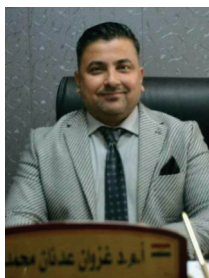


The aim of this study is to check EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum and its effect on their students' performance in English. As a specialist or a foreign specialist in the field of teaching English a foreign language, the researcher will appreciate if you could advise him on the suitability of the items of the two questionnaires and test as tools to achieve the above aim. Needless to say that all your comments including any suggested modification of the items will be greatly regarded and highly appreciated.

Application of Hidden Curriculum



Ghazwan Adnan Mohammed is an assist. Prof. Dr. and researcher from Iraq, he is interested in Curriculum Design which involves planning activities, readings, lessons, and assessments designed to achieve educational goals as well as Learning and Teaching English as a foreign language in order to help educators, teachers and learners.

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**Awareness and Application of Hidden
Curriculum of Iraqi EFL University
Teachers and Its Effect on Their
Students' Performance**

By

Ghazwan Adnan Muhammed

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DEDICATION

I dedicated this fruit of my Thoughts and study to:

My Late Father; His words of inspiration and encouragement in pursuit of excellence, still linger on.

My Great Affectionate Mother; Whose prayers and love took me to zenith of glory and transform my dreams into reality.

My Brothers and Sisters; Who have always encouraged and supported me for further study.

The Researcher

This Book

The researcher intends to conduct a study entitled “The Awareness and Application of Hidden Curriculum of Iraqi EFL University Teachers and its Effect on their Students’ Performance”. The aim of this study is to check EFL university teachers’ awareness and application of hidden curriculum and its effect on their students’ performance in English. As a specialist or a foreign specialist in the field of teaching English a foreign language, the researcher will appreciate if you could advise him on the suitability of the items of the two questionnaires and test as tools to achieve the above aim. Needless to say that all your comments including any suggested modification of the items will be greatly regarded and highly

●appreciated. Thank you in advance for your kind assistance and cooperation

Teachers devote most of their attention to teaching students the subject in the classroom . And little do they realize beyond learning content of trends, beliefs, and values ...Sometimes these things change in unexpected and unintended ways. When it is not taught explicitly or openly, but students learn it anyway, it is part of the "hidden curriculum". Because the explicit or explicit curriculum tends to focus on the content, and the hidden curriculum that affects students ' beliefs, ethics,

values, norms, behavior, the nature of interaction between the teacher and students and the nature of learning .That the word "cryptic" means deliberately hiding some learning experience from learners. Because it is an unwritten or officially recognized curriculum, and its obvious impact on learning can manifest itself in the attitudes and behavior of learners, both during their studies and after their completion . And that what students get from the hidden curriculum usually remains in memory longer than the information learned in the educational institution.

This study was conducted on teachers of Iraqi universities who speak English as a foreign language, to determine their awareness and apply their performance of this curriculum and its impact on the performance of their students. Therefore, the study aimed to :

- 1-assessment of the perception of the hidden curriculum and its application among university teachers who speak English as a foreign language .
- 2-comparing the perception of the hidden curriculum and its application among university teachers who speak English as a foreign language according to their faculties .
- 3-Comparison of the perception of the hidden curriculum and its application among university teachers of English speakers of a foreign language according to their fields of specialization (methods of teaching English as a foreign language, literature, linguistics) .
- 4-Comparison of the perception of the hidden curriculum and its application among university teachers of English speakers of a foreign language according to years of experience .
- 5-comparing the perception of the hidden curriculum and its application among university teachers who speak English as a foreign language according to their gender (male and female) .

6-evaluating the impact of the hidden curriculum on university students studying English as a foreign language in the English language .

In order to achieve the above objectives, six hypotheses have been developed, as follows :

1-Iraqi university teachers who are English speakers of a foreign language do not have the understanding and application of the manual curriculum .

2-there are no significant differences in the perception and application of Iraqi university teachers of English speakers of a foreign language for the hidden curriculum according to their faculties .

3-there are no significant differences in the perception and application of Iraqi university teachers of English speakers of a foreign language for the hidden curriculum according to their fields of specialization (methods of teaching English as a foreign language, literature, linguistics) .

4-there are no significant differences in the perception and application of Iraqi university teachers of English speakers of a foreign language for the hidden curriculum according to years of experience.

5-there are no significant differences in the perception and application of Iraqi university teachers of English speakers of a foreign language for the hidden curriculum according to gender (male and female).

6-there is no impact of the hidden curriculum on the performance of Iraqi university students studying English as a foreign language in English.

Two random samples were selected from the English language departments, for morning Studies, in three faculties, namely: Faculty of Education / Ibn Rushd, University of Baghdad, Faculty of education for girls, University of Baghdad, Faculty of education for Humanities, University of Diyala, for the academic year 2010-2011. 21 Iraqi faculty members and 147 male and female students were

selected as a sample, and both samples were selected randomly. To achieve the research objectives, three tools were designed ; questionnaire (72 paragraphs) to measure the perception of Iraqi university teachers English speakers foreign language of the hidden curriculum, observation (87 paragraphs) to measure the application of Iraqi university teachers English speakers foreign language of the hidden curriculum, and an essay-written test (3 articles) to find out the impact of the hidden curriculum on university students studying English foreign language in English. The authenticity and stability of the tools have been verified . The data were collected and analysed using appropriate statistical methods.The results revealed the following:

1-Iraqi university teachers who are English speakers of a foreign language do not have an understanding of the modern curriculum .

2-Iraqi university teachers who are English speakers of a foreign language in the field of literature have a better understanding of the curriculum than specialists in the methods of teaching English as a foreign language and Linguistics .

3-Iraqi university teachers who are English speakers of a foreign language who have experience ranging from (1-10) have a better understanding of the hidden curriculum than those who have experience ranging from (10-20).

4-Iraqi female university teachers who speak English as a foreign language have a better understanding of the hidden curriculum than males..

5-Iraqi university teachers who are English speakers of a foreign language do not have an application for the hidden curriculum . This may be due to many factors which are; ideology of society, education system, classroom organization, expectations of teachers, outdated curriculum, purposeful cultural disparity, affective learning outcomes. Thus, the planning and implementation of the hidden curriculum by professors within universities does not serve to prepare competent Iraqi learners and users of the English language, nor does it seem to have absorbed a strong role in the English language as an essential tool that serves multiple purposes and facilitates for educated Iraqis to activate their role as citizens in society.

6-students of Iraqi universities studying English as a foreign language were not affected by the concept of the hidden curriculum in the English language . This leads to learners having difficulty with the rules that often shape their curriculum - in other words, the curriculum imposed on the learner, examples of which are rampant discrimination by gender, race or social class, followed by interpersonal conflicts and differences in abilities and skills.

7-despite the fact that the official curriculum includes three behavioral goals, namely: Cognitive, Affective, and psychomotor, however, the teachers of Iraqi universities who speak English as a foreign language are interested in implementing and achieving cognitive goals that are based on knowledge, and the facts are always announced at the expense of the emotional side that seems implicit and difficult to recognize by others, in addition to psychomotor goals that are related to each in one way or another within the concept of the hidden curriculum.

8-the adoption of outdated curricula, therefore, the majority of Iraqi university professors who speak English as a foreign language are still on the traditional approach that relies on the style of lecturing, and this may oblige teachers to unlimited coverage of academic and cognitive subjects in a short-term period through discussion and debate.

In the light of the results obtained, many educational applications and relevant recommendations were put forward that concern the designers of methodological books, teachers, and learners, too. Proposals have also been made for future studies to enrich this area of research.

Ghazwan Adnan Muhammed

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 The Problem and the Significance of the Study

Regarding globalization, it is necessary to learn English as a Foreign Language (henceforth EFL). When learners first learn EFL, their reactions to the encounter are various, mainly because it is more or less unlike their native languages. The EFL curriculum often has different structures, rules, systems, instruction, culture, etc.

The term curriculum has many different definitions. To DeMarrais and LeCompte (1999: 223), “the term curriculum refers to the total school experience provided to students, whether planned or unplanned by educators.” This unplanned curriculum is often called the hidden curriculum and can be as impactful, if not more impactful, to students than the planned curriculum. This type of hidden curriculum has to do with how particular assumptions about schooling and learning manifest in practice, for example,

the value of particular topics that is communicated implicitly. Such values can be communicated by time spent, by tone of voice, or by how the topic is treated (e.g., trivialized or marginalized).

There are many definitions and types of curriculum; however, the hidden curriculum is one of the most important types but it receives very little attention. Hidden curriculum is a broad category that includes all of the unrecognized and sometimes unintended knowledge, values, and beliefs that are part of the learning process in schools and classrooms.

Examples of the hidden curriculum might include the messages and lessons derived from the mere organization of schools -- the emphasis on: sequential room arrangements; the cellular, timed segments of formal instruction; an annual schedule that is still arranged to accommodate an agrarian age; disciplined messages where concentration equates to learner behaviors where they are sitting up straight and are continually quiet; learners getting in and standing in line silently; students quietly raising their hands to be called on; the endless competition for grades, and so on. The hidden curriculum may include both positive or negative messages, depending on the models provided and the perspectives of the learner or the observer. Also, the messages of hidden curriculum may support or contradict each other as well as the written curriculum. (Horn, 2003: 298).

Hidden curriculum or the “unintended” curriculum as defined by Moore (2007:19) refers to the learning which goes on in covert ways beneath the surface of what teachers set out to teach . It encompasses the shaping of learners’ perception about learning ,their own role in it , their teachers, the

nature of the subject they are studying , and their attitudes towards all of these. As the name suggests , it is the kind of curriculum which is based on un tangible syllabus because of the fact that, it is a kind of accumulative process companies the students stemming from the family where the parents instill the morality of good conduct related to ethics, values, and norms related to that society.

Many teachers feel that things like morals, manners, and discipline should be left to parenting and educational institutions (i.e. university) should focus on educational content. The matter that some teachers used to develop certain moralities in their student's behaviour based on the fact that to make students aware of moralities (values, ethics, and norms) is one of the essential duties of the teacher, while some other teachers conversely think that it is the family's duty to develop such moralities and it has nothing to do with teacher's duties.

Yet classroom observations often indicate that perhaps parents are not adequately socializing their adolescents and are instead transferring a lot of blame or responsibility to the educational institutions. Nevertheless, one cannot deny the impact of society in such a kind of endeavour in the context that the surrounding environment may highly effect such kind of a process. For instance, the economic situation in Iraq through blockade years badly affected both the teacher and the students due to the economic deficiency that most of Iraqi society have suffered from . Moreover, the affective factor represented in own individuals tacit and tendencies as being strict , reserved, extrovert, introvert , etc. Furthermore, education has also shared this

suffering through severe lacking of technical knowledge and training which both have resulted in an "outdated curriculum" during the latter years.

The hidden curriculum at university level aims at cultivating in the students a certain set of skills that will assist them in succeeding in their academic and occupational endeavors. Tanner and Tanner (1995:35) state that students can maximize the benefits of the hidden curriculum by enrolling in other courses that will further develop these skills and by engaging in activities that will give them an opportunity to apply and master these skills. There are numerous opportunities for students to develop these skills. Students can become a research apprentice, instructor's assistant, enroll in an honor's independent project and join organizations . Participating in these types of activities will strengthen important skills such as team work, problem solving, and effective oral and written communication.

Until now, much less attention has been paid to hidden curriculum in the realm of higher education. As a result, only limited empirical evidence exists that looks at aspects of hidden curricula, their various forms, understandings, and applications in colleges and universities. Therefore, it is believed that it is worthwhile to explore the concept of hidden curricula to ascertain the relevance of a phenomenon as an ongoing pedagogical process that pervades all levels of education. The present study is designed to clarify the ways by which hidden curricula are perceived and conceptualized by EFL Iraqi university teachers as members of the international academic community.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge this topic has not be investigated before, thus, the need arises to carry out a study of this problem to arrive at conclusions and suggestions for this problem.

1.2 Aims

The study aims at:

1. Assessing EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum,
2. comparing EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum according to their colleges, fields of specialization (ELT, Literature, and Linguistics) , years of experience , and gender (Male & Female),
3. assessing the hidden curriculum effect on EFL university students' performance in English by exposing them to essay written test.

1.3 Hypotheses

It is hypothesized that:

1. Iraqi EFL university teachers' have no awareness and application of hidden curriculum.
2. There are no statistically significant differences among Iraqi EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum according to their colleges, fields of specialization (ELT , Literature, and Linguistics), years of experience, and gender (Male & Female).

3. There is no effect of hidden curriculum on EFL university students' performance in English.

1.4 Limits of the study

The present study is limited to:

1. Three colleges of Education ;
 - a) College of Education / Ibn Rushd, University of Baghdad,
 - b) College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad,
 - c) College of Education for Human Sciences, University of Diyala.
2. the academic year 2010 – 2011.
3. the teachers will be assessed according to their awareness and application.

1.5 Value

This study is hoped to be beneficial for:

- 1- EFL university teachers for further understanding of the impact of such curriculum on educational process.
- 2- EFL university students in directing them to be influential subjects in a society and developing more socialization habit in them in a way for better perception of such curriculum.
- 3- Educators, administrators, and for both pre and in-service teachers to gain more insight of such curriculum in university environment

through an exploration of the symbolic nature of the hidden or implicit curriculum.

- 4- Curriculum designers and planners responsible for reviewing the available textbooks in order to add new syllabuses which deal with humanistic education and culture and apply new strategies, techniques and procedures in respect of teaching hidden curriculum.

1.6 Procedures

To fulfill the aims of the study, the following procedures are adopted.

- 1- selecting a sample from different colleges of education belonging to EFL Iraqi university teachers', for the academic year (2010-2011).
- 2- constructing a questionnaire which assesses the awareness of EFL Iraqi university teachers and applying it to the selected sample.
- 3- constructing a checklist which assesses the hidden curriculum application by EFL Iraqi university teachers.
- 4- constructing a written test in English to find the effect of applying hidden curriculum on EFL Iraqi students level in English.
- 5- analyzing the collected data by using appropriate statistical methods, and finally.
- 6- Stating general discussion of results and pedagogical implications, drawing conclusions, recommendations and

proposing several suggestions for future studies in this field of investigation.

1.7 Plan

The present study includes four chapters followed by a bibliography and several appendices.

Chapter one deals with statement and significance of the problem outlining the aims, hypotheses, limits, value, procedures, plan, and the definition of basic terms.

Chapter two is the theoretical background of hidden curriculum and some related previous studies that have investigated hidden curriculum.

Chapter three is the methodology and procedures of the study including the selection of population and sample, construction, and administration of the three instruments , namely; a questionnaire , a checklist, and an essay written test.

Chapter four deals with computation of results, data analysis, discussion results and pedagogical implications, stating suitable conclusions, recommendations, and drawing suggestions for further research.

1.8 Definition of Basic Terms:

1.8.1 Awareness :

Johnson (2001:243) defines awareness as the deliberate attempt to draw the teacher or learner attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language .

“Awareness is the state or ability to perceive, to feel, or to be conscious of events, objects or sensory patterns.”

Operational Definition

EFL university teachers' conscious recognition and interpretation of sensory stimuli that serves as a basis for understanding, learning, and knowing or for motivating a particular action or reaction toward particular activity, topic, or concept.

1.8.2 Application:

“It is cognitive learning that entails the use of rules or process in a new and concrete situation .” (Moore ,2007:351).

To Bloom (1956:4) application refers to the ability to use learned material in new and concrete situations. This may include the application of such things as rules, methods, concepts, principles, laws, and theories. Learning outcomes in this area require a higher level of understanding than those under comprehension.

Operational Definition

Application is using the concept of hidden curriculum and applying its principles inside the classroom or into a novel situation .

1.8.3 Hidden Curriculum :

Moore (2007:19) defines hidden curriculum or the “unintended” curriculum as the learning which goes on in covert ways beneath the surface of what teachers sets out to teach . It encompasses the shaping of learners' perception about learning ,their own role in it , their teachers, the nature of the subject they are studying , and their attitudes, values, ethics, and norms towards all of these .

According to Urevbu (1985:3) , the hidden curriculum is described as the nonacademic but educationally significant component of schooling.

While, Bieber (1994:13) states that hidden curriculum is a concept used to describe the unwritten social rules and expectations of behavior that one's all seem to know, but are never taught .

Operational Definition

Hidden curriculum is a type of curriculum that deals with various characteristics of university, it encompasses social skills such as interactions with peer and teachers and fundamental values, ethic, and norms of a university and community.

1.8.4 Performance

It is how a person uses his knowledge in producing and understanding sentences. (Richards & Schmidt, 2002:392).

While , Medley (1978:38) defines it as the development and implementation of the professional knowledge, skills and abilities that one posses.

Whereas Good (1973:414) states that performance is the actual accomplishment as distinguished from potential ability.

Operational Definition

It is the process of constructing sentences in an argumentative contexts.

Chapter Two

The Orientation of Hidden Curriculum:

Literature Review and Related Previous Studies

2.1 An Introductory Note

For many years now, a curriculum has been the subject of many scholars, educationalists, and theorists' attentions, remarkably, the intent of this introductory chapter is to provide curriculum leaders with a general overview of the curriculum field and a set of concepts for analyzing the field. To accomplish these related goals, the discussion that follows focuses on these outcomes: defining the concept of curriculum, examining the several types of curricula, and analyzing the hidden curriculum. Ultimately, related previous studies that stimulate the hidden curriculum are concerned.

2.2 The Concept of Curriculum

In all human societies, children are driven into particular modes of making sense of their experiences and the world about them, and also into a set of norms, knowledge, and skills which the society requires for its continuance. In most societies most of the time, "curriculum" is not questioned; frequently it is enshrined in myths, rituals, and immemorial practices, which have absolute authority.

Yet, one symptom—or perhaps condition—of pluralism is still the conflict and argument about what the curriculum should contain. Today; however, the conflicts and arguments are even more profound and undermine rational discussion of what the curriculum should embrace. Much discussion

in the professional field of curriculum, at present, focuses on the basic question of what curriculum is, and this suggests severe disorientation.

Typically, formal education is widely perceived as an important social institution, and it serves various purposes as achieving greater social equality, wealth, and status for everyone. In this context, it is highly imperative that the educational curriculum be paid highest attention, as it is the curriculum which shapes the way education received by learners. Thus, an ideal curriculum be such that accounts for the needs of the learners, sets out the knowledge, understandings, skills, values, and attitudes that learners are expected to acquire. Actually, the curriculum is related to the connections between the goals of education and everyday life in learning institution, schools, colleges, and universities.

The current trend in itemization of the curriculum is the syllabus that is transmitted to learners during the course of learning. Educators consider curriculum as a creation molded for the didactic process. Commonly, curricula experts labor to identify how educators should perform in a classroom or learning setting. These experts incessantly strive to describe and illustrate context that must be transmitted to learners by designing curricula that facilitate educators and educational institutions in achieving their targeted goals. Societal concerns and issues that are impacted by the learners' educational process are also of significance to curricula professionals.

Consequently, reaching a final definition for the “word curriculum” is not an easy task, hence , curriculum has numerous definitions which can be slightly confusing. Definitions of the word curriculum do not

solve curriculum problems: but they do suggest perspectives according to their point of view (Stenhouse, 1975:1).

It is important to keep in mind that schools in Western civilization have been heavily influenced since the fourth century BC by the philosophies of Plato and Aristotle and that the word curriculum has been used historically to describe the subjects taught during the classical period of Greek civilization. The interpretation of the word curriculum broadened in the twentieth century to include subjects other than the classics. Today, school documents, newspaper articles, committee reports and many academic textbooks refer to any and all subjects offered or prescribed as ‘the curriculum of the school’.

Many writers advocate their own preferred definition of curriculum, which emphasizes other meanings or connotations, particularly those the term has taken on recently. According to Portelli (1987:354-367), more than 120 definitions of the term appear in the professional literature devoted to curriculum, presumably because authors are concerned about either delimiting what the term means or establishing new meanings that have become associated with it.

Hlebowitsh (1993:2) criticizes commentators in the curriculum field who focus ‘only on certain facets of early curriculum thought while ignoring others’.

Yet, Marsh and Willis (2003: 227) offer some help here when they point out that if one wants to find a sound and practical definition of curriculum, three points should be considered:

- The subject matter being taught
- The nature of society
- The nature of the individual

Therefore, in order to complete an accurate and in-depth study of the history of curriculum, educators must look at these aspects and analyze how they have changed and evolved over the course of time.

Also, Oliva (1997:2) points out that definitions of curriculum can be conceived in narrow or broad ways. He suggests that differences in the substance of definitions of curriculum are largely due to whether the emphasis is upon:

- purposes of goals of the curriculum (for example a curriculum is to develop reflective thinking).
- contexts within which the curriculum is found (for example a curriculum is to develop the individual learner in all aspects of growth); or strategies used throughout the curriculum (for example a curriculum is to develop problem solving processes).

As for Coleman and Cross (2001:21) and Smith (2008, 3-7), most of the definitions are based on the Latin word '*race course*'. It is an old concept of curriculum considered as merely syllabus or an outline of courses of the study. Academically, it means 'work field of the study' or race course of the learners. It consists of two words- '*race*' and '*course*'. Where '*course*' means curriculum and '*race*' refers to the learners' experiences and activities, by which a teacher performs his teaching activities in view of curriculum.

Furthermore, it also means "*a racing chariot*"; it comes through the Old French verb, *currere*, meaning "to run." Related terms include *current*, *currency*, and *courier*. Hence, it refers to the oval track upon which Roman chariots raced or much like the race track in a modern stadium. Then, it is translated into English, curriculum means, roughly, as in a "*running a course, race, or career*" a course of study or syllabus. The word curriculum is a metaphor that takes figurative meaning from literal meaning. Thus a running course becomes a course of study. In fact, for many learners, it seems that school is a race to be run or a series of obstacles to be overcome or hurdles (subjects) to be passed.

Thus, it is worth mentioning that the word "curriculum" first appears in Webster's Dictionary and it concisely defines curriculum as, "a course of study offered by a school" ([Webster's II New Riverside Dictionary](#), 1984: 176).

The New Webster's Dictionary sees curriculum as the whole body of a course in an educational institution or by a department. While Simpson and Weiner (1989:570) define curriculum as courses taught in schools or universities. Curriculum means different things to different people. Most people, including educators equate curriculum with the syllabus while a few regard curriculum as all the teaching-learning experiences that a learner encounters while in school.

Within the curriculum concept framework, and since the early 20th century when John Franklin Bobbitt dubs the Father of Curriculum has written his book "The Curriculum" in 1918, various theoreticians and practitioners have proposed definitions of curriculum.

Eminently, curriculum definition is mentioned and published by an American educationist Bobbitt through writing his first essay in explaining the meaning of curriculum entitled “The Curriculum: a summary of the development concerning the theory of the curriculum”. Bobbitt (1918: 24), states that the word curriculum comes from a Latin word meaning “*race-course*”. This Latin word is a mixture of two words which are “*curricula*” and “*um*”. Um is used for place and curricula means “race”.

In the 1970s Pinar (1974:359) produces a different term, ‘*currere*’– the Latin infinitive of curriculum, because he wants to highlight the running (or lived experience). He has subsequently elaborated on this term (Pinar *et al.*, 1995:867; Pinar, 2004) and has emphasized its value in self-study via an autobiographical method. The task of defining the concept of curriculum is perhaps the most difficult of all for the term curriculum has been used with quite different meanings ever since the field took form.

Curriculum is also defined by Ellis (2004: 4-5) as **prescriptive**, **descriptive**, or both, and it is based on a more general syllabus which merely specifies what topics must be understood and to what level to achieve a particular grade or standard. In its broadest sense, a curriculum may refer to all courses offered at a school. This is particularly true of schools at the university level, where the diversity of a curriculum might be an attractive point to a potential learner.

Curriculum definitions provide with what “ought” to happen, and they more often than not take the form of a plan, an intended program, or some kind of expert opinion about what needs to take place in the course of study. In that sense, they have a future orientation, a sense of things to come.

Whereas descriptive curriculum is experience. The experienced curriculum provides “glimpses” of the curriculum in action (Ibid., 2004: 4).

Due to the purpose of the present study, some authorities have viewed the term curriculum in terms of how curriculum transmits culture of learning from one generation to another. This term has been tagged with the term “Hidden curriculum” as it is shown in Table 2.1

• **Table 2.1 Cultural Definitions of Curriculum**

Date	Author	Definitions
(1971:5)	Bell	Curriculum is the offering of socially valued knowledge, skills, and attitudes made available to learners through a variety of arrangements during the time they are at school, college, or university.
(1977:6)	Oliver	Curriculum is “the educational program of the school” and divided into four basic elements: 1) program of studies, 2) program of experiences, 3) program of service, 4) hidden curriculum.
(1985,13)	Wiles & Bondi	Curriculum is a goal or set of values, which are activated through a development process culminating in classroom experiences for learners. The degree to which those experiences are a true representation of the envisioned goal or goals is a direct function of the effectiveness of the curriculum development efforts.
(1990,3)	Miller & Wayne	Curriculum is an explicitly and implicitly intentional set of interactions designed to facilitate learning and development and to impose meaning on experience.
(1990,4)	Walker	A curriculum consists of those matter: A. that teachers and learners attend to together, B. that learners, teachers, and others concerned generally recognize as important to study and

		learn, as indicated particularly by using them as a basis for judging the success of both school and scholar, C. the manner in which these matters are organized in relationship to one another, in relationship to the other elements in the immediate educational situation and in time and space.
(1990,721-726)	Wilson	Curriculum is anything and everything that teaches a lesson, planned or otherwise. Humans are born learning, thus the learned curriculum actually encompasses a combination of all of the below—the hidden, null, written, political and societal.
(1996:15)	Doll	Curriculum is the formal and informal content and process by which learners gain knowledge and understanding, develop skills, and alter attitudes, appreciations, and values under the auspices of that school."

Briefly, Doll (1992:4) points out that curriculum is:

- what is taught (what one learns: content).
- how is taught (how one learns: process).
- materials for teachers.
- material for learners.
- young children school experiences.
- all of a young child's experiences – in a school and out.
- a combination of any of the preceding items.

So, the following definition is considered by Doll (1992:6) to be a workable one : Curriculum is a formal and informal content (hidden) and process by which learners gain knowledge and understanding, develop skills, and alter attitudes, appreciations, and values – under auspices of that school.

Thereby , Doll's definition is perhaps the most useful to educators who wish to affect and improve learner learning (ibid.). Partially this is because it lacks the vagueness that many definitions have, and partially because curriculum, which can have outcomes that may be measured, allow to be acted upon and improved. Curriculum is, therefore, something which is related to the life and the needs of learners of different age levels. It includes both what should they learn and how should they learn it. It includes all experiences that the learners undergo the guidance of the school authorities. It is the result of the interaction among people.

So, one should be aware that if a curriculum is too narrowly defined there is tendency and likelihood to omit, ignore or miss relevant factors related to teaching and learning because they are not part of the written plan. On the other hand, if they are too broadly defined, it would be difficult to implement because it may be open to different interpretations. This will make the task of evaluating whether ones have succeeded in achieving the goals and objectives of the programme.

Thus, curricula are all of the above. They include what will be taught, why, and how, with the intended learning outcomes and how these will be measured. They are key tools for communication among faculty, between faculty and learners, and with various accrediting and regulatory bodies. Designing curricula is a core responsibility of faculty and an extremely powerful role as it can determine what learners will do and ultimately become.

Bringing all these points together, the curriculum is viewed as a composite whole including the learner, the teacher, teaching and learning methodologies, anticipated and unanticipated experiences, outputs and outcomes possible within a learning institution.

The concept of curriculum is as dynamic as the changes that occur in society. In its prescriptive (narrow sense), curriculum is viewed merely as a listing of subject to be taught in school. In a descriptive (broader sense), it refers to the total learning experiences of individuals not only in schools but in society as well. Finally, In culturally sense, it refers to the informal content and implicit set of interactions designed to facilitate learning process by which learners gain attitudes, norms, ethics , and values within outputs and outcomes possible at learning institutions.

In practice, though, a curriculum is more than even this; it is useful to think of it as being much wider. As a working definition of a curriculum, it is the sum of all the activities, experiences and learning opportunities for which an institution (such as the Society) or a teacher (such as a faculty member) takes responsibility – either deliberately or by default. This includes in such a broad concept of curriculum the formal and the informal, the overt and the covert, the recognized and the overlooked, the intentional and the unintentional, leading to make an overview on curriculum types.

2.3 Types of Curriculum

Curriculum gaps create a barrier for learner learning and have a detrimental effect on learners' opportunity to learn. Gaps are created by a

lack of communication among educators, varying implementation practices, available resources, and decisions about pacing. According to English (2000:1), "Curriculum design and delivery face one fundamental problem in schools. When the door is shut and nobody else is around, the classroom teacher can select and teach just about any curriculum he or she decides is appropriate"

Educators are curriculum developers, yet finding a common definition for the term curriculum can be a daunting challenge. In accordance with English (ibid:2), "curriculum is any document that exists in a school that defines the work of teachers by identifying the content to be taught and the methods to be used".

Teachers and administrators often focus on the Big Three Curricula, the Written, Taught and Tested curriculum . So , one of the tasks of curriculum leadership is to use the right methods to bring them into closer alignment, so that the learned curriculum is maximized (Glatthorn, 1987:3-4).

In this context , Goodlad (1979:15) is perhaps the first one who suggests several key distinctions. As he analyzes curricula, he determines that there are five different forms of curriculum planning. They are :

- 1- **The ideological curriculum** is the ideal curriculum as construed by scholars and teachers—a curriculum of ideas intended to reflect funded knowledge.
- 2- **The formal curriculum** is that officially approved by state and local school boards—the sanctioned curriculum that represents society's interests.

3- The perceived curriculum is the curriculum of the mind—what teachers, parents, and others think the curriculum to be.

4- The operational curriculum is the observed curriculum of what actually goes on hour after hour in the classroom.

5- The experiential curriculum is what the learners actually experience.

The brief descriptions below will introduce educators to types of curriculum which impact learner achievement. This short list can assist collaborative teams in identifying areas of strengths and weaknesses within a school as teachers and administrators continue to develop curriculum and assess learner understanding of key concepts and skills. A general awareness of each of the curriculum types listed below can assist teachers and administrators in increasing learner understanding and raising learner achievement. The types of curriculum are listed below alphabetically.

1- Aligned or Intentional Curriculum

Glatthorn (1987:4) states that one of the tasks of curriculum leadership is to use the right methods to bring the recommended ,written, the taught, the supported, and the tested curriculums into closer alignment, so that the learned curriculum is maximized. Five of these curricula are considered components of the intentional curriculum. As it is explained below:

- Recommended curriculum-proposed by scholars and professional organizations.

- Written curriculum-appears in school, district, division or country documents.
- Taught curriculum-what teachers implement or deliver in the classrooms and schools.
- Supported curriculum-resources textbook computers, audio visual materials which support and help in the implementation of the curriculum.
- Tested curriculum-that which is tested and evaluated.

The intentional curriculum is the set of learning that the school system consciously intends, in contradistinction to the hidden curriculum, which by and large is not a product of conscious intention. While, English (2000:104) identifies that teaching alone will not improve test scores. Teaching has to be aligned (on task) and purposive (cumulative).

2- Broad-Fields Curriculum

It is also called a *fused* curriculum, it retains emphasis on acquisition of knowledge but arranges content into more general fields of study (language arts instead of separate literature and grammar). The term, fused curricula, is used to ensure equality between the two subject areas. Other terms that aim to explain the fusion of two subject areas appear less than adequate (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998:264).

3- Concept – Based Curriculum

Teachers in thinking classrooms understand how to use concepts to integrate learner thinking at a deeper level of understanding – a level where knowledge can be transferred to other situations and times, furthermore, Concepts are timeless, universal, abstract and broad. The conceptual transfer of knowledge includes the application of concepts or universal generalizations across time, cultures or situations (Erickson, 2007: 22-129).

4- Concomitant Curriculum

The concomitant curriculum is the one that refers to what is taught, or emphasized at home, or those experiences that are part of a family's experiences, or related experiences sanctioned by the family. Concomitant curriculum may be received at sacred places, in the context of religious expression, lessons on values, ethics or morals, molded behaviors, or social experiences based on the family's preferences (Wilson, 2006:70).

5- Creative Curriculum

A creative curriculum is an inspirational and intentional one for both teachers and learners. It makes learning motivational and successful for all involved. Nolan (2010:1) asserts that creative curriculum is a set of skills such as; questioning, planning, problem solving, analytical reasoning, communication, etc.. which are subject based curricula and knowledge supported. It includes not only what to study but also how to study. Hence planning begins with an understanding of the key skills to be developed and the content is selected to support these.

6- Curriculum-in-Use

The formal curriculum (written or overt) comprises those things in textbooks, contents and concepts in the district curriculum guides. However, those "formal" elements are frequently not taught. The curriculum-in-use is the actual curriculum that is delivered and presented by each teacher (Marsh and Wills, 2003: 334).

7- Differentiated Curriculum

In differentiated classrooms, teachers provide specific ways for each individual to learn as deeply and quickly as possible, without assuming one learner's road map for learning is identical to anyone else's (Tomlinson, 1999: 2). In this sense, Tomlinson & McTighe (2003: 151) shed light upon instructions, they show that differentiated instruction occurs when a teacher proactively plans varied approaches to what learners need to learn, how they will learn it, and/or how they can express what they have learnt in order to increase the likelihood that each learner will learn as much as s/he can as efficiently as possible .

8- Electronic Curriculum (e – learning curriculum)

E- learning refers to those lessons learned through searching the Internet for information, or through using e-forms of communication. This type of curriculum may be either formal or informal, and inherent lessons may be overt or covert, good or bad, correct or incorrect depending on one's' views. Learners who use the Internet on a regular basis, both for recreational purposes (as in blogs, wikis, chat rooms, list serves, through instant messenger, on-line conversations, or through personal e-mails and sites like

Facebook, My Space, You tube). Much of this information may be factually correct, informative, or even entertaining or inspirational, but other information may be very incorrect, dated, passé, biased, perverse, or even manipulative.

The implications of the electronic curriculum for educational practices are that part of the overt curriculum needs to include lessons on how to be wise consumers of information, how to critically appraise the accuracy and correctness of e-information, as well as the reliability of electronic sources. Also, learners need to learn how to be artfully discerning about the usefulness and appropriateness of certain types of information. And, like other forms of social interaction, learners need to know that there are inherent lessons to be learnt about appropriate and acceptable "netiquette" and online behavior, to include the differences between "fair usage" and plagiarism (Wilson, 2004).

9- Emergent Curriculum

Generally speaking , children between the ages of one and five do not learn because they are taught. They learn as a result of their own doing...through actions, relationships, inquiries, opportunities, and repetition. This knowledge is the foundation of emergent curriculum. The teachers within this type of curriculum become research partners with children , seeking answers to questions, supporting investigation, and offering the material and tools to inspire each child. Therefore, Gandini (1993:4-8) emphasizes that the first and most important goal with emergent curriculum is to inspire delight, curiosity, and inquiry in the classroom. Doing so has

been proven to build intrinsic motivation (coming from within the child) and a long-term love of learning. These are the greatest gifts our teachers can give a child in preparation for their primary school experience.

10- Enacted or Actual Curriculum

The enacted curriculum refers to the actual curricula content that learners engage in the classroom. As such, the enacted curricula is arguably the single most important feature of any curriculum indicator systems (Porter & Simthson, 2001:2).

The enacted curriculum, i.e. the actual instruction delivered in the classroom, is ultimately controlled by the teacher, negotiated with a particular set of learners at a particular time. In designing the enacted curriculum, teachers make content decisions about how much time to spend, what topics to cover within what time, which learners are to study what content and to what standards of achievement. Collectively, these four teacher content decisions determine school provided opportunity to learn . As a result, there are substantial differences in the enacted curriculum provided by teachers teaching ostensibly the same course, even within the same school (Porter, 1994:421:449).

Enacted / actual curriculum also refers to both written and unwritten syllabuses from which learners encounter learning experiences (Tanner and Tanner, 1975:23). Learning experiences can be selected from other sources rather than the prescribed, official and formal syllabuses. The actual curriculum is the total sum of what learners learn and teachers teach from both formal and informal curricula.

11- Enriched Curriculum

The enriched curriculum is when teachers enhance the curriculum or develop opportunities for acceleration for learners who have mastered the written curriculum. Enriched curriculum involves providing multiple opportunities for learners to engage in key concepts and skills at their readiness level (Weber, 2009:4).

12- Extra- Mural Curriculum

Extra- Mural Curriculum usually consists of formally recognized and sanctioned activities outside the formal classroom setting. It is designed to extend, enrich, and/or supplement the explicit curriculum also toward the "whole" learner or enriching the affective component .Yet, those learning activities or experiences learners are exposed to by their teachers but which are not stipulated in the formal or official curriculum. Teachers deliberately plan and teach these experiences sometime assess their outcomes. Coaching and training in various aspects of school sports are some of the extra-curricular learning experiences available to learners (Urevb,1985: 5).

