providing either evidence or counter-evidence to the CPH.

In conclusion, AOA is considered to be an index of the age at which the learners first began to learn their L2 and affects ultimate attainment of L2. It also serves as a predictor of L2 proficiency independent of social, environmental and affective variables. Studies have shown that the L2 pronunciation of younger learners is consistently better than that of older learners (Ash & Garcia, 1969; Fathman, 1975; Flege, Munro, & MacKay, 1995; Flege, Yen-Komshian, & Liu, 1999) whereas older learners are more successful in acquiring morphosyntactic structures of L2.

3. Effects of Early Exposure on Acquisition of English as an L2 in an L1 Environment

On the age factor of L2 acquisition, more studies were conducted in an L2 environment, mostly on immigrants in a natural environment, than in an L1 environment with explicit instructions. Cenoz (2001) conducted a study on the influence of age on the acquisition of English as a third language. He recruited 60 elementary (average 13.1 years old) and secondary (16.2 years old) students who used Basque or Spanish at home and used mostly Basque at school. They all had learned English for 6 years (564 hours) at school. All the participants filled out a background questionnaire and completed a battery of English tests, including telling two stories (oral tests; one the same for both group, and the other different between the groups), a listening comprehension test (36 points), a cloze test (34 points), reading comprehension and grammar test (31 points) and a composition. The results indicate that the younger group obtained lower scores in various aspects of language proficiency than the older group. Students who started learning English at grade 6 (11 years old) presented a higher degree of proficiency in English as reflected by all tests than those who started at an earlier age (8 years old). In a later study (Cenoz, 2003) on 135 students in the same language environment, participants were categorized into three groups: “Primary 5”, who started learning English at kindergarten 2 (4 years old) and had a mean age of 10.1 years; “Secondary 2”, who started learning English at primary 3 (8 years old) and had a mean age of 12.9 years; and “Secondary 5”, who started learning English at primary 6 (11 years old) and had a mean age of 16.3 years. They all had learned English for 600 hours at school. All the same tests and questionnaire administered in the previous study were applied, and an attitude questionnaire and a motivation questionnaire were added. The results indicate that the language proficiency increased as the age increased, except for the pronunciation component of the oral test. In the evaluations of attitude and motivation, however, whereas the two secondary school groups showed similar results, both groups were lower than the primary school group. The results of code-mixing analysis showed that students starting at kindergarten did not mix codes more often than the other two groups. In addition to arguing that starting learning earlier does not lead to a higher proficiency in English, the study found younger learners present more positive attitudes and are more motivated. It should be noted that both studies covered learners before puberty only, which means they were unable to evaluate the CPH if the offset of the critical period is the puberty as most researchers believe. Furthermore, these studies did not follow up long enough to evaluate the ultimate attainment of English, which in fact was the third language of the study population.

In comparison with studies in an L2 environment, studies in an L1 environment are very limited. In reality, however, many more people begin to learn L2 in classrooms in an L1 environment than in an L2 environment. Furthermore, there is a trend to start learning English as a foreign language in regular school systems, i.e., in an
L1 environment. On the other hand, learning an L2 in the classroom through courses is very different from learning it in a natural environment. It has been noted for nearly half a century ago by Hildreth (1959) that the learning an L2 in a classroom environment had limitations such as receiving instruction for fifteen or twenty minutes a day in groups of twenty five or thirty, restrictions on freedom of speech and behavior, isolation from other activities and without reinforcement from home experiences, etc. Therefore, results from studies conducted in L2 environments do not necessarily apply to the learning in an L1 environment, and researchers should pay more attention to the effects of early classroom exposure on L2 learning.

4. Effects of Early Exposure on Acquisition of Second Language other than English

Olsen and Samuel (1973) evaluated the commonly held assumption that younger children are superior to those who are older in learning to speak an L2 with a good accent. Twenty elementary, 20 junior high, and 20 college level students were tested before and after being given identical instructions in German phonemes. Post-test results indicated that both the junior high and college groups were superior to the elementary group and therefore did not support the assumption. The researcher attributed the common observation that children acquire better language pronunciation than adults to an environmental-socioeconomic explanation. It is more probable that children would have a closer approximation to native-like pronunciation because they are surrounded by good models more of the time than their adult counterparts (Olsen & Samuels, 1973).

To incorporate instructional and motivational factors along with the age, Moyer (1999) studied the German pronunciation of 24 native speakers of English, none of whom had had any “measurable exposure to the target language until the critical period for language learning had passed” (p. 86). Phonological tasks including free speech and read aloud items were performed by the participants, and the questionnaire including three categories of variables (biological, affective and instructional) was administered to account for overlapping factors contributing to the final achievement. The results lent support to the previous studies of syntactic, morphological, and phonological accuracy that demonstrate a substantial decline after the critical, or sensitive, period before puberty (p. 92). MacIntyre et al. (2002) studied 268 grades 7, 8, and 9 students attending the late French immersion program at a small junior high school in Nova Scotia, Canada. As described by the researchers, English was far and away the dominant language in the local area, and therefore the students were not in a L2 language-learning environment. They found that students’ L2 willingness to communicate, perceived competence, and frequency of communication in French increased from grades 7 to 8 and that these increases were maintained between grades 8 and 9, despite a drop in motivation between grades 7 and 8 and a steady level of anxiety across the three grades. Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle (1978) compared the phonological performance of 43 children in the critical period (3–5, 6–7, 8–10 years) with that of 17 teenagers (12–15 years) and 21 adults. They found the results impossible to reconcile with the CPH from the laboratory study as well as naturalistic study. Specifically, younger subjects, who were initially worse, surpassed the older subjects, who had the initial advantages in pronunciation after a period of 10–11 months’ learning. The older subjects were much better at other aspects of L2 skill including vocabulary, syntax, morphology than the younger ones (Snow & Hoefnagel-Hohle, 1977; 1978). While this study is often cited as counterevidence to the CPH, it has been recognized that the researchers confused the ultimate attainment with the rate of learning (Long, 2005), which was also observed in other studies offering so-called counterevidence to the CPH (Krashen et al., 1982).
5. Conclusion

From the examined literature, there is a distinctive variation between L1 and L2 environment. The numerous studies examine the effect of age at the first exposure to L2 on the eventual proficiency attained in a “naturalistic” (L2) environment. They all show a strong effect for age on the ultimate attainment in L2, especially for pronunciation. On the other hand, a wealth of studies showed adults or older children outperformed younger children, but they involve issues of learning rates. Specifically, in those studies, older learners outperformed younger learners in the learning rates, not necessarily ultimate attainment.

Whereas many more people begin to learn L2 in the classrooms in an L1 environment than in an L2 environment, studies on the age factor in L2 acquisition were rarely conducted in an L1 environment. Furthermore, since learning an L2 in the classroom environment is very different from learning it in a natural environment, results from studies conducted in L2 environments do not necessarily apply to the learning in an L1 environment. This review identified the obvious gap in the data and calls for more studies in classroom environments.

Likewise, the learning of English may be different from the learning of other languages, but this review also found that the related studies on languages other than English are limited. Therefore, more studies should be conducted on other language in order to understand the effects of early exposure on the acquisition of other languages.

References
Effects of Early Exposure to a Second Language on Its Proficiency at Later Age


Developing Beginning Reading Skills among Primary School Pupils in Cross River State, Nigeria: A Pilot Study Report

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Abstract: The paper determined the effects of Concentrated Language Encounter (CLE) method in developing primary one pupils reading level, oracy skills level, English sight words level, print awareness skills level, phono-phonemic awareness skills level, letter recognition skills, and comprehension skill. The purpose of the study was to find out the effects of Primary One pupils’ reading level, oracy skill level, English sight words level, print awareness skills level, phono-phonemic awareness skills level, letter recognition skill, and comprehension skill. It also examined the extent to which the CLE method of teaching reading will help to develop oracy skill, English sight words skill, print awareness skill, phono-phonemic awareness skill, letter recognition skill, and comprehension skill. One research question and six hypotheses were posed for examination. The study utilized pretest, posttest quasi experimental designs (expost factor). Seventy (70) primary one pupils participated in the study. The instruments used included the Oracy Test (OT), Sight Word Recognition Test (SWRT), Print Awareness Test (PAT), Letter Recognition Test (LRT), Phono-Phonemic Awareness Test (PPAT) and Comprehension test (CT). Four instruments were developed by the researcher and two were not. These instruments were used for assessment during pretest and posttest. The result indicated that the general reading ability of the pupils with reading problem needs was poor in all the skills during pretest. However, the experimental groups improved significantly in acquisition of all the six skills after intervention, using concentrated language encounter method. Based on this finding, the researchers made some recommendations for the improvement of all the skills in primary school pupils with reading problem in public school settings. The pilot study has provided insight that the main study will yield positive outcomes or results. It has shown that the instruments proposed for the main study will be reliable and valid. Again, the pilot study has confirmed its importance and usefulness as a guide for applying the research design in obtaining data for providing solutions to research problems in the main study. It provided guidance on how to effectively teach reading as well as improve their understanding of the nature of the reading process, since instructional activities are usually influenced by our understanding of the nature of what we teach.

Key words: beginning reading skills, concentrated language encounter, Oracy Test, sight word recognition test, Print Awareness Test, letter recognition test, phono-phonemic awareness and comprehension

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1. Background of the Study

An important task of primary schools is to teach pupils to read. Hence, the basic objective of primary education as reflected in the Nigerian Policy on Education is “inculcation of permanent literacy and ability to communicate effectively” (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1981, p. 12). Reading is not just an important tool for learning but it is the basis for all aspects of learning (Oyetunde, 1997). It is very difficult to achieve academic success without being able to read. Consequently, pupils need to learn to read in order to achieve academic excellence. This highlights the close relationship between reading ability and academic achievement as well as the critical role of reading as a tool for the pupil’s successful living and functioning in today’s complex society.

In view of the significance of reading and the activities involved, beginning reading instruction is an important stage in the act of teaching and reading process (learning to read). The content of a beginning reading programme and the initial approach to the teaching of reading are of extreme importance. The pupil’s introduction to the activity the teacher calls “reading” will establish a fundamental attitude towards all subsequent activities in learning to read.

To achieve this, teachers should be acquainted with foundational reading skills for beginning readers and the strategies they can use to teach beginning reading (learn to read) and comprehension skills (reading to learn). This calls for the need for a well designed beginning reading programme to equip the teachers of reading with the various reading objectives, contents, lessons, activities or strategies, and assessment techniques to help them inculcate and develop beginning and appropriate reading skills in pupils. In addition, teachers need to understand the nature of the reading process because instructional activities are usually influenced by the nature of what is taught (Oyetunde, 2002).

The Nigerian education system has failed in developing efficient beginning reading skills especially in public primary school pupils (Oyetunde & Mmuodumogu, 1999; Umolu, 1998). Experiences of parents and teachers as well as studies conducted by scholars indicate that most primary and secondary school leavers are illiterates or semi-illiterates (Oyetunde, 2002; Dahl, 1981). This is proven by the fact that many of such pupils cannot cope with the reading demands of the curriculum and with what the society demands from them as literates.