13- Formal or Explicit Curriculum

Formal or explicit curriculum is also known as the “official” curriculum. it consists of the experiences related to content, instructional

procedures, and materials for teaching specified subject areas and usually formally outlined by a designated government agency . According to Urevbu (1985:3), formal curriculum refers to: what is laid down as the syllabus or that which is to be learnt by learners. It is the officially selected body of knowledge which government, through the Ministry of Education or anybody offering education, wants learners to learn.

The University of Zimbabwe Distance Education Module (1995:17) refers to formal curriculum as all the work that teachers plan and use with learners. This curriculum meets specified objectives of educating identified groups of learners or learners in their varying settings. In other words, formal curriculum is the selected written programmes or courses learners go through.

14- Guaranteed and Viable Curriculum

Schmoker (2006:36) mentions that If teachers can lay out a sound – a viable – set of standards and can then guarantee (more or less) that these standards actually get taught, levels of achievement can be raised immensely. In his book “What Works in Schools”, Marzano (2003) shares research that affirms the fact that the number one factor that increases levels of learning is what gets taught. Marzano calls this a “guaranteed and viable curriculum.”

15- Hidden , Covert ,Unintended or Implicit Curriculum

This type of curriculum is implied by the very structure and nature of schools, much of what revolves around daily or established routines. Longstreet and Shane (1993:46) offer a commonly accepted definition for

this concept “. . . the "hidden curriculum," which refers to the kinds of learning children derive from the very nature and organizational design of the public school, as well as from the behaviors and attitudes of teachers and administrators....”

Whereas, Tanner and Tanner (1975:37) recommend that positive learning from the hidden curriculum should be acknowledged and treated as an integral part of the planned and guided learning experiences. As already implied, the hidden or collateral curriculum is often responsible for the values learners may exhibit later in life.

16- Informal Curriculum

It is also called curriculum in use. Teachers or instructors may not adhere to the presented formal curriculum but can include other aspects of knowledge derived from other sources. This additional material is called the ‘informal curriculum’. (Urevbu, 1985: 3)

17- Internal Curriculum

Educators should be aware of this curriculum, they have little control over the internal curriculum since it is unique to each learner. Thus processes, content, and knowledge combined with the experiences and realities of the learner to create new knowledge. (Wilson , 1990).

18- Learned Curriculum

The learned curriculum is what the learners actually learn from the taught curriculum. Common formative assessments assist educators in monitoring the written and taught curriculum while assessing learner understanding. "The gap between what is taught and what is learned—both intended and unintended—is large" (Cuban, 1992:216-47).

19- Null Curriculum

Null curriculum is also known as the "non-curriculum" or excluded curriculum , it is what has been left out, either intentionally or unintentionally, Eisner (1979:74-89) terms this the "null curriculum," since it is not readily apparent. it consists of the missing components of educational life; in other words, learners often learn as much from what is not taught as what is taught , therefore , it is not taught in schools, thus giving learners the message that these elements are not important in their educational experiences or in society.

In the same context, Eisner (1994:96-97) suggests that what curriculum designers and/or teachers choose to leave out of the curriculum—the null curriculum—sends a covert message about what is to be valued. The null and hidden curriculum, in a way or another, share the same message sent by educational institution.

20- Phantom Curriculum

Phantom curriculum refers to the media ideas and opinions. Thus, the messages prevalent in and through the exposure to any type of media play a major part in the enculturation of learners into the predominant meta-culture, or in acculturating learners into narrower or generational subcultures (Wilson,1990).

21- Purposeful Curriculum

Tomlinson & McTighe (2006:6) state that all learners benefit from and should receive instruction that reflects clarity about purposes and priorities of content, in this respect, Tyler (1949:1) shows that many educational programs do not have clearly defined purposes. Whereas Wiggins & McTighe (1998:9), they clarify that schooling at its best reflects a purposeful arrangement of parts and details, organized with deliberate intention, for achieving the kinds of learning ones seek.

22- Received Curriculum

Weber (2009) points out that the received curriculum is not always the intended or taught curriculum. Each learner brings their own background and prior knowledge to the classroom. Learner understanding is impacted by each learner's perception of the aligned, hidden, null, spiral, and tested curricula.

Understanding of the received curriculum is critically important as it guides the curriculum and instruction decisions made by teachers and administrators. Just because content was taught does not necessarily mean it was caught. In a Professional Learning Community educators meet on a regular basis to assess the received curriculum and to provide information on learner understanding to teachers and administrators at the next grade level. Those things that learners actually take out of classroom; those concepts and content that are truly learned and remembered.

23- Rhetorical Curriculum

Rhetorical curriculum elements are comprised from ideas offered by policymakers, school officials, administrators, or politicians. This

curriculum may also come from those professionals involved in concept formation and content changes; or from those educational initiatives resulting from decisions based on national and state reports, public speeches, or from texts critiquing outdated educational practices. The rhetorical curriculum may also come from the publicized works offering updates in pedagogical knowledge (Wilson,1990).

24- Rigorous Curriculum

Academic rigor is an essential characteristic of effective curriculum instruction and assessment. Learners learn when they are challenged to use the full range of their talents and intellectual abilities to address authentic and complex academic tasks in professional and real-life events. All learners should have the opportunity to participate in qualitatively different academic environments that build upon their interests, strengths and personal goals” (NCDPI). [See NCDPI’s Description for Rigor.](#)

25- Saber-Tooth Curriculum

The Saber-Tooth Curriculum is considered a classic view that illustrates how unexamined traditions of schooling can result in resisting needed change. Children are taught how to grab fish, club woolly horses, and scare saber tooth tigers. They needed these skills to sustain themselves—to get food and protect themselves from danger. In time, however, colder climatic conditions prevailed. The local waters grew muddier, making it impossible to see, let alone grab the fish, and the horses and tigers eventually died away. Yet the schools continued to teach fish grabbing, horse clubbing, and tiger scaring techniques, believing them to be fundamentals with inherent

character-building and mind-training value. Progressive stone-age educators would argue that new skills needed to be taught, including fishnet making and ways to deal with a new menace, the glacier bear.

Through the Saber-Tooth Curriculum, Benjamin(1939:24-44) shows how schools often conduct themselves in ways that are unresponsive to the emerging needs of the life experience. This curriculum is also a criticism of the mentalistic methods of teaching touted by traditional humanists in the liberal arts at the time.

26- Societal Curriculum

As defined by Cortes (1981:24), it is ...[the] massive, ongoing, informal curriculum of family, peer groups, neighborhoods, churches organizations, occupations, mass media and other socializing forces that "educate" all of us throughout our lives.

27- Spiral Curriculum

It is also called *structure of knowledge*. Bruner (1960:13) writes that a curriculum as it develops should revisit this basic ideas repeatedly, building upon them until the learner has grasped the full formal apparatus that go with them. Analyzing curriculum maps allows teachers and administrators to reflect upon the spiral curriculum. Another strategy for analyzing the spiral curriculum is called vertical alignment.

While , Sergiovanni (1990:27) shows that schools have multiple and often conflicting purposes that make exact alignment of structure and purpose difficult, if not impossible .

28- Taught Curriculum

The taught curriculum is what teachers actually teach in the classroom. Traditionally, the written curriculum (state and local documents) has not matched the taught curriculum among teachers within a school. So , Jacobs (1997:3) writes that if there are gaps among teachers within buildings, there are virtual Grand Canyons among buildings in a district .

29- Tested or Assessed Curriculum

The tested curriculum provides valuable feedback about each learner's understanding of essential content, concepts and skills. If the tested curriculum is not aligned with the written curriculum then teachers, learners and parents will have a difficult time assessing the learner understanding. The extent to which any test is useful in re-teaching any given curriculum is the extent to which that test does indeed measure the curriculum in the first place (English, 2000:65).

30- Timeless & Timely Curriculum

As curriculum developers, who are required to make ongoing decisions about curriculum. Jacobs (1997:4) says that "There is a need for both timeless curriculum content and timely content. What seems to be falling by the wayside is timely content. One has to make decisions about what s/he sheds , keeps—and some of what s/he is holding on to is

predicated on outdated ideas about the needs of others (learners)" (Perkins-Gough, 2003: 12-17).

31- Watered-Down Curriculum

The watered-down curriculum is offered to the learners who have demonstrated low growth or who do not understand the key concepts and skills identified in the unit (Weber,2009).

32- Written or Overt, Explicit Curriculum

The written curriculum specifies what is to be taught and is produced by the state, the school system, the school, and the classroom teacher. The written curriculum will have little impact on learner achievement unless it becomes the taught curriculum or more importantly a 'guaranteed and viable' curriculum, which is agreed upon by a team of teachers. Also, it is simply that which is written as part of formal instruction of schooling experiences. It may refer to a curriculum document, texts, films, and supportive teaching materials that are overtly chosen to support the intentional instructional agenda of a school. Thus, the overt curriculum is usually confined to those written understandings and directions formally designated and reviewed by administrators, curriculum directors and teachers, often collectively (Urevbu, 1985:5).

33- 21st Century Curriculum

The N.C. State Board of Education (2006) has charged that "all students will graduate from a rigorous, relevant academic program that equips them with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to succeed in both postsecondary education and 21st Century careers and to be participated ,

engaged citizens. Instruction and learning must include commitment to a knowledge core and the application of that knowledge core to solve complex, real-world problems. Schools must ensure rigor and relevance and guarantee supportive relationships for each student in the public school setting” (North Carolina School Board policy HSP-F-016).

Above all , many, if not most educators, teachers , and curriculum counsellor believe that education should support and promote the uniqueness of each individual learner and attempt to get to know any learner as an individual prior to selecting curriculum for them. Based on information collected from a learner’s previous school, pre-enrolment paperwork, conversation with learner's parents and the learner him/herself, and from the learner orientation workbook, a curriculum counsellor will evaluate a learner’s goals, interests, learning styles, strengths and weaknesses. Once needs are identified, the curriculum counsellor works with the learner and his/her parents, to co-operatively select courses that best align with identified curricular needs.

Generally speaking, curriculum are used from many sources, including courses located by the learners themselves, and are constantly locating resources and new courses that meet the needs of specific learner requests and educational requirements. Because each learner’s curriculum is set up for his or her individual needs, allowing work to be completed at various appropriate paces.

This allows learners succeed in English language in a shorter amount of time and will help them build the skills to bring, in other subjects, proficiency up without being pushed to complete it before advancing to a higher grade level in mastered subject areas. Learners are still required to acquire both the essential skills, knowledge, and attitudes of the subjects through implying the hidden curriculum which has a powerful influence on learners' perceptions. Every day learners are exposed to the hidden curriculum and internalize their messages. So , educators of the symbolic aspects of the school environment(i.e., its culture), as well as learners' and teachers' perceptions (i.e., school climate). Greater understanding of hidden curriculum will help them to achieve the goal of providing effective schools in the 21st century, thus, this is one reason that the hidden curriculum needs to be addressed.

2.4 An Introduction to Hidden Curriculum

Much of the recent discussion of language teacher education (LTE) has focused on inner "mental" process concerned with language teacher knowledge and learning . Freeman (2002:1-3) offers his thoughts on this area, saying that " it is necessary to address two sorts of contextual factors : first, social, political, and second , cultural factors which highlight the range of different jobs that LTE has to do in diverse world."

More recently, in many parts of the "developed world" LTE has become more problematic than any time, because a new political and managerial ideology of education overtakes it. In this sense, Mitchell

(2000:281-303) claims that in "developed" countries such as UK, USA, and Australia educational policy – making has become increasingly political ,with increasing state intervention in matter previously seen as professional , leading to the standardized delivery of teaching product and to prioritization of measurable , evidence – based outcomes over process.

Underlying this trend, there has been a feeling that not only teaching at school has failed , but as well as in universities to deliver a fully satisfactory product. Likewise, teacher education must shoulder much of failure blame (Davies & Elder, 1999 :649-650) .

Consequently, Crooks (1997a,1997b) believes that general working conditions of many second & foreign language teachers are unsatisfactory, since that the relationship between teaching , learning , culture and research is almost non-existent, where they often have far less autonomy than in other profession. This includes long classroom hours , shortage in classroom organization, limited time for reading , writing , or reflection, lack of preparation towards culture of learning, teaching ,and lack of funds for material and equipment (1997a:67).

Subsequently, these deficiencies exhaust teachers' energy and increase their dependence on experiential knowledge for day -to- day coping. Thus Crooks (1997b:109) concludes that "the work conditions of second & foreign language teachers and the conceptions of schools responsibilities in sustaining professional practice must be changed."

In this context , Schulz (2000:516-17) states that teaching is viewed in the early part of twentieth century as an art and teachers are born and not made . Today teaching is no longer viewed exclusively as an art on the basis of teachers lacked the creative elements in which it is still important . It is to be mentioned that importance also attaches to principles, processes , skills, behaviours, techniques, strategies, beliefs, ethics , norms and attitudes which have impact on teaching and learning and which can be empirically studied and taught.

Van Patten (1997:1-5) illustrates that it is not mentioned or documented how language teachers use class time , what types of arrangement they deliver to students or what is the culture of learning they provide to students , what the theoretical underpinnings of their profession and their decisions are . Thus it is not clear yet how language teaching and culture of learning are constructed.

According to Cortazzi & Jin (1996:169), the culturally influenced aspects of language classroom are seen as a " culture of learning" which maintains much of behaviour in language classroom. It is set within a taken-for-granted framework of expectation, attitudes, values, and beliefs about what constitutes good learning, how to teach or learn, how to ask questions, what textbooks are used for, and how language teaching relates to broader issues of the nature and purpose of education . In many classrooms both teachers and students are unaware of the fact that such a culture of learning may be influencing the process of teaching and learning . A Learning is a part of the hidden curriculum .

The discrepancy of teachers and students' views towards hidden curriculum is due to the fact that many experts frequently allocate more attention and concern to understanding, developing, and evaluating written or formal curriculum than to unwritten or hidden curriculum. Possibly, this is because it is easier to comprehend and interpret an explicit and written curriculum than implicit and more allusive. Some experts feel that a hidden curriculum conveys the same elemental quality that is attributed to a formal or written curriculum. Others, however, believe that a hidden curriculum is enormously important with a far greater impact on the student's educational process than that of formal curricula. Since the main concept of hidden curricula is "students learning that which is not included in formal curricula", this may, indeed, be accurate. The messages that are sent and received under the guise of hidden curriculum play a sizeable role in the educational learning process of every student, perhaps even a larger part than the formal curriculum itself (Tyler, 1949:43; Dreeben, 1968:111-124).

Years later, Galtthorn et al. (2006:232) agree with Tyler (1949); and Dreeben (1968) , that there are different types of curriculum, one of which is hidden curriculum.

Education professionals acknowledge that learning takes place in one of two ways: consciously or unconsciously (Dunnigan, 2006:70). The perceptions of formal and hidden curriculum apply to both ways of learning. Conscious learning, for example, includes such things as: (a) the physical location of the school itself including the distance between school and home; (b) the organization of the classroom, such as where the teacher stands, the

students' seating arrangements which are arranged in rows or in a circle), and the total number of students in each class; and (c) the physical presence of the teacher including personal appearance, stance, and verbiage used. Unconscious learning, on the other hand, includes such things as: (a) the teachers' backgrounds which influence their interoperations on the students' behaviors; (b) the way teachers have different expectations of pupils based on interpretations of behavior in class; and (c) the influence and interfacing of multicultural students in a single classroom.

Indeed, since education professionals have spent countless hours researching, reading articles, collecting data, and instituting and documenting studies, the theory of hidden curriculum is widespread. While many scholars may agree on its existence, they are often in conflict concerning its description and outlining characteristics. They also from varying perspectives, judge and reflect on the positive as well as the negative elements (Boutilier & SanGiovanni, 1983:86).

Many scholars hold oppositional viewpoints regarding not only the effects of hidden curricula on teachers' and students' but the rarity with which hidden curriculum is utilized. Chernin (1981:65-70) and Kollen (1981:86-93) look at the opposing effects of hidden curriculum on cultures, values, attitudes, and morals of teachers and students. Gordon (1982:187-198) states that the hidden curriculum is usually unexpected. Phillips (1980:274-280) expresses that although educators admitted the importance of this type of curriculum, it is scarcely seen and its implementation and application are rare. Eva (1988:223-230) states that the hidden curriculum is the curriculum

that consists of the behaviors and the values that are taught to students by teachers without planning (unintended).

Many (e.g. Vallance, 1973:5-21) believe that hidden curriculum came about as educational environments which became the center of socialization for students. So, there may be many insidious consequences and long lasting effects of an awareness of hidden curriculum. Bain (1985:145-153) asks just how much of a toll hidden curriculum can take on students in case of being not aware of it .

2.5 A Brief History of Hidden Curriculum

According to Vallance study (1973) , the organization and culture of schooling nowadays refers to a hidden curriculum, which is once explicit assertive socialization. She acknowledges the significance of the McGuffey Reader (first issued in 1841) in establishing social morals and values. The Reader is used to teach millions of children in the United States during the nineteenth century.

Apple and King (1983: 55) report that after the Civil War, schools were very much like factories. Students were given mostly factual information while they sit quietly and submissively in rows of hard and uncomfortable tables and chairs. Classroom interaction is strictly controlled and the McGuffey Reader is in widespread use specially for immigrants, who become new students in USA public schools, who are expected to fit in and adapt. For example, they should: learn and speak English; look at the teacher when spoken to; wait until the teacher is available or looking at them before

seeking permission to use the restroom, to speak, or ask a question; work hard; and not cause disturbances in the classroom.

Until the late 19th century, American classrooms were firmly entrenched in the unity of the two curricula, formal and unwritten or hidden. This arrangement has been in place since the colonial times. School environment is strictly governed by teachers and administrators who expects high levels of achievement in both academics and student behavior (Hirsch, 1987:43). While, Ryan (1987:22) describes how the use of the McGuffey reader, with its “explicit, written examples,” set the tone for morality in American schools. Those examples include modeling discipline; defining and establishing awards for good conduct; setting standards for punctuality, passivity, and respect for authority figures; and many characteristics relate to other social principles.

From the late 19th to mid-20th century, progressive educators, such as Harold Rugg, William Kilpatrick, and John Dewey, began to emerge in the United States, and brought about major education curriculum changes. Religious teachings and saying prayers are largely removed from public schools (Ryan, 1987:24). As schools start to evolve, teachers have begun to be uneasy in their role as a moral compass for students. With this thought in mind, educators looked to the school environment to provide the socializing agents for overall student development (Vallance, 1973:5-21).

2.6 Hidden Curriculum: Emergence

Apple (1979) and Margolis et al. (2001) assert that Jackson (1968) is generally acknowledged as the originator of the concept of hidden curriculum in his book "Life in Classrooms". While Bennett & Lecompet (1990:331) say that the first who used this term is Friedberg (1990) in the mid-sixties and the main objective behind the use of this term is to detect the hidden role which is played by the school in instilling values and behaviours among students in the classroom without planning in advance (Al-Musa , 2002 :78).

Hlebowitsh (1993) objects to the first person who coins the concept of hidden curriculum . He states that many scholars believe that the term "hidden curriculum" was first used by Friedenber in the 1960s. He adds that the main purpose of exploring the history of the term is to discover the importance of its role in the learning process. He says that this exploration into the definition of the term assists with the importance that is placed on the other aspects of the learning process such as, concerns regarding educational objectives, material content, and the traditional procedures of evaluation

Richard (1973:64-70) confirms that this concept is helpful to understand another part of the educational process in which there is a lack of focus and attention to behavioral goals , transfer content, and methods of traditional exams. Barrow (1976:21) identifies that this term begins from the time of Plato but it does not take the same label, yet the meaning is clear and understandable. Most educators' emphasis on studying this concept, planning and regarding it as an important element in the educational process began in the mid-seventies. Moreover , researchers almost agree that Snyder develops

the concept of hidden curriculum in (1971) and later on, the concept has been used by psychologists, educationalists , and sociologists to describe the non-formal education system. This concept also refers to the implicit requirements that reverse to explicit requirements of the visible curriculum which are existing in any educational institution, so, students must discover and interact with it in order to continue in this institution (Muhafiza, 1996:50-61).

In another sense , however , the idea of this curriculum is clearly shining in the field of education when Eisner (1979:105) discusses the vital role of school and he has sought to clarify the endemic question : are schools taught more or less than on what should be done ?, and the answer of this question is led the schools that prepare students to live in society.

Thus, the studies and researches start to reveal the essence of this curriculum and the nature of its forms and elements . Despite its short life span , the literature refers to a number of terms for this curriculum . Yet, the content and the basic idea are still the same, moreover, each term has proponents and advocates , so they turn around and insist on using it because they believe that the concept of this curriculum stems from the essential name (Protelli, 1993:443-458).

The direct understanding of the intended meaning of hidden curriculum as a term has been met with many explanations, interpretations, and an extensive controversy due to the proponents of philosophical and psychological theories which are adopted by this curriculum, as well as the researchers in this area, by depending on the school that belongs to each one .

The great deal of attention given in recent years to the hidden curriculum has done more to establish the legitimacy of the concept than to clarify its specific referents . Vallance (1972: 12) identifies that the concept is still moderate in a number of satellite labels that attach themselves to it , which include the following :-

Cover Curriculum; Hidden Agenda; Implicit Curriculum; Informal Curriculum; Invisible Curriculum; Latent Curriculum; Non- Academic Outcomes of Schooling; Non-Manifested Curriculum; Products of Schooling ;Secret Curriculum; Silent Curriculum; Tacit Curriculum; The Residue of Schooling; Unexpected Curriculum; Unintended Curriculum; Unnoted Curriculum; Unofficial Curriculum; Unstudied Curriculum; Unwritten Curriculum; and What Schooling does to People.

So, even if these terms, coin-words, and expressions are different in names ,but they still hold in their contents and meanings of the concept of hidden curriculum (Fla'atah, 2000:47), (Al-Musa, 2002:85).

Each label carries a set of connotations as to what the hidden curriculum is presumed to mean . Consequently, Giroux & Purpel (1983:10-11) suggest three dimensions along with these various labels :

1. Hidden curriculum can refer to any of the **contexts** of schooling, including the student-teacher interaction unit, classroom structure, the whole organizational pattern of the educational establishment as a microcosm of the social value system .

2. Hidden curriculum can bear on a number of **processes** operating in or through schools, including values acquisitions, socialization, maintenance of class structure .
3. Hidden curriculum can embrace **degrees of intentionality** and depth of hiddenness as perceived by the investigator, ranging from incidental and quite unintended by - products of curricula arrangement to outcomes more deeply embedded in the historical social function of education.

The concept of hidden curriculum used here is a composite of some of more salient perspectives on the topic. Dreeben (1967:211-237) focuses on "what is learnt in a school" as a function of the social structure of the classroom and the teacher's exercise of authority. While, Kohlberg (1970:74) identifies the hidden curriculum as it bears in moral education and the role of the teacher in transmitting moral standards. Whereas, Jackson(1968:5-10) distinguishes the "secondary consequences" of schooling, the broad range of the outcomes that the formal may hope to bring about, from the "primary consequences" the lasting impressions that students pick up from the school environment as though by osmosis. According to Giroux (1983:117-133) , hidden curriculum can be found yet remain hidden, through the relationship between students and teacher, the rules governing it, and the roles of these rules in " educating for docility". Social critics such as Goodman(1964:41), Friedenberg (1965:66-94), Reimer(1971:74) and Illich (1971:55) use a conception of a hidden curriculum in order to indentify and

account for the schools' reinforcement of the class structure and of certain social norms.

Hargreaves (1997:37) believes that many of these terms are inappropriate because this phenomenon has been received considerable attention in recent years to the extent that it is no longer called or considered as hidden or unstudied curriculum. Therefore, he proposes a new term which is called Parallel Curriculum; a curriculum that is learned and gained side by side with the official curriculum.

This concept refers, as it is stated by Ormell (1979:43) , to a set of things which can be classified under students' expectation and may be remembered through the experience that is gained from the teacher , along with the acquisition of certain patterns of behavior without reference to the teacher. The theorist Martin (1976:21) clarifies the concept of hidden curriculum as a set of learning states, ultimately one must find what is learned as a result of the practices, procedures, rules, relationships, structures, and physical characteristics which constitute a given setting. Therefore, a hidden curriculum cannot be found directly just for seeking, the researcher should examine it and search for reasons behind the events.

The Hidden curriculum is a broad category that includes all of the unrecognized and sometimes unintended knowledge, values, and beliefs that are part of the learning process in schools and classrooms (Horn, 2003: 298). It is also used to describe the often unarticulated and unacknowledged things that students are taught in school (Blackwell,2000: online) . It also refers to

the subtle or not-so subtle messages that are not part of the intended curriculum (Nieto, 2001: 28).

In education, the hidden curriculum refers to the way in which cultural values and attitudes (such as obedience to authority, punctuality, and delayed gratification) are transmitted through the structure of teaching and the organization of schools (A Dictionary of Sociology, 2005: online) . In the classroom, students are said to be rewarded not only for learning their subject curriculum but appearing to do so with enthusiasm, alertness, and deference to and respect for authority. In this way, education imparts not only formal knowledge but an understanding of how to act 'properly' in wider society (Crystal Reference Encyclopedia, 2001: online).

It might also be worth mentioning that many of the Arabic scholars have written worthwhile and significant amount of researches , studies, and great achievements in writing across curriculum especially in defining the concept of the hidden curriculum . Abdul Moujud, et al. (1981:65) state that the hidden curriculum involves the preparation for educational situations which must be chosen to meet each student's specific needs and situations, so as to ensure the process of initialization , selection , and student's attendance towards the situation in order to create the atmosphere which allows more effective interaction between the student and the situation. Eventually , the student acquires new things which are meaningful to him / her in the community.

To Hamdan (1987:86), hidden curriculum includes all the experiences, knowledge and activities which are carried out by students or

learnt outside of the official curriculum without the supervision of a teacher such as the tendency of teachers and their methods or styles , ways of interaction, positive and non-positive knowledge and experience . So altogether, they are transmitted by students through observation , influence , and imitation . Yousuf's opinion (1989:13) is that the hidden curriculum, like the explicit or overt curriculum , includes a set of elements which are represented by the goals, content, and educational activities as well as the means of evaluation and methods.

Shaukat & Abdul Sami'e (1992:22) define the concept of the hidden curriculum as the totality of the behavioral manifestations and positive / negative activities to encourage or fail student's learning in educational institution through the interaction with his peers and the various levels of leadership which can be achieved inside or outside the classroom without being directed or declared goals. Al-Muslim (1994) and Saleh (1996) share Shaukat's & Abdul Sami'e opinions' in expressing hidden curriculum . Al-Muslim (1994:4) states that hidden curriculum can be learned in school through unintended learning which does not even exist in the formal curriculum. To Saleh (1996:8) the hidden curriculum means the educational and instructional applications , situations , attitudes, and activities, that student is exposed to what goes on inside and outside the school in order to acquire a certain kind of accepted information or experience and behaviors within the community in indirect and unplanned ways . This process can be achieved by participating many educational institutions.

According to Muhafiza (1996: 32) , the concept of the hidden curriculum is explained as a set of values , social norms, ethics, religious, knowledge , and behavioral skills which are taught implicitly by teachers to their students. Whereas, Al-Musa (2002:7) defines the hidden curriculum as those values and orientations that symbolize the activities and practices, including some semblance of conduct which centers on students within the infrastructure of a school, but are not contained within the formal curriculum. Gaining these values and orientations is usually unconscious on the part of the student and their effects are not always readily observed. He states that the concept of the hidden curriculum embraces values, ethics , norms, knowledge, and thoughts. It also includes the discipline that students learn in school without any planning in advance by the authors , curriculum designers , stockholders , managers, or teachers. It is a result of mutual interaction among peers , school- discipline , different teaching methods used, and self- perception towards knowledge .

To Fla'atah (2000:4) , the concept of the hidden curriculum is defined as the experiences that are associated with the educational process which are often presented unintentionally. It can be a very important part in terms of educational process because it helps to develop cultural values , such as acquisition of religious values , moral , ethics , intellectual trends and standard behaviours .

Linguistically , despite the lack of agreement among educators on the identification of a common definition of the hidden curriculum but implicitly , there is an agreement on the definition of the hidden curriculum

idiomatically. Some educators define the hidden curriculum in terms of non-formal school outputs, or what students are taught unintentionally and unplanned. The proponents of this view are : Jackson (1968), Apple (1971), Ormel (1979), Martin (1983), Giroux (1983), and Al-Muslim (1994). Whereas, the other view is based upon the values, ethics, morals, social norms as the basis of this type of curriculum. Thus, the proponents of this view are : Dreeben (1968), Kohlberg (1970), Vallence (1983), Muhafiza (1996), and Fla'atah (2000). While, Hamdan (1987) and Yousuf (1989) define the hidden curriculum in a broad and comprehensive way through focusing attention on its content.

Although scholars may not coincide with certain definitions as well as various aspects of hidden curriculum, Portelli (1993:343-358) affirms that, for many scholars, there are four ways of defining hidden curriculum as :

1. the unofficial expectations, or implicit but expected messages,
2. unintended learning outcomes or messages,
3. implicit messages arising from the structure of schooling, and
4. created by the students.

Though, some scholars construct lists of topics in order to identify hidden curriculum, others look for opposites as related to formal curriculum. Sambell and McDowell (1998:391-403) define hidden curriculum as “an opposite metaphor to describe the shadowy, ill-defined, and amorphous nature of that which is implicit and embedded in contrast with the formal

statements about curricula and the surface features of educational interaction”

Eisner (1985:106) has backed up his earlier declarations regarding implicit curriculum (hidden curriculum) by stating that it is a means through which schools teach “pervasive and ubiquitous sets of expectations and rules that define schooling as a cultural system, which by itself, teaches valuable lessons”.

Nevertheless , the existence of hidden curriculum , is doubted or denied by few educators, for example, Lakomski, who initially rises a doubt towards the existence of this curriculum thinks that the belief in the existence of this type of curriculum is a kind of fiction based upon false, thus educators should not devote their studies and researches to study and discover the positive and negative aspects in this type of curriculum . It is obvious that when a person traces ,researches and studies which are carried out on this kind of curriculum , s/he discovers that Lakomski's view is irregular and it is not publicly available. On the contrary, many studies have shown such evidence for the existence of hidden curriculum (Abdullah, 1998:55).

So , after the presentation of the experts , theorists, scholars and educators' opinions and definitions about the hidden curriculum, the following conclusions can be drawn;

1. There is almost unanimous agreement among experts , theorists, scholars and educators towards the existence of the hidden curriculum.

2. Students acquire the values , ethics , norms and standard behaviours usually by the hidden curriculum.
3. Students learn in school ideas, values and standard principles which are not planned in advance.

2.7 Sources of Hidden Curriculum

It is not possible to just stumble across a hidden curriculum; one must actively search for it. In order to find that which cannot be seen, one must discover what has been learnt as a result of the rules, procedures, relationship infra-structures, and physical characteristics that constitute any given situation: positive or negative.

Since that the variances in didactic institutions may be limitless, these sources may include, but are not limited to, the social structures of the classroom, the teacher's exercise of authority, rules governing the relationship between teachers and students, the school's social structure, cultural diversity, educational surroundings, type of student ,standard learning activities, the teacher's use of language, textbooks, audio-visual aids, furnishings, architecture, disciplinary measures, timetables, tracking systems, and curricular priorities. Variations among these sources promote the disparities found when comparing the hidden curricula corresponding to various class and social statuses (Martin, 1976:44).

Recognizing the powerful role of the hidden curriculum provokes the question of how it is taught and learned. While most of the related literature has focused on un-hiding the hidden curriculum (Anderson, 2001:115-134),

or its various effects (Apple, 1990; Giroux & Purpel, 1983; Margolis, 2001), the discussion occasionally points to some of the potentially potent “sources” of the hidden curriculum. These sources include a wide array of contextual factors which impact students’ experiences (Martin, 1983:122-139), ranging from generalities like role modeling (Kolhberg, Levine, & Hewer, 1983) to more tangible factors such as grading procedures (Gatto, 2005; Ollman, 2001; Snyder, 1970), and language use (Crew, 1998).

2.7.1 Tacit Teaching

One way of thinking about the teacher's role in imparting the hidden curriculum is through the idea of tacit teaching. The tacit quality refers to the ineffable or indirect means by which the hidden content is taught, and to the fact that both teachers and students may be unaware of the process (Burbules, 2008:666). Foundational work on the concept of tacit knowledge is attributed to Polanyi (1966:121), who demonstrates that much of what ones know—particularly within a field of procedural knowledge—is tacit in nature. Tacit learning refers to the things that is "not taught directly or intentionally; or, even, the things that are learned which are not in any simple or direct way 'taught' at all" (Burbules, 2008: 667). This idea relates to Bourdieu's concept of 'habitus', the collection experientially grounded capacities, perspectives, and dispositions that allow one to navigate the choices and activities of everyday life (Bourdieu, 1977:86). While the emphasis of “habitus” on social adaptation gives it a different usage than the term “tacit knowledge”, the former has also been used to explain social reproduction (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990).

The idea of "tacit or hidden teaching" has been used in discussion about the hidden curriculum at least as far back as 1990 (see Apple, 1990: 84); however, Burbules (2008:667) defines tacit teaching as the many forms of informal instruction—some intentional, some unintentional, and some difficult to categorize simply as one or the other—by which skills, capacities, and dispositions are passed along within a domain of practice.

A more powerful usage of the term would bridge this gap by expanding the idea of tacit teaching to include environmental design any of the ways a teacher may adjust or prepare the learning environment for their students an aspect of instructional practice already accounted for in, for instance, Montessori's (1967b:54) concept of the teacher's role.

2.7.2 School Climate

The concept of school climate is related to discussion of the hidden curriculum because of an overlapping view that students' immersion in the school context is important. The idea of the hidden curriculum posits that this immersion results in learning of its own, whereas the idea of school climate focuses on how this immersive experience may impact other learning, and the child's experience in general.

School climate refers to the feelings and attitudes elicited by the school environment (National School Climate Center, 2012). It is a multidimensional construct covering physical, social, and academic dimensions (Loukas, 2007), but is typically associated with affective domains of students' schooling experiences (Freiberg & Stein, 1999:11-29), or experiential aspects such as an academic or athletic focus in the school (Loukas, 2007). While many of the factors involved in school climate may also be

involved in the hidden curriculum, the former's emphasis on affective and behavioral domains (rather than original learning) has restricted its usage, and the scope of factors associated with it (see Creemers & Reezigt, 1999; Freiberg, 1999) to a narrower band than those associated with the hidden curriculum (see Goodlad, 2004; Martin, 1983). As such, while school climate is of relevance to the hidden curriculum, the construct is not an appropriate entry point for discussion of how to reorient the hidden curriculum.

2.7.3 The Educative Context

The idea of an "educative context" is presented in lieu of school climate as a way of looking at the role of contextual factors in student learning. The term implies that the context is not just a backdrop to education, but that this context is itself educative. As the idea of habitus was used in relation to the notion of tacit learning (Burbules, 2008:666), Bourdieu's complementary concept of "field" (Bourdieu, 1977:88) is related to the idea of educative context. However, whereas the notion of field has been arose in the context of a broad sociological theory, educative context is intended much more pedagogically, as the basic source of students' tacit learning, and as an explanation for the hidden curriculum more generally.

There are two main ways in which the schooling context can be considered educative. The first is in the sense of a contextual backdrop against which students understand and interpret explicit content from their teachers or textbooks. This backdrop may or may not frame explicit content as relevant or important, or may even undermine explicit content by providing mixed messages (Jickling & Wals, 2007:1-21; Kahn, 2010:17-

26). Following McLuhan (1964:28) and Postman & Weingartner (1969:54) one cannot overlook the irony of learning about democracy in an autocratic classroom or learning about conservation in a wasteful school. The second way in which the schooling context can be educative is on its own, apart from explicit content. Aspects of students' schooling experience, such as the school discipline, classroom routines, and types of assessment practices may have no direct relationship to the explicit content of instruction, but serve to habituate students to patterns of behaviour, and values, that are gradually internalized as part of the hidden curriculum (Ollman, 2001; Snyder, 1970).

2.7.4 Remarks

A primary responsibility of educators is that they should be aware of the general principle of shaping of actual experience by enviroing conditions.... above all, they should know how to utilize the surroundings, physical and social, that exist so as to extract from them all that they have to contribute to building up experiences that are worthwhile. There is a strong possibility that by expanding the concept of teaching to include the management of factors contributing to tacit learning, hidden curricula can be reoriented to support, rather than subvert, progressive educational goals such as those related to active citizenship, democratization, gender equality, social justice, and environmental sustainability (Dewey, 1938:40).

Notable consequence of the growth of interest in hidden curriculum sources. Apple (1979:44) states that to find hidden curriculum one must understand the concept and one must study the lived in culture of the school and classroom then analyze its relationship to the structure of the larger society.

Moreover , Martin(1976:45) stresses the importance of exploring pertinent settings to see what learning states and creates .To perceive and understand what is produced (hidden curriculum /hidden messages) from individual learning states, one must look beyond to the sources that originate these states. Thus, she concludes that, if one not only wants to discover the hidden curriculum but also actually should does something about it. Then it must be determined which aspects of the given setting help bring about the different components from each setting's hidden curriculum.