For beginning readers in a public school system to meet the reading demands of their social environment, teachers must develop in them reading readiness concepts and skills such as oral language foundation, print awareness, letter recognition skills, phono-phonemic awareness skills, sight word recognition skills as well as comprehension skills. These concepts and skills serve as a gradual development from non-reading to beginning reading (Oyetunde & Mmuodumogu, 1999; Davis, 2000).

Oracy refers to general abilities in the oral language. But when one talks about oral language development across the curriculum, it means improving pupils’ ability to talk or communicate more effectively. Research shows, beyond question, that pupils gain language skills valuable for their success in reading and writing through talking and listening to teachers and peers (Dahl, 1981; Gambrell, 2001).

Developing sight vocabulary is key to reading, to writing, to verbal expression, and in many ways to building analytical and critical thinking (Davis, 2000). Also, to be successful readers, pupils need to be familiar and comfortable with the letters of the alphabet. Pupils whose knowledge of letters is not well-developed when they start school, require organized instruction and practice that will help them learn to identify, name, and write letters (Rosenberg, 2006).

Phono-phonemic awareness is essential because our writing system is a representation of speech sounds
which are represented by the symbols on a page. Most of the time, pupils who have reading problems have a weakness in their ability to detect and identify speech sounds because printed symbols may appear arbitrary to learners without phono-phonemic awareness (Ruby, 2004).

One of the skills that pupils need to master before they can read books is the possession of a broad, general appreciation of the nature of print (Rosenberg, 2006). Pupils need to be exposed to forms of print in everyday life, including conventions associated with book reading. Learning reading comprehension, for beginning readers, requires having them prepare to hear a story, reading the story to them, and then following up with questions to strengthen their reading comprehension skill (Torgesen & Matthews, 2000).

The Concentrated Language Encounter (CLE) is a method of reading instruction that enables learners to learn language mainly through encounter with others in which the learners concentrate intensely on making themselves understood. The CLE techniques for developing literacy are particularly effective in educationally difficult circumstances, such as are found in developing countries where there is a lack of materials and financial support, there is an irrelevant curriculum to local needs, there is a lack of learner’s interest in literacy and there are unqualified teachers or trainers who implement literacy programmes (Walker, Rathanavich & Oller, 1992; Rotary International, 1984).

CLE programmes are “immersion” programmes in which pupils do new and increasingly more difficult things with spoken and written language in the course of group activity. Another strong feature of the methodology is called “scaffolding” whereby the teacher just models what pupils are expected to do, and then provide less and less guidance as pupils become more and more able to work without support. CLE method is based on Vygotsky’s (1978) constructivist learning theory which is pupils’ centred. It states that pupils’ learning is based on adult guidance, social interaction, meaningful experiences and responsible risk-taking. The philosophical basis is that teachers provide a literacy rich environment for their pupils and combine literacy, speaking, reading skills.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Most Nigerian public primary school pupils are not learning to read. The public primary school system has more or less collapsed in the sense that only a very small percentage of pupils who go through it learn to read. Therefore, the specific problems of this study include pupils’ lack of reading readiness or foundational skills for developing reading attitudes, concepts and skills, lack of a reading instructional programme that clearly spells out objectives, contents, activities or strategies, instruments, and assessment techniques for developing beginning reading skills, as well as pupils’ lack of basic linguistic skills that can help them read texts. Besides, reading instructional methods have not been able to spell out specific techniques or phases that can be used to develop specific or particular reading skills and concepts of public school primary one pupils in Nigeria.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to develop beginning reading skills in primary one pupils, in rural public schools, using the Concentrated Language Encounter method of teaching reading.

The specific objectives of the study include:

(1) To find out primary one pupils reading level, Oracy skills level, English sight words level, print awareness skills level, phono-phonemic awareness skills level, letter recognition skills level and comprehension level.

(2) To determine the extent to which the CLE method of teaching reading will help primary one pupil develop oracy skills level, English sight words skills level, print awareness skills level, phono-phonemic
awareness skills level, letter recognition skills level and comprehension level.

1.3 Research Question

The research question guided the study:
What will be primary one pupils reading level, Oracy skills level, English sight words level, print awareness skills level, phono-phonemic awareness skills level, letter recognition skills, and comprehension skills?

1.4 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

1. There is no significant mean difference in achievement mean scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it in Oracy skill.

2. There is no significant mean difference in achievement mean scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it in English sight word recognition skill.

3. There is no significant mean difference in achievement mean scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it in print awareness skill.

4. There is no significant mean difference in achievement mean scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it in letter recognition skills.

5. There is no significant mean difference in achievement mean scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it in phono-phonemic awareness skill.

6. There is no significant mean difference in achievement mean scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it in comprehension skill.

2. Methodology

2.1 Research Design

The research design adopted for this study was the quasi experimental design. Specifically, design adopted the pretest-posttest design in which intact groups were assigned to the experimental and control groups. The choice of this design was informed by the fact that intact groups were desired in order to avoid disrupting the school system.

The two intact groups were class one comprising of class 1A and 1B representing two arms. While treatment was applied to class 1A which was the experimental group, no treatment was applied to class 1B which was the control group. The pretest scores were used to assess their competence in the skills before treatment while the posttest scores were used to compare the effects of treatment. Treatment for internal validity was controlled by the use of control group in this design (Awotunde & Ugodulunwa, 2004).

2.2 Population and Sample

The population of this study was Bette-Speaking Primary One Pupils who were beginning readers in rural public primary schools in Obudu Local Government Area. Most of the pupils were not only from impoverished print environments, but they had neither nursery education background nor formal education of any kind but were just being admitted into primary one.

One rural public primary school, comprising of 35 pupils in the experimental group and another 35 pupils in the control group from the same school constituted the sample of the study. Thus, there was a sample of 70 pupils for the study. The pupils were six years old selected through cluster sampling technique.
2.3 Instruments for Data Collection

Instruments for collection of data in this study were six. The main instruments for data collection were pre-posttests instruments and were: Oracy Test (OT), Sight Word Recognition Test (SWRT), Print Awareness Test (PAT), Letter Recognition Test (LRT), Phono-Phonemic Awareness Test (PPAT) and Comprehension test (CT).

2.4 Description of the Instruments

2.4.1 Oracy Test (OT)

The Oracy Test (OT) was developed by the researcher. The purpose of the Oracy test was to find out the pupils’ ability to express themselves orally. The pupils were given pictures and scenes while the teacher asked them questions on spoken language. A total of 20 test items were written on long cards and each sentence was read to the pupil one by one. The pupils were expected to express oneself in spoken English.

2.4.2 Sight Words Recognition Test (SWRT)

Sight Word Recognition Test (SWRT) was developed by Umolu in (1985). This instrument was adapted for use in order to determine the pupils’ ability to read the common words that a pupil needs to know how to read instantly in order to read print meaningfully. The purpose of this test was to ascertain the number of words the pupils could recognize which were written on the flash cards. These sight vocabulary of 100 high frequency words (100 HFW) by Umolu (1985) were judged because these were the possible words that are used frequently by pupils to express themselves generally, such as description of places, things, situations, attitudes, and feelings.

2.4.3 Print Awareness Test (PAT)

The test of print awareness (PAT) was researcher-made. This test was supposed to find out the extent to which the pupils demonstrated their competence in print awareness. The exercises involved story books. The purpose of this instrument was to find out the pupils level of print awareness and how to use the prints meaningfully. A total of 10 test items were asked. Each pupil was asked each question on a one-to-one with the research assistant and the pupil was expected to perform the action.

2.4.4 Letter Knowledge Test (LKT)

Letter Knowledge Test (LKT) was already standardized and used in English language, which was used by the researcher. A total of 26 small letter alphabets and another 26 capital letters making a total of 52 letters were prepared on flash cards. The purpose was to find out the capital and small letters that the pupil could name one after the other correctly.

2.4.5 Phono-Phonemic Awareness Test (PPAT)

This test assessed phoneme awareness, that is, first initial sounds. First sound test was given orally in order to determine if the pupils used initial sound of each first word. A total of 20 test items words were chosen based on the words that were commonly used by the pupils orally in spoken language.

2.4.6 Comprehension Test (CT)

Comprehension Test (CT) was developed by the researcher. A story which was different from the CLE stories was used during the pre and posttests. There were a total of 10 comprehension questions which were developed by the researcher on the story. Some questions were literal, inferential, and main idea questions. The pupils were asked the questions after the researcher had read the passage to the child one by one and the pupil were asked to answer the questions asked orally.

A brief explanation on how each instrument was developed was provided for clarity. Scoring of the Instruments was as follows. Phono-Phonemic Awareness Test (PPAT) was made up of 20 test items each. Right
Developing Beginning Reading Skills among Primary School Pupils in Cross River State, Nigeria: A Pilot Study Report

Answers were scored “1” mark each while wrong answers were scored “0” mark each. The total score obtainable was 20 marks. A score range of 0–7 points was considered low, 8–14 points was considered moderate while 15–20 points was considered high. Print Awareness Test (PAT) and Comprehension test (CT) was scored over a maximum of 10 marks for the 10 items. A score range of 0–4 points was considered low, 5–7 points was considered moderate while 8–10 points was considered high.

The instrument on Letter recognition test (LRT) was scored over 52 points. A score range of 0–20 points was scored low, 21–40 was scored moderate and 41–52 was scored as high. Each letter of the capital and small letters read by the pupil correctly attracted “1” point, and each letter read wrongly attracted “0” point. The sixth instrument, Sight Word Recognition Test (SWRT) was scored over 100. Right answers were scored “1” mark each while wrong answers were scored “0” each. A range of 0–30 points was considered low, 31–70 was considered moderate and 71–100 was considered as high.

In this study, content and face validity of the instrument were determined. The instruments were all subjected to five expert’s judgment. The instruments for pre-test, and post-test including the treatment instrument using the CLE starter books, structured activities and the list of 100 high frequency words using test re-test within two weeks of interval between two administrations on 24 comparable pupils were as follows; The performance of pupils in each of the instruments were correlated using Cronbach Alpha method in order to establish the reliability of the instruments. The coefficient of stability obtained for each instrument were; Oracy skills (OS) was .773; Sight word recognition skills (SWRS) was .710; Print awareness Skills (PAS) .796; Letter recognition skills (LRS) was .920; Phono-phonemic awareness skill (PPAS) was .716; and Comprehension skills (CS) was .799

2.5 Procedure for Data Collection

The researcher presented a letter of introduction signed by the researcher’s supervisor to the head teacher of the primary school used for the study for permission and cooperation to carry out the study. This was followed by the training of two research assistants for the treatment class only. The research assistants administered the pretest and posttest on both experimental and control groups. There was also the administration of pre-experimental tests for the participating classes; one experimental and one control class in the sampled school. In addition, there was a weekly record of progress of performance for both experimental and control groups.

2.6 Method of Data Analysis

The data from research question were answered using percentages and bar graphs while t-test was used to present the summary column table for each hypothesis. The pilot study was conducted in one Government Primary School in Ohong, Obudu, and Cross River State.

3. Research Question

What will be primary one pupils reading level, Oracy skills level, English sight words level, print awareness skills level, phono-phonemic awareness skills level, letter recognition skills, and comprehension skill?

The level of English pupils brought to the programme in terms of all the skills namely — Oracy skills (OS); Sight word recognition skills (SWRS); Print awareness Skills (PAS); Letter recognition skills (LRS); Phono-phonemic awareness skill (PPAS); and Comprehension skills (CS) was very poor. For instance the qualitative analysis of the pre-test performance of the pupils for both experimental group and control group showed that in Oracy Skill (OS), the group mean scores of words read were 4 points (20%) for experimental and 5
points (25%) for control groups out of 20 points (100%). For sight vocabulary, the pupil’s mean score was 3 points (3%) for experimental group and 2 points (2%) for control group. The pretest group mean scores on print awareness was 2 point (20%) for experimental group and 3 points (30%) for control group. The performance of the pupils on letter recognition of upper and lowercase alphabets was also poor. The mean score for the experimental group was 3 points (5.77%) and that of the control group was also 3 points (5.77%). The pretest mean score performance of both the experimental and control groups was 3 points (15%) each. The pretest mean score performance of both experimental and control groups was 1 point (10%) each.

![Figure 1 Pre Test Experimental Group and Pre Test Control Group](image)

### 3.1 Hypothesis One

There is no significant mean difference in Oracy skills achievement scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15.91</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>38.47</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P < .05

For degree of freedom of 68 and level of significant at .05, with P. value of 0.000, the calculated t-test statistics is given at 38.47 which is greater than the P value of 0.05 level, therefore the null hypothesis one was rejected in favour of primary one pupils in the experimental group. The general findings from the result shows that primary one pupils who received treatment in the experimental group in literacy have higher mean scores in acquisition of Oracy skills than the primary one pupils in control group who were not exposed to any treatment at all.
3.2 Hypothesis Two

There is no significant mean difference in English sight word recognition skills achievement scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>67.94</td>
<td>13.11</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>27.67</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>5.77</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For degree of freedom of 68 and level of significant at .05, with P. value of 0.000, the calculated t-test statistics is given at 27.67 which is greater than the P value of 0.05 level, therefore the null hypothesis one was rejected in favour of primary one pupils in the experimental group. The general findings from the result shows that primary one pupils who received treatment in the experimental group in literacy have higher mean scores in acquisition of sight vocabulary skills than the primary one pupils in control group who were not exposed to any treatment at all.

3.3 Hypothesis Three

There is no significant mean difference in print awareness skills achievement scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>7.71</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>18.76</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For degree of freedom of 68 and level of significant at .05, with P. value of 0.000, the calculated t-test statistics is given at 18.76 which is greater than the P value of 0.05 level, therefore the null hypothesis one was rejected in favour of primary one pupils in the experimental group in literacy have higher mean scores in acquisition of print awareness skills than the primary one pupils in control group who were not exposed to any treatment at all.

3.4 Hypothesis Four

There is no significant mean difference in letter recognition skills achievement scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>46.88</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>50.53</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P < .05
For degree of freedom of 68 and level of significant at 0.05 with P. value of 0.000, the calculated t-test statistics is given at 50.53 which is greater than the P value of 0.05 level, therefore the null hypothesis one was rejected in favour of primary one pupils in the experimental group. The general findings from the result shows that primary one pupils who received treatment in the experimental group in literacy have higher mean scores in acquisition of letter recognition skills than the primary one pupils in control group who were not exposed to treatment in it.

3.5 Hypothesis Five
There is no significant mean difference in phono-phonemic awareness skills achievement scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>17.11</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>39.36</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P < .05

For degree of freedom of 68 and level of significant at .05, with P. value of 0.000, the calculated t-test statistics is given at 39.36 which is greater than the P value of 0.05 level, therefore the null hypothesis one was rejected in favour of primary one pupils in the experimental group. The general findings from the result shows that primary one pupils who received treatment in the experimental group in literacy have higher mean scores in acquisition of Phono Phonemic skills than the primary one pupils in control group who were not exposed to any treatment at all.

3.6 Hypothesis Six
There is no significant mean difference in comprehension skills achievement scores of pupils exposed to CLE and those not exposed to it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8.40</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>13.53</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P < .05

For degree of freedom of 68 and level of significant at .05, with P. value of 0.000, the calculated t-test statistics is given at 13.53 which is greater than the P value of 0.05 level, therefore the null hypothesis one was rejected in favour of primary one pupils in the experimental group. The general findings from the result shows that primary one pupils who received treatment in the experimental group in literacy have higher mean scores in acquisition of comprehension skills than the primary one pupils in control group who were not exposed to any treatment at all.
4. Discussion

The main objective of this study was to develop beginning reading skills among primary one pupils using the concentrated language encounter method. The pilot study result revealed that the CLE method is suitable for the development of beginning reading skills among beginning readers in particular and the teaching of reading in general. This is because the pupils showed significant progress or gains in the development of Oracy skills, sight word vocabulary, print awareness skills, phono-phonemic awareness skills, letter recognition skills, and comprehension skills. The majority of the pupils responded correctly to the activities that were used to assess their progress on the development of these skills most of the time, while some items were rarely missed by the pupils. This is confirmed by the mean score differences and p-values obtained from the pre-experimental and post-experimental performance of the pupils on the six skills.

The situation in the Nigerian primary school today is that reading is not properly taught to children, largely because teachers do not understand the nature of the reading process. Consequently, teachers do not pay attention to the development of beginning reading skills in children. The pilot study has indicated the CLE techniques and activities that teachers can use to help children develop beginning reading skills. These techniques and activities enable teachers to present reading instructional activities in meaningful contexts which will encourage children to learn to read and to love to read.

The pilot study has implications for positively influencing teachers’ attitude towards children who have mild behaviour problems as a result of lack of prior exposure to or interaction with print pre reading. The pilot study revealed that these children can make remarkable progress if appropriate methods are used. Teachers need to be more patient with pupils and help build in them self-confidence that will promote positive attitude towards print.

The pilot study also has implications for the need for a beginning reading programme. Such a beginning reading programme will equip teachers for reading with the objectives, contents, activities or strategies and evaluation techniques that will provide guidance on how to effectively teach reading. This will also improve their understanding of the nature of the reading process, since instructional activities are usually influenced by our understanding of the nature of what we teach (Oyetunde & Muodumogu, 1999).

5. Contribution to Knowledge

The present work has made the following contributions to the current state educational knowledge in Nigeria. These include the following:

1. The researcher has developed four instruments, using construct validity, to identify early primary school pupils who cannot read. These instruments are mainly for testing beginning reading skills, namely: Oracy Skill Test; Print Awareness Skill Test; Phono-Phonemic Awareness Skill Test and Comprehension Skill Test.

2. The Concentrated Language Encounter method was found to have been very effective in developing beginning reading skills in primary school pupils. The findings from this study will be very useful to researchers interested in developing beginning reading skills, through the production of primers that can be used in training primary school pupils to acquire beginning reading skills.

3. Nigerian primary school pupils in the rural areas are more disadvantaged in terms of preparatory instruction before the commencement of Primary One, either due to the economic status of the parents or to the prevalent poverty level of rural communities. The acquisition of beginning reading skills can be adequately
supported by Government policies through the Federal and State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB) with the aggressive provision of requisite physical infrastructures in Nigerian primary schools. Such improvements in infrastructure, especially in the rural areas, would enhance the attainment of some of the Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria.

(4) The standard of literacy in Nigeria is a major problem, as many pupils are not in a position to read simple books by the time they are admitted into Class One. The automatic admission of pupils into Primary One and automatic promotion of pupils into the next class, even when they fail, has worsened the standard of education in the country. The basic pre-reading skills that should have been developed before commencement of Primary Class One are often absent. Most pupils in rural communities are not often exposed to any formal education before being admitted into Class One. The introduction of Concentrated Language Encounter is therefore vital in preventing further deterioration in the standard of education.

(5) The findings from the study has implications for contribution to knowledge in terms of short time in-service training workshop and constant capacity building workshops to train and retrain all Primary school teachers and their Head Teachers on how to use the Language Encounter method to develop Oracy, sight word vocabulary, print awareness, letter recognition, phono-phonemic awareness and comprehension skills in their pupils. Training and re-training in these skills would obviously help to boost the provision of quality education to Nigerian citizens in the 21st century.

6. Conclusion

The pilot study has provided insights that the main study will yield positive outcomes or results. It has shown that the instruments proposed for the main study will be reliable and valid. Again, the pilot study has confirmed its importance or usefulness as a guide for applying the research design in obtaining data for providing solutions to research problems in the main study. Children responded positively to the treatment in all the six skills as the majority of them responded correctly to the assessment and treatment items most of the time, while some of the items were rarely missed by some of the children. The children’s attitude towards reading changed positively as shown by their enthusiastic participation in classroom reading instructional activities. The effectiveness of CLE method during treatment was confirmed by post-test performance of the group on the six skills.

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A Survey on the Effectiveness of Inclusive Education Implementation at Elementary School

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(Department of Special Education, School of Education, Jakarta State University, Indonesia)

Abstract: Inclusive education is one of educational systems which allow all students to come into the system and disobey the condition of the students, normal or students with special needs, disobey ethnics and languages back ground of the students, disobey social economic condition of the students, as well as, disobey geographical location of the students. In it’s implementation inclusive education can be conducted to allow the special need children to enter public school. Therefore, the research is aimed to study the effectiveness of the implementation of inclusive education, especially in elementary school which included: (1) precrusor to teaching (2) instructinal system and teaching approach, (3) teacher’s behaviors and, (4) follow-up to teaching. The research is conduced in Jakarta, the capital city of the Republic of Indonesia. Population of the research are heterogeneous which consist of 166 persons, they are teachers, students, parents and professionals. The sample size is consisted of 60 persons, which was, 10 times bigger compared to the application of sample formula which required sample size only 4 teachers. The back ground the sample multipication is because the method used in the study is survey. The instrument validity range from r 0.35 to 0.6 while critical r in r table was 0.312 and the instrumen reliablity is 0.92, meaning that the instrument used is the reliable instrument. The research results shows that 60% of the respondent agree and 20% strongly agree that the inst ructional implementation for special needs students at inclusive elementary school was effective. Therefore, the implementation of the inclusive education i elementary school fulfilled the requirement of instructional process. However, about 20% of the respondent disagree. Consequently, it was necessary to do some efforts which lead to the quality improvement of inclusive elementary school instructional process for children with special.