The theorists such like Myles & Simpson (2001:112) emphasize that hidden curriculum involves various sources such as ; distinguishing a culture's unstated, implied rules involving clothing, touching, gestures, eye contact, and cohabitation in classrooms are of vital importance in correlation to hidden messages. In some cultures, nonverbal communication is considered more important than an outright verbal exchange . Yet, communication that is not spoken aloud often becomes more important than what is spoken. One of such interactions would be the use and interpretation of body language. Utilization of this mode of communication in the hidden curriculum is through the use of facial expression, hand gestures, body posture, and voice modulation and texture (Myles et al., 2004). Because of authoritative separations in a classroom, teachers being more powerful than students, understanding what is “not spoken, but seen” becomes another facet of the school experience with which students must learn to cope (Jackson, 1968; Myles et al. , 2004).

The contribution of inanimate objects as a source of hidden curriculum is brought to the forefront by Giroux (1983: 122) when he declares that audio-visual aids, along with textbooks (media) as well as the architecture and furnishings of educational institutions, are certainly contributing factors or sources of hidden curriculum. He also includes disciplinary measures, educational timetables, and tracking systems.

Tracking is one additional source of hidden curriculum that plays a major part in the development of students and their fates. This method of imposing educational and career paths upon students at young ages relies on various factors such as class and status to reinforce socioeconomic differences. Students tend to be placed on tracks guiding them towards socioeconomic occupations similar to that of their parents, without real considerations for their strengths and weaknesses. As students advance through the educational system, they follow along their tracks by completing the predetermined courses (Rosenbaum,1976:65). Gayer (1979, as cited in Giroux, 1983) adds another major source of hidden curriculum which is the teacher's use and style of language.

Vallance (1973:5-21) expounds that there are viable sources for elements of hidden curriculum in schools. Four basic areas are explored: social structure in the classroom, teachers' exercise of authority, rules which govern relationships between the teacher and student, and standard learning activities. Vallance also alleges that investigation into the hidden curriculum, at the time, is more to legitimize the theory of hidden curriculum than to actually define it.

To Snyder (1971 :25), hidden curriculum is characterized as covert tasks that produce unplanned lessons which students must master in order to cope with daily classroom demands. These lessons are “ghosts haunting classrooms” which have invisible, yet real, consequences for students. Students who fail to deal with the specter of the hidden curriculum run the risk of school failure. Likewise, Gerbner (1972:16) describes the hidden curricula as the lesson plan that consists of the symbolic forms of the social order and is learned by everyone informally. This can be associated with the instructional practices exercise in the classroom by teachers to cope with the demands of organizational structures over which they have little control as the set of values, attitudes, knowledge frames, which are embodied in the organization and processes of schooling and which are implicitly conveyed to students (Collins Dictionary of Sociology, 2000: online) .

The infrastructure which is formed in the learning setting of a classroom is often controlled by unseen and unwritten rules that everyone appears to just take for granted. Even though these rules may be unrecorded and unspoken and the majority of the students usually follow them with tacit agreement. They have become a part and a major source of the hidden curriculum (Garnett, 1984; Kanpol, 1989 and Hemmings, 2000). Eisner (1985:88) argues that even as students learn formal curriculum, they are continuously bombarded by implicit (hidden) curriculum that impacts their values and expectations.

Czajkowski and King (1975:280) classify hidden curriculum as the result of the school’s environmental influence on the attitudes, perceptions,

and sensitivities of students and “in turn influence what students see of the world and how they deal with it”. Dreeben (1976:112), who is probably the first hidden curriculum theorist to stress structural properties, describes hidden curriculum as the prevailing social arrangements in which schooling takes place and implies that students infer modes of thinking, norms and principles of conduct from their prolonged involvement in these arrangements.

Also, Vallance (1973:5-21) reports the need to look at the power structure and learning activities in the classroom. Cultural diversity and pertinent context are examined by Duranti & Goodwin (1992:1-42); what is of value to one group may be of no significance to another group. Myles & Simpson (2001:115) state that the cultural definitions of the members of the classroom is highly significant. They all acknowledge the significance of the classroom experience on behaviors, attitudes, beliefs and values. Giroux (1973:61) states that media are a source for hidden curriculum and messages. In today’s upwardly mobile industrial world, this source is probably more on point and certainly more relevant than it was in 1973.

Many scholars (Snyder 1971; Apple 1979, Martin 1976, Vallance 1973 and Giroux 1983) agree that the best place to look for hidden messages in curricula is in the “lived in” classroom. Martin (1983:58) specifies that the hidden curriculum for any particular situation consists of the components of education efforts, which result from the presence in the same situation that may be intended or unintended, but it is not the objective information for students in the designated situation. Other scholars (Czajkowski & King

1975, Dreeben 1976, Giroux 1983, and Eisner 1985) think that the hidden curriculum is taught in school but it is out of its control.

2.8 Elements of Hidden Curriculum

The hidden curriculum is one of the two main types of curricula. While experts agree that hidden curriculum exists as a part of educational curricula, they do not necessarily agree on the specifics of how to define it or how to identify it. In general, hidden curriculum consists of implicit values taught and learned from the educational process. These implicit messages of unintended knowledge, values, morals, attitudes, beliefs, norms, and behaviors are considered a part of the learning process in schools. However, trying to define or map the multiplicity of meanings applied to the concept can be a vastly complicated proposition.

Dreeben (1968:222) looks at the framework woven between and around the authority of the teacher and the powerlessness of the student. For instance, a teacher becomes upset with a particular student but, if the teacher does not specify exactly which student he is upset with, each student in the class may think it is him or her. Each student is afraid to ask the teacher such as “Are you angry at me?” Thus, the classroom not only becomes a social structure experience but also an example of the teacher’s exercise of authority.

Superficially, hidden curriculum might appear a simple unitary goal: simply make it overt and visible that which is formally covert (Gair & Mullins, 2001:21-41), or merely clarifies each specific perception of what

hidden curriculum is thought to be. The problem inherent with this is that every scholar, from almost every field of study, has derived his or her own impressions and theories from personal experiences, in and out of the classroom, as well as from previously established definitions (Myles et al., 2004; Gordon, 1995).

Jackson (1968:9) maintains that hidden curriculum is not only found in, but also greatly influenced by certain elements such as areas of social interaction, communication techniques, family dynamics, issues of personal safety, and school education and performance. Thus, his conviction that peoples' lives are dominated by these hidden curricula. Giroux (1983:140) identifies the elements of hidden curriculum as the "unstated norms, values and beliefs transmitted to students through the underlying structure of schooling, as opposed to the formally recognized and sanctioned dimensions of the schooling experience".

While the actual material that students absorb through the hidden curriculum is of utmost importance, the personnel who convey it elicit special investigation. This particularly applies to the social and moral lessons conveyed by the hidden curriculum. The moral characteristics and ideologies of teachers and other authority figures are translated into their lessons, albeit not necessarily with intention (Kohlberg, 1983:77). Yet these unintended learning experiences can result from interactions with not only instructors, but also with peers. Like interactions with authority figures, interactions amongst peers can promote moral and social ideals and foster the exchange

of information and they are important sources of knowledge contributing to the success of the hidden curriculum.

Modeling society's morals and values from social instruction transmitted through hidden curriculum is a theory accepted by many didactic professionals. Schools implicitly teach values, either through the physical setting used for learning or from the social and interpersonal relationships formed in the educational environment (Goodlad, 1979:32).

When D'Angelo (1981:122-133) investigates hidden curriculum in a suburban Catholic high school, he fundamentally based his data interpretation, perceptions, and definitions on Jackson's (1968) conceptualization of the three key components of "non-academic" education. Through classroom observations and interviews with students, teachers, and parents, he found specific hidden-curriculum learning related to each of the three elements- crowd, praise, and power. D'Angelo (1981) identifies five dimensional aspects of hidden curriculum in "crowd" interplay in classrooms.

- 1) the acquiescence for the lack of individualized instruction,
- 2) the need to cope with personal restrictions on movement,
- 3) the adherence to an inflexible time schedule,
- 4) utilization of waiting strategies, and
- 5) the seeking of clandestine social interaction.

While, six elements of hidden-curriculum learning are founded relative to the components of "praise" by D'Angelo (1981), which are:

- 1) praise is related to obedience to institutional rules,
- 2) feigned interest can gain positive evaluation,
- 3) grades are often related to nonacademic behavior,
- 4) evaluation is public or semi-public,
- 5) grade and track level can impact the degree of praise given, and
- 6) cheating can be used as a strategy for positive evaluation.

Lastly, D' Angelo (1981) finds out five elements of learning relative to the component of "power", which are:

- 1) students view themselves as powerless,
- 2) the teacher is the possessor of all "worthwhile" knowledge,
- 3) the teacher regulates all classroom activities,
- 4) the student is under constant scrutiny, and
- 5) the teacher sets the tenor for morality in the classroom.

As students and educators interrelate on an educational and social basis, they constantly characterize shape and outline standards that students apply to their attitudes of morals, values, beliefs, and behaviors (Apple, 1983). Kohlberg (as cited in Giroux & Purpel, 1983:11) also writes about moral codes and attitudes garnered from the classroom environment through the use of messages transmitted through hidden curriculum.

Messages are received as hidden curriculum may provide accompaniment or discord to each other as well as to formal curriculum. For instance, school programs and educational structure emphasize academic achievement in all areas. But, as one walks in the front door of the school, the

first thing he sees a case full of sports trophies, team banners, or team jerseys. Nowhere, does one see symbols of academic or artistic accomplishment?. In this respect, it sounds that the hidden curriculum has the most impact when the aggregate or design of messages is the most consistent way of delivering hidden curriculum (Cornbleth, 1984, 1990). While contributing factors to hidden curriculum are obviously amassed from many locations and sources, the classroom is probably the strongest. Elsayed (1988:45-46) adds extracurricular activities as a source and location of hidden curriculum. He believes that the hidden curriculum includes all the experiences, knowledge, values, and behaviors that each student learns through any non-classroom activities, and that students obtain knowledge involuntarily, without teacher supervision and often without the student realizing that he is uploading hidden curriculum.

In sum, hidden curriculum is alive and flourishing in the educational environment and has been for over 40 years (Jackson, 1968:6). For decades, now educators have labored to examine and define the basic elements involved in these complex, inexplicit curriculums. It would appear that each scholar bases his or her definition, at least in part, on his/her own indoctrination as well as the cultural climate of the time. Even with diverse outlooks and views, these researchers have many points in common: morals, values, norms, and attitudes, as well as the personal expectations that are created and transmitted not only by teachers but also by every person with whom the student comes in contact during the educational experience. They agree that these tacit teachings are obscure, usually unendorsed, and

unwritten (Jackson, 1968; Dreeben, 1968; Czajkowski & King, 1975; Myles & Simpson, 2001). There is also agreement that student interpretation of student - teacher interactions as well as classroom events play a key role in their socialization within a larger society.

2.9 Properties of The Hidden Curriculum

The hidden curriculum embraces certain properties that distinguish it from the visible or explicit curriculum .The most important facts are:-

- 1- The explicit curriculum is formally planned in advance by the Ministry of Education or Higher Education , whereas the hidden curriculum depends on two factors which are :-
 - The nature and purpose of the educational situations within Instructional institutions .
 - The multi-stimuli learning such as, a question is raised by the student to the teacher and the answer should include extra experiences that may be with several dimensions such as , cultural, social, ethical , behavioral, religious ,and cognitive.
- 2- The explicit curriculum is always positive as its outputs which aimed at achieving the stated goals of the educational process. While the outcomes of the hidden curriculum can be positive as acquiring moral values and norms such as truthfulness, honesty, cooperation, altruism, loyalty and respect for the other's feelings and values , beside to other

of commendable morality. The outputs may receive negative results such as , the attitudes which emerge from the improper handling from the teacher towards the students or the weakness of teachers' personality, cultural and educational background . There are also impartial outputs when the school system , regulations and the disciplines occur as an obstacle factor towards students beneficial in educational situation. It is difficult for those involved in the educational process to change or to act towards the required position, unless the features of the educational process in educational institutions are required to actually implement flexibility.

- 3- The explicit curriculum is characterized by being constant curriculum , i.e it does not vary or change according to the educational situations ,while the hidden curriculum may vary by time , place and the student so that the hidden curriculum is not a product of certain environment or an educational situation , but it exists in every situation and in different ways. Therefore, one cannot say that a particular environment or a specific educational situation may suggest similar hidden curricula.
- 4- The goals and contents of the explicit curriculum are compulsory investigated by the operators of the educational process in educational institutions, teachers, instructors, and professors. They are obliged to achieve them through the exploitation and use all available opportunities in the classroom. While the goals of hidden curriculum content are achieved by the teachers and others (Fla'atah 2000:77).

2.10 Content of Hidden Curriculum

The basic idea behind the concept of hidden curriculum is that students learn things that are not actually taught in the formal curriculum. The hidden curriculum refers to the way in which the learning process is organised:

1. Consciously: in terms of the physical organisation of the educational institution itself - a place separates from the home, work and so forth. Also the organisation of the classroom - teacher stands at the front, students are arranged in rows.
2. Unconsciously: the way in which individual teachers interpret the behaviour of students, and the way in which teachers have different expectations of students which are based on interpretations of behaviour in class.

It is widely known that the educational institution acts as important agency of social control. It persuades students to learn and conform to the dominant values, norms, and ethics expected by society. This is mainly carried out through hidden curriculum. Since there are no obvious systematized courses in obedience and conformity like academic subjects, the teaching of these values and attitudes is hidden. The students learn about a wide range of issues from gender to ethnicity and social class. Goburdhun (2009:5) claims that the content of hidden curriculum is normal and includes the following issues to be simply accepted by students and society as explained below.

2.10.1 Inequality

Educational institutions educate that some students are brighter than others and they are rewarded with greater status and with awards of various kinds. Thus it legitimates the inequality of rewards.

2.10.2 Hierarchy

Educational institutions teach students about hierarchy. Those having more power will be placed at the top and those having less power will be placed at the bottom. They reinforce the idea of social hierarchy and allows students for a better preparation for their future workplace.

2.10.3 Gender

The gender attitudes are strengthened at Educational institutions giving opportunities to students to do subjects which are categorized specifically for male and female. Female students are supported to go for caring profession and male students are guided towards technical and science subjects

2.10.4 Controlling Boredom

Studies showed that students complain about lesson to be boring and so on. Even in workplace, complaints are made. At educational institution, students learn that boredom is natural at e.g. school and workplace.

According to Willis (1997:47), when students create problems at school they are actually just making life bearable. They are learnt how to deal with very boring employment later in life.

2.10.5 Race

Educational institutions and teachers might be neutral towards racism, but the curricula or the school materials reinforce this idea. For example, certain topics stress the white culture and the rejection of other cultures.

2.10.6 Accepting Authority

Students are given a whole list of rules and disciplines at school. They are provided with no other option but to obey these rules and disciplines. They are being sanctioned whenever disobeyed. It prepares them to accept the rules and laws of the wider society.

2.10.7 Powerlessness

Students are encouraged to engage in classroom discussion to deal with certain problem and so on. But whenever the Educational institution is concerned and money or about any decision making, students have no say in the system. Students learn about their powerlessness in future life. See figure

1

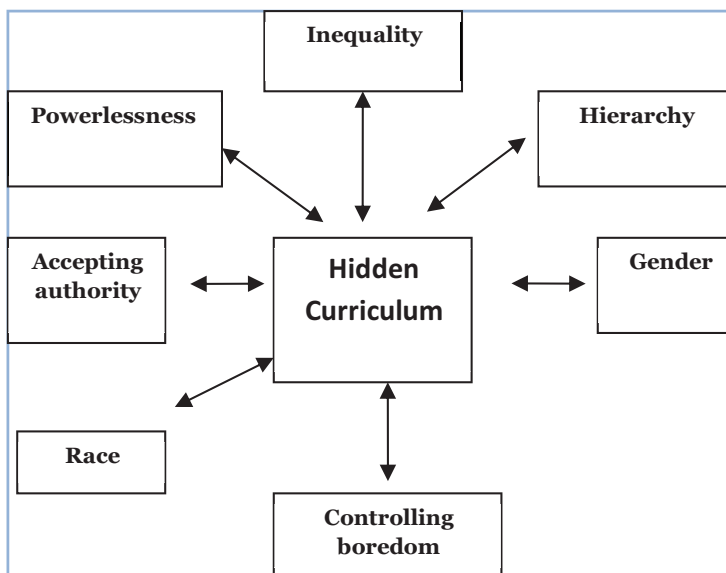


Figure 1 The Content of Hidden Curriculum (Goburdhun ,2009:7)

Whereas McNeil (1986 :58) states that the content of the hidden curriculum involves learning such things as:

- How to respond to and cope with authority.
- How to get on with others (both students and teachers).
- How to pass time.
- How to deal with boredom.
- How to establish priorities.
- How to conform to the expectations of teachers and peers.

Through discussing the content of “hidden learning”, Jackson (1968: 24) argues that merely to study any subject in the curriculum, the students has to learn deference of the authority of the teacher. Failure to observe implicit and explicit classroom rules leaves the open to sanction (from mild rebuke, through formal punishments, to the less tangible forms of

teacher labelling - getting a reputation as a "difficult" students, a "trouble-maker", "stupid", etc.). These rules govern such points as:

- When it is permissible to speak.
- Who you are permitted to speak to.
- Where you are allowed to sit.

Thus, far one has seen the educational socialising institutions appear to be organised the content of hidden curriculum for a dual purpose, namely:

- a. The transmission of technical knowledge and skills (the things students learn as part of the formal curriculum, such as how to read and write).
- b. The transmission of social skills , values, ethics , and orientations.

Although, hidden curriculum shows up everywhere - one cannot control the content of textbooks which are given to the students but the teacher can teach students to recognize biases and encourage them to create opinions based on the information given to them. Then again, it supposes that imposes an entirely different content to forms of hidden curriculum.

2.11 Dimensions of Hidden Curriculum

In recent, higher education research has resurfaced more familiar in the field of basic schooling: the hidden curriculum. It has been implicit in the studies of student cultures and professional socialisation but, during the mid of 1990s, in research and development related to higher education pedagogy and the various activities around the quality of teaching, the idea of hidden curriculum has gained new interest and weight (Ylijoki , 2000:339-362).

Yet , researchers in higher education attempt to explicitly and empirically study the hidden curriculum in higher education. The main

question is: what do students actually learn in the university, and how do they learn it? In higher education, the official curriculum tends to be rather loose and partly uncodified compared to school curriculum. Thus, there is potentially lots of room for the functioning of the hidden curriculum.

As freshmen enter the university, they soon learn what is allowed and what is expected from them. Studying in higher education requires completely new ways of thought and action compared to learning in schools. Learning the social mechanisms and the tacit knowledge of the academy and to socialise into the academic cultures are a lengthy process. Students must learn to interpret various situations right, apply the appropriate set of rules and to respond with a suitable vocabulary (Gerholm, 1990:263-271).

According to Bergenhenegouwen (1987:535-543), and Margolis and Romero (1998:1-23), hidden curriculum can be analysed using four analytically distinct categories. First, students must learn to learn. Learning to be a university student is - away from the assumptions of the official curricula, which presuppose that secondary education will provide the necessary prerequisites. Secondly, students must learn their profession. On one hand, this involves learning the specific ways of thinking and the different practices of one's discipline. On the other hand, students must learn the thinking and practices of the profession. This category is only partly covered by all the books and courses which are part of the official curriculum. The third category is learning to be an expert, which includes learning the thinking and practices of science, and the ways and traditions of the academe. This category is coined in the hierarchical structure of the official curriculum incorporating the idea of maturing from a novice to a

journeyman and eventually to a master. The fourth category of hidden curriculum is the most profound. It relates to the learning of the ‘university game’.

Bourdieu & Wacquant (1992:135) state that to survive in any social field requires the willingness to play the game which, with its specific stakes, constitutes the field . Thus the separation between the socialisation and the reproduction dimensions (see table 2.2 below) is most difficult to make. Actually, as soon as one starts learning the rules one can also learn to play better, and eventually, as one proceeds in the studies and gains academic expertise, one can even start to set the rules

Table 2.2 Dimensions of Hidden Curriculum (Bourdieu & Wacquant (1992)

Dimensions	Hidden Curriculum		Official Curriculum
	Socialisation / Professionalisation	Social and cultural Reproduction	
Learn to Learn	Learning (to learn)	Learning to be a student	Assumption that secondary education provides the necessary prerequisites
Learning the profession	Learning the thinking and practices of ones discipline	Learning the thinking and practices of ones profession	Curriculum content: basic field related knowledge and skills
Learning to be Expert	Learning the thinking and practices of science	Learning the thinking and practices of the academe	Curriculum hierarchy: specialised knowledge and skills
Learning the game	Learning the rules	Learning to play	Curriculum as a time/ space code

2.11.1 Learning to Learn

Entering the university and embarking academic studies can be quite a culture shock. Compared to the old safe school environment, the academic learning scenery is rough, wide and partly incomprehensible. With this kind of a landscape one needs a good topographic map. Students who have highly educated parents - lots of cultural capital - carry this map in their habitus. They are like "fish in the water" (Bourdieu & Wacquant 1992, 127). Students from less advantageous backgrounds, on the other hand, may feel like strangers and experience academic alienation (Archer et al. ,1999:31-40).

Rafiq (2007:94) explains that learning to learn is an important component of quality education; it can be occurred through interaction among students. Interaction differs in its meaning as pertaining to the learning environment for example, whether it is a classroom or online learning feature. In the case of online learning, communication technologies form the basis of this process. Therefore these students must be proficient users of technological resources and should also master personal time-management and organizational skills. In a classroom setting, there must be face-to-face interaction as well as hands on activities to enhance the learning experience.

2.11.2 Learning the Profession

Learning the profession is considered a necessary aspect of professional education where students learn the profession of being a student.

Anderson, (2001:29) asserts that in campuses -based higher education, education and distance education, the class becomes a social group that modifies participant expectations and behaviours. The role of teachers is also critical because their implicit and explicit guidelines, prescriptions, and modeling create a hidden curriculum that socializes participants to the roles, first of student and later of professional. It begins by acquiring the competencies and technical skills associated with performing specific tasks required by the discipline or profession. Distance education has inherent advantages in revealing this dimension of the hidden curriculum because most distance-education students study part-time and many are already active in established professional communities.

2.11.3 Learning to be Expert

Learning to be expert refers to the acquisition of the specialized skills and practices that distinctively mark discipline-based or professional expertise. It is akin to learning to act like an expert even in the absence of any genuine expertise (Wren,1999:89).

2.11.4 Learning the Game

One of the basic ideas of the hidden curriculum is that one learns how to play the university game and to survive. But what does it take to be a successful student? Previous studies have emphasized, for instance, skills to plan and organize studies and timetables (Cantwell & Moore,1996:500-517). Verbal abilities are also emphasized because they are naturally important in

the academic world where scientific discussion and argumentation are the basic practices (Archer et al. 1999:41-54).

Snyder (1972:55) argues that hidden curriculum determines, to a significant degree, what becomes the basis for all participants' sense of self-worth and self-esteem. Thus, the hidden curriculum extends beyond sociological discussion to influence the critical self-conceptions of participants.

Whereas, Vallance (1973:26) notes that there are three dimensions of hidden curriculum: (1) Contexts of schooling, including the student-teacher interaction unit, classroom structure, and the whole organizational pattern of the educational establishment as a microcosm of the social value system. (2) Processes operating in or through universities, including values acquisition, socialization, and maintenance of class structure. (3) Degrees of intentionality and depth of "hiddenness" by the investigator. She claims that there might be unintended outcomes of university; however, these outcomes may not be nearly as unintended as one thinks (Arieh, 1991:349-354). Universities are considered as the places where educational ideologies are performed to maintain existence of dominant cultures.

In sum, being aware of the hidden curriculum and its implications for higher education requires the ongoing awareness and development of hidden curriculum dimensions. Yet, differentiating between these dimensions can help facilitate one's inquiry into the hidden curriculum. These dimensions may range from schools to universities, teacher, administrator,

and students effectiveness to a much more general and abstract grouping such as race, gender, social class, ethnicity, lifestyle, culture, and body image.

2.12 Perspectives of Hidden Curriculum

As it mentioned previously that hidden curriculum is referred to the unofficial rules, routines, and structures of educational institution through which students learn behaviours, values, beliefs, ethics, norms, and attitudes. Elements of the hidden curriculum do not appear in educational institution written goals, formal lesson plans, or learning objectives although they may reflect culturally dominant social values and ideas about what Educational institutions should teach.

Different perspectives on the hidden curriculum have been articulated over the past 35 years. It is important to state from the outset, therefore, that: a perspective contains internal differences (sub-perspectives); perspectives do overlap in some respects and are not, in every respect, distinct; perspectives do not necessarily build on from one another in time or in quality. Also what one calls a particular perspective is contestable. (Hammersley, 1992:131-143)

2.12.1 The Functionalist Perspective

It is an initial work on the hidden curriculum which focuses on the problem of how schools play their part in maintaining social order and stability.

This 'functionalist' perspective (for example: Parsons, 1959; Dreeben, 1968; Jackson, 1968), views schools as vehicles through which students learn the norms, values, ethics, and skills they require to function and contribute to the existing society. As Giroux (1983: 118) explains that the hidden curriculum is explored primarily through the norms and moral beliefs tacitly transmitted through the socialization process that structure classroom social relationships.

Parsons and Dreeben are explicit functionalists in that they both recognize and support the linking role which schools play in social maintenance. Dreeben (1968:65) for example, maintains that the social experiences of schools enable students to learn those norms and characteristics which are both necessary to and inherent within adult public life. He identifies four specific norms which are transmitted through schooling, namely: independence, achievement, universalism and specificity.

While Jackson (1968:6) is less explicit in his functionalism and appears, at least initially, to be concerned about the school's role in maintaining social order. He contrasts the hidden curriculum with the 'official curriculum' of schooling and describes how the crowded nature of the classroom requires students to cope with delays, denials of their desires and social distractions:

These coping requirements give rise to ethics, values, and norms which each student must comply with in order to progress satisfactorily through the school. In short, schooling satisfactorily teaches conformity to students rather than creativity, since the former brings the 'reward' of

satisfactory negotiation of school life. Jackson concludes that although teaching conformity is the antithesis to official curriculum goals, it nevertheless has a function in preparing students for the real world of hierarchical power relations, which for him, are ‘facts of life’ to which all people are required to adapt. For this reason, his work has been located, ultimately, as part of the functionalist perspective (Giroux, 1983:119 ; Lynch, 1989:34).

Functionalist accounts have been criticised on a number of grounds. They assume, for example, an oversimplified, consensual relationship between school and society . They also present students as over-determined, passive recipients of hidden curriculum messages (Lynch, 1989:35) and they do not address the potential significance of the hidden curriculum in the maintenance of class (Sharp, 1980:22) and sex (Stanworth, 1981:19) inequalities in society.

2.12.2 The Liberal Perspective

The liberal perspective views the hidden curriculum in a very different way to functionalists. It considers the hidden curriculum to be those taken-for-granted assumptions and practices of school life which although being created by various ‘actors’ within the school (for example, teachers and students), take on an appearance of accepted normality through their daily production and reproduction. Therefore, many liberal critiques of schooling set out to expose those unquestioned and ‘hidden’ aspects of school life such as: school rules and codes of discipline; learning organisation (for example: streaming; mixed ability), and teacher-student relationships and interactions.

They seek to make explicit the assumptions on which every day practices come to light and describe the process of how these practices are created and maintained in classrooms. Hargreaves (1967:56) and Lacey (1970:78) study the streaming practices of schools as a form of learning organisation. Whilst the official view of streaming is that it provides an appropriate learning milieu for students of different abilities. These authors found that once streams had been created, students took on the 'identity' of the stream, leading to underachievement in the 'lower' stream classes. Hargreaves (1978:77) explores the role of space and time in classrooms. He finds that these implicit aspects of school life are a symbolic expression and reproducer of the power-relation between teachers and students. For example, teachers' freedom of movement, central positioning, greater work space and control over the structuring, allocation and control of time within the classroom are evident, conveying messages about 'appropriate' teacher-student relations.

Although Hargreaves (*ibid.*, 78) suggests that some teachers do challenge dominant patterns of space and time usage, through adopting, for example, alternative seating arrangements. He suggests that these are exceptions to the prevailing pattern found in schools. Whilst a considerable amount of liberal scholarship focuses on exposing the assumptions behind school practices and uncovering teachers' latent controlling devices, some studies within this perspective have shown how school practices are negotiated between teachers and between teachers and students.

A number of studies, for example, have shown that teachers respond differently to school definitions of acceptable practice. Some inwardly

conform, some outwardly comply and some seek to redefine school definitions (Becker, 1970; Woods, 1981; Scarth, 1987; Skelton, 1993). Woods (1979:83) also identifies a number of different modes of student adaptation to teachers' attempts to exert control over the classroom which he calls: conformity; ritualism; retreatism; colonisation; intransigence and rebellion.

A number of other studies have concentrated on student responses to educational experiences and have demonstrated that students 'decode' the official rhetoric of educational institutions and focus on what they really need to do to survive and succeed (Becker et al., 1961; Holt, 1964; Snyder, 1971).

Gabe (1991:347-367) states that these studies demonstrate how the liberal perspective takes a different view of people in relation to society compared with the functionalist perspective. Drawing on the philosophical roots of symbolic interactionism, humanistic psychology, phenomenology and ethno methodology, it views people not as passive receivers of ethics, values and norms, but as active, purposeful creators of meaning. Therefore, school practices and their hidden assumptions and effects, are not created by society and received powerlessly by teachers and students. Rather they are created and reproduced by teachers and students through their actions and interactions within the classroom. The emphasis in the liberal perspective is 'microscopic', as opposed to 'macroscopic' (as with the functionalists), since its focus is internal structures and processes of schooling as opposed to the social structure and how schools contribute to the order and maintenance of this structure.

Various criticisms have been made of the liberal perspective on the hidden curriculum. It has been argued, for example, that its focus on changing school practice through the exposure of restrictive assumptions is ultimately limiting since these assumptions and change itself are inextricably bound up in the material power base of wider society (Giroux, 1983 :122). A further criticism concerns its view of the relationship between people and society. It has been argued that liberals exaggerate the extent to which people exert control over their lives through purposive thought and action and underplay the controlling forces and constraints which are imposed on individual free will by society (Hargreaves, 1978: 84).

2.12.1 Marxists or Critical Perspective

Marxists and Functionalists disagree that schools provide equal opportunities, but they agree that hidden curriculum plays an important role in preparing a student for a role in a sophisticated industrialized society.

Unlike the Functionalists, Marxists believe that hidden curriculum works differently with students from different social classes. The reason for this is that students need to prepare for the different class structures of the society in which they live, and they need to reproduce the relations of production. There is a suggestion in the Marxist belief that students of the working class give in to the idea that they must accept the fate of being the subordinate and that they become apathetic and oblivious to what goes on around them.

The best known is Bowles & Gintis's (1976:130) work, "Schooling in Capitalist America". Although the authors do not specifically use the term hidden curriculum, they address the relationship between schooling and work through an exploration of the tacit norms of behaviour in both settings. They use a thesis of correspondence to explain the 'structural correspondence' that exists between the social relations of school life and the social relations of capitalist production. They argue that the social relations of schooling reproduces the consciousness necessary for work relations, for example: the hierarchical division of labour between teachers and students; the alienated character of student's work itself; and the division between students created by ranking and evaluation (the assessment system). In addition, different levels of schooling, "feed workers into different levels within the occupational structure" (ibid., 132). The work of Bowles & Gintis has been criticised on a number of counts. Like work within the functionalist perspective, it has been criticised for the highly mechanistic and deterministic relationship it assumes between the economy and the school system. It also presents students, teachers and schools as passive receivers of social norms, practices and values rather than active creators of meaning (Lynch, 1989:85).

Along the lines of the Marxists, two French scholars, Bourdieu and Passeron,(1977:49) maintain that teaching and learning in schools is undertaken within a particular 'habitus': that is, a particular system of thought, perception, appreciation and action, which reflects the material and symbolic interests of the dominant groups or classes within society. They also conclude, through empirical data, that schools present themselves as an

apolitical and neutral forum, therefore creating a cultural superiority that is accepted by the subordinate culture.

Young (1971) and Keddie (1971) also maintain that the way knowledge is selected, organised and assessed in schools is arbitrary and reflects the interests of powerful groups in society. Young (1971:55), for example, questions the 'taken-for-grantedness' of school knowledge. He looks at what assumptions lie behind decisions to include some curriculum subjects and not others for students to experience. He also asks why some subjects have more status than others and why knowledge is organised into discrete subjects rather than integrated in the service of a contemporary theme.

Whereas, Keddie (1971:62) critically examines the types of knowledge that students have access to in schools. She argues that teachers' perceptions of students affect the type of knowledge that is presented. For example, working-class students are offered a simple, common-sense treatment of subject matter and are encouraged to adhere to presented facts. Middle-class students, on the other hand, receive a more complex and abstract treatment of knowledge and are encouraged to question prevailing viewpoints. In this way, Keddie concludes that working-class students are denied access to higher status academic knowledge which inevitably restricts their future educational success.

In time, researchers begin to liberate themselves from the ideology of the Marxist movement in favor of new, more enlightened movements. One is the feminist movement. Some feminist research studies have used

reproduction and resistance theories to focus specifically on women's experience in and through schooling. They have demonstrated that although schools claim to support educational equality, the norms, values, expectations and practices of schools reinforce gender stereotypes and constitute a hidden curriculum. The sexist nature of this curriculum reproduces patriarchal relations in society (McRobbie, 1978; McDonald, 1980; Spender & Spender, 1980; Stanworth, 1981). Marxists and feminists agree that oppression is important for the existence of certain social classes. However, feminists believe that, when it comes to women, this domination goes beyond the social class and becomes sexual oppression.

In the past, it was not unusual for males to be favored over females in a classroom setting; this occurrence is still seen today in many cultures and classrooms around the world. Therefore, women are, and sometimes still are, less likely to have the opportunities that men are afforded. This mentality has frequently affected females in schools and, consequently, in the working place (Feinberg & Soltis, 1985).

The limitation of these accounts, like class-based analyses of the hidden curriculum specifically, relates to the extent of their determinism. Some critical researchers have attempted to overcome this limitation by stressing how social relations, norms and values are not only contested by students, but mediated by contexts which are socially, culturally and historically located. Apple (1982, 1986), for example, moves away from the deterministic reproduction tendency apparent in his earlier work to accept that schools are 'producers' as well as 'distributors' of culture. Cornbleth

(1990:52), in positing a view of curriculum as contextualised social process, considers how contradiction, contestation and mediation may lead to different versions of the hidden curriculum being realised in different settings. She states :

Underlying the conception of mediation is the assumption that people, including students, are active participants in the creation and interpretation of their social environments and action. But students are not independent agents; they are shaped by history and culture, and by the immediate social relations and practices of schooling.

A similar line is taken by Lynch (1989:88) who outlines both the universalistic (equalising) and particularistic (differentiating) characteristics of schools. Taken together, these characteristics make it difficult to support simple notions of a male, middle-class dominated society being uniformly transmitted to students through the hidden curriculum.

2.12.4 The Postmodern Perspective

In recent years, postmodernist writers such as Lyotard, Baudrillard, Rorty, Jameson and Foucault have begun to exert a considerable impact on the social sciences. After a slow start (Marshall, 1990: 77), postmodern writings have begun to be applied to the field of education and the work of Foucault, in particular, has attracted much interest (Ball, 1990; Goodson & Dowbiggin, 1990; Pignatelli, 1993). Whilst not specifically focused on the hidden curriculum, Foucault's writings offer considerable insights which can be applied to issues such as: the role of education in social control;

student/student resistance; the exercise of power and the relationship between power and knowledge.

Foucault (1972:96) emphasis on a social reality which is characterised by plurality, fragmentation and disequilibrium. For example, a Foucauldian perspective would seek to challenge the assumed neutrality of functionalist accounts of the hidden curriculum, which stress education's role in socialising young people into a consensus culture of shared values, norms and attitudes. Like liberals and those from the critical perspective, Foucault would like to ask: "How do certain values, attitudes and norms come to be identified as appropriate?"; and : "Through what mechanism do people come to accept them as legitimate?" Unlike most critical researchers, however, Foucault would reject the use of totalising theories of explanation and transformation such as Marxism and feminism.

A Foucauldian approach would also question liberal perspectives on the hidden curriculum for their emphasis on subjectivity, consciousness, meaning and agency. Such an approach would argue that individuals are not free to act, think or interpret independent of persuasive forms of discourse which people choose to inhabit, yet which ultimately control them and their ability to define themselves. The liberal emphasis on the 'speaking' or 'knowing' subject – terms which indicate the ability of individuals to act or think independently of social norms, and to possess personal meaning – would also be regarded as limited, since it would be argued that people cannot be reduced to a fixed identity, position or set of behaviours due to

their complexity (people are ‘de-centred’; ‘multi-vocal’) (Foucault, 1979:50).

Given this position, one might argue that there appears to be little that the hidden curriculum can actually be, devoid of explanatory power (hidden meaning relating to effects on the social structure) or subjective construction (hidden meaning residing in the individual). Skeggs (1991:259) generally states about postmodernists:

The world, according to postmodernists, is opaque; it is all lived on the surface. There is nothing that hides behind its surface appearances. It is not a case of people saying what they mean –rather they don’t mean anything – for there is no meaning to be had; we are all just living simulacra, so it doesn’t matter.

Foucault (1979 & 1981) provides in his explicit references to school as ‘disciplinary institutions’ which produce ‘power-knowledge’, insights which enable the hidden curriculum to be conceptualised as a silkily subtle, complex and highly individualised source of power.

In the past, hidden curriculum writers have tended to either ignore the process of covert learning or assume its linearity. Post-modernist hidden curriculum writing, therefore, might alert readers to the ‘moments’ of student learning, unlearning and re-learning of ideas, values, norms and beliefs (Foucault, 1988: 111).

Many criticisms have been levelled at postmodernism which can be applied equally to the work of Foucault and postmodern perspectives on the

hidden curriculum. Critical theorists, especially of a Marxist persuasion, point to the lack of an adequate analysis of power in postmodern accounts. The postmodern view that power is pluralistic and can be used by anybody, at any time and in any place, takes no account of increasing state intervention in the educational system in the late 1980s (Callinicos, 1989: 99). Many feminists have been suspicious of postmodern writing, seeing it as a way in which disenchanted male academics can reassert themselves by presenting old ideas in new forms (Polan, 1988: 72).

Finally, the purpose of postmodernism has been questioned by critical theorists who can see no ultimate objective in postmodern accounts. Apart from a playful deconstruction and emphasis of the aesthetic mode of presentation (Featherstone, 1988: 47), it has been argued that most postmodern accounts are ultimately vacuous, and therefore implicitly supportive of social and political inaction, complacency and unhappiness (Skeggs, 1991:262).

As a conclusion to what is mentioned above, Cornbleth (1990: 59) writes that although her work is influenced by a number of perspectives, she is not a 'slave' to any one of them. Below is a definition of the hidden curriculum which the researcher wishes to use as a starting point for discussion which seeks to locate own position. The hidden curriculum is that set of implicit messages relating to knowledge, values, norms of behaviour and attitudes that students experience in and through educational processes. These messages may be contradictory, non-linear and punctuational and each student mediates the message in her/his own way.

From this definition, it will be clear that the hidden curriculum seems merely as the living or implicit representation of an idealised blueprint or official curriculum. Rather, the hidden curriculum is the set of mediated messages appropriated by students from the actual teaching and learning processes they experience, which may be contradictory, non-linear and punctuational.

This definition informs a personal perspective like both the liberal and critical perspectives, is sceptical of functionalist accounts of the hidden curriculum which emphasizes the positive aspects of socialisation and the need to control non-normative, deviant behaviour. Such a view is based on a restricted notion of social consensus and ignores the plurality of values and beliefs in contemporary society.

Consequently, the researcher shares an interest in documenting features of the hidden curriculum such as the rules, routines and relations of educational processes which are implicit but important to make public in order to understand the student's experience of schooling. On the other hand, he shares the view of Marxist or critical researchers that liberal accounts of 'micro' processes within the learning context are limited in ignoring the 'outside', external social world. Following , the researcher believes that it is important to consider and document how the relationship between educational processes and society may be expressed in and through particular educational contexts.

On these lines, the researcher agrees with the view that students cannot be accurately presented as 'controlled' by the hidden curriculum of

educational process or simply as ‘resistors’, and disagrees with the view that subjects possess singular and non-contradictory perspectives or responses to the hidden curriculum. In this way, postmodernism encourages a more realistic view of the inherent contradictions within the subject, which may be difficult to demonstrate in research articles.

2.13 Theories of Hidden Curriculum

Various studies have been conducted on review of the hidden curriculum theories. In this study the work of Dreeben (1968), Lynch (1989), Margolis (2001) and Giroux (2001) have been utilized in order to explain the scope of hidden curriculum. The hidden curriculum is acknowledged as the socialization process of schooling. Accordingly, Drebeben (1968:32) argues that each student has different parental background and when each attends to school, he/she encounters the norms of schools that will prepare them to involve in the life of public sphere(s). He defines these norms as independence, achievement, universalism, and specificity and suggested that these norms are required to teach them in order to collaborate with modern industrial society.

Lynch (1989:41) argues that educational institutions have universalistic and particularistic hidden aspects that enable an unequal environment for students. Although some of them are visible such as syllabuses, school time and exam procedures that might be accepted as universalistic, some of them are hidden such as social activities and reward systems that might be accepted as particularistic. Giroux (2001:13) identifies hidden curriculum as what is being taught and how one learns in the school

as he also indicates that schools not only provide instruction but also more such as norms and principles experienced by students throughout their education life. Margolis et al. (2001:5) argues that hidden curriculum, the school and classroom life, is the reproduction of schooling that enables to understand school hegemonic function(s) that also maintains power of state. The works of former researchers will be summarized in the following paragraphs in detail.

In that context, Durkheim (1961:29) observes that more is taught and learned in schools than specified in the established curriculum of textbooks and teacher manuals. Even though it is not directly mentioned as hidden curriculum, this refers to hidden curriculum. In "Moral Education" Durkheim writes:

In fact, there is a whole system of rules in the school that predetermine the child's conduct. He must come to class regularly, he must arrive at a specified time and with an appropriate bearing and attitude. He must not disrupt things in class. He must have learned his lessons, done his homework, and have done so reasonably well, etc. There are, therefore, a host of obligations that the child is required to shoulder. Together they constitute the discipline of the school. It is through the practice of school discipline that we can inculcate the spirit of discipline in the child .

Accordingly, Jackson (1968:148) identifies features of classroom life that are inherent in the social relations of schooling. According to his analysis, there are values, dispositions, and social and behavioral expectations that brought rewards in school for students and that learning what is expected as a feature of the hidden curriculum. This hidden curriculum is defined as learning to wait quietly, exercising restraint, trying,

completing work, keeping busy, cooperating, showing allegiance to both teachers and peers, being neat and punctual, and conducting oneself courteously.

As indicated above, Dreeben (1968:36) also examines the norms of school culture and concludes that these norms are taught to students in term of “form transient social relationships, submerge much of their personal identity, and accept the legitimacy of categorical treatment”. He focuses on the identifiable social structure of the classroom -for example waiting before getting time to teacher- and argues that classroom structure teaches students about the authority.

Margolis et al. (2001:11) note that the works of Durkheim, Jackson and Dreeben are collected under the heading of **Consensus Theory** which provides the foundation for the general definition of the hidden curriculum as the elements of socialization that take place in school. However, it is not the formal curriculum in school. These include the norms, values and the belief systems throughout the curriculum, the school and classroom life. Students are informed the formers through daily routines, curricular content, and social relationships.

Although this approach provides the foundation for the general properties of the hidden curriculum and confirms that schools exist to serve the interests of the larger society, Lynch (1989:44) claims that this approach has a number of limitations. First, it falls under consensus theory which stresses consensus and stability while rejecting changes caused by conflict. Second, viewing the norms and belief system that the school is transmitting as unproblematic and indisputable. This approach treats students as passive

receipts defined in reductionist behavioral terms. Students are viewed only as the products of socialization without the ability to make meaning for themselves.

Accordingly, Bowles and Gintis published a book entitled "Schooling in Capitalist America" (1976:76) in which they argue from a Marxist perspective that refers to the authority structure of schooling. They develop a "**Correspondence Thesis Theory**" in which the key principle is that "a structural correspondence" occurs between the social relations of school life and production. In other words, the values and culture of middle and upper-class are dominant throughout school life; however, the low-class students are lack of them and suppressed. From this perspective, social inequality is reproduced through hidden curriculum.

Willis (1997:42) introduces the concept of **resistance theory**. He mentions the school's role in social reproduction, Willis claims that residence is not merely in some dominant and invincible institutional determinants, but also in the cultural forms produced by the "lads" in their resistance to the authority of the school (Gorden, 1984:105-115). According to Willis, the hidden curriculum of the school structure is important in determining the reproduction of class relations in schools. Otherwise, it should be understood as the hidden curriculum of cultural production when defining the dynamics of social and cultural reproductionism (Lynch, 1989:112).

From another perspective, theorists including Apple, Anyon, and Giroux describe how hidden curriculum practices are provided. Their common point is that **social reproduction theory** emerges with the inclusion

of the social organization of the school and the authority relationships between teachers and students.

Apple (1982:4) defines the hidden curriculum in a way that points out to the concept of hegemony. He argues that the concept of hegemony shapes the school in many respects and defines schools as not just distributors but also producers of culture that are vital for the socialization of students. In other words, students encounter various norms and cultures through rules and activities during their school and classroom life that form the social life in the school. Also, in another work, "Ideology and Curriculum". Apple (2001:409-423) identifies that the hidden curriculum corresponds to the ideological needs of capital. Lynch (1989:33) emphasizes that Apple regards the manner of distributing high-status curricular knowledge as a core element of the hidden curriculum of reproduction.

Yet, Anyon (1980:67-92) published an article entitled "Social Class and the Hidden Curriculum of Work". Where she reports the findings of a study in five schools in which she investigates how students of different economic classes receive very different types of educations. For that reason, she compares two working-class schools, one middle class school, an upper middle class school, and an elite school. She finds a connection between the social class of the students, the type of education they receive in school, and the type of work. She observes that students in poor schools are prepared to become obedient laborers, while students in elite schools are prepared to become original thinkers and leaders. She notes that her article attempts a theoretical contribution as well and assesses student work in the light of a **theoretical approach to social-class analysis.**

Thus, the hidden curriculum as a socialization of schooling can be identified by the social interactions within an environment. Thus, it is in process at all times, and serves to transmit tacit messages to students about values, attitudes and principles. The hidden curriculum can be revealed through an evaluation of the environment and the unexpected, unintentional interactions between teachers and students which revealed critical pedagogy.

As mentioned above , every theorist has taken an important point into consideration, principally, exploring how pedagogical practices of schooling inform and socialize students. Also, many of them claim that the demands of upper and middle class are dominant throughout schooling. Particularly, the concept of hegemony and resistance are significant in the evaluation of hidden curriculum. Therefore, when examining the hidden curriculum of schooling, researchers should focus on them.

2.14 The Impact of Hidden Curriculum

Admittedly , the impact of not knowing , understanding or following the hidden curriculum in education can cause a student to be bullied, ignored, made fun of him, or be misunderstood by his/her surroundings . Its impact can be felt in certain important aspects of the hidden curriculum which are so intrinsic or extrinsic to the nature of schools as a cultural institution that they might be seen like constants or variables as it is described below.

2.14.1 The Constants of the Hidden Curriculum

The depiction of those constants presented below has been influenced by a close reading of several authors: curricular reconceptualists such as Apple (1979), Pinar (1978), and Giroux (1983); sociologists such as Dreeben (1968); and educational researchers such as Jackson (1968) and Goodlad (1984). One of the constants of the hidden curriculum is the ideology of the larger society, which permeates every aspect of schooling.

2.14.1.1 Society

Society is continually changing as a result of the fast moving pace of technology. The Internet is now a major provider of information which are used both at schools and houses. Information is now available at the click of a finger. Teachers are no longer the sole providers of knowledge and information. Learning is no longer limited to space or time. Learning can take place online at any time or from any location. Schools may lose their place unless they advance with the times. They do not need to mirror an outdated social structure. They can now integrate technology and open their doors to new and more challenging curriculums .

A school curriculum is an organized framework that guides teachers and students in the required learning. It is similar to a "contract between society, the State, and educational professionals with regard to the educational experiences that students should undergo during a certain phase of their lives" (Braslavsky, 1999:88). Both the school and the community have a say in the development of the written and unwritten or hidden school curriculum.

Deutsch (2004 : 2) explains that the word "curriculum" literally means to 'run the course', as in curriculum vitae, the course of one's life. The 'curriculum' of the society is viewed here as a long term process of cultural change which consist of the myriad activities and behaviours that people are explicitly being asked to participate in and subscribe to. The hidden curriculum of the process of cultural change comprises the attitudes, values, ethics, norms and competencies that are required for this process. The main purpose is to highlight the nature of hidden curriculum particularly in relation to releasing hidden social wealth and increasing social productivity.

Giroux (2001) identifies schools as political institutions, inextricably linked to the issues of power and control in the dominant society. Citing Giroux, Giroux and Penna (1983:30), he notes that the schools mediate and legitimate the social and cultural reproduction of class, racial and gender relations in dominant society. When comparing with Bowles and Gintis, Giroux considers that it is possible for students to resist powers in schools. In other words, school environment can enhance individual's understanding of power in society and provide new possibilities for social organization.

Interestingly , the impact of hidden curriculum in society can be drawn into three major orientations , viz ; the functionalist orientation is the most concerned with how hidden curricula reproduce unified societies, the conflict orientation focuses on the reproduction of stratified societies, and symbolic interactionism orientation which is more fully incorporated with interactional context to the understanding of the hidden curriculum. These three orientations are focused on education as a tool in maintaining orderly

societies and producing appropriately socialized individuals. Functionalist works are often collected under the label of consensus theory. Consensus theory depicts schools as benign institutions that rationally sort and order individuals in order to fill high and low status positions, meeting society's need for both experts and low-skilled workers (Hamilton & Powell , 2007: 78).

2.14.2 The Variables of the Hidden Curriculum

Several important aspects of the hidden curriculum can be more readily changed by educators. The most significant of these can be classified into three categories: organizational variables, social-system variables, and culture variables.

2.14.2.1 Organizational Variables

The term organizational variables are used here to designate all those decisions about how teachers will be assigned and students grouped for instruction. A key component of the educational institution as an organization is the classroom, where the most salient aspects of the hidden curriculum come into play. Organizational variables might include class size and instructions, teacher, student's learning, non- categorical special help, special programs like reading recovery, better libraries and better access to books, as well as extended day after school programs, and textbooks (Cunningham & Allington, 1994:132).

1- Classroom Size and Instructions

Commonly, hidden curriculum is used as a means of classroom management by many teachers. This task is supported by LeCompte (1978:22-37) who asserts that hidden curriculum is embodied in teacher's classroom management approach including some certain rules. She classifies the classroom management rules into five behaviors such as; do what the teacher says, live up to teacher expectations for proper behaviour, keep busy, keep quiet and don't move too much, and obey the schedule.

The students' seating plan is one of the patterns in the classroom environment. The hidden idea about seating plan may be constituted for the convenient classroom environment allowing students to act independently and to help to each other if they need. The teacher supports the students by sitting at the table behind the students. This organization underlines that being an individual is important for the school's educational goal even so that the idea of collective work is better than doing individual work.

The physical arrangement of the classroom is an important factor for creating the learning states. Martin (1976:135-151) emphasizes the importance of setting for seeing the effects of hidden curriculum. She asserts that hidden curriculum can be understood by examining aspects of the setting and discovering what learning states they produce.

In this context, much of discussions have a profound impact on class size on curriculum planning and implementation. Many authors and researchers believe that smaller class sizes facilitate better teaching and more personalized instruction, while some authors and researchers do not. The key is that smaller class size may facilitate but does not necessarily ensure better

teaching and learning. Most individuals do agree, however, that class size does affect how the curriculum is delivered and thus the curriculum's nature can be implicit.

The outward factors of hidden curriculum which influence the students within the classroom include; the relationships between teachers and students, the activities that contribute to learning in the classroom, as well as other concrete factors such as the furniture and overall aesthetic structures inside the classroom itself.

The educational institution environment has an influencing factor in the creation of the written as well as hidden school curriculum. It is in the student's best interest to have a working dialogue between the college as well as the community to maintain an effective learning environment (Wren, 1999: 51). The differences between established curriculums and hidden curriculums in classroom are very clear. Teachers teach what is set for them in the written curriculum and the students learn the concepts and harvest the information that the teacher sets out for them from the curriculum. While this process is taking place, the teacher may not realize that s/he is transmitting other signals to the students that can be labeled as hidden curriculum (Cornbleth, 2009:87).

Students may realize what is happening faster than the teacher because the ideas that are being conveyed force them to change the way they might normally think or feel in order to be successful in the class. They quickly learn that conformity is the best way to be successful and earn high

grades in the class. This indirect way of motivation can be very effective in the classroom depending on how the teacher portrays the information.

The hidden curriculum is critical to master within the classroom, but it has changed since the middle of last century. In some ways it can be argued that hidden curriculum is more important than the regular curriculum. In fact, it is in the enacted curriculum practice by teachers that it is possible to observe the fact that the hidden curriculum is taught in the classroom. It is in the messages implicit in the teacher's actions, students' and teachers' daily interaction in classrooms, textbooks, or out of college policies that one may find the implementation of the hidden curriculum.

As Turner (1983:199) notes that hidden curriculum is available side by side within the manifestation of curriculum, knowledge, skills, and attitudes. In addition to that, educational institutions are charged with teaching which may make as much if not more impact on students, for instance, unintended stereotypical messages about minorities or ethnic groups, the role of male and females, the work ethic to be cultivate or the meaning of success and failure in educational institution.

In fact, student learning and instruction are also influenced by classroom size and arrangement of the furniture. Class size is a variable that affects instruction and learning. Smaller classes are easier to manage. Dividing the class into teams or sub-grouping is a wonderful solution. Each member is unique on the team. The teacher can walk around and devote quality time to each individual team.

One possible sticking point in the classroom is the fact that both teachers and students may have biases that might interfere with each other, such as moral issues. This would have to be handled tactfully and with care for the effectiveness of the classroom to be upheld. One way to remedy this may be for the teacher to cover other cultures and the way that they handle certain moral issues. This may help to create students that are more tolerable of other people's opinions; a trait that is very valuable later in life (Cornbleth, 2009:91).

In sum, the classroom is a crowded place, where issues of control often become dominant. Control is achieved through the differential use of power; the teacher uses several kinds of power to control the selection of content, the methods of learning, movement in the classroom, and the flow of classroom discourse. Control also is achieved by the skillful use of accountability measures; teachers spend much time evaluating and giving evaluative feedback. In such a classroom, students unconsciously learn the skills and traits required by the larger society; they learn how to be punctual, clean, docile, and conforming. They learn how to stand in line, take their turn, and wait. Even though the above features of the hidden curriculum are presented here as constants relatively impervious to change, it is important for curriculum leaders to be aware of their subtle and pervasive influence. The most important component in changing this stifling situation (biases) in the classroom is the teacher because she or he control the social dynamic of the classroom.

2- Teacher

The old idea of the teacher having the atmosphere of a strict authoritarian within the classroom has slowly been replaced by the teacher being more of a passive facilitator in the student's learning agenda. Actually, teachers have their own personalities, values, interest, strengths, and weakness. These also affect the hidden curriculum. On the one hand, the hidden curriculum may limit teachers' instruction because it forces them to teach students how to behave in ways that may not enhance learning instead of devoting time to content and other skills that could facilitate lifelong learning. This takes time away from the written curriculum's "plan for learning" (UOP, 2002: 37).

On the other hand, teachers are accountable to students, parents, the administration, supervisors and principals who have needs, expectations, philosophies, motivation, and unique self-concepts. Teachers should consider these aspects and apply them to their instruction because they impact on students learning. By having the whole student in mind, teachers have the massive responsibility of helping students to develop their learning environment to facilitate learning.

Accounting for the needs, expectations, philosophies and self-concepts of all the stakeholders is a tough task. Teachers need to find the right style of instruction to satisfy their students and their parents. They can utilize needs assessment questionnaire to help find a common denominator. This is a good way for teachers to show that they care and increase motivation. Students

claim that consideration of their feelings and needs has brought them closer to their teacher and to learning.

The hidden curriculum is primarily the purview of the teacher with the exception of latent messages in the curriculum materials and college policies. Teachers communicate their values, expectations and other messages through the hidden curriculum while they teach the overt curriculum, manage their learning styles and administrative tasks, maintain discipline, and attend other responsibilities (McGutcheon, 1988 : 198). Moreover , teachers need to take into account the fact that not everyone learns in the exact same way. Every student has their own unique learning style. One student may learn information better by sight, while the next student learns better through listening. There are also some students that have a combination of these and may require extra specialized attention . Briefly, every student is different and they all should have a chance to be effective students.

3- Students' learning

Obviously, the formal curriculum accounts for a relatively small share of learning that students acquire in the educational institution . It is estimated that the share of these leanings are as little as 10 percent of all learning ; the rest being attributed to the hidden curriculum (Massialas,1989:73-75). Student learning –as Jackson, Goodlad, Dreeben, and others have demonstrated is affected by the classroom and the general educational institution climates in which students find themselves. After

studying e.g. colleges nationwide, one investigator concludes that in spite of the stated goals to this effect colleges "did not place a high premium on experiencing democratic process, independent thinking , creativity, personal autonomy, and learning for the sake of the learning" (Goodlad, 1988:340).

So, what students experienced in virtually all the subjects areas was conditions where those behaviours were fostered that sought right answers, conforming and reproducing the known. These behaviors are daily reinforced by the physical of the group and classroom, the kind of questions teachers ask, the nature of seatwork exercises assigned and the format of testS and quizzes (Ibid. , 341).

The agenda of the student must not be overlooked when examining the educational institutions patterns of organizational structures. Students receive messages from social contacts acquired in educational institutions as frequently as they do from teachers. These connections are often unplanned and informal but may not be as straightforward and trouble-free as the student would at first believe. Snyder (1971) brings the prospect that students "create hidden curriculum" , students who do not want to be confined with masses of homework and class assignments may inquire of the teacher or another students, for instance, "how much do I have to do to pass?" (Lin, 1979:151). Some students form interconnections with a hidden purpose or agenda in mind, such as a male student who realizes that he needs assistance and inherent a relationship with an intelligent female (Doll, 1978:33). These unofficial influences may either support or weaken the realization of a student's discernible goal (McNeil,1977:54).

The hidden curriculum impacts groups of students differently. A study of colleges catered students according to the different social-classes backgrounds. The findings of the study show that the hidden curriculum affects the learning of these groups of students in a number of ways, for example , students who attend "working-class college" engage in mechanistic learning based on rote work. Very little or no explanations is given by teacher of the phenomena which are studied in various, whether the subjects are language, arts , social studies or math. In contrast , the students' works of the " affluent professional college" and the "executive elite college.", are marked by " creative activity carried out independently . The students are continually asked to express and apply ideas and concepts. (Anyon, 1980:67-81).

Actually , students acquire these hidden ideas while attending the educational institutions , for instance, colleges. In many colleges they still consist of norms and values that "colleges promote" such as being punctual, competitive, waiting one's turn, learning to accept hierarchy of authority, patience and other "goals and functions of the wider society" (Marsh, 1997:54).

Approximately , Dreeben (1968:221) and Myles et al. (2004:99) expose an example to clarify how can student acquire hidden curriculum in classroom ? ; a teacher might say that he is not upset with his class or with a specific student, but the students read a completely different story from what they see. If the teacher frowns, looks stern with his arms crossed over his chest, the students may see and interpret his body language as angry and closed off. The difference between what the student hears and sees (hidden

curriculum) creates conflicting messages that each student must try to decipher. Regardless of the teacher's intention, an unspoken, unwritten message has been sent. All that remains, at this point, is how each student will interpret the hidden message and whether the interpretation will assist or detract from the path of learning

Colleges promote socializing codes of behavior may adversely affect students and their learning. Teachers convey many messages to students from the outset of their students' environments . Noel (2000:64) describes a situation in a college where the teacher controlled the student's behavior and perception of the world in a negative way. The youngsters had to adjust their emotional responses to conform to those considered appropriate by the teacher . They do not always feel at ease with being quiet and not being able to express their feelings. The hidden curriculum sometimes determines limitations to students behavior in the classroom and in the educational institution which may be a hindrance to learning.

There are other factors such as student learning styles, learning groups, bias, and students with special needs that impact instruction and students learning. Students learning styles suggest individualized learning. Not everyone learns in the same way, every student is unique in his or her learning style. A student may be visual, tactile, auditory, kinesis or a combination of these. Each student has the right to his or her special way of learning. The teachers' instruction will take this into account (UOP:2002, 132).

Learning is no longer dependent on what the teacher does as much as what the student does. Teachers are not actively teaching but walking around facilitating student learning. Students are now in the spotlight. The layout of the classroom does not need to be rigid to suggest teacher control. The teacher can arrange the furniture in a different way. Instead of having tables and chairs arranged in a formal way, students can sit in a circle without a table or in teams with the tables joined together. The furniture and plan need careful planning .

Teachers no longer control their students. Facilitators can now collaborate with their students as they share in the learning and teaching skills, models, methods and experience. They are both willing partners in the process of learning. They can reflect on their experiences and feelings, the teacher should now become a facilitator for students who take responsibility for their own learning.

Here, four issues seem worthy of attention: team teaching, promotion and retention policies, ability grouping, and curriculum tracking. The evidence on the effects of team teaching on student achievement is somewhat inconclusive. Even though many educational institution systems during the 1980s have been implemented “promotional gates” policies that promote students solely on the basis of achievement, several syntheses of the research indicate that social promotion results in better attitudes toward educational institutions, better self-image, and improved achievement.

Grouping practices in the educational institutions have often been attacked by critics as one of the most baleful aspects of the hidden

curriculum. Here the indictment of Giroux and Penna (1979:223) is perhaps typical: “The pedagogical foundation for democratic processes in the classroom can be established by eliminating the pernicious practice of “tracking” students. This tradition in educational institutions of grouping students according to “abilities” and perceived performance is of dubious instructional value.”

Two problems surface with such an indictment. The first is that the authors seem to ignore a rather important distinction made by Rosenbaum (1980:361) between ability grouping—sorting students into ability-based groups for instruction (such as high, average, and low ability)—and curriculum grouping: sorting students into such curricular tracks as vocational, general, and college preparatory. The other, more serious problem is that the empirical evidence available does not support their assertions. The practice of curriculum grouping or tracking, in which students follow a predetermined career-oriented program, such as college preparatory or vocational, seems to be a more complex matter.

According to Rosenbaum (1980:404) many students are in curricular tracks that are inconsistent with career choices. The lack of congruence is complicated by the fact that curricular tracking is relatively stable, and there is more movement from college preparatory to general and vocational than the other way around.

The chief problem with curriculum tracking, according to researchers, is the lack of challenge in the general curriculum. Secada (1992:87) concludes that tracking or ability grouping generally benefited only those students placed in high-end groups while having a detrimental effect on

students placed in low-end groups. Evidence of other negative results exists due to tracking students based on ability. Such as :

- Minorities and low-income students are disproportionately represented (Century, 1994:11).
- Experiences in mathematics and science differ between minorities and low-income students compared to their more advantaged white peers during elementary school (Oakes, Ormseth, Bell, & Camp, 1990:71).
- Students in low-ability tracks tend to receive lower-quality instruction (Secada, 1992:89).
- Students in lower-ability tracks have difficulty in moving up to higher-ability tracks (Century, 1994:12).

Another option in ability tracking is between-class grouping. Students participating in this arrangement find themselves grouped at different ability levels for each subject, depending upon their ability in that subject area. Secada (1992:92) finds the negative results plaguing fulltime grouping also to be a problem here. Most researchers agree that grouping is beneficial for gifted students. Advocates of grouping and opponents alike maintain the necessity to continue grouping gifted students together and that any reforms introduced to tracking in a educational institution not necessarily affect gifted and talented programs (Century, 1994:15). Nevertheless, high-end grouping practices must include regular entry evaluations for students to ensure that these gifted tracks are open to all.

A better alternative to tracking would be the regular use of cooperative learning groups. Cooperative learning groups within a heterogeneous classroom have been shown to result in higher achievement,

little or no psychological harm to the students, and reduced segregation (Slavin, 1987:47-48). Students also gain experience in individual accountability and responsibility, as well as acquiring skills in working with others. The weight of the research evidence suggests educational leaders interested in improving the organizational variables of the hidden curriculum might focus their attention on promotion policies and curriculum tracking as the key variables. They should ensure the general curriculum is neither dull nor trivial.

Marzano, et. al, (2001:67) state that non-categorical has a special help as a substantial and yet hidden impact on the educational institution's schedule in that staff may have to adjust classes in order to compensate for students' being out of the room. Teachers also have to adjust their classroom organization to accommodate students' arriving back into a classroom after receiving special help in another setting. The hidden aspect of these special phonics-based programs is that primary teachers must now schedule their units and lessons around these intensive reading programs to accommodate high-risk children. There is little doubt about the impact of these special programs on how the curriculum in the classroom is being delivered.

Educational institutions with better libraries and/or that provide students with better access to books may have an advantage over schools that do not. Getting reading and informational materials to students in a timely matter can be a key to learning. Albeit hidden, the ability of a teacher to have access to textbooks and materials will make a big difference on how that teacher will teach.

4- Formal Curriculum (Textbooks)

Many curriculum analysts have focused on discrepancy between what a curriculum ought to be taken place in educational institutions and what first hand observation reveals actually does take place. This discrepancy underlies the concept of hidden curriculum (Gregg, 1995:579).

A formal and hidden curriculum exist in all academic settings, though the extent to which their messages reinforce each other vary. The notion of a “formal” curriculum has been described as a plan or program for all experiences which the student encounters under the direction of the school (Oliva, 1982:5). This plan, as represented by standards documents, course syllabi, textbooks, and assignments, needs to be carefully examined to understand the nature of any program. The hidden curriculum now provides an opportunity to examine a new institutional context characterized, at least within the formal curriculum, by a different view of teachers and teaching.

Grioux & Penna (1983:113) assert that the hidden curriculum of the college, through the process of prevailing in the classroom “militate against students developing a sense of community”. This happens primarily because “competitions” and “individual striving” are emphasized ,for example ,students are always prompted to compete for good grades, for being the “teachers' pets,” or being able to join the most desirable college clubs or scholarships and so on. Individualism is also fostered through the classroom seating arrangements where there is an attempt to have students be distance from each other. In this milieu, the seats are arrange in rows , thus preventing students from establishing eye contact with other students, usually in the context of maintaining classroom discipline.

To respond to a question, whether or not the hidden curriculum is inimical to the formal curriculum, is that , as a rule , the two curricula are antithetical to each other. The formal curriculum preaches democracy, but the hidden curriculum impose autocracy. The formal curriculum stress academic knowledge and understanding; the hidden curriculum stress the polite process as a means of college achievement , but the college and classroom are not only purveyor of the hidden curriculum (Massialas,1996:61-62) .

So, it is apparent from this discussion that the hidden curriculum is generally in conflict with the formal curriculum . Naturally this conflict should not be existed or, at least, it should be minimized . How can this conflict, however, be eliminated or reduced when the colleges and key players are resistant to any significant change?

5- Testing

The past decades schools have undergone rapid changes in their knowledge base because of technology, in family structure because of economic and class structure, and in parenting and pedagogy because of changing values. The consequences of all of these changes are dynamic, and they are causing a great deal of upheaval in public education. There are extensive implications of “high stakes” testing which defines the curriculum, stifles student motivation and determines teacher behaviors. On the surface, today’s typical classroom may look homogeneous, but in reality students have a wide range of abilities and needs, which the prescribed curriculum does not allow for or recognize. It is believed that these are some of the

hidden consequences that affect students as a result of high stakes testing (Hong,2001:1).

When developing curriculum in the classroom, educators need to be aware of the importance placed on evaluation, knowing that it can adversely affect intrinsic motivation, and in turn, lifelong learning. Most teachers have probably faced the dilemma of how to assign a grade to the bright student who does not produce assignments, even though this student knows the work, or the students who have difficulty with written text but can strongly articulate what they know. Rather than providing evaluation criteria that asks for the same performance from each student, educators need to look at how evaluation methods address each student's strengths and ways of learning.

Tests that determine the outcome of a student's academic success are known as "high stakes" tests, because their results are very significant for the students who take them and because the result can determine their future. There is considerable controversy about the ethical value of using, standardized, multiple-choice tests to either predict a student's future performance, or as a measure for entering educational institutions. One ethical issue concerning these tests is that almost all standardized tests have a bias outcome against most minority students, and another problem is that the test themselves are inherently flawed. Teachers are forced to abandon acknowledging and building upon the diversity in the classroom in order to implement prescribed objectives and performance criteria which "threatens to turn teaching into a mechanical process of training students to pass tests, while unnecessarily restricting teachers' freedom to open their students'

minds” (Osborne, 1999: 41). Standardized tests are also poor predictors of how well students can apply the knowledge that they demonstrate on these tests .Furthermore, standardized tests scores are not accurate predictors of how students will do in future .

According to Kohn (2002:56) standardized test has swelled and mutated, like a creature in one of those old horror movies, to the point that it threatens to swallow educational institutions as a whole. Kohn also lists indisputable facts on “high stakes” testing that are detrimental to the well being of students: “Our students are tested to an extent that is unprecedented in our history.Non instructional factors explain most of the variance among test scores.Norm-referenced tests are never intended to measure the quality of learning or teaching. Standardized-test scores often measure superficial thinking. The time, energy, and money that are being devoted to preparing students for standardized tests must come from somewhere. Many educators left the field because of what is being done to the educational institution in the name of “accountability” and “tougher standards”. These facts define the multitude of problems that come about because of over testing students, and as a career educator. Educators and teachers have an ethical responsibility to offer students a more meaningful education, which is reflective of the nature of the student and his/her future.

There is a problem with using a single high stake test to measure a student’s knowledge. The manner in which students fare on standardized tests can be greatly influenced by many external factors, including stress over taking the test, amount of sleep, distractions at the testing site, time of day, emotional state, and many other factors. These are just some of the inequities

in modern day testing practices. The intelligence quotient (IQ) test is one such test that is often used to justify tracking, and variations in education. Many students are entitled to special placement, rewards, and resources because they scored higher on the IQ test than their counterparts. IQ tests do not measure creativity, logic and critical thinking skills. Thus, putting these students in a lower achieving track with fewer resources and less experienced teachers is inequitable. Teachers and curriculum are the major keys in breaking the bonds that hold lower class students to their lower socioeconomic structure. These students desire and deserve the opportunity to achieve in society as well as any other social class. With the proper educational institution structure, equal funding, appropriate use of tests, and equal teachers and curriculum the gap can be bridged across the social classes (Apple,1990:82-104).

On the other hand, examinations seem to carry a hidden curriculum of student's own. Although the major purpose of examinations is to assess students' performance as well as they can have a considerable effect upon:

- methods of teaching;
- students' levels of motivation;
- assignment of senior teachers to particular classes;
- interactions between a teacher and students.

Turner (1983:70) suggests that for some students, the hidden curriculum effects of examinations are to stimulate conformity to teachers' demands. However some students may seek deviant behaviour because it is more attractive to them than passing examinations. Some of the very able

students may be very selective and only conform in activities that they perceive are directly related to the passing of examinations.

In sum, students' access to a rich and comprehensive curriculum that will encourage them to be lifelong students and successful in further education and employment is compromised. The subjects of Social Studies are neglected because they are not tested. There are fewer opportunities to learn outside the classroom because there is no time to have field trips where students explore for themselves.

2.14.2.2 Social-System Variables

The term social system as an aspect of the educational institution climate is first used by Tagiuri (1968:143) to refer to the social dimension concerned with the patterned relationships of persons and groups in the educational institution. Anderson's (1982:368-420) reviews of the research on educational institution climate with indication to several social-system factors which are associated with positive student attitude and achievement. Several of these factors have to do with administrator-teacher relationships, such as: the principal is actively involved in instruction in which there are good rapport and communications between administrators and teachers; teachers share in the decision-making process in which there are good relationships among teachers; teacher-student relationships in which teacher-student interactions in general are positive and constructive; students share in decision making; and there are extensive opportunities for student participation in activities. Obviously, all these factors can be influenced through effective leadership by both administrators and teachers.

Giroux & Penna (1983:100-119) state another social aspect of curriculum that may be hidden is the involvement of parents and community. Although parents may not directly create a change in curriculum, their approval or disapproval can have a tremendous impact on how an educational institution is operated, what is taught? and how it is taught? An example might be the involvement of parents at the certain level and their support of technology. When parents are in the school at any level and see the impact that technology is having on their son, they often become major supporters of educational technology. This support is generated in the passage of special levies and bonds that effect the use of technology at all grade levels—even college.

The involvement of the community can also have an impact on curriculum development in much the same way. If members of the community feel positive about what is happening in their educational institutions, they are much more apt to support the educational institutions financially. This financial support might include more staff, improved facilities, materials, and/or staff development. The connection to the curriculum may not be readily apparent or even hidden to some, but it is definitely a major factor in the success of the educational institution (Giroux, 1979:248-253).

2.14.2.3 Culture Variables

Culture is a concept which needs to be handled carefully. Nowadays, it is much used, often far too loosely. One of the problems is that the most common use of the word – as national culture – is very broad and conjures up vague notions about nations, races and sometimes whole continents, which

are too generalized to be useful, and which often become mixed up with stereotypes and prejudices. It is easy to talk about, for example, the learning problems of a particular group of students as being influenced by ‘Arab culture’, or ‘Confucian culture’; but such cultures, if indeed they are identifiable, are so complex and vast that they are no longer useful devices for investigating what is happening in the classroom between people. It is necessary to be far more precise than this. Bowers makes the cogent point that so-called cultural differences in the educational context can be much more in terms of class and educational differences between or within societies than between societies, and that it is ‘both impracticable and unprofitable’ to attempt to define these differences in terms of national cultures (Holliday;1994: 21-22).