Key words: survey, educational system, educational approach, inclusive education, children with special needs, effectiveness, implementation, effectiveness

1. Introduction

Children with special needs are those who have special characteristics in their developmental process, in which, they develop differently from their normal pairs. Cross references analysis done by Jamaris (2011, p. 200) about children with special needs, among them are Greenspan & Weider (1998, p. 15), Kirk & Gallagher, 1986, p. 125; Heward & Orlansky, 1984, p. 87), Bloomquist (2006, pp. 22–23), Bloomquist & Schnell (2002), Schumann C. M., Nordahl C. W. (2008, pp. 137–145), come out with some conclusion which described in the following
description. Children with special needs are ranged from mild to severe, such as, autism, cognitive delay and/or deficit, language delay and/or deficit, memory disorder, low muscle tone, sensory integration disorder, attention disorder, cerebral palcy, learning disabilities, the outstanding development, such as, gifted and talented, etc and they need specific educational system and approach in order to be developed as far as the the highest achievement that they reach.

**Hearing Impairment children** ranged from deafness up to heard of hearing. Deafness defined as sensory deficiency which prevent the related children from receiving the stimulus of sound in all or most of its form (Katz, Mathis & Merill, 1978). Heard of hearing defined as children who has a significant hearing loss that makes some special adaptations necessary (Heward & Orlansky, 1980, p. 229)

**Visual impairment children** ranged from blind up to limited field of vision (have field of vision only ten degrees, while normal person is 180 degrees). Blind children , defined as children has visual accuracy 20/200 even after the best correction with glasses or contact lenses.

Other forms of visual impairment, such as, ocular mortality refers to inability to move eyes, strabismus refers to inability to focus on some object with both eyes, nystagmus refers to problem in accommodation, in which, the eyes cannot adjust properly for seeing at different distance, such as, in shifting from reading a book to looking at black board or back again.

**Gifted and Talented**, according to Kirk & Gallgher (1986, p. 70) is individual with extraordinary abilities, therefore, he/she is able to produce extraordinary performances in academic or in other specific fields such as: very high intellectual abilities, abilities in critical thinking, and productive thinking, creativity, leadership and art.

Based on the research result done by The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV), it known that 85% individuals with mental retarded have IQ 50–75, they classified as mild group of mentally retardation, 10% have IQ 35–55, the classified as moderate group mental retardation and 3–4% has IQ 20–40, they called as severe, dan 1–2% has IQ 20–25, they called as profound.

The research result done by Kirk dan Gallagher, 1986 indicated that the comparation of the amount of mentally retarded with unretarded individual are: mild is 10: 1000, moderate is 3:1000 individu, severe/profound is 1:1000.

Among educational systems and approaches that can applied to promote the development of the children with special needs is inclusive educational system and approach which can be used to bring forward the solutions to promote the efforts in helping the special needs children to achieve their developmental goals. In accordance to UNESCO (2004) inclusive education is a global issue which contains important values which can accommodate the needs of the children with special needs.

Inclusive education is one of educational systems which allow all students to come into the system and disobey the condition of the student, normal or students with special needs, and disobeys ethnics and languages back ground of the students, disobey social economic condition of the students, as well as disobey geographical location of the students. In its implementation inclusive education can be conducted to allow the special need children to enter public school (Wood, 1995, p. 5).

Inclusive educational system is implemented in from of inclusive instructional system or teaching and learning system. The system consists of system’s components, which involve: need assessment, instructional goals, teaching and learning process, instructional evaluation, Dick & Carrey (1989, p. 10), and Jamaris enriched the instuctional system components (2010, p. 200) which showed in Figure 1:
In accordance to instructional process, Jamaris synthesized some cross references concerned, among them are the Demark Special Education (2012), Dick and Carrey (1989, p. 10) and Polloway & Paton proposition about teaching and learning process consideration education (1993, pp. 466–467) as followed Figure 2:
Furthermore, Westwood (1993, pp. 2–5) explains his point of view about the teaching process and procedure for students with special needs, as follows: (1) giving maximum learning opportunities for the students which can be done by attaining task-behaviors, instructional time, student actively involved in their work; (2) focus on learning achievement which can be conducted by daily review of previous day’s work, clear presentation of new skills and concepts with much modeling by teachers, guided students practice with high success rates and with effective feedback to individual students, independent student practice, applying the new knowledge and skills appropriately, systematic cumulative revision of work previously covered; (3) presenting instruction individually and inclusively which can be done by within a whole class lesson and develop individual instructional programs for special need children.

Until the present there are 796 inclusive education in Indonesia, which consist of 17 Kindergartens, 648 elementary schools, 75 junior high schools and 56 senior high schools. Prersearch done by the author reveal that the inclusive education implementation encounter many obstacles, such as lack of facilities, teachers’ lack of skills, meaning that by various reasons they are not ready to teach in inclusive education, the normal pupils’ parents reject inclusive education due to their incompatible to have special need children in their children’s class, and the like (an interview of parents and teachers which conducted by author during prersearch in Jakarta 2012) and the like.

Based on the empirical facts found during prersearch, it is necessary to do research, especially, dealt with the effectiveness implementation of inclusive education in Indonesia. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to find out the effectiveness of the implementation of inclusive education, especially in elementary schools, which are involved: the effectiveness of precursor to teaching, the effectiveness of educational system and educational approach used, the effectiveness of teachers’ behaviors, and the effectiveness follow up of the implementation of inclusive education.

2. Research Method

This research is a baseline research which aimed to be the foundation of the next research which deal with the model of inclusive education for children with special needs in elementary schools. Therefore, due to the purpose of the research, the research method used is survey, which located in Jakarta, the capital city of the Republic of Indonesia, in which, the implementation of inclusive education presume relatively better from the other part of Indonesia.

The research population are from 26 inclusive elementary schools in Jakarta, Indonesia, which have 166 teachers and research samples are selected by random sampling technique, in which, size of sample is determined by applying sample formula (Glenn, 1996, p. 3), as followed:

\[
n = \frac{N}{1 + N\varepsilon^2} = \frac{166}{1 + 166(0.5)^2} = \frac{166}{42} = 4 \text{teachers}
\]

In accordance to the application of the size sample formula, this research can be conducted by using only 4 teachers. However, due to the type of the research method used in this study was survey, therefore, the sample size is multiplied or duplication 15 times, so that, as the result, the sample size becomes 60 participants, which consisted of teachers, students, parents and professionals.

Instrument used to collect data of this research is questionnaire. In order to have valid and reliable research
A Survey on the Effectiveness of Inclusive Education Implementation at Elementary School

Instruments, therefore, the instrument is tested, in which, 60 the research participants who are taken from the research population. The result of this action, reveals that the instrument have good validity, which r value range from 0.3315 to 0.749554, while r critical value is 0.312. Consequently, all the research instrument items are valid. Reliability of the instrument is 0.96239, consequently, the instrument is reliable.

The effectiveness of inclusive education implementation is measured by quarrying the inclusive education research participants’ perceptions about the four dimensions of implementation of the inclusive education, as followed: (1) the effectiveness of the precursor to teaching, which involved: (a) teaching tools and equipments, (b) the classroom conditions, (c) resource room, (d) availability of related experts for the resource room, (e) specific equipments matched to the need of the special need children, (f) management and administration which serve the need of students with special needs, (g) regulation which can be accommodate the needs of the special student, (h) library which can be accommodate the students with special needs, (i) space to display learning products, (y) the equivalent of precursor to teaching to the requirement of inclusive education; (2) instructional system and teaching approach, which involved: (a) the matched up of the instructional system for the need of the special need students, which included, goal, process, media and evaluation, (c) the special need students’ learning achievement, (d) the individual education program, (e) instructional strategies, (f) the administration form of learning progress of the special need students, (g) the method up of instructional media for the instructional strategies, (3) teachers’ behaviors which consisted of: (a) the ability to do instructional planning complement to the needs of students with special needs, (b) the ability of the teachers in implementing individual instructional program, (c) the ability to develop instructional media matched up for the need of the students with special need, (d) the ability to work in team work, (e) the ability to increase learning motivation of the students with special need, (4) followed up of the monitoring and evaluation of instructional implementation which consisted of: (a) to communicate the result of result of instructional system’s implementation to the team which involved in inclusive education, (b) to use the results of instructional program’s implementation in modifying the instructional system of inclusive education.

The research participants’ perceptions on the effectiveness of inclusive education in elementary school were in the from their judgment expressions on the questionnaire statements which range from: not agree, agree and very agree.

3. Research Result

As mentioned before previously that the purpose of the research is to know the implantation of the inclusive education in elementary school, which consist of three dimensions: (1) precursor to teaching, (2) educational system and teaching approach, (3) teachers’ behavior, and (4) follow up of the instructional program implementation monitoring and evaluation

3.1 The Effectiveness of Precursor to Teaching

The effectiveness of the precursors to teaching is measured by of 10 indicators, as followed: (a) teaching tools and equipments, (b) the classroom conditions, (c) resource room, (d) availability of related experts for the resource room, (e) specific equipments matched to the need of the special need children, (f) management and administration which serve the need of students with special needs, (g) regulation which can be accommodate the needs of the special student, (h) library which can be accommodate the students with special needs, (i) space to display learning products, (y) the equivalent of precursor to teaching to the requirement of inclusive education. All of the research result on the precursor to instructional implementation are displayed in the following Figure 3:
Based on the above diagram, it can be concluded that 68.38% respondent agree, 16.72% strongly agree that the precursor to teaching of special needs children at elementary school is effective, because only 21% of the respondent disagree. Therefore, it can be concluded that in general the precursor to teaching is suitable with the special needs students at inclusive class at elementary school.

3.2 The Effectiveness of the Instructional System and Teaching Approach

The instructional system and teaching approach consist of the following indicators: (1) the matched up of the instructional system for the need of the special need students, which included, goal, process, media and evaluation, (2) the special need students’ learning achievement, (3) the individual education program, (4) instructional strategies, (5) the administration form of learning progress of the special need students, (6) the used of instructional media for the instructional strategies. All of the research result on the precursor to instructional implementation are displayed in the Figure 4:

Based on the above diagram, it can be concluded that 64.14% respondent agree, 17.15% strongly agree, therefore, the instructional system and approach to teaching of special needs children at elementary school is effective, because only 14.71% of respondent disagree. Therefore, it can be concluded that in general instructional system and teaching approach can fulfill the needs of the special needs children at inclusive elementary school.
3.3 The Effectiveness of the Teachers’ Teaching Behaviours

The teachers’ behaviors which consist of: (1) the ability to do instructional planning complement to the needs of students with special needs, (2) the ability of the teachers in implementing individual instructional program, (3) the ability to develop instructional media matched up for the need of the students with special need, (4) the ability to work in team work, (5) the ability to increase learning motivation of the students with special need. All data research result on the indicators are displayed in the Figure 5.

Based on the above diagram, it can be concluded that 60.28% respondent agree, 21.42% strongly agree that the teachers’ teaching behavior are effective, because only 17.57% of the respondent disagree. Therefore, it can be concluded that in general the teachers’ teaching behaviors match to the needs of the special needs children at inclusive elementary school. However 17.57% of the respondent disagree.