The first effort to define culture is made by anthropologists. In his book “ Primitive Culture” (1871)the English anthropologist Tylor gives what is considered a classic definitions : Culture ... is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society ”(cited in the New Encyclopedia Britannica 1991:874).

The anthropological definition of culture is also shared by scholars of the other fields, including that of language. Lado (1957:52) states that to be successful in another language learning and to communicate effectively, linguistics knowledge is not enough. Besides that, interacting skills and cultural knowledge are required. As a result, to raise students’ awareness of cross-cultural differences is essential to avoid culture shock or

communication breakdown. However, Lado summarizes that culture is a synonymous with the ‘ways of people’; Chastain (1988:302) defines culture as the way people live. While, Brown (2000:176-177) mentions that a culture is a way of life. He states that culture also includes the ideas, customs, skills, art, and tools that characterize a given group of people in a given period of time.

Trinovitch (1980:550) defines culture as “...an all-inclusive system which incorporates the biological and technical behavior of human beings with their verbal and non-verbal systems of expressive behavior starting from birth, and this “all-inclusive system” is acquired as the native culture. This process, which can be referred to as “socialization”, prepares the individual for the linguistically and non-linguistically accepted patterns of the society in which one lives. To Papalia, Olds, & Feldman (2004:16) culture refers to a society's or group's total way of life, including customs, traditions, beliefs, ethics, values, language, and physical product. From tools to the artworks---all of the learned behaviour passed on from parents to children. Culture is constantly changing, often through contact with other cultures.

For Brooks (1968 :204-217) culture means everyday lifestyle of ordinary citizens and the values, ethics, norms, beliefs, and prejudices they share with their fellows within their linguistic and social groups, with due attention to intragroup differences (of social class, for instances). These everyday patterns of living, the “deep culture” as Brooks has called it, pervade the teaching at the earlier levels when emphasis is on situations of everyday life.

One of the current roles in any educational institutions is to lead a group of staff who are interested in exploring the significance of interculturalism within the educational institution community, and to explore ways of furthering intercultural education and sharing relevant best practice. This has led to creating the following image. It is based on work originating in the 1970s by cultural / social anthropologists and, soon after, business theorists .

The idea of culture as an iceberg is simple but powerful when reflecting on how an educational institution could actively promote intercultural education. One readily identifies with the more ‘visible’ and ‘obvious’ aspects of culture, and so recognizes where pupils celebrate these aspects within the educational institution programme. However, for genuinely meaningful intercultural education to take place, the whole educational institution community needs to reflect on and learn about the less tangible but no less important ‘invisible’ aspects as suggested below the waterline in the image below. Crucially, the cultural aspects on the visible part of the iceberg are influenced by the ‘invisible’ and ‘hidden’ aspects of culture such as values, beliefs, notions, attitudes and assumptions etc. The iceberg model of culture has been arrived at through the work of many theorists, including ; Selfridge & Sokolik ,1975; Hall , 1976; Weaver,1986;and French, & Bell, 1995.Have look on the below image.



Figure 2 The Iceberg Model of Culture (Stanly,1970)

Whether it is called (Fr.) civilisation, (G.) Landeskunde, or (Eng.) culture, culture is often seen as mere information conveyed by the language, not as a feature of language itself; cultural awareness becomes an educational objective in itself, separate from language. If, however, language is seen as social practice, culture becomes the very core of language teaching. Cultural awareness must then be viewed both as enabling language proficiency and as being the outcome of reflection on language proficiency (Kramsch; 1993:8).

Some cultures have variant subcultures, associated with the certain groups, usually, ethnic groups, within a society. An ethnic groups consist of people united by ancestry, religion, language and /national origins, which contribute to a sense of shared identity and shared attitudes, beliefs, values , ethics , and norms. Most ethnic groups trace their roots to country of origin, where they are or forbears had a common culture that constitutes to influence

their a way of life . The term race, historically is viewed as a biological category, is now considered a social one , similar to ethnicity (American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Pediatrics Research , 2000 : 1349 - 1351).

Today, researchers are motivated to pay much more attention to ethnic and cultural attention differences , than in the past, it is difficult, if it is not possible, to present a truly of comprehensive pictures of these differences . Even cross cultural studies cannot capture all of the variations within and among cultures.

2.14.2.3.1 Culture of Learning and Methodology

A number of writers in recent years (Valdes 1986; Byram 1989:58-60 ;Phillipson 1990) have reviewed the complex relationships that exist between language learning, and culture , and some have focused specifically on the implications of using the target language culture as the vehicle for presenting the language in textbooks material (Adaskou, Britten, and Fahsi 1990; Alptekin 1993). One of the reasons often given for this is link between Language and culture , a link expressed in discussions on the nature of language . For example , Wright (1972 : 62) writes that language, socially built and maintained, embodies...Social evaluations... A vocabulary is not merely a string of words;

immanent within it are social texture---institutional and political coordinate.

Adaskou et al. (1990 :3-10), while undertaking a textbook design project for secondary English in Morocco, they develop a useful framework

for making decisions about the cultural content of the material. They distinguish four meanings of the word 'culture', which are as follows :

- 1- The aesthetic sense : by this they mean the art , literature , music, media, etc. to be found in English – speaking cultures.
- 2- The sociological sense : by this they mean what has often been called ' Life and institutions ' , that is, the nature of family life , work , leisure , customs , etc.
- 3- The semantic sense: this relates to the points made by Wright (1972) about the conceptual system embodied in the language .
- 4- The sociolinguistic sense: by this they mean such things as politeness conventions, the ways in which language is governed by issues of the status or age in relationships, and familiarity with rhetorical conventions in formal and informal letters , report and other written genres.

It could be argued that the last two meanings are inevitable elements in ELT materials, but decisions could be taken as to how explicit instructions should be when conventions differ between cultures. Inclusion of the first two meanings is optional, and teachers will not take this into account when assessing a given textbook against the aims of the course or the needs or motivations of students. Further to this , one criterion for evaluating a book would be whether the picture it presents of the foreign language culture avoids a stereotyping and gives an accurate reflection of the variety of the people, lifestyles, setting, politics, and points of view that one ' culture ' can encompass (Hedge 2000:38-39).

Yet , EFL textbooks writers, like everyone else, think and compose chiefly through culture-specific schemas. Because native-speakers have face validity in EFL circles, most textbooks writers are native speakers who consciously or unconsciously transmit the views, values, beliefs, attitudes, and feelings of their own English-speaking society – usually the United States or the United Kingdom. As such, when students acquire a new set of English discourse as part of their evolving systemic knowledge, they partake of the cultural system which the set entails (Alptekin, 1993:136).

Moreover, Julian Edge says that the task-based and problem-solving activities which characterize communicative approaches and materials are not value-free modes of behaviour. Rather, they involve Western modes of communication which may not be in harmony with the traditions of some cultures – including learning conventions. Hence, argues Edge, students from those cultures cannot learn English properly by behaving in ways which are both alien to their educational culture and proscribed in their daily life (Ibid. :43).

Interestingly, Holliday (1994:90) states that methodologies are [...] ethnocentric, not in terms of national cultures, but in terms of groups of teachers or political interest groups. These methodologies are constructions on reality created largely to satisfy the needs of the professional-academic cultures of teacher groups. They represent paradigms which provide these cultures with recipes for action, rather as scientific paradigms provide recipes for action for scientific groups. Hence, the maintenance of these

methodologies is essential for the cohesion of the teacher group, and provides the standard for the group's identity.

Thus , a culture-sensitive approach to English language education is needed if the question of appropriate methodology is to be fully addressed. The type of learning about the classroom can be best carried out by ethnographic action research. Likewise, a reflective approach to English language education can contribute to culture-sensitivity; but it needs to be driven by what is to be reflected upon. It needs to address the macro social influences on classroom behaviour.(Ibid.:179).

If EFL textbook writers, have any subject content, course books will directly or indirectly communicate sets of social and cultural values which are inherent in their make-up. This is the so-called 'hidden curriculum' which forms part of any educational programme, but is unstated and undisclosed. It may well be an expression of attitudes , values, ethics , and norms that are not consciously held but which nevertheless influence the content and image of the teaching material, and indeed the whole curriculum. A curriculum (and teaching materials form part of this) cannot be neutral because it has to reflect a view of social order and express a value system, implicitly or explicitly (Cunningsworth, 1995:90).

Cortazzi and Jin's article entitled "Culture of Learning: Language Classroom in Chinese", (1996 : 169), they discuss how a culture of learning in a hidden curriculum. They define ' culture of Learning ' as the behaviour of language classes that are set within taken-for-granted frameworks of expectations , values , ethics , norms, and believes about what constitutes

good learning, about how to teach or learn, whether or how to ask questions, and what textbooks are for.

Because students and teachers are not in most aware of how such a culture of learning may be influencing what the value in education and the process of learning and teaching itself, it is called the hidden curriculum. The culture of learning is influenced by the cultural backgrounds of individuals since that primarily indicates attitudes and expectations. A classroom that has a teacher and students of a variety of different backgrounds will find that there are many different cultures of learning at play. Therefore, there may be gaps in attitudes and expectations between teachers, students and even among different groups of students that go unnoticed and can create difficulty.

Consequently, Tudor (2001 :159) explores that the culture of learning which is operant in a given context is not, however, an easy undertaking. It calls for a study of the deeply rooted cultural and educational traditions of the target society, as well as the way in which these interact with current socioeconomic and ideological trends. It also calls for a willingness to invest both the time and the effort which are required to understand students' behaviours in terms of the meaning which they have for them in the light of their own beliefs and assumptions. The exploration of local cultures of learning does not therefore fit easily into a quick-fix, technocratic approach to decision-making. Nevertheless, both in purely educational terms and with respect to the long-term cost of programme development, it is a crucial element in developing a locally meaningful and sustainable approach to teaching.

In the context, Tagiuri (1968:12) defines culture variables as the social dimensions concerned with belief systems, values, cognitive structures, and meaning. According to Anderson's (1982:385) review, several key factors play an important role in the hidden curriculum. All of the following are associated with either improved achievement or improved attitude:

1. The school has clear goals that are understood by all; those goals are supported by a strong consensus among administrators and teachers.
2. Administrators and teachers have high expectations for each other, and both groups are strongly committed to the importance of student achievement.
3. Administrators and teachers have high expectations for students, and these high expectations are translated into an emphasis on academics.
4. Rewards and praise are publicly given for student achievement; rewards, and punishments are administered in a fair and consistent manner.
5. The school emphasizes cooperation and group competition, rather than individual competition.
6. Students value academic achievement; peer norms, ethics, values support the value of such achievement.

Concisely , what is needed is a focus on the deep conceptual issues that relate with the hidden aspects of culture of learning . These pertain to changing understandings of a set of concepts that include: values , ethics , and norms and their interrelationship. These concepts are fundamental to

understanding the hidden curriculum . They are interrelated through the concept of intercultural language learning. Consideration of cross-curricular competencies or capabilities affords an important opportunity to consider hidden curriculum in the context of their place , in the curriculum as a whole, and in the holistic education of students.

2.14.2.3.2 Values

Values are which one seeks to achieve or maintain according to one's life as the standard of evaluation. Values are the motive power behind purposeful action. They are the ends to which one's act. Without them, life would be impossible. Life requires self-generated action to sustain itself. Without values, one could not act, and death would follow.

Strictly Speaking , each person holds numerous values that represent what is believed to be important. They influence any behavior and play a role in practical reasoning. Various argumentation approaches use values to justify actions, but they assume a function that determines what values a state or action promotes and demotes. However, this is often open for debate, since values are abstract and can be interpreted in many ways through behaviour.

Values have been a central concept in the social sciences since their inception. For both Durkheim (1893, 1897:67) and Weber (1905, 1958:45), values are crucial for explaining social and personal organization and change. They have played an important role not only in sociology, but in psychology, education, anthropology, and related disciplines as well. Values are used to characterize societies and individuals, to trace change over time, and to explain the motivational bases of attitudes and behavior.

Recent research investigates, such as Atkinson et al. , (2006 : 157 – 206) , Bench-Capon (2003 :429-448), and Grasso, Cawsey, and Jones (2000:1077-1115),how values can be used in argumentation. However, the concept of values is considered to be ambiguous .For example, some consider values as goals, others as attitudes . The concept of value is considered ambiguous and efforts have been made to clearly define it. Therefore, it should occupy a central position . . . able to unify the apparently diverse interests of all the sciences concerned with human behavior. These words, proclaiming the centrality of the value concept, are written by a psychologist (Rokeach, 1973 : 3), but similar stands have been taken by sociologists (e.g., Williams, 1968) and anthropologists (e.g., Kluckhohn, 1951). These theorists view values as the criteria people use to select and justify actions and to evaluate people (including the self) and events.

According to Halstead and Taylor(1996 :5), values are principles, fundamental convictions, ideals, standards or life stances which act as general guides to behaviour or as reference points in decision-making or the evaluation of beliefs or action. However, Hill (2004 : 21) considers this to be a relatively narrow definition with a strong cognitive focus which minimizes motivational aspects of values. His preferred definition is that values are the priorities individuals and societies attach to certain beliefs, experiences and objects, in deciding how they shall live and what they shall treasure.

Nevertheless , Gilbert and Hoeppe (1996 : 59) cite Rokeach (1973) who defines a value as an enduring belief that a particular mode of conduct (being courageous, honest, loving, obedient, etc.) or a state of existence

(peace, equality, freedom, pleasure, happiness) is personally and socially desirable .

Powney et al., (1995 : vii) clarify that the conceptualization of values derived from the literature has provided three parts:

- values include, but go beyond, the religious and moral areas of belief; ‘values’ refer also to other aspects of how our lives are sustained, organized and experienced.
- values may engage our cognition, emotions and behaviour.
- values may be expressed at two different levels: fundamental and contextual.

Yet, Schwartz and Bilsky (1987 :550) state that there is a consensus on five common features of values which are ;

- 1) stated concepts or beliefs,
- 2) included desirable end states or behaviors,
- 3) transcended specific situations,
- 4) guided by selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and
- 5) ordered by relative importance.

These features have been incorporated by the Schwartz Value Theory (SVT) , which is based on . Values are defined as desirable trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity (Schwartz , 1992 :1-65) .

Yet scholar with a passion for accuracy will expend enormous energy in the search for facts and the effort to impartially verify them. However, psychological forms of values are the direct deeper of psychological energies

for higher accomplishment, such as ; data, information, thoughts, ideas, ideals, opinions, beliefs, attitudes and values.

1. Data are mental facts derived from sense observation.
2. Information is data organized by the physical mind into meaningful relationships.
3. Thoughts are specific conclusions or observations drawn from the information.
4. Ideas are generalized conceptions derived from specific thoughts.
5. Opinions are thoughts which the mind endorses and the ego identifies as its own.
6. Beliefs are ideas which the mind endorses and the mental ego identifies it as true for its life.
7. Attitudes are opinions endorsed and energized by the vital ego.
8. Values are idealized conceptions that are endorsed by the personality.

Due to thoughts are mental forms of energy which do not necessarily lead to action, while ideas carry the energy of mental understanding, yet opinions carry the force of mental conviction. Likewise attitudes carry the vital force of emotional endorsement. Finally , values carry the power of psychological commitment and determination. Values issue from a deeper or higher center of motivation in one's personalities and therefore carry far greater power than opinions and attitudes (Schwartz and Bilsky ,1987 :562).

2.14.2.3.3 Types of Values

There are basic necessities like food, water, air, shelter, and clothing without which survival of the body itself is not possible. However, once these necessities are satisfied, man moves to satisfy his higher needs like the social needs, security needs or the need of self-actualization.

Nevertheless, every person does not follow the same path as his path would depend on the inherent values of the person. These inherent values are acquired by the man by virtue of his nature and also by his nurture. The effect of the family, society, nation and individual makes every person unique as he develops a unique set of values. *Singh (2009:7-9) states that such types of values* decide the priority and lifestyle of the person. The following types of values make the personality of the person and decide the growth of the individual, family, society, nation, culture and the humanity.

2.14.2.3.4 Spiritual Values

Yet, there is some ingredient in all values that never changes. It has remained same along with years of human evolution. These values are eternal as they never change. Therefore, often people call such values as spiritual or divine because it attributed to God , as it never dies.

2.14.2.3.5 Individualistic

The most inherent value of a person is individualistic which means valuing the self over anything else in the world. Modern world has been moving more and more towards individualistic values where the interest of the individual is considered to be the most "right" and needs to be protected

over everything else. The individualistic value support freedom as it believes that every person has the right to decide what is good for him.

2.14.2.3.6 Family Values

A family is considered to be the basic unit of the society instead of the individual. The family has right and power to control the other member of the family. In the family system, the members of the family divide their work in a way that all members perform complementary functions rather than performing same functions. However, when family values are strong, it results in the reduction of individual freedom and decline in the individual values.

2.14.2.3.7 Professional Values

A society is made of not only families which are natural but also by origination which are artificially created to fulfill a specific requirement of the society. The government is one of the most important organizations which had been created to bring order in the society. The government is further divided into different departments like police, revenue, defense etc which are needed to keep the country united and protect it from external aggression. There are many other organizations which are run by private persons or bodies which produce goods and provide service to the people of the nation and the world. Thus, man develops a set of values due to his profession. The values of a police official are different than the values of a judge or a politician. Each profession has its own set of values which often

contradict the values of another profession. Yet these values are necessary to keep the professionals united and deliver what is expected from them.

2.14.2.3.8 National Values

The world today is divided into a number of countries and each country is sovereign and independent. However, in recent years the countries have started behaving like family members as the independence is gradually being replaced by interdependence in the global economies. Each country is gradually becoming specialist in some specific task and getting the rest of the requirements fulfilled from the other countries of the world. In order to make the nation stronger, certain types of values need to be cultivated in their citizen which makes the country not made of millions or billions of individuals or families but like one family. By virtue of independence, every country develops certain values which keep on evolving with time. The values of a nation represent its tradition, history and experiences of its people since its creation. The values of Arab, India and China are many thousands of years old while the values of the newly created nations like USA, Australia, and Pakistan are quite new.

2.14.2.3.9 Cultural Values

A cultural values are its ideas about what is good, right, fair, and just. Commonly, cultural values held standards of what is acceptable or unacceptable, important or unimportant, right or wrong, workable or unworkable, etc., in a community or society. Although such contradictions may exist due to an inconsistency between people's actions and their

professed values, which explains why sociologists must carefully distinguish between what people do and what they say. **Real culture** refers to the values and norms that a society actually follows, while **ideal culture** refers to the values and norms that a society professes to believe.

2.14.2.3.10 Education Values

Education values mean the process of providing opportunities for the continuous development in all students of the knowledge, skills and attitudes related to certain values which lead to behavior exhibiting those values.

2.14.2.3.11 Moral Values

The moral values are passed on from one generation to another by tradition. The moral laws are enforced jointly by the society. As every man desires to be loved and respected by the society, the moral values are often more powerful to keep the man on the right path than the legal enforcement.

In a Lincoln-Douglas Debate, Wiese & Lewis (2000: 18) identify six categories of values, which are :

- 1- Universal Values: These values are concerned with Sanctity of human life, Peace, and human dignity.
- 2- Instrumental Values: The value is an instrument which allows one to get some other things. Examples of these would include Progress (which allows leisure time), Freedom (which assists one can get dignity)

and/or self actualization), and Knowledge(which helps one to get economic prosperity, and progress).

- 3- Intrinsic Values: These values are concerned with something has intrinsic worth simply because of what it is and not necessarily what it will lead to or because of its acceptance. Some possible examples of intrinsic values would include beauty, artistic expression, and happiness.
- 4- Prerequisite Values: These values are necessary before one can get to some bigger goal. It is similar to the prerequisite course that he/she must take in order to get to the more advanced course. Some good examples of this type of value include safety , justice, and peace.
- 5- Paramount Values: These values are above all other things. Some examples of this type of value include freedom or sanctity of life.
- 6- Operative Values: This type of values are the ways that one make judgments on how to live the rest of his/her life. So, one uses these values as the overarching and guiding principles which tell what is always right and wrong. Some examples of this type of value include Integrity, Honesty, and Loyalty.

Whereas, Boudon (2001: 41) mentions that there are three major types of values which are determined human life decisions and their relationships, such as;

- 1- Physical values - one strives to achieve with regard to physical objects, work and one's environment.
- 2- Interpersonal values - one seeks to express in relationships with other people.

3- Psychological values - one aspires to realize in one's own personality & inner being. There are some thoughts on several of the more interesting types of values are listed in Appendix 1.

In sum , values are universal principles or ideals that one implicitly accepts as guidelines for action. Values are a primary determinant of human accomplishment . Also , values are psychological objects. Although one cannot see or touch them, they are every bit as real as any physical object. People may dedicate their entire lives or even give up their lives to pursue their values, as so many loyal patriots have done fighting for values of freedom, equality and human rights during the past two centuries.

On the other side of the coin, values are essential to ethics. Ethics are concerned with human actions, and the choice of those actions. Ethics evaluates those actions, and the values that underlies them. It determines which values should be pursued, and which shouldn't. Ethics is a code of values.

2.14.2.3.12 Ethics

Strictly speaking, it is only proper to see ethics as father of all disciplines, because elements of ethics are found in all disciplines; for it is customary to talk of medical ethics, legal ethics, media ethics, religious ethics, Islamic ethics, social ethics, science ethics, education ethics, philosophical ethics, etc. Because of its encompassing nature it is not possible to give a single satisfactory definition of ethics that will also be all encompassing.

In fact, Scholars within the field of ethics are unanimous in agreeing that a univocal definition of ethics is not possible. In spite of this, the term ethics, derived from the Greek word *ethos* is synonymous with 'moral' 'character' or and both are indicative of customs, habits and accepted ways of behavior of an individual or a community. or has, by long technical usages been limited to the normative science (The science which tells not what people actually do and actually thinks it right to do, but what people ought to do and what they ought to thing it right to do). In the other words , it is the science which deals as systematically and completely as is possible, with the standards or rules or norms or criteria by which one judges certain objects (Lillie,1966:3).

Notwithstanding the various definitions of ethics by different authors. Ozumba (2001:71-75) defines ethics as a branch of philosophy that is concerned with what is morally good and bad, right and wrong, etc. Fagothey (1989:1) on his part sees ethics as the part of philosophy that studies the person and personal deeds from the point of view of the rightness or wrongness, the goodness or evilness, of the person and the deeds. Terms such as right, wrong, good, bad, virtuous, and sinful, ought, duty, obligation, etc all belong to the purview of ethics.

One of the definitions of Ethics which stands out and clearly explains its nature is that by Stob (1978: 1), Ethics are conveniently defined as the science of morality, morality being understood as the set of judgments people make regarding what is right or wrong, good or bad, in the relations within or between individual or collective centers of intelligence and will."

This definition is further analyzed by Stob (ibid) that it is sometimes said that all ethics are social, since man, the agent of morality, is by nature, and therefore inalienably, social. There is no doubt that man is social in his way; he has no ultimate privacy. It is true accordingly, that when he acts others are unavoidably affected by what he does; his choices and decisions have social consequences.

Ethics as a discipline, Popkin, & Avrum, (1993:143) state that ethics are chiefly concerned with the analyzing, evaluating and developing of criteria for dealing with moral problems. They are basically concerned with the nature of human behavior and social approval. Ethics try to provide answers to questions such as 'how are people supposed to behave', 'how are people behaving and why', what is person's ultimate destiny and how does that influence his behavior', what is considered the good life for people among many others.

Some years ago, sociologist Raymond Baumhart has asked some people, "What do ethics mean?" Among their replies are the following:

- "Ethics have to do with what feelings tell one what is right or wrong".
- "Ethics have to do with religious beliefs".
- "Being ethical is doing what the law requires".
- "Ethics consist of the standards of behavior our society accepts".
- "I don't know what the word mean ".

These replies might be typical, because, the meaning of "ethics" is somewhat hard to pin down, and the views many people have about ethics are shaky (Gardiner, 2001:232).

Sequentially, Monod (1970:122) states that ethics and knowledge are inevitably linked in and through action. Action brings knowledge and values simultaneously into play, or into question. Action signifies an ethic, serves or disserves certain values; constitutes a choice of values, or pretends to. On the other hand, knowledge is necessarily implied in all action, while reciprocally, action is one of the two necessary sources of knowledge. Then, he comes to clarify the knowledge of ethic as "*it is the ethical choice of a primary value that is the foundation*". In other means, it does not impose itself on man; *on the contrary, it is he who imposes it on himself*, making it the axiomatic condition of authenticity (self-evident) for all discourse and all action. Yet creating the modern world is the only ethic compatible with it, the only one capable, once understood and accepted, of guiding its evolution. No system of values can claim to constitute a true ethic unless it proposes an ideal transcending the individual self to the point even of justifying self-sacrifice, if need be (ibid., 123).

What, then, are ethics mean? To Velasquez M, Andre C, Shanks T, Meyer MJ. (1996:343) ethics are two things. First, ethics refer to well-founded standards of right and wrong that prescribe what humans ought to do, usually in terms of rights, obligations, benefits to society, fairness, or specific virtues. Ethical standards also include those that enjoin virtues of honesty, compassion, and loyalty. Also, it include standards relating to rights, such as the right to life, the right to freedom from injury, and the right to privacy. Such standards are adequate standards of ethics because they are supported by consistent and well-founded reasons.

Secondly, ethics refer to the study and development of one's ethical standards. As mentioned above, feelings, laws, and norms can deviate from what is ethical. So it is necessary to constantly examine one's standards to ensure that they are reasonable and well-founded.

Ethics are primarily a part of the quest for truth and motive for studying, they are desire for knowledge. In this respect, Lillie (1966:18-19) recognizes that ethics are more a kin to philosophical subjects than natural sciences where the practical applications are many and attractive. It may do so by the way of casuistry (the science of applying the standards of ethics to particular kind of cases); that the students of ethics are more likely to be right in their application of moral rules to a particular case than the man who has an equal knowledge of the circumstances of the case but no knowledge of ethics.

2.14.2.3.13 Types of Ethics

However, Omoregbe (1990:8-9) explains that ethics are not primarily concerned with facts or the “is”, but rather with the “ought”. In other words, ethics are not interested in the ontic (Harmonic existentialism) but in the ontological (Existentialism) question. Thus, the focus on the “ought” as primary mission is what differentiates ethics from other disciplines. So , Omoregbe divides ethics into descriptive, prescriptive or normative, meta-ethics, and naturalistic ethics.

2.14.2.3.14 Descriptive Ethics

It is a study of human behavior as a consequence of beliefs about what is right or wrong, or good or bad, in so far as that behaviour is useful or effective. In a sense, it is generally done by a group, society, or a culture. In Uduigwomen's (2001:212) view, the aim is to establish the fact as to whether such ethical views are universally held. Owing to its relative nature applied or descriptive ethics are also called comparative ethics.

2.14.2.3.15 Normative Ethics or Prescriptive Ethics

The study of moral problems which seeks to discover how one ought to act, not how one does in fact act or how one thinks one should act. More specifically, (normative) ethics is the discipline concerned with judgments of setting up norms for ... (a. When an act is right or wrong? (b. What kinds of things are good or desirable? (c. When a person deserves blame, reward, or neither? Omoregbe (1990:2) adds that normative ethics attempt to set forth a set of ethical beliefs as a coherent system deducible from one or more general principles.

2.14.2.3.16 Meta ethics or Analytical Ethics

The discipline concern with elucidating the meaning of ethical terms or the comparison of ethical theories. So, meta-ethics try to show how moral beliefs convictions can be established as true or false and on what grounds a person can claim to know that they are true or false (Fagothey 1989: 8).

2.14.2.3.17 The Naturalistic Ethics

The naturalistic ethics are a theory of moral behaviour according to which ethics are an empirical science. Ethical statements are reduced to the natural sciences (physical or social), and ethical questions are answered wholly on the basis of the findings of those sciences . Yet, the empirical results seem to demand that a life be saved. Hence, ethical naturalism is an attempt to avoid the linguistic conflicts of arbitrary rules. (Nettle, 2007:47).

Other types of ethics can be represented and manipulated in sustainable development into all aspects of education to foster changes in behaviour that enable a more sustainable and just society for all. Such as: Educational , College, and Teacher ethics.

2.14.2.3.18 Educational Ethics

Educational ethics are a term used to name several things, and there is much academic controversy surrounding it. Powney & et al. (1995:vii) regard it as all aspects of the process by which teachers (and other adults) transmit ethics to students. Others see it as an activity that can take place in any organization during which people are assisted by others, who may be older, in a position of authority or are more experienced, to make explicit those ethics underlying their own behaviour, to assess the effectiveness of these ethics and associated behaviour for their own and others' long term well-being and to reflect on and acquire other ethics and behaviour which they recognize as being more effective for long term well-being of self and others.

This means that educational ethics can take place at home, as well as in schools, colleges, universities, offenders institutions and voluntary youth organizations. Minnis (1991 : 45) states that there are two main approaches to ethics education. Firstly, they as inculcating or transmitting a set of ethics which often come from societal or religious rules or cultural ethics . Secondly, they as a type of Socratic dialogue where people are gradually brought to their own realization of what is good behaviour for themselves and their community. Educational ethics also lead to success. They have values of hard work, how nobody is useless and loving studies.

2.14.2.3.19 College Ethics

In college ethics, students are expected to adhere to and practice ethics on a college level and while representing their college. So, every student is expected to represent him or herself honestly and respectfully in all situations, whether orally or in written statements. Honest and respectful representation includes, but is not limited to, providing only truthful material information on all applications, financial aid forms, and any other official document.

Students are also expected to behave respectfully to all administrators, faculty, staff, students, and visitors in a college environment and to behave respectfully when representing any college at off-campus events. Students must behave respectfully toward their peers and professors. In the classroom setting, student may not interrupt their classmates or professor, make fun of them or their expressed views, or disrupt the learning environment. It is

important to maintain the best learning environment for all students and professors (Myra & Bruce , 2001:251-166).

2.14.2.3.20 Teacher Ethics

Räsänen (2000:127-136) in teacher's ethics , she says that no wonder that personality of a teacher is of crucial importance; moreover, some teachers turn into extremely important people for the whole life due to the impact they make while teaching . It is good if this impact is positive and brings motivation for student, however, it sometimes happens that teachers manage to spoil not only mood of a student but intrude into internal world, leaving unpleasant vestige there. That is why the statement that, "What the teacher is, is more important than what he teaches", expressed by Karl Menninger is really truthful. Question of teacher's ethics has been on the agenda since teachers appeared and it is still important to talk about that.

Also, Liston & Zeichner (1991: 67-70) explain that teachers' ethics should not allow teachers choose "favorites" in the group and differentiate students. Teachers are the people, who should serve for students not only as examples of high education but of decent behavior as well. That is why each violation of teacher's ethics may cause some really serious consequences and turn into crucial mistakes. It is vital that students grow in a healthy atmosphere, surround by professional teachers that would be able to not only give knowledge but give lessons of ethics too.

2.14.2.3.21 Norms

It could undoubtedly be argued that the knowing norms has the potential to both help maintain social order and also hinder progress in society. Norms essentially help and ensure that citizens are aware of not only their various roles in society, but also customs, common social practices, power relations, economic exchanges, rules for interpersonal interaction, etc. Understanding and accepting norms such as rules, conceptions of fairness, social etiquette, or those are outlined Dreeben (1968:36), such as independence, achievement, universalism, and specificity, all help people to function successfully in society. He believes individuals accept as legitimate standards for governing their own conduct in the appropriate situations.

Norms are customary rules of behavior that coordinate the interactions with others. Once a particular way of doing things becomes established as a rule, it continues in force because one prefers to conform to the rule given the expectation that others are going to conform (Lewis, 1969:29). This definition covers simple rules that are self-enforcing at a primary level, such as which hand to extend in greeting or which side of the road to drive on, and more complex rules that trigger sanctions against those who deviate from a first-order rule.

The former are sometimes called conventions and the latter norms (Sugden, 1986; Coleman, 1990; Bicchieri, 2006), but in fact there are numerous gradations and levels of response to norm violation that make this dichotomy problematic.

The educational institution plays an important role in the teaching of norms because “industrially oriented societies tend to have occupational systems based on normative principles, different from those of kinship units”

(Dreeben, 1968:64). What this means is that the role of any educational institution is to facilitate the transition from family member to worker and other societal roles. The school facilitates this transition by teaching societal norms. While certain norms are learned in the family setting. In fact, as Delpit (2010:285) points out, “parents...want to ensure that the school provides their children with discourse patterns, interactional styles, and spoken and written language codes that will allow them success in the larger society.”

In Brief, Education, through the teaching of norms and other skills, helps students to adapt to the society in which they live and also prepares them for their roles in society.

2.14.2.3.22 Types of Norms

Two types of norms are classified by Cialdini (2003:105), firstly , injunctive norms involve perceptions of which behaviors are typically approved or disapproved .They assist an individual in determining what is acceptable and unacceptable social behavior. This would be the morals of one interpersonal and his/her surrounding community. Secondly, descriptive norms involve perceptions of which behaviors are typically performed. They normally refer to the perception of others' behavior. These norms are based on observations of those around oneself.

Also, Cialdini (ibid., 109), clarifies that both kinds of norms motivate human action; people tend to do what is socially approved as well as what is popular. When put together, these norms have a counterproductive

effect. For example a campaign that focuses individuals on the frequent occurrences of an offense against the environment has the potential to increase the occurrence of that offense.

Successively , Miller and Prentice (1996:799-829) mention that these two norms are constructed from three sources: observable behavior, direct/indirect communication and self knowledge.

- Observable behavior: Observing others behavior is the easiest form of norm information. However it is susceptible to the fundamental attribution error. The fundamental attribution error is the tendency of individuals to view other's behavior as a trait rather than a factor influenced by situational variables (Hannay & Ross 1997:576).
- Direct/Indirect: " direct (what words mean) and indirect (what words imply) communication, also has its flaws. Information may be distorted intentionally or unintentionally." (ibid., 603).
- Self: Personal attitudes and behaviors also have an influence over the perception of norms However it is highly susceptible to "the false consensus effect" The false consensus effect is when a person thinks that others think and act as they do.

These different sources of information about norms can sometimes lead to inaccurate perceptions about other's behaviors and attitudes (Miller and Prentice, 1996:799-829).

Yet , acquiring three different aspects , values, ethics , and norms , of culture of learning (hidden curriculum) can be demonstrated in three ways ;

- cognition or knowledge and understanding
- emotions, feelings or attitudes
- behaviour or skills.

Hill (1991:122-32) asserts that holding any moral in life should involve; believing in it as an idea related to worth or obligation (knowing); believing in it with a degree of intensity (feeling); and, therefore, having a disposition to act consistently with it (doing). While the precise relationship between knowing, feeling and doing may be unclear, and may change according to circumstances, thinking about moral as engaging these three elements is a helpful concept, and one which is important if he/she is interested in how morals are acquired. Social class, race, ethnicity, and linguistic background, are factors that impact the decisions makers of the colleges in organizing and delivering instruction (Massialas,1996:66). Yet, the hidden curriculum, manifested in gender , as it is explained in the following pages .

2.14.3 Gender

‘Gender’ refers to the socially constructed ways in which one lives out his/her identity as males or females. A common response from teachers when ask about gender inequity in classrooms is that they treat all their students the same. There are two problems with this statement. First, students are diverse and have different learning issues, thus treating all students in the same way means that some students will have a better learning experience than their peers. Second, teachers may be ignoring their unconscious gender biases towards their students, their schools and themselves. If ignored, these

gender biases, which may have developed from cultural norms, may lead to bias in the classroom.

Yet, sociologists would argue that although there are clear biological differences between the male and female sexes gender roles are heavily influenced by processes of socialization operating in the family, the educational institution, the mass media etc. With regard to the formal education system it is necessary to distinguish between the formal curriculum of the individual academic subjects and the hidden curriculum which is a set of values, ethics, attitudes and norms that is implicitly conveyed to students by teachers' actions and by the organizational processes operating inside schools. When the hidden curriculum operates in a gender specific fashion and is combined with other points mentioned toward the end of these notes, it is sometimes said that an educational institution is operating according to a gendered regime.

Notwithstanding , sitting in the same classroom, reading the same textbook, listening to the same teacher, males and females receive very different educations even in subject choice in Educational institutions. Sociologists Heaton and Lawson (1996:76) argue that the hidden curriculum is a major source of gender socialization; within education, various subjects are aimed at a certain gender group. Connolly (1998: 32) has reviewed this idea and found that despite all the social changes in recent decades, traditional definitions of masculinity and femininity are still widespread.

The scenario of male students requiring and garnering more teacher attention than female students is certainly not new. It is a known fact that males frequently receive more attention than females in a classroom setting (see Grossman & Grossman, 1994; Renzetti & Curran, 1999; Almutawa, 2005). This imbalance in teacher's time and attention is thought to be due to females being more reticent and taciturn and less willing to call attention to themselves. Hidden curriculum may also support student (especially female) unwillingness to question teachers on educational issues. (Sadker & Sadker, 1985, 1994). The message here is that girls are quiet and non-noticeable, while males not only garner attention but also feel that they deserve it.

Myles , Trautman , & Schlevan (2004:8), state that society has moved toward gender equality and has attempted to do way with gender stereotypes, differences in manner and behaviour still exist between males and females . Most of these are not directly taught, but if not understood, they can cause problems and misunderstanding.

Reasons given forward for girls previously underachieving in education as well as higher education have been due to females being family orientated and family focused. Higher education is patriarchal and socialization of the role they are expected to play as a female traditionally. Moreover, Spender(1982 :84) believes that teachers throughout college give males and females different types of attention; he says that males are praised for appearance, good behaviour and neat work. He has further looked into the argument of gender inequality in higher education and says:

What is considered inherently interesting is knowledge about men. Because men control the records, and the value system, it is generally believed that it is men who have done all the exciting things, it is men who have made (his)tory, made discoveries, made inventions and performed feats of skill and courage—according to men. These are the important activities activities and only men can engage in them, so we are led to are led to believe. And so it is that the activities of men become the curriculum.

In Sadker and Sadker's research (1994:134 -143) state four types of teacher who responses to students are noted: teacher praises, providing positive feedback for a response; teacher remediates, encouraging a student to correct or expand their answer; teacher criticizes, explicitly stating that the answer is incorrect; and teacher accepts, acknowledging that a student has responded. They have found that males are far more likely to receive praise or remediation from a teacher than are females. The females are most likely to receive an acknowledgement response from their teacher.

These findings are confirmed by a 1990 study by Good and Brophy in schools that "...note that teachers give males greater opportunity to expand ideas and be animated than they do females and that they reinforce males more for general responses than they do for females." (Marshall & Reihartz , 1997:333-338).

Heaton and Lawson (1996:80) argue that the hidden curriculum, a government way of teaching without knowing, is a major course of gender socialization, it operates in many different ways, Firstly through books and textbooks students, most women are portrayed as dependant on men or to

have very gender specific roles. A feminist calls Klein (1985 : 120) also points out the absence of women in scientific and mathematical textbooks. This indicates that those, more academic subjects shouldn't include women. Using texts that omit contributions of women, that tokenize the experiences of women, or that stereotype gender roles, further compounds gender bias in schools' curriculum.

While research shows that the use of gender-equitable materials allows students to have more gender-balanced knowledge, to develop more flexible attitudes towards gender roles, and to imitate role behaviors contained in the materials (Klein, 1985:133) colleges continue to use gender biased text :

Researchers at a 1990 conference reported that even texts designed to fit within the current California guidelines on gender and race equity for textbook adoption showed subtle language bias, neglect of scholarship on women, omission of women as developers of history and initiators of events, and absence of women from accounts of technological developments. (Bailey, 1992: 26)

Secondly, in certain physical colleges subjects, females are made to feel uncomfortable , the male's sport or activity making it a very masculine dominated lesson leaving the females to feel inadequate and unfortunately teachers mostly fail to intervene.

Also, Bailey (ibid., 30) in fact, asserts that examination of the socialization of gender within colleges and evidence of a gender biased hidden curriculum demonstrates that girls are shortchanged in the classroom.

Furthermore, a significant research indicates such steps that can be taken to minimize or eliminate the gender bias currently present in higher education system. The socialization of gender within colleges assures that females are made aware that they are unequal to males. Every time students are seated or lined up by gender, teachers are affirming that females and males should be treated differently. When an administrator ignores an act of disorder behaviour, he or she is allowing the degradation of females. When different behaviors are tolerated for males than for females because 'males will be males', colleges are perpetuating the oppression of females. There is some evidence that females become more academically successful than males, however examination of the classroom shows that females and males continue to be socialized in ways that work against gender equity .

Clearly, the socialization of gender is reinforced at colleges, because classrooms are microcosms of society, mirroring its strengths and ills alike, it follows that the normal socialization patterns of students that often lead to distorted perceptions of gender roles are reflected in the classrooms. (Marshall & Reihartz, 1997:333-338). Yet, gender bias in higher education reaches beyond socialization patterns, bias is embedded in textbooks, lessons, and teacher interactions with students. This type of gender bias is part of the hidden curriculum of lessons taught implicitly to students through the everyday functioning of their classroom.

Another problem of gender socialization in higher education is many teachers still tend to give gender biased jobs to do in the classroom for example the males would be asked to move the tables around the females

would be asked to clean up. By doing this, teachers are unknowingly creating a gender division.

Teachers are generally unaware of their own biased teaching behaviors because they are simply teaching how they are taught and the subtle gender inequities found in teaching materials are often overlooked. Females and males today are receiving separate and unequal educations due to the gender socialization that takes place in educational institutions and due to the sexist hidden curriculum students are faced with every day. Unless teachers are made aware of the gender-role socialization and the biased messages they are unintentionally imparting to students every day, and until teachers are provided with the methods and resources necessary to eliminate gender-bias in their classrooms, females will continue to receive an inequitable education.

It is worth mentioning that Russell (2010 :19-20) points out that the impact of hidden curriculum on gender may be analyzed from competing sociological perspectives.

1. Functionalist sociologists who approve males and females adopting traditional "instrumental " and "expressive roles" respectively would approve if the hidden curriculum reinforces traditional gender roles since these gender roles are assumed to be "functional" society as a whole .
2. Marxists would argue that the hidden curriculum helps to reproduce an exploitative, unequal, unjust capitalist class

structure in a capitalist system which must be overthrown by revolutionary means.

3. Feminists would oppose the hidden curriculum in so far as it contributes to the perpetuation of gender inequality. However liberal feminists might tend to argue that educational reforms are gradually eroding some of the most discriminatory aspects of the hidden curriculum whereas radical and Marxist feminists would argue that despite some reform the hidden curriculum still contributes to the continuation of patriarchy and/or class inequality .
4. In social action perspectives it is argued that the overall structural power of the socialization process to influence individual behaviour is rather less than is suggested in more structural theories which suggests that even if a hidden curriculum does exist its actual influence on human behaviour may be relatively limited.

Clearly, the socialization of gender roles and the use of a gender biased hidden curriculum lead to an inequitable education for males and females. What changes can be made to create a more equitable learning environment for all students? First, teachers need to be made aware of their gender biased tendencies. Next, they need to be provided with strategies for altering the behavior. Finally, efforts need to be made to combat gender bias in educational materials .

Likewise , educators need to be made aware of the bias, they reinforce it in their students through socialization messages, inequitable

division of special education services, sexist texts and materials, and unbalanced time and types of attention spent on males and females in the classroom. "Until educational sexism is eradicated, more than half students will be shortchanged and their gifts lost to society." (Sadker & Sadker 1994 : 52) . Needless to say that gender biases in higher education is one of the negative effects of hidden curriculum when it is ignored by educators , teachers, and administrators.

2.15 Higher Education and Hidden Curriculum

The higher education policy, which include various articles that are governed issues dealing with the planning, responsibilities, and coordination in higher education facilities, which have become some of the most technologically advanced in the world; they constantly strive to provide advanced opportunities to their citizens. Yet, college courses should be formatted to meet the country's needs, and collaboration with other universities would be sought and utilized.

It is well known that curriculum deals with the actual content of education. It deals with the methodologies and processes by which learning takes place. It deals not only with the facts and figures , but also with culture and culture of learning such as; values, ethics, norms of the society . Teaching and learning take place within a context of a conceptualization of the society, its values, its direction and its role in the world as a whole . To guarantee teaching and learning process concurrence actively to produce impressive outcomes, the curriculum can re-enforce by unwritten curriculum, namely "hidden curriculum", which incorporates that often spoken but

nevertheless important messages which are transmitted which the higher education establishments.

Yet, Martin (1994:162) notes that a curriculum can be revealed to some, while remaining hidden to others: “Until learning states are acknowledged or the students are aware of them, however, they remain hidden even if sociologists, bureaucrats, and teachers are all aware of them. Thus a hidden curriculum can be found yet remain hidden, for finding is one thing and telling is another” .

Higher Education is one of the important institutions responsible for re-thinking and re-defining students outcomes (knowledge and behaviour). As such it is a key to change. One of the changes that need to be addressed is that hidden curriculum. Research and development are primary sources of knowledge as well as new values, ethics, norms and attitudes. Higher education institutions can play a very important role in mapping out future directions that students can take in society.

Likewise, higher education plays a rather insignificant role in defining the society , its characteristics and its future . This is done through its researches , development, education , and training programs which take in consideration the effect role of hidden curriculum in preparing future citizens to meet and cope successfully with change and be ineluctably part of it. In a higher education manifestation of Bowles and Gintis’s (1976:43) “correspondence thesis,” one of the main purposes that hidden curricula serve in the university is to prepare people for the corporate world.

One of the most problematic aspects of the hidden curriculum is in the name itself. Many of scholars struggle with the inadequacy of terms for describing how extracurricular information is conveyed in the process of higher education. Just as the term hidden agenda conjures up something covert or undisclosed, hidden curricula suggests intentional acts to obscure or conceal—a conscious duplicity that may not always be present.

However, most definitions are corresponded with Jackson's (1968) and Dreeben's (1968) observations, conceptualizing hidden curricula as necessary socializing mechanisms that shaped desired behavioral outcomes. In higher education, socialization is a central feature of college, others emphasize that the hidden curriculum as a necessary element of social reproduction, serving an essential integrative function and inculcating students with desirable societal values (Margolis, 2001:25).

In identifying hidden curriculum in higher education, Romero & Margolis, 1999: 24) underscores the persistence of structures that discipline and socialize:

Hidden curriculum I see as the values and norms that get embedded into the way that we structure our courses, the way that we structure our curriculum, the way that we structure the organization. And I think a lot of these elements may be established as intended, as well as unintended.

A number of scholars, sociologists and educators draw attention to architecture and the physical environment as elements of the hidden curriculum that functioned as socialization factors. Like Williamson (1974, 10–11), a British sociologist, who writes that educational attitudes of

dominant groups in society still carry historical weight and are exemplified even in the bricks and mortar of the school buildings themselves. Yet , scholars, sociologists and educators reflect on the built environment of their institutions, and suggest that buildings, the physical arrangement of classrooms, occupation of physical space, and other architectural structures honor certain histories and convey political agendas.

Another element of the hidden curriculum at higher education is distinct class-based consciousness in order to acquire necessary symbolic capital (Bourdieu ,1973, 1977; Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990), this consciousness includes gender. These elements of the hidden curriculum ultimately serve not only in the reproduction of both hierarchy and marginalization, but alienation as well.

While studies on the hidden curriculum mostly focus on fundamental primary and secondary education, higher education also realizes the effects of this latent knowledge. For example, gender biases become present in specific fields of study; the quality of and experiences associated with prior education become more significant; and class, gender, and race become more evident at higher levels of education. (Margolis, 2001 : 27-38)

Many academics describe how hidden curricula in higher education assimilate individuals into the class structure, practices, and values of an established predominantly race, male-oriented, middle-class academic environment. The experiences and observations as shared by scholars in this area , suggest a tension between acquiring the cultural capital (knowledge that each individual accumulates as a member of group or groups when ethnicity, religious, gender, social class, linguistics background, and so on

play major role) which symbolizes membership in the academy and maintaining individual, cultural, and ideological integrity. It is clear that many of the scholars learn to maneuver throughout their careers with what Lacey (1977: 14) which is called a “strategic compliance”: bending to institutional constraints, but choosing to retain oppositional beliefs and ideologies.

Apple (1993:87) suggests that, at universities, the hidden curriculum must be brought to an overt level, it must be thought about, it must be talked through and the kinds of norms and values one wants to organize the workplace. . . . All of that should be brought to a level where people can participate in it, struggle over it, talk about it but it’s got to be done in a way where people feel they can speak honestly and where the norms that are supposed to be usually hidden are democratic, participatory, and organized around critical intellectual and pedagogic work.

In fact , colleges, through the hidden curriculum, make it very difficult for even the motivated students to break away from their destiny as it is prescribed by the society. Although all colleges offer promises of equality of opportunity for all students, in actuality, as in the larger society ,the college provides a system that treats students differentially.

2.16 Teaching Moral Aspects (Values, Ethics and Norms) in Higher Education

In higher education , moral aspects are the core part of any educational Institutions , some colleges review their values, ethics, and norms education processes so they could develop a whole college set of moral

aspects and made efforts to ensure greater levels of congruence between the moral aspects the college espoused, and the morality exhibited in day-to-day practice. Some colleges are focused on a range of what might be called student ‘coping strategies’, or self-management qualities including personal responsibility and self-discipline, community participation and overall confidence and self-esteem (strengthening students resilience). Some colleges seek to develop one or more quite specific values both in the curriculum and in the behaviours of members of their college community. (Gitoux & Purpel;1983:283)

Although the life at college is different from school. One of the main reasons is that one deals with an older age group. There are few rules and students are guided towards self-discipline. An attendance check is taken every lesson, although students are free to organize their own programme when not in class. The college community enjoys many rights, including the right to learn, be respected, be heard, be safe, have personal freedom and responsibility and to have personal property to be respected. No-one, however, can enjoy rights without due responsibility and at college, ones mutually encourages and supports responsible behaviour as a means of enjoying his/her rights.

Consequently, Campbell et al., (2004:451-565) describe that at college, the code behaviour emphasizes respect for students and others and focuses on:

- Expectations – class attendance, explanation of absence, completion of assignments;

- Communication – which shows respectful behaviour for each other;
- Learning – ways of showing respect for the right to learn;
- Movement – the right to move around the college comfortably and safely;
- Safety – showing one is responsible for his/her own safety and the safety of others;
- Settling disputes – in a manner which makes the college a peaceful place;
- Care of the environment – respect for the college environment and others' property.

To ensure that the moral aspects and their enacts are both explicit and agreed across the college community through applying mapping values . D'Alessandro & Power (2005:101-120) state that this mapping is conducted by the college and focused on three areas of college activity: the college's informal curriculum (or extracurricular) programme, formal curriculum themes and student support. The extracurricular activities include such values, ethics, norms, and practices as fair play, community responsibility, tolerance, excellence and personal goal setting, and demonstrated a more consistently held values system than the college has thought existed. Beyond this, the college has used the outcome of its mapping to begin to provide appropriate moral aspects education programmes and processes, and to set in train processes to ensure a sustainable values education approach.

Meyers & Jones (1993: 88) emphasis on teamwork and moral aspects, it is hardly surprising that the college's approach to classroom practice has 'changed considerably'. Teamwork and moral aspects focus on

more student control, flexibility and choice of courses to better suit individual needs, by the college incorporates, teaches and models of morality in all programmes including 'self-esteem, confidence, compassion, stress management, mate-ship, teamwork, cooperation and respect', to provide an environment where attendance, participation and success are encouraged and students want to come to college.

However, Jeanne Gibbs in late 1970s develop the " Tribes Teaching Learning Community (TLC) approach which 'methodically teaches a college or school how to engage teachers, administrators, students and families to work together as a learning community dedicated to caring and support, active participation and positive expectations for all participations in the circle of concern'. Kiger (2000: 586-592) describes tribes classrooms are, the school explains, student-centered, use cooperative learning methods, use multiple learning styles, use interactive learning experiences and actively promote the creation and sustaining of a positive learning environment. Issues of morality, ethics and social justice are regularly addressed as part of the daily dialogue within each classroom; 'enacted on the small stage of the safe learning community and extrapolated to cover issues within the broader community'.

In this context, a Tribes learning community focuses on building relationships and student connectedness to college, building trust and inclusion to limit feelings of vulnerability and defensiveness and thereby improves student behaviour, and students taking responsibility for their own learning and being held accountable for their actions. Together, this

contributes to a safer learning environment, where students can become more resilient by themselves. The actual process is adopted involves:

- 1- Students membership of small groups (tribes) to support learning and positive social behaviour.
- 2- Adoption by teachers of cooperative learning methods for academics with a transfer of responsibility to students to help each other.
- 3- All members taking responsibility for each other and for group accountability.
- 4- Taking time to reflect on tribe members' work, special qualities and skills after every group task.
- 5- Acknowledgement of equal participation, fairness, open and honest communication.
- 6- Mediation of group issues and conflict within the peer group and;
- 7- Teacher observations, instruction and modelling to support cooperation within the tribes.

The day in most classrooms starts with a 'Community Circle', where class members are able to share their 'values, ethics, social norms, concerns'. This gives everyone a chance to work out who is likely to be a bit fragile or a bit over-exuberant and why. This in turn helps teachers adopt strategies for individual students, and the class as a whole, that enable the focus to remain on student learning and growth, rather than seeking to manage negative behaviours through the day (Holt, 2000:212).

In sum, moral aspects need to be incorporated into everything ones do, and not seen as a separate part of the hidden curriculum. The way a classroom is designed, the way staff work as a team, the flexible approach, the

catering for all needs, the valuing of individual differences, and choice all impact on a student's values, ethics, and social norms. If a student attends college more often, if teachers respect that student, if the programme is designed for individual differences, students then develop their own moral set. All students have different moral aspects and teachers should foster the positive ones rather than try to teach them to students. These moral aspects need to be totally incorporated into the college routine, not a separate part of the college day.

2.17 Teaching The Hidden Curriculum

The hidden curriculum is a complex subject to teach. It's flexible nature requires more than simply understanding a concrete set of rules. To the student in a university, the expectations of a particular environment or set of circumstances are of critical importance. It is vital to understand the motive of the person(s) who set(s) a hidden curriculum. As it helps to define the rationale behind the expectations. The motive of a classroom teacher, for example, is to maintain order within the classroom while teaching an academic subject. However, most teachers are unaware that they also have their own individual hidden curriculum that is based on their particular personality.

Obviously, the hidden curriculum itself changes, depending on the motive or purpose of the curriculum "architect" (a person who sets the hidden curriculum in a given setting). In other words, understanding that the teacher's "motive" is to maintain order and attention, yet, curricula in settings

that are recurring, such as students in classrooms , can be specifically taught. Before teaching hidden curriculum, teachers should assess the environment through few steps;

- 1- List the expectations to decide what information the student needs to learn.
- 2- Identify situations that may alter the environment.
- 3- Devise a strategy for teaching the skill.
- 4- Teach in a direct and explicit manner.

Since instruction is a key to learning hidden curriculum for students with socio-cognitive challenges, so, different instructional strategies are needed to cover the wide range and to teach or interpret the meaning of hidden curriculums.

1. Direct Instruction.
2. SOCCSS Strategy (Situation-Options-Consequences-Choices-Strategies-Simulation).
3. SOLVE Strategy (Seek-Observe-Listen-Vocalize-Educate).
4. Social Narratives.
5. Social Autopsies.
6. Video Modeling.

2.17.1 Direct Instruction

However, before deciding how direct instruction might be implemented, it is advisable first to clarify individual perceptions of the

meaning of the term. Actually , the term direct instruction has a number of possible associations. It may refer to a set of effective teaching practices identified by Rosenshine (1976) or to Hunter's (1980) model of direct teaching described as Instructional Theory into Practice (ITIP),or it may attribute to the Direct Instruction (DI) model which is described by Becker, Engelmann, Carnine, and Rhine (1981) specifically refers to a highly publicized longitudinal study called Project Follow Through (Schweinhart, 1997; Stebbins, St. Pierre, Proper, Anderson, & Cerva, 1977.) and the more than 50 published DI programs for teaching core academic subjects, primarily at the elementary level.

More recently, the term direct instruction has become synonymous with structured teaching methods of any type (Gersten, Woodward, & Darch, 1986). As the specific models associated with direct instruction are amply described elsewhere. At the heart of any discussion of direct instruction is the role of student's learning experience. In comparison with more student-centered teaching methods, direct instruction commonly is characterized as teacher-directed (Stein, Carnine, & Dixon, 1998).

Consequently, the responsibility for student learning (or lack thereof) rests squarely with the teacher's design and delivery of instruction. This may present a philosophical challenge for the general education teachers, trained to work with typically developing groups of students, who see their role as a facilitator of learning (Bredenkamp, 1987). On the other hand, special educators and teachers generally are trained to view themselves as interventionists, may have more knowledge of direct instruction, yet lack

an understanding of how to integrate opportunities for individualized instruction into the framework of the general education classroom. Direct instruction strategies outlined in the following lectures are part of a hierarchy of effective practices on a continuum representing least-to-most adult direction (Figure 3).

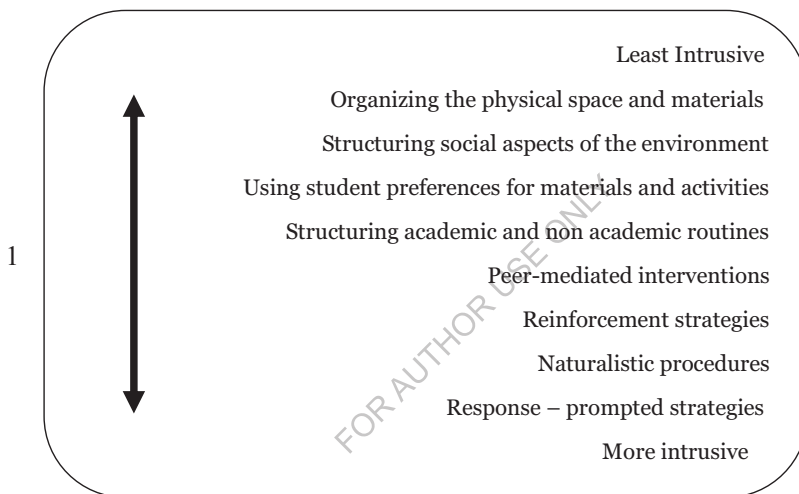


Figure 3 Hierarchy of Effective Instructional Strategies (As adopted from Bialy & Wolery,1992:175)

As it is shown above, environmental arrangements and supports make up the top half of the continuum of effective instructions, representing the least intrusive instructional strategies for the classroom. That is, these methods allow the greatest opportunity for students-initiated learning and are less dependent on teachers instruction. Along with the use of peers as intervention agents, these practices provide the structure that supports

teaching and learning in a classroom setting. However, for many students more directive methods of instruction will be required. These strategies are represented by the base of the hierarchy and form the content of the lecture on direct instruction: reinforcement strategies, naturalistic procedures, and response-prompt strategies.

With these thoughts in mind, Bailey and Wolery (1992:176) proposes additional considerations for selecting appropriate instructional strategies that the most effective instructional strategy for a student is the one that offers the greatest chance for success, in the shortest amount of time, in the most natural (least restrictive) setting, with the least teacher assistance. When more than one strategy seems to meet the above criteria, Bailey and Wolery recommend that the less intrusive intervention and arrangements should be used. It is for this reason that the direct instruction strategies are presented first as the reader proceeds through the following strategies which are;

- a) Reinforcement Strategies;
- b) Naturalistic Teaching Strategy; and
- c) Response-Prompting Strategy.

Reinforcement can be thought of as any event following a behavior that increases the probability that the behavior will occur again. For many students, reinforcement is critical to the learning process. Consequently, if additional opportunities for direct instruction are to be created for these students, teachers need to identify methods of reinforcing desired behaviors

and skills. However, more recent publications (Bredekamp & Rosegrant, 1993; Kostelnick et al., 1993) suggest that individual differences in students call for different levels of teachers support, including positive verbal communication (i.e., encouragement and praise), consistent consequences to teach appropriate behavior, and direct instruction in the form of simple, positive statements (Kostelnick et al., 1993:67). The positive reinforcement strategies are included here are supported by a significant body of research attesting to their power in changing behavior in children (Cooper, Heron, & Heward, 1987:110).

The four reinforcement strategies to be discussed below include:

- Differential reinforcement.
- Correspondence training.
- Behavioral momentum.
- Response shaping.

Reinforcement is provided for skills when they occur at the appropriate times and places, and it is not provided when they do not. At least four types of differential reinforcement have been used successfully with students: differential reinforcement of other behaviors (DRO), differential reinforcement of incompatible behaviors (DRI), differential reinforcement of alternative behaviors (DRA), and differential reinforcement of low rate behaviors (DRL). While, in correspondence training, students are reinforced for making accurate statements about their intended behavior. The assumption

underlying this strategy is that positive verbal behavior can influence nonverbal behavior in a positive way.

As far as behavioral momentum, students are reinforced for demonstrating a series of behaviors on command, beginning with behaviors they are more likely to display with ease and ending with a request to perform a behavior they are less likely to display. Finally, response shaping involves reinforcing small approximations of a desired behavior and gradually reducing reinforcement until the student's behavior more closely approximates the target behavior (Wolery & Fleming, 1992; in Bailey & Wolery, 1992: 387).

b) Naturalistic Teaching Strategies

It is also referred to as "milieu" teaching, involved planned episodes of teacher-students interaction that take advantage of naturally occurring reinforcement in the course of ongoing activities and routines (Halle, Alpert, & Anderson, 1984). Naturalistic strategies are originally designed to promote generalization of communication skills from educational settings to natural environments. However, these strategies have also proven effective across developmental domains for teaching new skills as well as improving existing ones.

c) Response-Prompting Strategy

Response Prompting Strategy come in different forms, ranging from verbal cues, signals or gestural cues, demonstrations or models, visual

cues, partial physical prompts, to fully assisted physical “put-through.” The effectiveness of response-prompting strategy in teaching new skills student is supported by a significant body of research (Wolery & Wilbers, 1994). Prompts are used to help student perform tasks that they otherwise could not or would not do. Prompts must come before the student has an opportunity to demonstrate inappropriate behavior, or the undesirable behavior may be inadvertently reinforced with teacher attention.

2.17.2 SOCCSS Strategy (Situation-Options-Consequences-Choices-Strategies-Simulation)

SOCCSS is a teaching strategy designed to help students analyze and understand social communication and social interactions it is developed by Roosa (personal communication,1995). This problem-solving and decision-making technique allows a student to reflect on a problem or situation, offer alternative options and strategies, identify consequences and choose an appropriate course of action. The goal of SOCCSS is to help students function better in social situations. The SOCCSS strategy provides students with a step-by-step process for helping them to build the skills needed for social competence and to understand social norms, read body language and facial expressions, identify emotions, process and integrate multiple stimuli, distinguish between relevant and irrelevant information, and understand the cause-and-effect relationship between one's behavior and that of another person (Gray & Garand , 1993; Bieber, 1994; Myles & Adreon, 2001; Williams & Shellenberger,1996).

The SOCCSS social skills strategy consists of six steps:

- Situation.
- Options.
- Consequences.
- Choices.
- Strategies.
- Simulation.

To implement SOCCSS the teacher guides a student or group of students through the process using discussion, writing, pictures and drawings to identify the information needed in each step.

Step 1: Situation

Work with the student to identify the details of a situation , problem, or asking questions such as:

- What happened?
- When did it happen?
- Who was there?
- Where did it happen?
- Why did it happen?

In this step , the teacher guides the student in providing the details. The degree of teacher facilitation need will vary depending on the age and functioning level of the student.

Step 2: Options

Brainstorm options for responding to the situation, asking questions such as, How did you react to (situation)? What are other things you could have done? What else might you have said? All options are recorded, whether appropriate or inappropriate, with judgment left for later. At first, the student may not be able to find more than one option to a situation. If this is the case, the teacher will have to help the student identify several options by prompting.

Step 3: Consequences

Revisit the options and have the student identify the action or reaction that might result from each option. For example, "What might happen if you (did or said) ...? Could anything else happen? This step is important because it helps the student understand cause and effect. That is, it lets the student know that for each option something logical will happen. For many students, this is the first time they realize that it is possible to predict what will happen next. In addition, SOCCSS may help the student to realize that s/he can control an outcome.

Step 4: Choices

In reviewing each Options-Consequences sequence by discussing the pros and cons of the Consequences. Ask questions like, If you choose to (one of the Options) ... and this (Consequence) happens, would it be good or bad? Would it cause another problem? Could you do or say this (Option)? How would you feel? Would you be happy? How would the other person feel or act? Does your choice meet the goal? Depending on the student age and functioning level, make a choice by (a) using happy or sad faces, (b) numbering the items from most to least preferred, or (c) crossing off the items that do not seem to be a good choice. The student should be left with one choice that s/he agrees with.

Step 5: Strategy

Strategy means help the student to develop a plan of action. This may be a plan to address the situation when it occurs or a strategy to rectify or improve a situation that has already occurred. In either case, the student should feel ownership of the plan. Questions to ask includes, “If you choose to (Option), what is the first thing you could do or say? What is the next thing? Where could you do this? When might you do it? It is important that the strategy be defined in enough detail so that the student feels comfortable carrying it out. If necessary, the student may be provided with a written script or a list of steps to follow.

Step 6: Simulation

Determine the best way to practice the strategy based on the student's ability and learning style. This can occur by (a) using imagery, (b) writing out the plan and reading and re-reading it, (c) engaging in role-play as a participant or (d) watching a role-play by others first before becoming a participant (behavioral rehearsal). The student needs to put himself in the picture. The practice can also provide important feedback on how well the student understands the plan and is capable of implementing it. SOCCSS can be one piece to the complex puzzle of teaching social skills and understanding social communication and interactions. It can be applied as an instructional tool (Using a strategy or methodology to teach specific skills) or interpretive tool (Using a strategy or methodology to assist students in understanding a situation).

In brief, Students can be taught the discrete skills needed to participate successfully in social interactions. Learning rules, identifying facial expression, using an appropriate tone of voice, taking turns, and responding to a direction are just a few of the skills that can be learned using SOCCSS.

2.17.3 SOLVE Strategy (Seek-Observe-Listen-Vocalize-Educate)

It is an empowerment strategy, in fact , SOLVE can be viewed as more than a strategy- It a way of viewing the world, or a special mindset . The great thing about SOLVE is that it can be used in almost all environments and situations.

SEEK: The hidden curriculum is multifaceted. One discovers new curriculum items every day so it is important to be on the lookout in every social situation for the hidden curriculum items. So one must be active seeker and student.

OBSERVER: Observation is one example of how one can learn about the hidden curriculum. Taking time to evaluate a social situation before interacting with others is often an easy way to identify the hidden curriculum.

LISTEN: Pay attention to what others are talking about in order to attend to what students are saying so that one can join in the conversation in a way that will be enjoyable to everyone.

VOCALIZE: One should quietly ask to have unfamiliar slang, idioms and gestures explained; also, ask about appropriate dress for event; then identified "safe person" such as a teacher can give advice; after that the student ask and crack the hidden curriculum codes; finally, student should Keep himself from feeling uncomfortable, misunderstood, or ostracized.

EDUCATION: Share the information that one has learned by figuring out hidden curriculums with the "safe person "someone is so respectable and likable that one can provide him with such assistance in such situations.

2.17.4 Social Narratives

Social narratives provide support and instruction by describing social cues and appropriate response to social behaviour and teaching new social skills. Photographs or pictures can be used to conform the content, social

narratives can promote self-awareness, self-calming, and self-management (Myles & Simpson, 2003 : 1-4). The most frequently used social narrative is social stories.

2.17.5 Social Stories

The idea of social stories are developed by Gray (1991,1995;Gray& Grend,1993), as a way to provide concrete information to help improve students' social skills and appropriate behaviours. A social story uses specific types of sentences to teach social skills. It is written for a students in a specific situation; consequently, the style and content vary according to the age of the student and the given event.

Swaggart et al., (1995:1-16) state that a social story is an easy and effective way to teach students to handle problem situations in appropriate ways. When developing a social story, the topic is determined by observing the student and gathering information related to the situation that presents problems. When possible, the social story is written with a student. In addition, it is read to and with the student as often as needed and may be worked into his daily schedule, besides it may exclusively be written documents or they may be paired with pictures, audiotapes, or videotapes . Social story is a simple method used to teach or maintain social skills, daily living skills, or behavior management skills of student such as ;

- Addressing specific situations by teaching the student appropriate behaviors and responses; for example : how to cope with changes in routine; how to get along with peers; and how to work in the classroom

- Providing an explanation of detailed social information, such as guidelines for waiting a turn in conversation, sharing, or demonstrating good manners; supplies desired responses instead of problem behaviors.

According to what mentioned above , one can state the purpose of a social story as follows ;

- i. Describing social situations and appropriate responses correct student responses to a social situation in a nonthreatening manner;
- ii. Personalizing instruction for each student;
- iii. Breaking goals into easy steps;
- iv. Teaching routines for better retention and generalization;
- v. Helping the student cope with both expected and unexpected transitions;
- vi. Addressing a wide variety of problem behaviors.

2.17.6 Social Autopsies

Lavoie (cited in Bieber, 1994:) develops the concept of social autopsies to help students to understand social mistake. Similar in format to SOCCSS, social autopsies are designed to dissect a social error to understand its components. With the student an active participant, this verbally based strategy typically begins with a teacher asking , " What happened?" The teacher proceeds to ask clarifying questions to ensure that the students share the same knowledge base is gathered, the student is prompted to (a) identify the error, (b) determine who is harmed by the error, (c) decide how to correct the error, and (d) develop a plan so that the error does not occur again.

A social skills autopsy is a constructive problem solving strategy design to decrease similar social misunderstanding will reoccur. Generally held in a one – on- one session, social autopsies provide an opportunity for a student to actively participate in analyzing his social interactions. According to Lavoie (cited in Bieber, 1994:11), the autopsy process is particularly effective in enabling the students to see the cause/effect relationship between his social behaviour and the reactions of others in his environment. Lavoie further states the success of the strategy lies in its structure of practice, immediate feedback, and positive environment.

2.17.6 Video Modeling

Students learn hidden curriculum items or social skills through videos of people engaging in the activity. Video can be of the student performing the activity .Two types of video modeling can be drawn in VM, such as :

2.17.6.1 Video Self-Modeling

Video Self-modeling (VSM) means that the student can watch self perform task, and the student might be videotaped while role playing various sceneries with teachers or peers, the student sees himself engaging in appropriate activities and response. There are two types of VSM: positive self- review and video feed-forward (Dowrick, 1999 :).

1- Positive Self- Review (PSR)

- Designed for situations where student had completed the skill in the past but does not currently use it;
- Video student performing the skill with assistance;
- Before viewing-edit the assistance out of the video;
- student sees self completing the skill independently; and
- Serves as a refresher for the student

2- Video Feed-Forward (VFF)

It is used for students who knows the components of the skill but cannot string them together into a cohesive, complete skill.

2.17.6.2 Video Instruction (IV)

Another type of video modeling , the students view others completing specific tasks , may show a series of skills in isolation and then combined in a way to be used in “real life”. In addition, VI can use to review previously acquired skill not used consistently for mastery. it can teach body language if students can grasp the differences in social contexts. Watching video is a great way to teach someone how to interpret, body language through stop the video, critique the movement or gestures, facial expressions, hand gestures and body posture as well as role-playing what a person is said or not said is also a way to teach hidden curriculum of a body language.

One of the most important key to understand hidden curriculum is a body language, It is about how one communicates or "speaks" with his/her body . It includes gestures, facial expressions, body posture, and tone of the voice. Understanding a person 's body language is an important aspect of

being able to develop relationships and communicate effectively. Sometimes body language seems different than a person's words, and for this reason, it is important to understand body language.

For example, a person who says that he likes someone but frowns at the same time might in reality not really like him. A student can often tell if a teacher is angry by the tone of his voice and the way he crosses his arms rather than the words he uses. Sometimes body language is the best way to understand how someone feels . Table 2.3 gives some examples and interpretations of body language (Myles, Trautman, & Schlevan ,2004:6-7).

Table 2.3
Examples of Body Language

Body Part	Action	Interpretations
Head	Leaning to one side	Not understanding, listening, thinking
Face	Scowl(involves whole face: eyes are narrowed and squinted, nose is wrinkled, lips are press together, mouth is sometimes to one side.	Displeasure, intimidation, bullying, anger
Eyes	-Wide open -Almost closed("open just a slit") -Looking straight at someone	-Surprised , amazement -Disbelief , doubt -Staring (which is considered

	or something (for along than a glance).	rude)
Eyebrow	Pulled close together (sometimes referred to as "knitted brows")	Thinking , confusing
Mouth	-Corners of the mouth lifted up (smile) - Corners of the mouth lifted up down -Opened wide	-Greeting , Happy - Sad, unhappy, disappointed -Surprise, shock
Chin	Lifted, pushed forward	Proud, tough, defiant
Body	-Pointed a finger - Hands on hips - Shrugging shoulder - Arms folded across chest	-Giving directions, threat, getting in trouble -Frustrated, bored, questioning/expecting an answer -Questioning , don't know -Un approachable, listening/ taking in information

In sum, Bellini & Akullian, (2007:264-285). specific that there are several advantages by using VSM or VI:

- It supports learning using the student's visual learning style;
- It motivating students to enhance critical thinking model;
- It is proactive; it allows student to examine a social situation before a problem occurs.

Each of the strategies are presented above , can be effective tools when teaching students with socio-cognitive challenges. The goal is to assist the students identify hidden curriculums and understand the rules, mores, ethics, values, norms manners and gestures embedded in the activities.

2.18 Technology and the Hidden Curriculum

An overwhelming task to even comprehend the drastic changes that technology will have on, not only education but on society in general. Because technology is changing at such a rapid rate it is impossible to keep up with these changes, and as a result, it is having a drastic impact on the school system. Technology keeps changing so dramatically in such short periods of time that people who do not use it regularly risk feeling obsolete and it is changing so fast that schools will have to change to accommodate the change in society.