3.4 The Effectiveness of the Follow up of Instructional Feed Backs

The followed up of the monitoring and evaluation of instructional implementation which consist of: (a) to communicate the result of result of instructional system’s implementation to the team which involved in inclusive education, (b) to use the results of instructional program’s implementation in modifying the instructional system of inclusive education. All data research result on the indicators are displayed in the Figure 6.
Based on the above diagram, it can be concluded that 70.48% respondent agree, 13.33% strongly agree that the follow up of the instructional feedback is effective, because only 16.19% of the respondent disagree. Therefore, in general, it can be concluded the follow up to instructional feedback is match to the needs of the special needs children at inclusive elementary school.

4. Conclusion

Judging from the research finding, which have been describe previously, it can be concluded that the inclusive educatoan implementation at elementary school for the special needs children have been done effectively.

References


Teachers’ Professional Development on ICT Use: A Saudi Sustainable Development Model

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Abstract: Teachers are the key knowledge producers and the development driving force of any nation. Studies have shown that, the wealth of any nation largely rests on empowering its knowledge producers and knowledge generators. Training teachers on necessary skills and knowledge for personal and career development is must for attaining sustainable societal development. One of the Saudi’s Ninth Development Plan is to turn the Saudi society into information society through various mechanisms notably training and developing teachers on effective use of ICT. This paper discusses the Saudi development framework for training its teachers on skills and knowledge in terms of ICT having been in information communication age which helps in knowledge dissemination, knowledge transfer, knowledge sharing, and knowledge production. The impediments in the way of achieving this framework are discussed while suggestions are proposed for the improvement of the model for the Saudi Government, stakeholders, teachers as well as Saudi society at large.

Key words: professional development, ICT use, sustainable development, Saudi model

1. Introduction

Teachers’ continuous professional development is the key performance index for any nation’s growth. Experiences around the world have identified that teachers’ effective professional development would help build a new understanding of teaching and learning in the technology age (Lee, 2001, p. 2). The Saudi government has realized that in order to improve its economy it should first improve the quality of its peoples. In order to actualize this reality, the Kingdom designs Tripartite sophisticated sustainable development programs namely; a National Project “Watani”, Tatweer Public Education Program, and Jehazi Project to this end. These three projects of Kingdom of Saudi Arabia on human resources development have marginally recorded a successful implementation (Al-Sulaimani, 2010, p. 14) with slight improvements. The Watani Net Project is aimed at training and building the capacity of teaching staff on proper handling of IT to facilitate teaching and learning process (Arab News, 2014). The Tatweer Public Education Development Program is a collaborative effort between the...
Teachers’ Professional Development on ICT Use: A Saudi Sustainable Development Model

Kingdom and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development “ASCD” a reputable organization specializing in developing and delivering high quality professional development service. One of the markedly objectives of this program is structured towards developing Saudi teachers’ competence and their mastery of skills and knowledge in ICT (Tatweer, 2012). Interestingly, the Jehazi Project is aimed at training Saudi teachers to apply technological apparatus in improving their teaching and learning process and encouraging every teacher and student to possess his/her own ICT gadgets (Ministry of Education, 2012b; Altawil, 2012, p. 23).

The blueprint on training and developing teachers’ skills and knowledge on ICT use is not only a concern of Saudi authorities; it is a general plan worldwide. Al-Sulaimani (2010, p. 12) and Tattoo (2006, p. 2) indicated that the education authorities in developed countries have noted the significance of such training, development, and ICT.

The technology progressiveness and human aggressive advancements in knowledge and internet accessibility in particular are inevitable for teachers to use technology in their pedagogy. In Saudi specifically, there is an increasing demand of ICT every day the demand that arises among the teachers themselves (Ageel, 2011, p. 4).

Empowering teachers’ knowledge and pedagogy in terms of incessant training is perceived as a mechanism for driving change in educational systems (Day & Sachs, 2004, p. 7), and frequently deepening teachers’ knowledge and skills is an integral part of the teaching profession (Mansour, Alshamrani, Aldahmash, & Alqudah, 2011, p. 1). The optimal aim of Saudi Government in its Ninth Development Project is to promote pedagogical program that will incorporate ICT.

Saudi teachers continuously need and want intervention. For example, the Excellence Centre of Science and Mathematics Education (ECSME) at the King Saud University consider science teachers’ professional development a key element for the transformative program in the country (Mansour et al., 2011, pp. 2–3). Studies have shown that, the majority of Saudi teachers are in need of pre-service and in-service pedagogical, academic training and skills (Mansour et al., 2011, p. 2). This paper discusses the Saudi development framework for training its teachers on skills and knowledge in terms of ICT and the considerably leap effort made by Saudi Arabia Government in its Ninth Development Plan to continuously train Saudi teaching staff in using computer for teaching and learning process (Ageel, 2011, p. 6), the obstructions on the way of achieving this framework were discussed, and suggestions were proposed for improving the model for Saudi governments, NGOs, stakeholders, teachers as well as Saudi society at large.

1.1 Historical Background of Raison D’être the Infusion of ICT into Saudi Educational System

Saudi Arabia does not blindly leap into the projects of training its teachers and developing their potentials in ICT. The trend of developing the Kingdom’s human resources and having a focus on ICT is scientifically studied from the experience of Arabic world and the developed nation perspective. The reviewed studies in this regard found that ICT proper use has a high correlation with the social well-being of a community (Al-Sulaimani, 2010, p. 56). In the Arab world, technology has been proven to be an end in teaching, and means in catching up with the global sustainable development. With regard to the developed worlds, the World Bank statistics in 2009 asserted that a 10 percentage point increase in the broadband use contributes to an increase of 1.21 percentage points in annual average GDP growth rates per capita of those countries (Al-Daweesh, 2011, p. 4).

Interestingly, Fleming, Motamedi and May (2007) who surveyed 79 pre-service teachers on training experience and computer technology skills found that the more comprehensively pre-service teachers engaged themselves in using computer and the more they use ICT in and out of their teaching, the more likely they will be
competent in the computer technology skills. The use of ICT is also found to be an effective tool for improving productivity and an economic growth (Al-Daweesh, 2011, p. 9) and improving sustainable economic gains.

Historically, ICT was first introduced to Saudi education system in 80s. The successful introduction of ICT at that time encouraged the Ministry of Education to include it as part of curriculum in 1991 (Oyaid, 2009, p. 23). Study indicated that technology is advantageous to Saudi Arabia in many ways (BouJaoude, 2003, p. 3) because it helps make the abstract knowledge real, develop public awareness, improves standard of living, and a source of income for some cohorts in the society (UNESCO, 2003, p. 2).

Since 90s the Saudi Ministry of Education has taken various steps to incorporate information technology, computer science, and computer application to aid the teachers, students at school level as well as at the societal level (Oyaid, 2009, p. 30) to eradicate illiteracy from the Saudi society so as to have a sustainable envisioned growth (General Directorate for Planning, 2005; Ministry of Education, 2008; Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2006). ICT was fully incorporated into the Saudi system at all levels within 2000 through 2004 by the committee designated for the said programmes under the tutelage of the Ministries to progressively develop teachers as knowledge producers and economic growers (Ministry of Education, 2006b; Al-Omran. 2007). In the abovementioned years computer skills are made mandatory for Saudi teachers and a requirement for their qualification (Al-Wattan newspaper, 2001).

2. Literature Review on CPD, ICT, and their Advantages

The strong structure of education stands on the support offered to the teachers. It is necessary to satisfy teachers’ needs and develop their skills to cope with new technology challenges and raise the educational standard. Successful utilization of technologies depends on its users (Chittleborough, Jobling, Hubber, & Calnin, 2008, p. 4; Lee, 2002, p. 2), providing training for them to keep up with information, knowledge and skills is necessary for the ongoing innovations (Robertson, 2003, p. 5; Qari, 1999, p. 1) and effectively contributes to boosting the users’ self-efficacy, motivation and computing habits (Robertson & Al-Zahrani, 2012, p. 1).

Teachers’ professional development is the most important factor before their ICT use due to the fact that, they are the key players in learning and teaching. Blackmore, Hardcastle, Bamblett, and Owens (2003), opined that teacher’s continuous training and development should precede the integration of ICT into classrooms in order to ensure the effective use of it. Teacher’s Development can be gauged by his/her level of education and the amount of training he/she receives (Beeby, 1966, p. 12), the amount of training received can be measured by the knowledge and skills teachers were equipped with and their positive impact on their pupils (Al-Sulaimani, 2010, p. 157) and that such knowledge and skills could be successfully imparted by means of initial training received (Al-Rashed, 2002, p. 8). The developed nations such as U.S.A had also highlighted the significance of teachers’ professional training (Al-Sulaimani, 2010, p. 30) and that attitudes toward computer use can be improved by training its users (Woodrow, 1992, p. 2). Ming, Hall, Azman, and Joyes (2010), who found that lack of skills and training in ICT makes many of the university teachers to be reluctant in using it suggested that, continuously training the teachers will enable them to successfully use ICT in their teaching. Pelgrum (1993) reported that the amount of information received by teachers in service training courses is strongly related to their attitude about the educational impact of computers.

Professional development helps update teacher’s knowledge and skills and makes them involved in sharing knowledge with one another (Al-harbi, 2011, p. 61). Pre-service and in-service teachers who were trained on ICT
used it significantly more frequently than those who were not trained on it (Al-Alwani & Soomro, 2009, p. 9).

Studies found that, successful integration of ICT into teaching and learning processes requires developing teachers’ knowledge, confidence and skills on ICT use as well as providing them the hardware and software (Reid 2002; Ortega, 2000; Blackmore, Hardcastle, Bamblett, & Owens, 2003). Hasanain (2005) asserted that staff improvement program is almost necessary when an organization is changing its objectives or introducing new technology into its system. The quality of school’s ICT equipment becomes irrelevant if teachers do not have the required competencies and not well trained to handle and have appropriate skills with regard to the equipment (Hasselbring, 2000; Ortega, 2000).

ICT is becoming as significant as basic needs for all people. Teachers’ capacity can be built on ICT use if they are given a thorough training. Khan (2001) found in his study that the lecturers and trainers’ competency could be enhanced on ICT when they made use of various ICT-based hardware and software, which will give them the capability to deliver a more enhanced graphics-oriented presentation of lectures (Ageel & John, 2012, p. 2), facilitate computer based technologies for knowledge sharing (Lindvall & Rus, 2003, p. 4), change the ways of teaching (Almalki & Williams, 2012, p. 3) deliver high quality education and prepare students for the information era (Abdulkafi, 2006, p. 5), and help reduce teachers’ efforts to deliver knowledge, achieve better visualization and motivate the learners (Almalki & Williams, 2012, p. 1).