Education must be reconstructed to meet the challenges of a global and technological society because if educators do not meet these challenges then student's failure will be miserable. This is one area of the hidden curriculum because at the present time technology is not being utilized in education to its highest potential since many teachers are not trained to use it constructively.

This technological revolution that one is experienced centers on hanging information, dynamic computers, mass communication, and multimedia technologies. Dimitriadis (2002:89) states that media culture is a phenomenon with significant implications for schooling and school curricula,

both official (e.g., textbooks and lesson plans) and the unofficial, hidden curriculum (e.g., classroom practices).

Education is one of society's key vehicles for the transmission of societal culture; therefore, the educational institution transmits more than just information and values. It also passes on, often subtle, and indirect ways the descriptive stories that translate history and traditions into meaningful, workable symbols; thus, these issues of culture must be addressed if school reform is to be successful. Since technology, mass media, and popular culture are so important in the postmodern society then it becomes valid to study how these technological advances function and determine educational issues.

Nowadays, technology controls more and more of students' time. The student now has an IPOD in his pocket, a cell phone in his book bag, and a laptop computer in his briefcase. If educational institutions do not keep up with the rapid pace of technology then educators will lose the interest of their students. Educators must be able to compete in a technological world or students will feel that they are not learning what they need to know.

Technology curriculum may be either formal or informal, and inherent lessons may be overt or covert, good or bad, correct or incorrect depending on one's' view. Students who use the Internet on a regular basis, both for recreational purposes and for research and information, are bombarded with all types of media and messages. Much of this information may be factually correct, informative, or even entertaining or inspirational, but other information may be very incorrect, dated, passé, biased, perverse, or even manipulative. The implications for educational practices are that part of the overt curriculum needs to include lessons on how to be wise consumers of

information, how to critically appraise the accuracy and correctness of electronic information, as well as the reliability of electronic sources.

Students are exposed to so much that they need to learn how to make choices and disregard the information that is not useful to them. Also, students need to learn how to be artfully discerning about the usefulness and appropriateness of certain types of information. And, like other forms of social interaction, students need to know that there are inherent lessons to be learned about appropriate and acceptable online behavior.

Educators are always in a dilemma with society demanding that they keep up with the newest in technology. Film and radio in the 1930s, instructional television in the 1960s, and more recently computers are touted to revolutionize classroom instruction by increasing teacher and student productivity. People believe that more can be taught in less time with these machines and that students can learn more and even better than from textbooks or even the teacher; however each new medium brought disappointment with the blame usually attributed to the classroom teacher. One major problem with technology is that the school system has problems keeping abreast of the fast changing pace.

In today's society there is a hidden agenda of shifting technological experiences for each individual because of the varied qualities of mass telecommunication. Much of technology remains mysterious to many people because some are very resistant to change.

Most teachers are not trained to use technology effectively. This increase in technology will continue to affect modernity, power and even education. People view technology as the modern expression of progress, and

education is challenged to help society change from the industrial age to the information age. Schools are being pressured at every junction to provide access to the information highway as quickly as possible because technology has changed our very existence (Chasin, 1995 :73)

Countless computers are placed in the public educational institutions because the idea has been propagated that these technological resources can change poor academic achievement and bring about educational reform, but this is often not the case because there is not a clear plan of how to best utilize the computers. Teachers, administrators and others may not be properly trained to best use the computers; therefore, they are used to complete tasks that in the past were completed using low-tech items such as scissors and glue.

Many teachers resist the use of computers because they are not knowledgeable enough to use them appropriately or they are afraid of the information that can be gained from the computers. They fear that they will lose control of what and how they are allowed to teach. However, computer use is out of the hands of educators because most of the middle to high school age students now have access to the internet in the home and are online. Students are also experimenting with technology utilizing such sites as UTube, and are quickly becoming postmodern cyborgs (Dumit and Floyd (2001: 133).

So far, educators can define at least two reasons for wanting to bring technology into educational institutions; the first is the desire to have these modern miracles in the classroom to assure us that the classroom is as modern as the world of tomorrow. Each new development in technology-

radio, film, television, computers- in society insist that the new revolutionary invention will bring new success in the classroom. The second reason for wanting technology is to allow students greater advantages in pursuing educational success.

2.19 Assessment of Hidden Curriculum

Faculty and curriculum experts in higher education institutes focus on designing a curriculum for each subject that achieves the learning objectives of the subject and aligns with the learning objectives of the programme as well. In addition to the formal curricula, there are hidden curricula that influence the learning process of higher education students. In order to guarantee that students possess the learning outcomes of a course, instructors need to create innovative assessment methods that would involve all students in an interesting educational environment. Three alternative assessments are used in hidden curriculum, which are Peer- assessment , self-assessment , and portfolio assessment.

Peer-assessment through group case presentations would be a suitable assessment process if done in the right manner. Gibbs (1999:143) confirms that peer-assessment reduces marking time for teachers by eighteen hours and summative marks for students increased by twenty percent. According to Cope and Staehr (2005:181-197) peer-assessment has two advantages: First, students are required to work throughout the semester and second, students are exposed to various approaches of solving problems. Using case studies in the assessment criteria includes high cognitive processes since students are involved in the learning process (Bonwell and

Eison, 1991:112); the advantage of case analysis is in the role of students in applying the theoretical concepts that they learn (Davis and Wilcock, 2008:79).

Indisputably, the value that case studies add to higher education learning is in using real situations from organizations, addressing problems, evaluating taken actions, and recommending solutions. Nonetheless, lower cognitive processes are involved when case assessment is limited to a presenting group who submit a report that gets evaluated and marked by the instructor. The downside of typical case presentations is that each student prepares his/her part that will be tested and marked by the instructor which evolves the hidden curriculum of preparing and learning what the students will be only examined in.

Many researchers discuss the inadequacy of peer-assessment; it has been argued that this type of assessment is invalid. The main reason is lack of time and poor assessment skills of students taking the role of assessors (Sivan, 2000:194-213 ; Liu and Charles, 2006:279-290). Some scholars also consider that peer-assessment increase competition among students which hinder collaborative mindset that group presentations seek (Lopez-Real and Chan, 1999:67-79). To address these issues peer-assessment should be done using specific innovative techniques such as teacher's supervision to assist the assessing group in the assessment process and to question the assessing students about the rationale behind their questions to the presenting team.

According to Biggs and Tang (2009: 19) "it is not what teachers do, but what students do that's important". Biggs and Tang (ibid., 33) also argue that grading students individually like ranking and following a curve is competitive for students where each student has to beat another student to get higher mark.

Unquestionable, the aim of peer-assessment is not a process of creating a complete grading of students to each other; however it is a deep learning tool that happens through dialogues, questioning, critical thinking, and defending arguments. In hidden curriculum , this assessment method helps students to learn independently, and to improve skills in their higher education studies as well as their professional and personal life.

In the same context , self-assessment has a great impact on deep learning in case it is accompanied with the right skills and competencies. During the academic career of students, they develop effective self-assessment skills; inexperience students should be involved in self-assessment processes in order to learn self evaluation (Simon, 2007: 313). When students master self-assessment skills, they develop their ability of independent learning. As a result, this process creates self awareness among students and capacity to monitor performance. Self-assessment is helpful especially with large classes where critical feedback from the instructor becomes difficult to be communicated to each student individually.

As far as , Boud (1995:81) defines self-assessment as involvement of students in developing assessment criteria and evaluating their performance as per the developed criteria. This will help students to know

what good work consists of and what learning outcomes are required to achieve. Cassidy (2004:433) considers that self-assessment has a great impact on the strategic approach of learning since it helps students to set strategies to organize their studies, manage time, and plan for future improvements.

While, Boud and Falchikiv (1989: 529-549) find that more capable students underestimate their ability and underrate their work; however, less capable students tend to overrate their performance. The teachers' role is to help enhance familiarity with self-assessment among their students and how they rate their performance in order to prepare them for this assessment method that would create ownership and responsibility and more intrinsic motivation. Students should be encouraged to apply the theoretical content they learn in classrooms to case studies from real organizations in their domain. Self-assessment is considered as a wash back in hidden curriculum.

The final tool of judging students performance in the classroom is the use of portfolio assessment which is based on a collection of student's works . The term is derives from an artist portfolio, which is a collections of artist's works designated to show his or her style and range (Airasain, 1994: 262). In the classroom, the purpose of portfolio is to collect a series of students performance or products that show the show the student's accomplishment or improvement over time (ibid., 263).

Portfolio assessment deviates significantly from traditional types of assessment, such as paper-and-pencil tests based on multiple choice , true and false, and identification and matching questions . The traditional way of

testing focuses on evaluation as a group process or achievement at a point in time. Portfolio assessment, on the other hand is more based on individual efforts, focusing on performance over a period of time, emphasising self-assessment and self-improvement. Portfolio assessment is more likely "authentic assessment" in that it looks more like a real – life task rather than an activity constructed as a test that does not resemble much what happens beyond the test- let alone, beyond the classroom (Farr & Tone, 1994:10). This type of assessment, if properly practiced, encourages the students to control their own performance rather than being controlled by others.

Although many researches show the importance and value of portfolio- assessment , self-assessment, and peer-assessment, yet it is not fully integrated in many universities and this may be due to different reasons. Students might be reluctant to undergo portfolio, self, and peer-assessment if they consider those types of assessments are ways for teachers to alleviate from assessment pressures, if they think that they are not capable enough to participate in this exercise, or if they feel that they wouldn't be rewarded by their teachers (Walker, 2001: 28-36). Thus, students need to be educated about the value that portfolio, self, and peer assessment add to their learning processes and skills. Gibbs (1995:149) also emphasizes that students in their first year of higher education do not necessarily have the skills for a reliable portfolio, self, and peer assessment; a downside of self-assessment is also presented by Savin-Baden (2003:12-19) through its subjectivity since students reveal a tendency to evaluate what they mean rather than what they achieved. In addition to that, students in their first year of higher education

are considered inexperienced by many scholars and need to be assisted in developing self-assessment skill, yet some students are aware of metacognitive skills in their pre-university education studies at their high schools or even with their parents at home.

Those students would encourage to have a portfolio, self, and peer assessment culture in higher education and to develop metacognitive skills among their inexperienced peers where students at different levels can benefit from these assessments to cover the intended curriculum and eliminate a hidden curriculum of surface learning. Yet, teachers need to engage all students in programs that aim at learning- making decisions and metacognitive skills in the natural of universities setting . In other words, instructors need to become instructors of hidden curriculum so that they can offer a true version of emancipator rationality.

2.20 What Impairs Applying Hidden Curriculum

The current study has often focused on certain factors which impair the hidden curriculum and the impact that it has on the contemporary classroom, such as:

2.20.1 The Society Ideology

The fact that no area of human endeavour can ever be neutral or value-free since it is always underpinned by the values and beliefs, both conscious and unconscious, of its proponents. Such sets of beliefs or

worldviews are examples of what sociologists call ideologies. Ideology is defined as a broad interlocked set of ideas and beliefs about the world held by a group of people that they demonstrate in both behaviour and conversation to various audiences. These systems of belief are usually seen as ‘the way things really are’ by the groups holding them, and they become the taken-for-granted ways of making sense of the world (Meighan and Harber, 2007: 212). It is important therefore to understand the impact of different ideologies (political , social , educational, cultural, economical ...etc.) because they have shaped so much of EFL teacher education today.

2.20.2 Education System

Al-Alawi (1994) criticizes the education system in the Arab World, and describes it as “authoritative”. The curriculum is implemented in a top-down mode, which makes it very difficult for teachers to engage in any kind of change or innovation (Al-Toubi, 1998). As aforementioned , detailed scoping study of the education system in Iraq conducted by Geopolicity in 2010 indicates that in spite of considerable improvements since 2003, the entire education system including higher education requires substantial investment to overcome the legacy of conflict, for instance , poor quality of inputs includes: languages & science labs, libraries, equipment, an outdated curriculum, lack of teacher training and food sources, staff absenteeism, and the wide spread phenomenon of private tutoring which takes away from the public system (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_Iraq)

2.20.3 Classroom Organization

Idealistically, the central feature of university buildings is that they contain separate classrooms for one teacher and 25-35 students of approximately the same age who must spend about one hour daily in a room. Within this one classroom, the teacher, like colleagues in other rooms within the school, is expected to maintain control, teach certain subject matter, motivate students to learn, vary levels of instruction according to student differences, and display evidence that students have performed satisfactorily (Apple : 1993:45). On the contrary, classrooms in Iraqi universities contain a minimum of 45 students , thus, teacher cannot facilitate policy implementation via teaching communicatively and applying the concept of hidden curriculum effectively.

2.20.4 Teacher's Expectations

It would seem that society in general blames teachers for the overall failure of the educational institutions on many levels. Society blames their professional education, they blame what they teach and how they teach; however, The struggles classroom teachers face through delivering the curriculum which is addressed by Aoki (1993: 260) when he discusses: “The difficulty the practicing teacher has with the multiplicity of curricula, living in the middle of balancing the curriculum-as planned which is the required curriculum, geared towards the end-means, and the curriculum-as lived, the other curriculum which varies from student to student, depending upon their experiences and the reality of their own lives.”

Grumet (1996:16) supports Aoki's argument by stating that what is basic to education is neither the system that surrounds us nor the situation of

each individual's lived experience. What is basic to education is the relation between the two. Thus, the hidden curriculum is implied by the very structure, experiences and nature of educational institution much of what revolves around daily or established routines. On the other hand, teacher's expectations most generally refer to those expectations that course teachers have for their students (such as "making sense of what they are learning") that do not appear in the topic list or course syllabus. However, teachers, working alone in their rooms, choose what to teach and how to present it. Their choices derive from their knowledge of the subject they teach, their experiences in teaching the content, their affection or dislike for topics, and their attitudes toward the students they face daily.

Beyond the fact that teachers must look at the learning process so that they can meet the needs of the diverse students population if they are to guide their students to a fulfilled, successful life. Actually, EFL Iraqi university teachers have no more freedom to supplement the syllabus and plan their lessons in the way they see relevant to their students' needs and levels, which can have its implications to the students' motivation.

2.20.5 Outdated Curriculum

The only learning which significantly influences behavior is personal, student-centered approach, self-discovered, self-appropriated learning. This kind of learning cannot be communicated through conventional forms of textbooks, an outdated curriculum, age-old ways of teaching; old-fashioned learning strategies and style in higher education which have received remarkably little attention from experimentalists. Yet,

outdated curriculum syllabuses are not given opportunity for teacher and students to express themselves and does not provide sufficient room for spoken language. Thus, curriculum and textbooks fails to prepare the students for oral communication in English due to a lack of a variety of approaches, strategies , techniques and activities. In spite of , Sadker and Zittleman (2007:144) cite research “that students spend as much as 80 to 95 percent of classroom time using textbooks and that teachers make a majority of their instructional decisions , approaches, strategies , techniques and activities based on the textbook.”. Also, a Canadian study found that the average teacher uses textbooks for 70 to 90 percent of classroom time (Baldwin and Baldwin, 1992:110-114). Yet, the written texts produced by the students are usually based upon the input text. This is what is known as the “skills cycle”. Students remain within the same ‘topic’ where they listen to a text about it, they read it, they speak it and eventually they write it. In other words, they think and produce the topic/book in a linear manner.

White (1988) states that ‘topics’ require in-depth treatment and discussion and can mean different things to different people as they relate to different individual knowledge and experiences. Moreover, he states that ‘topics’ should be carefully selected to stimulate the students’ motivation. White also states that topics decided for the ELT curriculum are educational choices rather than linguistic choices. In other words, choice of topics is a policy decision and serves the transmission of “selective traditions” (Williams, 1989) and “interested knowledge” (Pennycook, 1989). Therefore, guarantees all students receive common and fundamental knowledge through exposure to certain authorized and prescribed texts (Luke, de Castell & Luke,

1989:245-260). In sum , memorizing information from curriculum and textbooks in today's information age is outdated .In order to live successfully in the future students do need to know how to learn, to reason, to link concepts together.

2.20.6 Target Language Culture

Language, hence, becomes subservient to knowledge and culture. Textbooks, in a context like Iraqi's, are targeted to the entire student population, which make them an economic commodity. Teaching language from one textbook and using teacher-proof material reduces chances of language exposure and practice significantly. Apple (1993:50) claims that standardized textbooks have an ideological dimension as they help teachers overcome problems related to large classrooms, which is the case in Iraq, where the class consists of a minimum of 45 mixed-ability students. Consequently, this large amount of students put certain impediments for teacher to cultivate culture factor in classroom, hence, EFL classes have little connection and exposing to the target culture , real world, using techniques to assist the process of acculturation in the classroom, such as role-play, reading, films, simulation, games, culture assimilors, culture capsules and culturgram. In addition , exams in Iraq promote reliance on memorization, which in turn narrows the focus of the students down to the language presented in the textbook.

2.20.7 Affective Learning Outcomes

Students' motivation to learn and their emotional state whilst learning are elements of the affective domain (Beard et al., 2007:235-52). Bloom and Krathwol (1956) categorize the affective domain, but a range of theories, based in a range of disciplinary contexts, address how teachers contribute to the development of student attitudes and values. These include learning theories (based around positive reinforcement and cognitive dissonance) and social learning theories (based around social constructivism) as reviewed by Miller (2005). Miller emphasises that even where they are not explicitly stated, affective objectives are pervasive in education.

Some reviews emphasize the difficulties that teachers will always face when teaching affective outcomes. Indeed, in higher education, Shephard (2007:87-97) finds that most teaching and assessment in higher education focus on cogitative skills of knowledge and understanding rather than on affective outcomes of values, attitudes and behaviours. Yet, education has often avoided these affective goals. It is quite possible for students to learn about their subject and be able to describe, comprehend, apply, analyse, synthesise and evaluate to the extent that they can pass their exams, without actually changing their attitudes as indicated by the way they respond or behave afterwards.

Bloom et al. (1971) discuss this educational failure in a general context. They suggest that teachers avoid being too open about their affective objectives because they are concerned with charges of indoctrination or brainwashing. In addition, many teachers regard these matters as "private" rather than public and also express concern that affective outcomes are far too long term to be assessed within the timescale of any particular learning

programme. These issues have not yet been resolved by higher education practitioners and it not unknown for teachers to be accused of indoctrinating practices (see Carlson, 2006, for an example in the area of college sustainability).

In addition, it is still relatively rare in education for attainment of these values and attitudes to be openly assessed or for programmes that attempt to, or inadvertently, develop values to be evaluated on this basis. The term “hidden curriculum” has been used to describe these and related anomalies (Atherton, 2005; Margolis, 2001; Rowntree, 1981).

2.21 Related Previous Studies

Various studies have been conducted on review of hidden curriculum in higher education, it sheds light on different problems has been shown to describe the process of how hidden curriculum influence positively or negatively by presenting various topics to demonstrate the wide range of hidden curriculum in higher education.

2.21.1 Ozolins and Petersons (2008)

Aims: The study aims to explore student views of the nature, role and impact of the informal and hidden curriculum and to establish the importance of this curriculum for the students.

Sample: The sample of the study represents two groups,; group one is comprised and randomly selected through using the criteria of gender and level of study, while group two is comprised students nominated by the

school's Executive Committee who represents the student body on academic committees. Group size is small to allow each participant opportunity to raise and discuss their views and to encourage higher level of involvement.

Methodology : Two -hour focus groups are conducted with students enrolled in years 1 to 4 of medical college. Three analysts are examined transcripts independently to identify and verify emergent themes through content analysis.

Results : The results of this study indicate that students are aware of an informal and hidden curriculum in medical training that is an integral part of learning. Many students value the informal curriculum for providing richness and depth in their learning and acquiring the skills needed for lifelong professional learning. Although students recognize the importance of both the formal and informal curriculum, students also believe that some components of their learning could only be achieved through the informal and hidden curriculum. These components may vary across institutions and professional and social contexts.

2.21.2 Rennert - Arieiev's (2008)

Aims : The aim of the this study is to understand the “hidden” curricular messages within the program and the ways that these messages interacted with the intended learning outcomes by answering three central questions:1) What is the hidden curriculum of this teacher education program? 2) How did faculty and pre-service teachers in this

program experience the hidden curriculum? and 3) How did the hidden curriculum interact with the program's intended performance-based curriculum?

Sample: The sample of this study is thirty pre-service teachers are selected from university in the mid-Atlantic region.

Methodology : A qualitative case study focuses on a cohort of thirty pre-service teachers and their faculty is conducted at a large comprehensive university over the course of two academic semesters. Data consists of transcribed interviews, document analysis, and observation field notes pertaining to the experiences of three undergraduate elementary education students and their five-member faculty throughout the final two academic years of their preparation.

Results : The results of the study reveal that students' supervisors are unaware of hidden curriculum, for example, that students gave as little thought as they do to how the standards affected their practice and their thinking. These actions represent problems that cannot be revealed by looking solely at the programs' formal, intended curriculum. Thus, the formal and hidden curriculum send very similar messages to students about the importance of "student-centered" instruction, students may be more likely to value this type of instruction and seek to implement it. Coherence ought to be examined, though, not only between, but within, the hidden and formal curriculum.

2.21.3 Esposito's (2011)

Aims: This study examines the hidden curriculum within a predominantly White institution (PWI) of higher education, and examines how women of color encountered the curriculum.

Sample : Only seven young women who participated in this study.

Methodology : Data collection included interviews and focus groups over a two year period. The researcher uses critical race theory to explore how race and gender influenced the manner in which women of color negotiated their roles and promoted a culture of femininity that helped shape campus life in many ways.

Results: The results of the study reveals that femininity is not performed on campus freed from power relations and different oppressions. The women of color who participate in the study notes that they feel their bodies stood out among the predominantly White bodies across campus. Because of their heightened visibility, the participants feel they have to confront the power of the gaze from White students and professors who read them through a stereotypical lens. According to the seven young women who participate in this study, race and gender are embodied phenomena that affected their lives, their images of self, and experiences within a predominantly White institution of higher education.

2.22 Discussion of Related Previous Studies

In this section, a discussion of the previous studies are presented according to the following points, as long as the present work is concerned.

2.22.1 Sample and Population

The sample of the first study is undergraduate students at medical college . While, the sample of the second study is pre-services teachers. In terms of the third study, the sample is women at White Institution. Regarding the sample of the present study, EFL Iraqi faculty members and students at the departments of English language, morning studies, are selected from three colleges namely; College of Education /Ibn-Rushd , University of Baghdad, College of Education for Women , University of Baghdad , and College of Education for Human Sciences , University of Diyala .

2.22. 2 Aims

In respect to the comparison of the aims of the previous studies with the present one, it was found that the aims are different. All of the studies including the present one are of the descriptive methodology type. The aim of the first study is to explore students views of the nature, role and impact of the informal and hidden curriculum and to establish the importance of this curriculum for the students. Whereas the aim of the second study is to understand the “hidden” curricular messages within the program and the ways that these messages interacted with the intended learning outcomes by answering three central questions:1) What is the hidden curriculum of the teacher education program? 2) How did faculty and pre-service teachers in this program experience the hidden curriculum? and 3) How did the hidden curriculum interact with the program’s intended performance-based

curriculum? While, the aims of the third study is to examine the hidden curriculum within a predominantly White institution (PWI) of higher education, and examines how women of color encountered the curriculum. In terms of the present study aims at assessing EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum and its effect on students' performance .

2.22.3 Procedures

The surveyed previous studies followed more than one procedure in gathering the data to achieve the aims of the study, for instance , the data of the first study is collected from observations and transcript analysis. While the second study, the data is gathered through interviews, document analysis, and observation field notes, whereas, in the third study, the data is collect through interviews . Regarding the present study , the data is collected through constructing three instruments, vis; a checklist , a questionnaire, and an essay written test.

Chapter Three

Methodology & Procedures

3.1 An Introductory Note

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodology and procedures used to conduct the present study which is designed to check EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum and its effect on their students' performance in English.

This chapter provides a detailed description of the population and sample design, data collection procedures, instrumentations , validity , reliability, and scoring scheme.

3.2 Population of the Study

Generally speaking, a population is the group of persons whom the survey is about. A research population is known as a well-defined collection of individuals or objects known to have similar characteristics. All individuals or objects within a certain population usually have a common, binding characteristic or trait (Castillo, 2009). A population is the group to which a researcher would like the results of the study to be generalized (Gay, 1996:128).

The population of this study target two groups : EFL Iraqi faculty members and students at the departments of English, morning studies, at three Colleges namely; College of Education /Ibn-Rushd , University of Baghdad, College of Education for Women , University of Baghdad , and College of Education for Human Sciences , University of Diyala ,for the academic year 2010-2011 .

3.2.1 Population of Teachers

The population consists of teachers at the Departments of English Language distributed in terms of their fields of specialization including English Language Teaching , Linguistics and Literature, also, according to their gender (male and female) , and their years of experience in the three Colleges of Education mentioned above. It is worthy to be mentioned that the average numbers of years of teaching experiences is 18 years ranging from 1-10, and 10-20. Thus, the total number of teachers population at the three colleges is 80 for both genders grouped in three fields of specialization and distributed as follows : The total number of teachers at the College of Education/Ibn-Rushd , is 36 which is allotted as follows:

- 1- The number of males in English language teaching is 0 ,whereas, the number of females is 3 ,
- 2- The number of males in Linguistics is 5 , while, the number of females is 11, and
- 3- The number of males in Literature is 9 ,while the number of females is 8 .

In terms of the College of Education for Women , the total number of teachers is 28 which and distributed as follows:

- 1- The number of males specialized in English language teaching is 0 ,whereas, the number of females is 2 ,
- 2- The number of males specialized in Linguistics is 2 ,while the number of females is 11, and
- 3- The number of males specialized in Literature is 1 , whereas the number of females is 12 .

Finally, the total number of teachers at College of Education for Human Sciences, is 16 apportioned as follows:

- 1- The number of males specialized in English language teaching is 0 ,whereas, the number of females is 3 .
- 2- The number of males specialized in Linguistic is 5 , while the number of females is 4 , and
- 3- The number of males specialized in Literature 1 ,whereas the number of females is 3.

Above of all, the total number of males and females at the three colleges can be described below:

- 1- The total number of males at the College of Education / Ibn-Rushd is 14, while that of the females is 22 . So, the total number for both genders is 36 with a percentage 45%,

- 2- At the College of Education for Women , the total number of males is 3 , whereas, that for the females is 25 . So the total number for both genders is (28) with a percentage 35% , and
- 3- The total number of males at the College of Education for Human Sciences is 6 , while that for the females is 10 . So the total number for both genders is 16 with a percentage 20%. (see table 3.1)

Table 3.1

The Population of Teachers distributed according to the Colleges , Fields of Specialization, and Gender Variables

Fields of Specialization	English Language Teaching		Linguistics		Literature		Total			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total	Percentile
Gender										
Colleges										
Ibn-Rushd	-	3	5	11	9	8	14	22	36	45%
Women	-	2	2	11	1	12	3	25	28	35%
Human Sciences	-	3	5	4	1	3	6	10	16	20%
Total	0	8	12	26	11	23	23	57	80	100%
Percentile	10%		47%		43%		29%	71%	100%	

According to the Years of Experience which ranges from 1-10 and 10-20 years for teachers in-service for the three colleges during the academic year 2010-2011, the sample is distributed as follows :

- 1- The total number of teachers at the College of Education/Ibn-Rushd , is 36 distributed as follows: The number of teachers whom years of experience range from 1-10 is 20 , whereas, the numbers of teachers whose is the years of experience range from 1-20 is 16,
- 2- The total number of teachers at the College of Education for Women , is 28 distributed as follows: The number of teachers whom years of experience range from 1-10 is 24, whereas, the numbers of teachers whose years of experience range of from 1-20 is 4, and
- 3- The total number of teachers at the College of Education for Human Sciences , is 16 distributed as follows: The number of teachers whom years of experience range from 1-10 is 12, whereas, those teachers whose years of experience range of from 1-20 is 4. See table 3.2

Table 3.2
The Population of Teachers distributed according to the Years of Experience Variables

Colleges	Ibn- Rushd		Women		Human Sciences		Total	
	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20
Years of Experiences								
Total	20	16	24	4	12	4	56	24

3.2.2 Population of Students

The population of the students is limited to the third stage at the Departments of English Language in the three colleges of Education as mentioned above. The third stage is selected as a population of the present

study for a major reason ; that is because teachers and students are exposed to study subjects which belong to the three fields of specialization namely ; English Language Teaching, Linguistics , and Literature, in order to achieve the major aim of the present study which is to check the EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum and its effect on their students' performance in English.

Actually , the total number of students' population at the three colleges is 368 with a percentage of (100%) for both genders distributed as follows :

- 1- The total number of males and females at the College of Education, Ibn-Rushd is 195 with a percentage of 53% and distributed as follows: The number of males is 66, while, the number of females is 129 grouped in four sections.
- 2- The total number of males and females at the College of Education, for College of Education for Woman is 80 with a percentage of 22% and distributed as follows: The number of males is 0 and the number of females is 80 .
- 3- The total number of males and females at the College of Education for Human Sciences is 93 with a percentage of 25% and distributed as follows: The number of males is 27 and the number of females is 66 .
- 4- The total number of males at the three colleges is 93 with a percentage of 25 % , while the total number of females is 275 with a percentage of 75% , as shown in table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3

The Population of 3rd Stage Students distributed according to the University , College , and Gender Variables

Students				
Gender	Males	Females	Total	Percentile
University College of Education				
University of Baghdad Ibn-Rushd	66	129	195	53%
University of Baghdad Women	---	80	80	22%
University of Diyala Human Sciences	27	66	93	25%
Total	93	275	368	100%
Percentile	25%	75%	100%	

3.3 The Sample of the Present Study

Generally speaking, the sample is the group of people whom researchers actually examine . Sampling allows the researcher to economize on research efforts by limiting observations to manageable subset of units that statistically or conceptually representative of the set of all possible units, the population or universe of interest (Krippendorff,2004:84).

Gay (1996:128) defines sampling as the process of selecting a number of individuals for any study in such way that the individuals represent the larger group from which they were selected. The purpose of sampling is to use a sample to gain information about a population. Ideally, an analysis of the whole population and an analysis of a representative sample of that population should come to the same conclusion.

The sample of this study target two groups : EFL Iraqi faculty members and students at the Departments of English Language, morning studies, at three Colleges namely; College of Education /Ibn-Rushd , University of Baghdad, College of Education for Women , University of Baghdad , and College of Education for Human Sciences , University of Diyala ,for the academic year 2010-2011 .

3.3.1 The Sample of Teachers

The teachers' sample is purposefully selected from the teaching staff who teach the 3rd stage at the Departments of English Language / morning studies at the three Colleges of Education . To fulfill the aims of this study, the sample includes all teachers who teach at the 3rd stage representing the three fields of specializations and for both genders .

The teachers sample is selected with a percentage of 26% as a criteria being stated by Mulhim (-2002:252), so the total number of teacher's sample consists of 21 at the Departments of English Language which is distributed in terms of their fields of specializations as follows : English Language Teaching , Linguistics , and Literature , and according to their genders (male and female) for the academic year 2010-2011.

The total number of teachers at the College of Education/Ibn-Rushd , is 9 which distributed as follows:

- 1- The number of males in English Language Teaching is 0 ,whereas, the number of females is 1 ,

- 2- The number of males in Linguistics is 2 , while, the number of females is 2, and
- 3- The number of males in Literature is 1 ,while the number of females is 3 .

In terms of the College of Education for Women , the total number of teachers is 7 distributed as follows:

- 1- The number of males in English Language Teaching is 0 ,whereas, the number of females is 1 ,
- 2- The number of males in Linguistics is 0 ,while the number of females is 3, and
- 3- The number of male in Literature is 0 , whereas the number of females is 3.

Finally, at College of Education for Human Sciences, the total number of teachers is 5 distributed as follows:

- 1- The number of males in English Language Teaching is 0 ,whereas, the number of females is 1 .
- 2- The number of males in Linguistic is 1, while the number of females is 1 , and
- 3- The number of males in Literature is 1 ,whereas the number of females is 1 . See table 3.4

Table 3.4**The Sample of Teachers distributed according to the Colleges ,
Fields of Specialization, and Gender Variables**

Fields of Specialization	English Language Teaching		Linguistic		Literature		Total		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
Colleges									
Ibn-Rushd	0	1	2	2	1	3	3	6	9
Women	-	1	0	3	0	3	0	7	7
Human Sciences	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	5
Total	0	3	3	6	2	7	5	16	21

According to the Years of Experience which range from 1-10 and 10-20 , the sample is distributed as follows :

- 1- The total number of teachers at the College of Education/Ibn-Rushd , is 9 distributed as follows: The number of teachers whose years of experience range from 1-10 is 5 , whereas, the number of teachers whose years of experience range from 1-20 is 4,
- 2- The total number of teachers at the College of Education for Women , is 7 distributed as follows: The number of teachers whose years of experience range from 1-10 is 6, whereas, the number of teachers whose years of experiences range of from 1-20 is 1, and
- 3- The total number of teachers at the College of Education for Human Sciences , is 5 distributed as follows: The number of teachers whose years of experience range from 1-10 is 4, whereas, the numbers of teachers which is the years of experiences range of from 1-20 is 1. See table 3.5

Table 3.5
The Sample of Teachers distributed according to the
Years of Experience Variables

Colleges	Ibn- Rushd		Women		Human Sciences		Total	
	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20
Years of Experiences	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20
Total	5	4	6	1	4	1	15	6

3.3.2 The Sample of Students

Actually , The sample of students is also concerned with the EFL students at the three colleges of Education , as it is stated previously. The students' sample is selected with a percentage of 40% as a criteria being stated by Mulhim (2002:252), so the total number of student's sample consists of 174 for both genders, and distributed as follows :

- 1- The total number of males and females at the College of Education, Ibn-Rushd is 83 and distributed as follows: The number of males is 25, while that of females is 58 ,
- 2- The total number of males and females at the College of Education, for Woman is 24 distributed as follows: The number of males is 0 , while, the number of females is 24 .
- 3- The total number of males and females at the College of Education for Human Sciences is 40 distributed as follows: The number of males is 12 , while, the number of females is 28 . See table 3.6

Table 3.6
The Sample of Students distributed according to the
University , College , and Gender Variables

Students				
Gender	Males	Females	Total	Percentage
University & College				
University of Baghdad (College of Ibn-Rushd)	25	58	83	52.989
University of Baghdad College of Education for Women	---	24	24	21.739
University of Diyala College of Education for Human Sciences	12	28	40	25.272
Total	37	110	147	100%

3.4 Data Collection

Three major tools are constructed to achieve the aims and to verify hypotheses of the study , which are ; a Checklist, a Questionnaire , and Written Essay Test.

3.4.1 Description of the Checklist

A checklist is basically a list of the criteria upon which a teacher or a student's performance or end product is to be judged (Moore,2005:328). Whereas, Brown (2004:268-269) states that checklists can be quite simple, which is better option for focusing on only a few factors within real time , he believes that checklists are a viable alternative for recording observation

results. So , the researcher is determined to design a checklist observation to check the application of hidden curriculum by EFL university teachers.

The checklist covers three majors aspects which are **Values , Ethics** and **Norms** . Each aspect contains several subscales . The first aspect is **Values** which consists of six subscales . The first subscale is **professional values**, which includes items (1-22). The second subscale is **teachers values** , which includes items (23-25). The third subscale is **university education values** , which includes items (26-37). The fourth subscale is **learning values** , which includes items (38-41). The fifth subscale is **college culture values** , which includes items (42-47). The sixth subscale is **classroom culture values** , which includes (48-54).

The second aspect is **Ethics** which consists of three subscales. The first subscale is **educational ethics** which includes items (55-57) .The second subscale is **college ethics** which includes items (58- 59). The third subscale is **teacher ethics** which includes items (60-67).

The third aspect is **Norms** which consists of two subscales . The first subscale is **classroom social norms** which includes items (68-78). The second subscale is **social norms** which includes items (79-87) . (See table 3.7)

The scale responses to the checklist observation consists of : **3 = effective; 2 = somewhat effective; 1 = not effective ;** (see App.2).

Table 3.7
The Three Major Aspects of the Checklist

Aspects	The Subscales	No. of Items of Subscale	Total No. of Items
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Values	Professional Values	1-22	54
	Teacher Values	23-25	
	University Education Values	26-37	
	Learning Values	38-41	
	College Culture Values	42-47	
	Classroom Culture Values	48-54	
Ethics	Educational Ethics	55-57	13
	College Ethics	58-59	
	Teacher Ethics	60-67	
Norms	Classroom Social Norms	68-78	20
	Social Norms	79-87	
Total			87

3.4.2 Description of the Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a survey instrument used to collect data from individuals about themselves, or about a social unit, or a school. A questionnaire is said to be measured when each respondent is to be exposed to the same questions and the same system of coding responses. The aim here is to try to ensure that differences in responses to questions can be interpreted as reflecting differences among respondents, rather than differences in the processes that produced the answers.