The integration of ICT into education will not only provide assistance and guidance for teachers but also give them the opportunity to make use of various types of technologies in order to enhance their instruction (Ageel & John, 2012, p. 2), allows both teachers and learners to make use of different types of communication devices beyond the classroom instructions (Yusuf & Onasanya, 2004, p. 6), and additionally helps teachers to prepare lessons, improve their skills and knowledge for administrative work and assess the learners’ performance (Almghlouth, 2008, p. 6).

3. Teachers’ Professional Training in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

In Saudi Arabia a plan to train teachers and empower them professionally commenced in 70s. This plan is ongoing and it encompasses both disqualified and qualified teachers as MacDonald (2008) stressed the importance of designing an ongoing programme and community of practice for teacher’s professional development. Al-Rashed (2012) stated that, teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are given every opportunity to pursue academic training that qualifies them for higher post in their field of specialty. Al-Sulaimani (2010) suggested that Saudi teachers are provided continuing training and development to maintain and ensure their competencies in pedagogy. He further explained that, the objectives of Saudi education policy in training the teachers are to provide standard education in meeting the social needs of the country and of the people so as to compete in the global labor market.

Recently, his Royal Highness King Abdullah’s Tatweer project has collaborated with Centre for British Teachers “CfBT” to devise and continuously implement a teacher training programme in Saudi Arabia (www.cfbt.com). Professional development programs initiated in Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Education, 2007) are to specifically train teachers in troop (Ministry of Education, 2003) as a fact that teacher-related development and training is the most significant predictor for success technology adoption (Almalki & Williams, 2012) and a critical factor in the successful integration of ICT in Saudi Arabia.
4. The Ninth Saudi Development Framework on CPD and ICT

The Ninth Saudi Development Plan is a continuation of its tripartite development programs adopted by the Kingdom (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010, p. 55). In this development approach and in a way of maintaining world-class education for all the citizens Saudi government determines to train the teachers on ICT skills in order to achieve sustainable growth in the competitive global economy (Al-Sulaimani, 2010). The development plan is centered on five major themes which form the integrated Kingdom’s framework on human and country development (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010, p. 57). The Saudi ministries, administrations, government agencies and non government agencies are concerned that accelerating developments of knowledge and technology rest on spreading the culture of training in order to build a highly skilled individuals in the Saudi organizations (Okaz Newspaper, 2013, p. 16).

The major focus of Saudi Ninth Plan is a staunch belief that highly skilled people who have received thorough sophisticated training with modern technologies are the main engine to propel value and wealth creation of the country to push the Kingdom forward to achieve a value laden modern society. The main aims of the Ninth Development Plan with regard to human development are:

- To provide training programmes to the Saudis to be gainfully employed in any organization or be successfully self-employed
- To increase the number of educated, trained and skilled Saudi ICT professionals
- To expand the scope of advanced training and development of technology

On the Kingdom’s realization that the country’s development rests on human development billions of Riyals are expended or expected to be spent to this end (Al-Sulaimani, 2010, p. 201; MOE, 2000a; MOE, 2000b). Table 1 depicts the Saudi government spending on human development to incorporate technologies into education in order to hasten the desired development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Development Sector</th>
<th>Expenses (SR Billion)</th>
<th>Rate of Increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training (Technical and Vocational)</td>
<td>23138</td>
<td>41.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Technology and Innovation</td>
<td>6524.7</td>
<td>87.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MOEP.

Table 1 shows the Saudi government’s projection on training and technology in its Ninth Development Plan. The estimated amount of monies herein does not include other aspects of expenses such as social, health, and oil to mention but a few. The same Table also shows that Saudi Government has invested heavily on CPD and ICT to boost and actualize the country’s growth.

Additionally, according to Table 1, it can be said that the Kingdom’s support for training, technology and innovation is very high as a plan to provide work-ready male and female Saudis trained in computer use who would be later employed in the near future in meeting this plan to push and pull the country to the future desired glory.

The Saudi Government framework in its Ninth Development Plan is set up by the Kingdom’s National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment (NCAA). The NCAA sets up eleven criteria of which standard four of them includes teachers’ professional training program that which focus on five broad areas as learning and developmental domains for the teachers. The five domains are the core of Saudi’s Ninth

Figure 1 is a Venn diagram of the Ninth Saudi Sustainable Plan for CPD and ICT which aims at blending knowledge with creative problem solving and teachers’ ability to be responsible for their own learning, continuing personal and professional development and their ability to communicate effectively using the available technology device with the use of both mental and muscular strength in achieving the goals of the framework among and within the three Kingdom’s Development Programs.

5. Impediments for Achieving the Ninth National Framework for CPD and ICT

Saudi has faced considerably unlimited challenges in its Ninth National Development Plan for CPD and ICT. Some of the challenges faced by the Kingdom in the way of achieving this development are highlighted as large amount of monies needed to fully implement the framework into its full potential, cultural environmental shock, little teacher’s preparation and training for technology use, teacher’s self confidence to use ICT after training, competent professionals that will ensure teachers’ CPD (Al-Daweesh, 2011; Bingimlas, 2009, p. 2; Robertson & Al-Zahrani, 2012, p. 5; Ministry of Communications and Information Technology, 2011, p. 40) and teachers’ inadequacy to meet the market demand and labor force participation across the economy (Al-Daweesh, 2011). Although, the Kingdom has taken a huge step in overcoming these challenges, however, there are loopholes that need to be addressed critically by the government, agencies and all stakeholders to jointly mitigate the impediments which hinder the actualization of the framework to its full possibilities. Here are some suggested steps that which if taken will assist in mitigating the impediments.
6. Suggestions and Recommendations

In light of the abovementioned hindrances, this paper proposes in order to reduce the impediments and find a way forward to achieve the framework in order to fulfill teachers’ needs in terms of their access to good educational resources and appropriate training. The paper suggests that Saudi Government should provide adequate and confident trainers to train the teachers. Teachers should be constantly encouraged to undertake professional development and continue to pursue mental and physical skills required of them in the age of globalization. Teachers’ professional development programme should necessarily include technology, flexible and rigorous curriculum that will ensure problem solving and be updated. There should be a high security in place to ensure that Saudi citizens are protected from a large number of websites deemed offensive to the Saudi society. The adopted tools such as ICT should be adapted and used within an Islamic framework. The Kingdom’s educational policies are expected to include ICT to prepare school leavers to seek jobs in the labor force and in the global economy. Teachers should be motivated to willingly and readily accept the training and ICT that which the framework intends to enhance them for and the teachers should be taught that the use of technology would not hamper the other high level goals they wanted to accomplish. At the top of everything, the government’s support and financing is of utmost important in this sense. The government should also create a suitable ICT infrastructure environment and professional training in terms of workshop, special courses to equip Saudi citizens particularly the teachers with knowledge and learning abilities needed in this 21st century. There should also be an exchange programme with foreign higher learning institutions that will boost Saudi teachers’ competencies and capabilities.

7. Conclusion

This paper showed that, teachers’ continuous training and the use of modern technology devices do not only help boost country’s manpower but also invigorate the country’s economy to compete well in this challenging world of the globalization. The authors of this paper suggest that since continuing professional programme blended with modern technology can promise producing quality education as well as social well-being, it is now left to the top authorities and the people concerned to use concerted efforts to accomplish these intended outcomes.

Acknowledgement

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Re-inventing Islamic Civilization in the Sudanic Belt: The Role of Sheikh Usman Dan Fodio

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Abstract: Islamic civilization has left a great impact in Sub-Saharan Africa as a result of several Islamic Empires that existed in the region. Empires like Ghana (790–1076), Kanem/Bornu (700–1376), Mali (1230–1600) and Songhay (1340–1591) were clear indications of the presence of Islamic civilization in the region. However, as time goes, these Islamic empires collapsed, and Islamic civilization declined due to the widespread of vices and illiteracy in the region. From the beginning of the 18th century these practices were partly regarded as part of Islam. So, in response to this depravity, a revivalism and reform movement was organized and led by Sheikh Usman Dan Fodio (1755–1817). This reform movement led to the re-invention of Islamic civilization and establishment of Sokoto Caliphate in the present day of northern Nigeria. This paper discusses the role of Sheikh Usman Dan Fodio in reviving and re-inventing Islamic civilization in the Sudanic Belt. The paper analyses his career, thoughts and intellectual activities. It concludes by highlighting some of the books he authored in defence of Islamic civilization.

Key words: Islamic Civilization, Dan Fodio, Africa

1. Background

The presence of Islam in the Sudanic Belt dates back to the eighth century, when the ruling elite in the Kingdom of Ghana accepted Islam and worked tirelessly to spread it among the local indigenes. As Islam spread in the Savannah region, commercial links were established with North Africa and other parts of the world, especially some parts of the Arab world. Trade and commerce also paved way for the introduction of new elements of material culture, and made possible the intellectual development which naturally followed the introduction and spread of literacy. A number of Islamic empires were established in the region and a good amount of scholarship and intellectual activities were firmly rooted. The Islamization of the region could be traced back to Ghana empire (790–1076), which was Islamized and contributed immensely to the spread of Islam. Another Islamic empire in the region was that of Kanem/Bornu (700–1376), which produced a large number of Muslim scholars. Before the collapse of this empire, other Islamic empires emerged in the north, which were known as Mali Empire (1230–1600) and Songhay Empire (1340–1591). All these Islamic empires and city states were clear indications on how Islam got momentum and acceptance from both the rulers and the ruled.

However, as time goes, these Islamic empires collapsed and the true teachings of Islam were mixed with
local cultures due to the widespread of vices and illiteracy in the region. From the beginning of the 18th century these deviant practices were often regarded as being part of Islam. This, however, necessitated reaction from various Islamic scholars, such as Sheikh Usman Dan Fodio with the intention of reforming and reviving Islamic civilization in the region to its original purity.

In the early 19th century in Hausa land, a reform and Jihad movement was organized and led by one of the prominent Islamic scholars of the century, namely Sheikh Usman Dan Fodio (1755–1817). This reform movement led to the establishment of Sokoto Caliphate in the present day of northern Nigeria. This paper discusses the role of Sheikh Usman Dan Fodio in reviving and re-inventing Islamic civilization in the Sudanic Belt. The paper analyses his career, thoughts and intellectual activities. It concludes by highlighting some of the books he authored in defence of Islamic civilization.

2. Dan Fodio’s Life and Education

Usman Dan fodder, the founder of Sokoto Caliphate, a religious leader, writer and Islamic promoter was from an urbanized ethnic Fulani living in Hausaland in what is today northern Nigeria. He was born in Maratta, a town in the Hausa state of Gobir on Sunday 15th December, 1754. Not long after his birth, Usman’s family moved to Degel, a town of reasonable distance, still within the State of Gobir, where Usman spent his childhood. The traditional Muslim educational system in this society demanded children at very early age to learn the Qur’an in addition to reading and writing. Shehu Usman no doubt went through this system perhaps in a stricter manner (Bugaje U., 1979).

According to Iraqi A. A. 1983, Dan Fodio started his education very early where he memorized the holy Qur’an under the supervision of his father, who was himself a renowned scholar. He later studied many Islamic books in the Hausaland from various scholars such as Sheikh Jibril bin Umar in Agades (Bugaje U. M., 1979). Subsequently, he moved to other scholars in search of knowledge traveling from one teacher to another in a traditional way of learning that was dominant in the region, reading extensively in the Islamic sciences (Sharif M., 2008).

However, his teachers, as reported by his brother Abdullahi bin Fodio, were too many to be recorded (Iraqi A. A., 1963). Prominent among them, after his father, was Shaikh Abd al-Raḥman b. Hammada who taught him syntax and the science of grammar. Another pious and upright scholar was Usman Binduri, who was in fact Shehu’s uncle and mentor at the same time. Binduri did not only teach him but influenced him remarkably. Yet another uncle of his was a man of reputable knowledge, Muhammad Sambo who taught him al-Mukhtasar of Khalīl. Next in the list of his teachers was Jibrīl b. Umar, a Tuareg scholar of high learning and revolutionary zeal who had contact with the Middle Eastern Muslim world through his pilgrimage. Much of Shehu Usman’s revolutionary zeal has been traced to this teacher whose Shehu himself respected so much. Hajj Muhammad b. Ra-ji and Ahmad b. Muhammad were yet other uncles of Shehu who taught him Sa Ṭ al-Bukhārī and Tafsīr of the Qur’an respectively. Moreover, Shehu also attended the classes of one Hāshim al-Zamfari where he studied Tafsīr of the Qur’an again (El-Masri F. H., 1963).

In 1774 Dan Fodio began his active life as a teacher, and for the next twelve years he combined study with teaching and preaching in Kebbi and Gobir, followed by further five years in Zamfara. He focused, in his preaching, on religious, social and political issues criticizing Hausa rulers and accusing them of corruption and tyranny, while on the other hand, accusing the local populous of mixing religious injunctions with their local
traditions and cultures (Iraqi A. A., 1983). After several years of preaching, Hijrah and Jihad, Dan Fodio established Sokoto Caliphate in 1804. However, in 1811, Dan Fodio retired and left the administration of the empire in the hands of both Abdullahi and Muhammad Bello, devoting himself to scholarship and writing. He died in 1817 and was buried in Hubare Sokoto.

3. Dan Fodio’s Jihād and Reform Movement

Usman Dan Fodio’s reform movement was aimed at eliminating the religious and social corruptions imposed by the various rulers of city-states in Hausaland which culminated in bastardizing and diluting Islamic teachings with local cultures and traditions. His effort to establish a truly Islamic state invited several intellectual controversies particularly from the court Ulama whose interest is to defend the system and get their interest preserved.

Tukur, M. 1999, asserted that Dan Fodio’s reform was not just a Jihad movement aimed at eliminating religious and social vices alone, but it was also aimed at creating a peaceful, descent and egalitarian society solidly formed under effective administration. In view of that, he was able to attract enough students and followers in the wider community of Islam including Tuareg, Hausa and Fulani (Sharif M., 2008). The result of such attraction was the emergence of an efficient and effective administration and military organization possessing a credible leadership and motivated followership.

4. Teaching and Da’awah

Shehu Usman Dan Fodio, like any other Mujaddid, began his career with teaching and preaching in order to prepare ground for his next mission. He recognized that teaching and preaching are very fertile methods for conveying his message to the public and prepare them for the coming struggle. So, Dan Fodio started teaching and preaching in his home town Degel in 1774. And in the same year, he started moving around Degel, accompanied by his brother Abdullah, teaching and preaching. Later in the company of Abdullah and other disciples he began to travel out of Degel, to the east and west, Kebbi (to the west) being his first station of call. With Degel as his base, Shehu Usman and his group travelled to other towns in Gobir, teaching and preaching with remarkable success (Bugaje U., 1979).

During the week, he taught his students Islamic sciences such as Tafsīr, Hadīth and Fiqh, and on the weekend he lectured to the general public. The main thrust of Shehu’s teaching appeared to have been the expounding of the fundamentals of Islam and correcting the bad practices that had developed over the centuries in Hausaland. He confronted rigidity and extremism among the scholars and false claims made by pseudo-mystics (Quick A. A., 1995). Abdullah reported in his Tazyīn al- Warāqat:

“Then we rose up with the Sheikh helping him in his mission work for religion. He travelled for that purpose to the east and to the west, calling the people to the religion of God by his preaching and his poem as in other languages and destroying customs contrary to Muslim law. Some of the people from surrounding countries came to him, and entered his community while we were in his country which had become famous through him.” (Abdullah B. Fodio, 1963).

Shehu divided his teachings into three: the first lesson was to general public commanding them to uphold to the true teachings of Islam and abandon devilish innovations created by some people in the land. The second lesson was for his students teaching them fundamentals of Islam and the need to purify their souls from the
impurities of this world. The third lesson was to scholars and advanced students for revision and special lessons on Sufism (Iraqi A. A., 1983).

At this juncture, Shehu was fully aware of the problems his preaching would raise and therefore prepared himself to take up the challenge. In this process alone, Shehu was reported by Bello (his son) to have written over fifty books. Moreover, for 19 years Dan Fodio was a preacher and a teacher on the move, and wherever he went he stayed long enough to establish a community and then leave one of his students or disciples to continue the job. However, Shehu was not in the habit of visiting the rulers, but when his following became so large he decided to visit the Sultan of Gobir Bawa Jangwarzo and explain the true teachings of Islam to him, commanding him to observe and establish justice throughout his lands. With this attempt, Shehu has thrown himself into direct confrontation with rulers and court Ulama.

5. Encounter with Ulama and Hausa Rulers

One of the earliest challenges faced by Shehu Usman Dan Fodio was intellectual controversy from the court Ulama who resisted his reform and supported the injustice and tyranny of Hausa rulers. Dan Fodio called this category of scholars “Ulama al-Suu” or evil scholars whose vested interest lied in the preservation of the status quo. These intellectual antagonisms directed against Dan Fodio lied in the following key points:

1. The court Ulama questioned the legitimacy of Dan Fodio’s Jihad, since it was directed against fellow Muslims and took place in Dar al-Islam or Muslim land.

2. They viewed the declaration of Dan Fodio as Amir al-Muminīn or commander of the faithful as direct challenge to the authority and thus, called his attention to the obedience of the constituted authority as enshrined in the Qur’an.

3. These scholars believed that whoever commits major sin becomes unbeliever, a view intellectually rejected by Dan Fodio.

4. Whether or not Dan Fodio is allowed to collect donations from the Jamā‘ah.

While responding to court Ulama Dan Fodio argued that the regimes of Hausaland were corrupt and hypocrite and thus can be considered as legitimate targets for Jihad. And the title of Amir al-Muminīn was given to him by the Jamā‘ah and such action is not in contradiction with any Islamic injunction. On the case committing major sin, Dan Fodio asserted that it was the Khawārij who first initiated the idea and injected it into Islam and thus, it is another innovation that must be uprooted.

These scholars stepped up their criticism against the Shehu and did everything possible to undermine his mission. They have tried several times to question the validity of the central pillar of his mission “al-Amr bi al-maarūf wa al-nahy an al-munkar”. On his struggle against this class of Ulama, Shehu wrote more than fifty different books as reported by his son Muhammad Bello. As a result of that, Shehu emerged victorious at the end of the tussle and became widely acknowledged as the leading scholar in Hausaland despite his relatively young age.

Now the rulers of Hausaland realized that the success of Shehu’s mission was going to be at the expense of their thrones. So, Bawa Jan Gwarzoplot to kill him by inviting him to celebrate Eid al-Kabīr with him at Magami. Shehu Usman, who was said to have attended the occasion, was escorted by nearly 1000 men. Some scholars who had come with Bawa were reported to have joined Shehu’s company, making his following yet larger. Bawa, bewildered by the number of Shehu’s following, which reflects his growing influence, was said to have abandoned
his idea of killing the Shehu. At the end of this Eid prayer, the Ulama were presented with gifts, the greatest of which went to the Shehu. All but the Shehu and his following accepted the gifts. Shehu, according to Bugaje, U. 1979, told Bawa that he wasn’t in need of his wealth, and seized this opportunity to make five demands instead of the material gifts:

1. To allow me to call people to God in your land.
2. Not to stop anybody who intend to respond to my call.
3. To treat with respect anyone with a turban.
4. To free all the political prisoners.
5. Not to burden the subjects with taxes.

Bawa agreed to these demands and among the prisoners freed was Abarshi the prince of Zamfara. This move by Shehu was extremely significant as it displayed his active involvement in the affairs of the people to whom he was preaching to. Surely the freeing of a leading member of the Zamfara elite would endear him to the leadership of that region and spread the news of his authority. The demand for the removal of taxes from the people will bring reality of his presence and effectiveness of prohibiting evils into every home in the countryside. Moreover, the Shehu solidified his ability to preach openly and took pressure off his students and followers who were known for the wearing of turban. Sources also stated that all of the scholars present at Magami, who numbered over a thousand, joined the rank of Shehu’s following. Bawa died the following year 1789–1790 (Quick A. H., 1995).

Nafata who took the throne of Gobir in 1796, embarked on attacking the Jamā‘ah (who were distinguishable from their dressing) waylaying them and robbing their properties in the hope that they will return under his jurisdiction. This, however, had the opposite effect in making the Jamā‘ah more firm and militant in changing the state of affairs in Hausaland. In the wake of Nafata's persecutions, the Jamā‘ah demanded a showdown with the Gobir authorities but Shehu refused to consent to any confrontation. Shehu, however, knew that a confrontation was no longer inevitable. In his efforts to prepare his Jamā‘ah for the eventual confrontation the Shehu composed a poem apparently in praise of ShaikhAbd al-KadirJailani, in which he urged the Jamā‘ah to acquire arms, as it is Sunnah (to do so) and prayed to Allah to show him Islamic rule in Hausaland. Shehu's message to both the Jamā‘ah as well as the kings of Hausaland, Gobir in particular, was very clear.

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- Nobody, except Dan Fodio in person, was allowed to preach.
- No more conversions to Islam were to be allowed and those who were not born Muslims should return to their former religion (paganism).
- Men should not wear turbans and women should not wear veils (El-Masri F. H., 1963).

The decrees, Bugaje 1979 argued, represented Nafata’s last hope in arresting the growth and potential of the Jamā‘ah and restoring his eroded political base. That with all his rage, Nafata could not dare ask the Shehu himself to stop calling people to Islam. The decrees were of no avail and Nafata finally resorted to assassinate the Shehu. The attempt was abortive and soon after that Nafata died leaving the throne to his son Yunfa in 1803.

Yunfa proved to be more aggressive in approach towards Shehu and his Jamā‘ah. In fact, Yunfa went as far as attacking a certain Muslim community living in the town of Gimbana in Kebbi, under their leader Abdussalam. This Jama‘ah migrated to Gimbana since the onset of Nafata’s hostility. Abdussalam and his Jamā‘ah were attacked, their property robbed, their men and women taken captives, with many left dead and the whole village
destroyed. These captives on their way to Alkalawa, the capital of Gobir, where they will be enslaved, passed through Degel the centre of the Jamā‘ah. The Jamā‘ah at Degel, moved by the agony of their brothers, ambushed the party, defeated Yunfa’s army and released their brothers and sisters. This release of Muslim captives was said to have been done without prior consultation of Shehu, who saw it as a rush action which could have been avoided. Yunfa now infuriated by this Degel incidence ordered Shehu to leave his Jamā‘ah and go into exile. Shehu refused this order and in replying Yunfa he said “I will not forsake my community, but I and my Jamā‘ah will leave your land, for Allah’s earth is wide. For Shehu and his Jamā‘ah, it is now time for Hijrah (Abdullahi M., 1963).

6. Hijrah and Jihad

In preparation of the Jamā‘ah’s mind set for Jihad and Hijrah, Shehu authored Wathiqatahl al-Sudan wa man Shā Allah min al-ikhwān calling the attention of his Jamā‘ah for Hijrah and preparation for Jihad. This twenty-seven point Wathiqah, was soon circulated through the network which the Jamā‘ah had formed in course of the previous thirty years all over Hausaland and Borno. The first seven points of this Wathiqah summarized the core message of his movement:

1. That the commanding of righteousness is obligatory by assent.
2. And that the prohibition of evil is obligatory by assent as well.
3. That Hijrah from the land of the heathen is obligatory.
4. And that befriending of the faithful is obligatory as well.
5. And that the appointment of the Commander of the faithful is obligatory by assent.
6. And that obedience to him and to all his deputies is obligatory by assent.
7. And the waging of Holy War (Jihad) is obligatory by assent (Usman B. Fodio, 1961).

Hijrah and solidarity among the believers immediately followed which automatically called for the appointment of the Imam (Commander of the faithful) and his deputies. These, besides being “obligatory by assent” are particularly essential to the Jihad which the Wathiqat is in a way declaring. She asserted in points 11, 12 and 15 that:

11. And that by assent the status of a town is the status of its ruler; if the ruler is Muslim, the town belongs to Islam; but if he is not the town is a town of heathendom from which flight is obligatory.
12. And that to make war upon the heathen King who will not say “There is no God but Allah” is obligatory by assent, and that to take the government from him is obligatory by assent;
15. And to make war against the King who is an apostate — who has not abandoned the religion of Islam as far as profession of it is concerned, but who mingles the observances of Islam with the observances of heathendom, like the kings of Hausaland for the most part — is [also] obligatory by assent, and to take the government from him is obligatory by assent (Bugaje U., 1979).

Many of Shehu’s disciples like Abdullah (his brother), Aliyu Jedo and Abdussalam to mention but just a few, were working “round the clock” for the Hijrah. Muhammad Bello, who had been away from Degel visiting Ali Agali (a Tuareg scholar) was dispatched to Kebbi for the organization of the Hijrah and distribution of yet another Shehu’s pamphlets, this time calling people for Hijrah. So, on the twelfth of Dhul-Qa‘da, 1218 A.H./February 1804 A.D. Shehu and his Jamā‘ah left Degel for Gudu to mark the beginning of Shehu’s Hijrah (Bugaje U., 1979).

The choice of Gudu, a town at the distant borders of Gobir, is not without strategic consideration. Located
outside the Sokoto river Valley, reasonably watered and farthest away from Alkalawa the capital of Gobir. Gudu obviously offered some military advantages to the Jamā‘ah. Soon after the decision to move to Gudu was taken, Ali Jedo, a leading member of the revolutionary personnel rushed to Gudu to build a dwelling for the Shehu while Agali, the tuareg scholar supplied camels and donkeys to carry Shehu, his group and their precious library from Degel to their new found base — Gudu. (Bugaje U., 1981).

Immediately Shehu arrived at Gudu, the Jamā‘ah began to find their way and assembled there. Alarmed by this mass exodus, Yunfa ordered the governors of his town to take captive of all those who migrated to the Sheikh, and they began to persecute them, killing them and confiscating their property. This obvious danger did not dissuade many of the Jamā‘ah from making their way to Gudu. The result was as Abd Allah reported:

“Some (Muhājjirūn) reached us complete with their families and possession. Some only with their families, some arrived alone, with their possession, no family”. (Abdullahi B. M., 1978).

To this, one could add those who fell prey to the ambush and killings of Yunfa’s forces and never saw Gudu at all. The readiness with which the Jamā‘ah faced these formidable dangers and difficulties and flocked to Gudu should leave us in no doubt about their courage and above all their commitment to the cause of Islam. In line with the points he raised in the Masāil and Wathīqah, Shehu bade the Jamā‘ah at Gudu to elect their Imam. And they unanimously elected him as Amīr al-Muminīn. Soon afterwards, the kings became nervous because of the number of people he drew away from them and viewed his community as a threat to authority. However, Yunfa considered this as rebellion and launched several attacks on them. This scenario, gave Shehu the authority to declare Jihad against the Hausa rulers.

Moreover, having failed to succeed in stopping the Jamā‘ah from assembling at Gudu, Yunfa began sending army detachments to raid the Jamā‘ah at Gudu. He must have hoped to exhaust or even nip the nascent Islamic community at Gudu before they could master any might. Faced by such raids, the Jamā‘ah at Gudu, under their Imam and commander, organized themselves for defence with their scanty military resources. Yunfa took a full-scale military campaign against the Jamā‘ah. He seemed to have planned a surprised attack but the Jamā‘ah got to know through a Tuareg informant, and began to prepare themselves against such attack.

As the battle line was drawn, we found on the Gobir side a large and heavily armed army ready to pounce on people who have rebelled against their authority and their way of life. While on the Jamā‘ah side we found a small gathering of Mujāhidūn, confident in their Lord and ready for Shahādah or victory, in their struggle to check the excesses of Kufr and establish Islam (Bugaje U., 1981). Soon after the battle broke out, the Muhājjirūn were able to route the Gobir forces who fled. The commander of the Mujāhidūn at least recalled the battle of Badr when describing this battle:

“By the help of him who helped the Prophet against the foe
At Badr, with an army of angels gathered together
And many a great man our hands flung down
And axes cleft his head spilt asunder
And many a brave warrior did our arrows strike down
We drove them off in the middle of the day
And we are an army victorious in Islam.
And we are proud of nothing but that” (Bugaje U., 1981).

And so, the Jamā‘ah continued recording victory upon victory despite some difficulties and challenges surrounding them until the capture of Birnin Kebbi in 1805. And by the year 1810 the Jihad was over and Shehu
withdrew to the town of Sifawa to continue with his intellectual endeavours, leaving his brother Abdullah and his son Muhammad Bello to administer the affairs of the Caliphate.

7. Establishment of the Caliphate

The seeds of revivalism and reform planted by Shehu Usman Dan Fodio in the early 19th century in Hausaland resulted in the establishment of Sokoto Caliphate. The Sokoto triumvirate, as they came to be called, was not only imbued with the vision of the society they wanted to establish, but also had the patience and perseverance to struggle for the realization of many aspects of this vision (Hamid B., 2011). The success of the Jihad and the establishment of the Sokoto Caliphate had a profound influence on the entire continent. In fact, much of Usman Dan Fodio’s criticism of the rulers in the Hausaland stemmed from the fact that the patronage of Muslim scholars did not necessarily indicate an acceptance of the restrictions and demands which an orthodox Muslim ruler should place upon the polity and society. However, the Jihad resulted in a federal theocratic state, with extensive autonomy for emirates, recognizing the spiritual authority of the caliph or the sultan of Sokoto. Therefore, the state developed as a state concerned primarily with military and economic expansion with organized Islamic rule of law. The contribution of people towards the success of Jihad cannot be over emphasized, particularly his close associates were his younger brother, Abdullahi, and his son, Muhammad Bello were both actively involved in the Jihad that brought about the Caliphate (Sharif M., 2008).

From 1808 until the mid-1830s, the Sokoto Caliphate expanded gradually annexing the plains to the West and key parts of Yorubaland. It became one of the largest empires in Africa stretching from modern day Burkina Faso to Cameroon including most of Northern Nigeria. At its height, the Sokoto Caliphate included over thirty different emirates under its political structure (Falola T. H., 2009).

Before Shehu died in 1817, the philosophy as well as the structure of the Islamic order the movement fought to establish was already laid down. The task of putting in the details and developing the institutions naturally fell on Muhammad Bello, a scholar of high standing, on whom the leadership of the Caliphate fell after the Shehu. It was under him (Bello) therefore, that the frontiers of the state got pushed further south incorporating more policies, which naturally led to the development of more complex government apparatus and a “permanent organized and professionalized military forces”. The political structure, according to Bugaje U. (1981), was organized with the Sultan ruling from Sokoto, and the leader of each emirate was appointed by the Sultan as the flag bearer of that city but was given wide independence and autonomy.

After 1811C.E, Usman retired and left the administration of the empire in the hands of both Abdullahi and Bello and devoted himself to scholarship. Upon his death in 1817C.E, his son, Muhammed Bello, succeeded him as Amīr al-Muminīn (Leader of the Faithful) and became the Sultan of the Sokoto Caliphate which was the biggest state south of the Sahara at that time. Usman’s brother Abdullahi was given the title of Emir of Gwandu and he was placed in charge of the Western Emirates, Nupe and Ilorin. The Sokoto caliphate became one of the largest and most powerful empires in sub-Saharan Africa before the arrival of the colonial masters (Sharif M., 2008).

Sokoto Caliphate produced scholars of high calibre and contributed immensely to the pool of knowledge. The founder of the Caliphate Shehu Usman Dan Fodio, his brother Abdullahi and his son Muhammed Bello authored over three hundred and fifty works. Many of these works are still buried in various archival collections scattered in different parts of the world. The few works that have been published are yet to receive wide circulation. Consequently, the seminal ideas of these distinguished leaders and scholars are not easily accessible to

By the end of 1890s the empire began to disintegrate as a result of internal rivalry, an opportunity seized by the European colonial armies to encroach on the periphery of the empire. By 1903 the Sokoto Caliphate fell to the French and British colonial armies. During this period, the British, which controlled over eighty per cent of the empire, allowed the Sultan to remain as a ceremonial ruler.

8. Conclusion

The Jihad movement orchestrated and led by Shehu Usman Dan Fodio is one of the most influential Jihad movements in Sub-Saharan Africa. His Jihad resulted in the re-invention and establishment of one of largest and most powerful empires in Africa. The reform movement of this great Mujaddid can be classified into four main phases: the phase of public daʿwah and preaching (1774–1793), the phase of planning and organization of the movement (1793–1804), the phase of Hijrā, Jihad and victory (1804–1810) and the phase of consolidation and the establishment of the Islamic order (1810–1817). The empire left a heritage of intellectual and scholarly activities that are yet to be uncovered by the researchers and general public.

References