In this context, Siniscalco and Auriat (2005:4) state that questionnaires are often used in the field of educational planning to collect

information about various aspects of educational institutions systems. Among the types of data that can be collected by means of a questionnaire are facts, activities, level of knowledge, opinions, expectations and aspirations, membership of various groups, and attitudes and perceptions, which can be classified broadly into: (a) inputs to education (such as school resources or various background characteristics of schools, teachers or students), (b) learning and teaching processes, and (c) the outcomes of education (such as pupil achievement, attitudes towards school, and measures of school efficiency such as survival rates etc.)

Johnson and Christensen (2000:86-93) state that questionnaire is an effective tool to measure different characteristics, such as attitudes, beliefs, values, feelings, thoughts, and perceptions. To fulfill the purpose behind this study, a self-administered questionnaire is employed and considered as the main method of collecting data to check EFL university teachers' awareness of hidden curriculum.

At the beginning of the questionnaire, teachers are asked to respond to all questions. The first section contains the demographic questions that are designed to elicit information from respondents concerning their personal characteristics and social background (Siniscalco and Auriat, 2005: 38). This type of information is important for explaining variations in educational outcomes and behavioural patterns. The most frequently adopted demographic questions in this study focus on university, college, department, field of specialization, qualifications, academic status, years of experience, gender, signature, and date.

The second section covers three major aspects which are **values** , **ethics** , and **norms** . Each aspect contains domains (or subscales) . The first aspect is **values** which consists of six subscales . The first subscale is **university education values**, which includes items (72-69). The second subscale is **professional values** , which includes items (63-68). The third subscale is **teachers values** , which includes items (56 – 62). The fourth subscale is **learning values** , which includes items (49-55). The fifth subscale is **college culture values** , which includes items (41-48). The sixth subscale is **classroom culture values** , which includes (40- 26).

The second aspect is **ethics** which consists of three subscales. The first subscale is **educational ethics** which includes items (25-21). The second subscale is **college ethics** which includes items (20-14). The third subscale is **teacher ethics** which includes items (13-5).

The third aspect is **norms** which consists of one subscale vis **classroom social norms** which includes items (4-1). (See table 3.8)

Table 3.8
The Three Major Aspects of the Questionnaire

Aspects	The Subscales	No. of Items of Subscale	Total No. of Items
Values	University Education Values	72-69	47
	Professional Values	68-63	
	Teachers Values	62-56	
	Learning Values	55-49	
	College Culture Values	48-41	
	Classroom Culture Values	40-26	

Ethics	Educational Ethics	25-21	21
	College Ethics	20-14	
	Teacher Ethics	13-5	
Norms	Social Norms	4-1	4
Total			72

Concerning scale responses or scoring scheme , Moore (2007:330) suggests that the composite score on the total questionnaire is determined by averaging the scale values given to all items included on the instrument ,so , one of the most frequently used response style in attitude measurement is the Likert scale responses, which is a five-point that links the options "always " and "never" as follows:

5= always; 4= usually; 3= sometimes; 2= rarely; and 1= never.

For the sake of confidentiality and bias avoidance purposes ,teachers are provided with a solicitation or cover letter that has a written description of the purpose of the study and how the data will be used . The letter also informed the teacher that their participation in this study are entirely confidential. Individual responses are not to be seen by anyone other than the researcher himself. Participants are also assured confidentially by deletion of any identifying information after completion of the study. Teachers are also fully aware that the results of the study will be made available to the curriculum designers, educators, university teachers, and college students. Teachers are asked to complete the demographic information after responding to the items of the questionnaire .(see App.3).

The aspects and their subscales of the questionnaire measure the awareness of EFL Iraqi university teachers towards hidden curriculum. The subscales that are included in each aspect and used in the present study are described as follows:

The first aspect which is "**Values**" is subdivided into ;

1. **University Education Values:** This subscale measures the awareness of EFL university teachers towards values of university education as a process of providing opportunities for the continuous development of knowledge, skills and attitudes related to certain values which lead to behavior exhibiting , also practicing values and character traits that range from role playing and decision making exercises to actual community service.
2. **Professional Values:** This subscale measures the awareness of university teachers concerning professional value such as *the effectiveness in promoting learning in the classroom; critical reflection, self-evaluation and development; collaboration and influence; and educational technology and social values.* etc
3. **Teacher Values :** This subscale measures the awareness of EFL university teachers relate to the set of values that teachers hold, or influences their works toward education, curriculum, teaching strategy, assessment, classroom climate, and relationships with students. Also it is important to state teacher's value which affects students' perceptions, opinions, and their own values.

4. **Learning Values** : This subscale measures the awareness of EFL university teachers towards values the formation of a learning community will design a learning environment to achieve learning goals and implement instructional methods, critical and creative thinking, problem solving strategies and educational technologies that are aligned with the value of community. Creating a classroom environment that is conducive to learning is an important job for teachers.
5. **College Culture Values** :This subscale measures the awareness of EFL university teachers towards address delivering language instruction without prejudice, discrimination, or bias. By understanding the potential problems with cultural sensitivity, teachers can avoid creating an English-centric classroom while increasing their students' language skills.
6. **Classroom Culture Values** : This subscale measures the awareness of EFL university teachers of the importance of integrating cultural aspects in their teaching as well as the strategies which activate in the classroom, nevertheless , the local-culture should not be neglected, so as to make students aware of their own culture yet aware of the cultural differences that exist between their home and target culture.

The second aspect is “**Ethics**” which includes three subscales,they are;

1. **Educational Ethics:** This subscale measures the awareness of EFL university teachers toward the ethical dimensions of a variety of educational process, such as , equality of opportunity, which should emphasize equal educational outcomes instead of equal access or equal inputs. Also, create a sense of community within the class and encourage each student to participate actively and cooperatively . As well as promote student's concept and awareness of ethics through develop the skills and dispositions of students so they can enact particular ethics as individuals and as members of the wider community.
2. **College Ethics :** This subscale measures the awareness of EFL university teachers of college ethics as rules - obedience, as application of general ethics to the particularities of teaching, as moral reasoning conveyed by the national curricula for advance education and teacher education.
3. **Teacher Ethics :** This subscale measures the awareness of EFL university teachers ethics such as , encourage participates to think critically about significant social issues, cater for the varied learning needs of diversity in learning , promote the physical, emotional, social, intellectual and spiritual wellbeing of students, and protect the confidentiality of information about students obtained in the course of professional service, consistent with legal requirements, etc.

The third aspect is “ **Norm**” which consists of one subscale viz **Classroom Social Norms :** This subscale measures the awareness of EFL

university teachers toward classroom norms which can be defined as accustomed ways of perceiving, believing, evaluating, and acting in an environment, or putting supportive classroom structures in place to set up an effective classroom.(See App. 4)

3.4.3 Description of The Essay Written Test

The third tool is an essay written test. Three subjective tests are constructed to measure the effect of hidden curriculum on students' performance in English.

Many scholars such as Coombe and et al. ,(2007:35) point out that essay questions offer students the greatest opportunity to construct their own responses . Essay questions are the most useful format for assessing higher-order cognitive process such as analyzing, evaluating, summarizing, and synthesizing. Also, an open-ended essay test is appropriate for use with students at college level .

Three essay question tests are constructed ,each test sheet comprised one essay question , each question is concerned with a topic that belongs to per academic field of teachers specifications . Testees are asked to write an essay of about 300 words by using their own words. If the results of the observations reveal that EFL Iraq university teacher applied the hidden curriculum, the questions of the test will be carried out toward her/his student according to the field of specialization for the teacher, (see App.5- A, B, C).

The **analytical scoring scheme** of Brown & Bailey (1984) is adopted and outlined as a scoring scheme for essay written test. (See app. 6) . Each

component is marked separately since the test is subjective. Brown and Bailey (ibid) designed an analytical scoring scale that specified five major categories and a description of five different levels in each category, range from “Not –College Level Work” anchored (5-1), to “ Excellent” anchored (20-18). (Brown,2004:243).

It is worth to mention that the items of the three instruments of the present study have been deduced from the following sources : (Snyder, 1971; Giroux, & Penna, 1979; Lynch, 1989; Gilbert & Hoeppe,1996;Myles & Adreon,2001; Cialdini, 2003; Myles, Trautman, & Schlevan ,2004;and Biggs & Tang , 2009).

3.5 Face Validity

Validity refers to the degree to which a survey instrument actually measures the concept it is supposed to measure (Slavin,1992:97-104). In the other words , a measurement instrument is considered valid if it measures what its user claims it measures.

Whereas , Harmer (2007:308) asserts that a test is valid if it produces similar results to some other measure, also in the way that the test is marked .

A particular kind of validity that concerns most of test designers or researchers is face validity, which is the most suitable instrument concerning this study. This means that the test should look, on the face of it, as if it is valid. The validity of this statement can be proven spectacularly by Murcia (2001:526) definition towards face validity , she recognizes that this aspect of validity refers to whether the test looks as if it is measured what it supposed .

In other words , Gay (1992:140) defines face validity as the degree to which a test appears to measure what it purports to measure. Along the lines of Gay , three scholars such as Light, Singer, and Willet (1990:152) state that the way to measure face validity is " by experts examine the measure and agree that it does assesses what it is supposed to assess. The measure looks right, reads right , feels right" .

Face Validity is proved by submitting the three instruments , i.e., Questionnaire , Checklist, and Essay Written Test with their scoring scheme procedures to a panel of experts (jury member) in Methodology and Linguistics at different universities include Baghdad , , Al- Mustansyriah, Mousel , Babel , Diyala, Thiqr , Salah-Aldeen , Duhok, and Sains in Malaysia

The jury members are:-

- 1- Professor Al- Jumaili, Abdul- Latif A. Ph. D. in Applied Linguistics / College of Arts/ University of Baghdad.
- 2- Professor Rijia , Khalil I. Ph. D. in Linguistics / College of Education for Humanities /University of Diyala.
- 3- Professor Al- Joboury, Najat A., M. A. in ELT / College of Education for Women/ University of Baghdad.
- 4- Professor Al-Sa'dy , Shatha , M. A. in ELT/ College of Education for Women /University of Baghdad.**
- 5- Professor Abbas, Jamal, Kh., Ph. D. in Linguistics / School of Educational Studies/ University Sain Malaysia.

- 6- Assistant Professor Bin Abdullah, Muhammad Kamarul, K. Ph. D. in ELT / School of Educational Studies/ University Sain Malaysia.
- 7- Assistant Professor Sa'eed, Mu'ayad M., Ph. D. in ELT / College of Education/ Ibn Rushd/ University of Baghdad.
- 8- Assistant Professor Al- Qaraghooli, Dhuha Atallah, Ph. D. in ELT/ College of Basic Education/ University of Al- Muatansyriah.
- 9- Assistant Professor Al- Bakri, Shaima' A. Ph. D. in ELT / College of Education/ Ibn Rushd/ University of Baghdad.
- 10- Assistant Professor Al-Jarjary, Hussein , Ph. D. in Linguistics/ College of Education/ University of Mosul .
- 11- Assistant Professor Bahnam, Anees , Ph. D. in Translation / College of Arts/ University of Mosul .
- 12- Assistant Professor Ibrahim, Wayees , Ph. D. in Linguistic / College of Basic Education/ University of Mosul .
- 13- Assistant Professor Al- Marsoumi, Istiqlal Hassan, Ph. D. in ELT/ College of Arts/ University of Al- Mustansyriah
- 14- Assistant Professor Al- Timimi, Salam, Hamid, Ph. D. in ELT / College of Education/ Ibn Rushd/ University of Baghdad.
- 15- Assistant Professor Lutfi, Abbas, Ph. D. in Linguistics / College of Education/ Ibn Rushd/ University of Baghdad.
- 16- Assistant Professor Al- Ma'muri, Sami, Ph. D. in ELT/ College of Basic Education/ University of Diyala.
- 17- Assistant Professor A'ssim Aboud, Ph. D. in ELT/ College of Education/ University of Babel.

- 18- Assistant Professor Rihman Jassim , Ph. D. in ELT/ College of Education/ University of Babel.
- 19- Assistant Professor Khalaf Raheem, Ph. D. in ELT/ College of Education/ University of Thiqr.
- 20- Instructor Professor Al-Khafaji, Radhiya Mutter, Ph. D. in ELT/ College of Education for Women . University of Baghdad.**
- 21- Instructor Abbas , Amthel Muhammad Ph. D. in Translation / College of Education for Humanities /University of Diyala.**
- 22- Instructor Ibrahim, Wayees J., Ph. D. in Linguistics / College of Basic Education/ University of Mousel .
- 23- Instructor Barani, Lazgin, Ph. D. in Linguistics/ College of Arts/ University of Duhok.
- 24- Instructor Al-Azawee , Nada, Ph. D. in ELT/ College of Basic Education /University of Salah Al-deen .**
- 25- Instructor Abbas, Zainab Ph. D. in ELT / College of Education for Humanities /University of Diyala.
- 26- Instructor Al- Karkhi, An`am Yousif, Ph. D. in ELT/ College of Basic Education/ University of Diyala.

To sum up, and in the light of the jury members' views and recommendations, the following modifications are undertaken:

- 1- Ten of the jurors recommended deleting a subscale which is **religious beliefs** ,so (10 items) in the questionnaire and (3 items) in the checklist are deleted. The final form of the questionnaire contains ten

subscales within 72 items, and the final form of the checklist contains 11 subscales within 87 items (see Appendixes 2 & 3).

- 2- Four of the jurors recommend simplifying the language of the three instruments, i.e., Questionnaire, Checklist, and Essay Written Test.
- 3- Some grammatical, spelling, and printing mistakes are avoided in the final form of the three instruments.

To ensure the face validity of the three instruments of the present study, the percentage of agreement is used, so the jurors agreed on the three instruments, i.e., Questionnaire, Checklist, and Essay Written Test, as being appropriate for the aims of the present study with a percentage of 94.12%.

3.6 The Pilot Study

The pilot study is a small study conducted in advance of planned project specifically to test aspect of research design and to allow necessary adjustment before final commitment to the design. <http://www.aqr.org.uk>. According to Waite (2002:2) "...investigation designed to test the feasibility of methods and procedures for later use on a large scale or to search for possible effects and associations that may be worth following up in a subsequent larger study". In sum, it is a trial study carried out before a research design is finalised to assist in defining the research question or to test the feasibility, reliability and validity of the proposed study design.

The pilot sample of this study consists of EFL Iraqi university teachers and students at the Departments of English Language at the three Colleges of Education as it is mentioned earlier .

3.6.1 The Pilot Sample of Teachers

The pilot sample of teachers includes 10 at the Departments of English Language which is distributed in terms of their fields of specialization and gender in three Colleges of Education as it is mentioned earlier , and distributed as follows :

- 1- The total number of teachers at the College of Education, Ibn-Rushd, University of Baghdad is 4 distributed as follows: The number of females in English Language Teaching is 1 , whereas in Literature is also 1. The number of males in Linguistics is 1, and the number of males in literature is 1 .
- 2- The total number of teachers at College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, is 3 distributed as follows: The number of females in English Language Teaching is 1, while the number of females in Linguistic is 1 , and the number of females in Literature is 1, and
- 3- The total number of teachers at College of Education for Human Sciences, University of Diyala, is 3 distributed as follows: The number of females in English Language Teaching is 1 , and the number of females in Literature is 1 , while the number of males in Linguistic is 1 .
- 4- The total number of males at the three colleges is 3 , while the total number of females is 7. See table 3.9

Table 3.9

**The Pilot Sample of Teachers distributed according to the Colleges ,
Fields of Specialization, and Gender**

Fields of Specialization	Methods of Teaching		Linguistic		Literature		Total		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
Colleges									
Ibn-Rushd	0	1	1	0	1	1	2	2	4
Women	-	1	0	1	0	1	0	3	3
Human Sciences	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	2	3
Total	0	3	2	1	2	2	3	7	10

According to the Years of Experience which ranges from 1-10 and 10-20 regarding EFL Iraqi university teacher at the three colleges for the academic year 2010-2011, distributed as follows :

- 1- The total number of teachers at the College of Education/Ibn-Rushd , is 4 distributed as follows: The number of teachers whose years of experience range from 1-10 is 2 , whereas, the number of teachers whose years of experiences range from 1-20 is 2,
- 2- The total number of teachers at the College of Education for Women , is 3 distributed as follows: The number of teachers whose years of experience range from 1-10 is 2, whereas, the number of teachers whose years of experience range from 1-20 is 1, and
- 3- The total number of teachers at the College of Education for Human Sciences , is 3 distributed as follows: The number of teachers whose years of experience range from 1-10 is 2, whereas, the number of teachers whose years of experience range from 1-20 is 1. See table 3.10

Table 3.10
The Sample of Teachers distributed according to the
Years of Experience Variables

Colleges	Ibn- Rushd		Women		Human Sciences		Total	
	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20
Years of Experience	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20	1-10	10-20
Total	2	2	2	1	2	1	6	4

3.6.2 The Pilot Sample of Students

The pilot sample of students is limited to the EFL students at the three colleges of Education as mentioned earlier. Thus, the total number of students sample at the three colleges is 75 with percentage of 100% for both genders and distributed as follows:

- 1- The total number of students at the College of Education, Ibn-Rushd, University of Baghdad is 41 with a percentage of 55% distributed as follows: The number of males is 15, while, the number of females is 26,
- 2- The total number of females at the College of Education for women, University of Baghdad, is 10, and
- 3- The total number of students at the College of Education for Human Sciences, University of Diyala, is 24 for both genders distributed as follows: The number of males is 10, and the number of females is 14.

The total number of males at three colleges is 25, while the total number of females is 50. See table 3.11.

Table 3.11
The Pilot Sample of Students distributed according to the
University , College , and Gender Variables

Students				
Gender	Males	Females	Total	Percentage
University & College				
University of Baghdad (College of Ibn-Rushd)	15	26	41	55%
University of Baghdad College of Education for Women	-	10	10	13%
University of Diyala College of Education for Human Sciences	10	14	24	32%
Total	25	50	75	100%

3.7 Pilot Administration of the Instruments

This pilot administration has been conducted in order to:

- 1- check the clarity of the instruments instructions,
- 2- estimate the time allotted for answering the instruments, and
- 3- compute the reliability coefficient of the instruments.

The above procedures have been followed for the three instruments, which are : The Checklist , the Questionnaire ,and the Essay Written Test .

3.7.1 The Pilot Administration of the Checklist

There are a number of different types of forms that are used to record observations. Probably, the most often used, and the most efficient, is a checklist that all behaviour to be observed so that the observer can simply check each behaviour as it occurs (Gay,2001:270).

After constructing an instrument of 87-items, the initial scale is piloted with 10 teachers who have been selected for the pilot administration. Thus, the pilot sample has been taken from the Departments of English Language at the three colleges of Education as mentioned earlier.

The pilot administration of the checklist started on March 28th till 30th at the three colleges , i.e. each college allotted one day only to be observed , this procedure is done at the 2nd term of the academic year 2010-2011. All the observations are audio recorded with the permission of the participants since they are reserved toward being video typed- recorded .

Due to the importance and confidentiality of this procedure , the researcher typically , divides observation sessions into two periods of time in order to fulfill the purpose of this study . The researcher divided the number of the items of the checklist into two sections , the first section is auditory items: these items can be audio recorded and to be checked later to save time and effort. Whereas, the second section is immediately observed items: already observed in the classroom. (see Appendix 5)

The average time needed for observing the two sections of checklist observation is 60 minutes for each section , so the allotted time is 120 minutes.

It is worthy to be mentioned , that to avoid any retrieve process or feedback information may be held by the participants towards the items of the study , the researcher has given the questionnaire at the end of each observation. Consequently, the application of the pilot study have shown no serious ambiguity concerning the instructions of the checklist items.

3.7.2 Pilot Administration of the Questionnaire

After constructing an instrument of 72-items, it is administered on the same pilot sample of the study .The pilot administration of the questionnaire started on March 28th till 30th at the three colleges , i.e. only one day is allotted to respond towards the items of the questionnaire at each college , this procedure is done at the 2nd term of the academic year 2010-2011. Thus, the average length of time needed for responding to the questionnaire is 30 minutes. The application of the pilot administration of the questionnaire shows no serious ambiguity concerning the instructions of the instrument.

3.7.3 Pilot Administration of the Written Test

A group of 75 students has been selected for the pilot administration of the written test. This started on March 13th till April 3th at the 2nd term of the academic year 2010-2011.

The students are asked to read the directions of the essay written tests by themselves. The time required for the participants to work out each test by computing the average time needed by testees to take the test, is found to range between 45-75 minutes. So the average time needed for answering the test is 60 minutes. Consequently, the application of the pilot study shows no serious ambiguity concerning the instructions of the test.

3.8 Reliability of the Instruments

The term reliability refers to the degree to which a survey instrument consistently measures whatever it is intended to measure (Slavin, 1992:81). When a measurement instrument is consistent and accurate, the instrument is supposed to have a high degree of reliability (Mueller, 1986:113).

Whereas, Gay (2001:144) defines reliability as means of dependability, or trustworthiness. In Kaplan and Goldsen's (1965:83-84) words: " The importance of reliability rests on the assurance it provides that data are obtained independent of measuring event, instrument or person. Reliable data, by definition, are data that remain constant throughout variations in the measuring process ."

In other words, a research procedure is reliable when it responds to the same phenomena in the same way regardless to the circumstances of its implantation. This is measurement theory conception of reliability (Yin, 2003 :37). According to Cooper and Schindler (2001:215), "Reliability is a necessary contributor to validity but is not a sufficient condition for validity."

Internal-consistency reliability refers to "the extent to which all the items or questions assess the same skills, characteristics, or quality" (Fink, 1995 :48). It is basically meant to "examine the consistency of people's responses to different items on the same instrument at the same time" (Light, Singer, & Willett, 1990 :166).

Different types of reliability have been achieved for the three instruments, which are ;

3.8.1 Reliability of the Checklist

Krippendorff (2004:223) believes that the conceivably simplest reliability data toward checklist observation are generated by two observers who assign one of two variables values to each of the common set of units of analysis .

Determining observer reliability generally requires that at least two observers independently make observations; their recorded judgments as to what occurred can then be compared to see how well they agree (Gay,2001:271).Thus , must at least one other person beside the researcher who needs to be familiar with the observational procedures.

Whereas Gay (ibid., 270) argues that the rating scale are used to evaluate the behaviour and give it rating form or the checklist observation, it probably consists of three categories which is the ideal number, because the more categories , the more difficulty it becomes to correctly classify, for that reason , the researcher chooses three categories to be a rating scale to the present study, which are : **3 = effective; 2 = somewhat effective; 1 = not effective** .

Inter-observer reliability method is applied to compute the reliability of Observation Checklist. Inter-observer reliability means the degree to which two observers record the same data (or in some cases, draw the same conclusions) in the same circumstances (Gay, 2001: 271-272). Thus, this procedure is carried out by the researcher himself and a colleague*. Then, inter- observer reliability coefficient has been assessed by using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient formula where it was found to be 0.86; which indicates acceptable reliability in educational research. .As Barlow and

Hersen (1992:67) point out that 80% agreement may be considered satisfactory in most situations.

* The Colleague is Mrs. Sundus Abul-Jabbar, a Ph.D. Candidate in ELT, University of Baghdad, College of Education/ Ibn Rushd , Department of Educational and Psychological Sciences.

3.8.2 Reliability of the Questionnaire

Reliability concerns the consistency of a measure. That is, the tendency to obtain the same results if the measure was to be repeated by using the same subjects under the same conditions.

Test-retest reliability method is applied to compute the reliability of the Questionnaire. Test – re test reliability indicates that the same respondents respond to the questionnaire twice , the researcher would get the same answer each time , this notion is the basis of the test- retest reliability by asking the same respondents to complete the survey items of the questionnaire at different times. If the correlation between the first set of answers and the second is greater than 0.70, ones can assume that test- retest reliability is good (Schuman and Presser (1996: 46). Thus, test- retest reliability coefficient of the first and second administration of the questionnaire indicates 0.84 which is considered high according to (ibid.).

3.8.3 Reliability of the Essay Written Test

Reliability is “ the actual level of agreement between the results of one test with itself” (Davies et al., 1999:168). In practice, reliability is enhanced by making the test instruction absolutely clear, restricting the scope for variety in the answers , and making sure that the test condition remain constant (Harmer, 2001:322).

In practice, it is well known that even the same test when re-conducted at a later time to the same group of testees, under the same conditions; it is unlikely to yield exactly the same scores. However, the more comparable the test scores are, the more reliable they are (Wells & Wollack, 2003:13).

The method that is used to find the reliability of the test is the mark/remark method. Heaton (1975:155) believes that this kind of reliability method indicates the extent to which the same marks or scores are obtained if the same test sheets are marked or corrected by two or more different examiners or by the same examiner on different occasions.

Hence, in order to compute the reliability coefficient, the researcher scored the testees’ papers after a period of time (22 days) pass for the first scoring. i.e. the pilot sample papers which are 225 ones are scored twice by the researcher himself. Pearson coefficient correlation formula is applied and the reliability coefficient is found to be 0.80 which is considered an acceptable coefficient. The test reliability is acceptable if it not less than 0.50 (Hedges, 1966:22).

3.9 Final Administration of the Three Instruments

After achieving the validity and reliability of the checklist, the questionnaire, and the essay writing test, they have been administered at different days to the selected sample which starts on April 4th, 2010-2011. The researcher has explained the aim behind the instruments for the participants and testees. The allocated time for the checklist is 2 hours for each participant. While the allotted time for answering the questionnaire is 30 minutes by each participant. Finally, The allocated time for the test is 60 minutes essay writing test. After the participants have been observed and responded to the items of the questionnaire, as well as the testees answering sheets are collected by the researcher and then scored and tabulated in order to find the final results.

3.10 Statistical Methods

The following statistical methods are used:

- 1- The percentage is used to find the agreement of the jury members on the face validity of the instruments, and to calculate the final results.
- 2- Pearson Correlation Coefficient: It is used to compute the reliability of the two sets of scores of the pilot study which are scored by the researcher herself twice, and to compute the reliability of the two sets of scores of the two instruments (Downie&Robert, 1983:99). The following formula is used:

$$r = \frac{\frac{\sum XY}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum X}{N}\right)\left(\frac{\sum Y}{N}\right)}{\sqrt{\left[\frac{\sum X^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum X}{N}\right)^2\right] * \left[\frac{\sum Y^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum Y}{N}\right)^2\right]}}$$

Where:

N represents the number of pairs of data

Σ denotes the summation of the items indicated

ΣX denotes the sum of all X scores

ΣX^2 indicates that each X score should be squared and then those squares summed

$(\Sigma X)^2$ indicates that the X scores should be summed and the total squared.

ΣY denotes the sum of all y -scores

ΣY^2 indicates that each Y score should be squared and then those squares summed

$(\Sigma Y)^2$ indicates that the Y scores should be summed and the total squared

ΣXY indicates that each X score should be first multiplied by its corresponding Y score and the product (XY) summed

3- Weighted Mean : it is typically used to find the weighted mean of items questionnaire to count the highest or lowest weight for each item

(Madansky, 2003 :23). The following formula is used:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \dots + w_nx_n}{w_1 + w_2 + \dots + w_n}$$

where:

x is the repeating value

w is the number of occurrences of x (weight)

\bar{x} is the weighted mean

Theoretical mean of the weighted mean is 3 for Likert quintuplet scale & 2 for triplet scale

4- Weighted Percentile : It is used to count the weighted percentile for each item in the questionnaire(Madansky, 2003 :23). The following formula is used:

Where :

$$W.P.= \frac{\bar{x} \div \text{the highest degree}}{100}$$

5- Chi- square is used to find whether the differences of teachers application towards hidden curriculum in terms of colleges, fields of specialization, gender, years of experience, and students' achievements is statistically significant. The following formula has been used:

$$\chi^2 = \Sigma [(O-E)^2 / E]$$

(Isaac & Michael, 1977:135)

Where:

O = the observed frequencies

E = the expected frequencies

Σ = the summation

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Chapter Four

Results, Discussion, Conclusions, Recommendations, & Suggestions

4.1 An Introductory Note

The present study attempts to assess the awareness and application of hidden curriculum by Iraqi EFL university teachers and its effect on their students' performance with regard to: (1) assessing EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum, (2) comparing EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum according to their colleges, (3) comparing EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum according to their field of specification (ELT, Linguistic, and Literature.), (4) comparing EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum according to their years of experience, (5) comparing EFL university teachers' awareness and application of hidden curriculum according to their gender (Male and Female), (6) assessing the hidden curriculum effect on EFL university students' performance in English. Due to the abundant results yield in the present study, the findings presented according to the sequence of the study aims which are stated above. Then a detailed discussion of results is done, pedagogical implications are proposed and drawn, conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for further research are also included in this chapter.

4.2 Results of the Questionnaire and Discussions

The results obtained are presented according to the aforementioned aims of the present study as shown below:

4.2.1 Results Related to the First Aim and Verification of the First Null Hypothesis

In order to assess EFL university teachers' awareness of hidden curriculum, a questionnaire has been designed and administered to the sample of the study as mentioned in Chapter Three, furthermore, descriptive statistics are calculated to achieve the current aim and its hypothesis.

For this purpose, the weighted mean and the weighted percentile for each item in the questionnaire are calculated to find EFL university teachers' awareness of hidden curriculum. Yet, the theoretical mean* is 3. The item is achieved if it occurs above of theoretical mean, otherwise, the item is not fulfilled. So, the results show that all EFL university teachers are aware of the concept of hidden curriculum. It was found that the weighted mean and the weighted percentile for the total items of the questionnaire is (W. M.=4.038 ; W.P. =80.76).

Table 4.1 displays the weighted mean, the weighted percentile, and rank for each item of the questionnaire. In fact, it was found that the item 72 has gained the highest rating with (W. M.=4.714 ; W.P. =94.286), and the item 21 has gained the lowest rating with (W. M.=3.047 ; W.P. =60.952). See table 4.1 below.

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*Theoretical mean = $\frac{\text{The summation of the frequencies}}{\text{The number of the frequencies}}$

Table 4.1
Weighted mean, Weighted percentile, and Rank for the items of the questionnaire

No.	Items	Rank	W.M	
				W.P.
72	The fact that university education is the recognition, worth and integrity of all involved in the life and work of the school, and is central to the creation of a value-based learning community that fosters positive relationships and quality in education.	1	4.714	94.286
17	Establishing and motivating trust , fairness, and respect by colleges that sets clear and consistent academic standards.	3	4.619	92.381
57	Having self-esteem and self-acceptance through feeling good about oneself as he/she is .	3	4.619	92.381
58	Promoting the quest of truth and knowledge by requiring intellectual and personal honesty in learning ,teaching, and service.	3	4.619	92.381
11	Recognizing students' individual differences.	6	4.571	91.429
67	Being involved in studying or appreciating the beauty of works , ideas , and things.	6	4.571	91.429
69	The fact that real university education is about the whole and integrated person – the student as a student of knowledge, skills, understandings, attributes, dispositions, and the development of an autonomous, well-defined self.	6	4.571	91.429
23	Appreciating what is ethical and striving to achieve it by students .	9.5	4.523	90.476
42	The idea that EFL teachers with cross-cultural experiences will have more authentic knowledge to share with their students, making their teaching more effective and interesting.	9.5	4.523	90.476
59	Fostering a climate of mutual trust ,encouraging the free exchange of ideas, and enabling all to reach their highest potential.	9.5	4.523	90.476
71	The fact that there is no teaching education without values.	9.5	4.523	90.476
8	Empowering students' self-confidence.	13.5	4.476	89.524
12	Directing teacher's professional effort to assist the student to develop his/her whole personality including the ability to work.	13.5	4.476	89.524
41	Developing informed and active students with a strong sense of self-confidence who can explore questions-seeking solutions and make informal decisions.	13.5	4.476	89.524

70	The fact that university education is the capacity to exercise judgment and responsibility in matters of morality, ethics and social justice, and the capacity to make sense of students' world.	13.5	4.476	89.524
62	Being accurate in expressing opinions and beliefs.	16	4.428	88.571
56	Having purpose , meaning and direction in the learning and teaching process.	17	4.382	87.619
14	Intensifying the advantages of ethics and values in society.	19	4.333	86.667
15	Necessity of promoting innovation and excellence on students' part.	19	4.333	86.667
38	Developing intercultural and international understanding is important.	19	4.333	86.667
24	Providing equal educational inputs for equal future outputs.	24	4.285	85.714
25	Promoting the principles of equal opportunity in teaching .	24	4.285	85.714
39	Developing the communication skills through learning the target culture in classroom.	24	4.285	85.714
46	The idea that effective communication requires discovering the culturally conditioned images that are evoked in the minds of students when they think, act, and react to the world around them.	24	4.285	85.714
48	The importance of having awareness of cultural values such as traditions , languages, customs and social or cultural communities .	24	4.285	85.714
55	Developing students' awareness towards the values of learning as a priority task for them.	24	4.285	85.714
64	Having the ability to use one's knowledge effectively and readily in the execution of performance.	24	4.285	85.714
22	Advancing the interests of the teaching profession to the personal interest through responsible ethical practice which develops the process of learning.	29.5	4.238	84.762
50	Motivating students abilities through available learning opportunities and styles.	29.5	4.238	84.762
66	Being creative in expressing thoughts and feelings and novel in creating new ideas, programs, organizational structures or anything else and not following a format previously developed by others.	29.5	4.238	84.762
63	Being free of overwhelming anxieties and barriers to Well-Being effective functioning; peace of mind; inner security and self respect.	29.5	4.238	84.762
10	Recognizing an obligation to assist all students under	33.5	4.190	83.810

	teacher's charge to develop talents suitably and to the fullest extent feasible.			
13	Directing students' sources of knowledge , information sources and references support the study of the students involved with.	33.5	4.190	83.810
27	Enhancing teachers and students' awareness of target cultural to improve communicative competence.	33.5	4.190	83.810
53	Encouraging students to be innovative through effective learning environment.	33.5	4.190	83.810
18	A conviction that values by themselves are virtues.	36	4.142	82.857
36	Developing an awareness of socio-cultural and sociolinguistic differences between L1and TL.	38	4.142	82.857
60	Developing students' curiosity towards learning.	38	4.142	82.857
65	Accepting critical judgments of students in terms of success and achievements.	38	4.142	82.857
68	Being involved in enhancing strategies for ensuring equitable use of education technology for all students.	38	4.142	82.857
9	Promoting additional efforts to incorporate awareness of ethics and values into daily classroom activities.	42.5	4.095	81.905
28	Being sensitive towards student's fragility in target culture in order not to lose their motivation.	42.5	4.095	81.905
54	Developing students' awareness towards using a variety of technologies to support their work in an authentic task.	42.5	4.095	81.905
61	Sharing innermost experiences with students which is essential.	42.5	4.095	81.905
26	Empowering students to be more critical , self and cultural analysts.	46	4.047	80.952
40	The necessity of students' awareness of cultural disparity.	46	4.047	80.952
51	The effect of technologies in creating the learning environment .	46	4.047	80.952
4	Acquiring social norms .	48.5	4	80
35	Introducing culture-specific elements in the classroom teaching to raise interest from students' interests.	48.5	4	80
29	Exposing target language sarcasm, idioms, jokes, and metaphors involved with target language in classroom.	51	3.952	79.048
47	Recognizing how people in a given culture typically behave in common, everyday situations.	51	3.952	79.048
49	Improving students' learning can be achieved through an awareness of their own learning styles and learning strategies.	51	3.952	79.048

32	The idea that cultural knowledge pays facilitates in teaching and learning new lexical items.	54	3.904	78.095
43	Cultural anthropology supplies in determining the cultural content of the context.	54	3.904	78.095
52	Promoting concrete reinforcement .	54	3.904	78.095
3	Adjusting students' conduct according to social norms involved with common proverbs ,wisdoms and sayings.	57.5	3.857	77.143
16	Developing ethical behavior through training programs, lectures, etc.	57.5	3.857	77.143
33	The idea that teaching with cross-culture awareness can nurture the students' minds for critical thinking and hearts for global awareness.	57.5	3.857	77.143
44	Situational variables and conventions which shape behavior in important ways.	57.5	3.857	77.143
2	Planning social activities with peers is important.	61	3.809	76.190
7	Transferring responsibility to students is one way of reconstructing the ethics climate of classroom as a fact.	61	3.809	76.190
19	Developing academic ethics contents in terms of technology education programs and patent.	61	3.809	76.190
20	Addressing issues of values contribute to obtaining an estimate of students is a fact.	63.5	3.761	75.238
34	Creating a learning atmosphere for students about the target culture rather than giving them knowledge.	63.5	3.761	75.238
6	Avoiding restrictions involved with excluding students from participation in program, such as sex, race, political tendencies, and religious beliefs.	65	3.714	74.286
45	Student knowledge of how people in the target culture act in common mundane and crisis situations.	66	3.571	71.429
1	Infected students' behaviours in classroom interaction through exposing to propaganda.	67	3.476	69.524
30	Using home-language (informal language) and target language culture in class to figure out the differences or common thread between them.	68	3.285	65.714
31	Using home-language culture, such as culturally reading materials, and topics.	69	3.238	64.762
5	Disregarding symbolic violence towards target language.	70	3.142	62.857
37	Promoting students' distinction between the cultural norms, beliefs, or habits of target culture.	71	3.095	61.905
21	Engaging students in continuous professional (after graduation) development.	72	3.047	60.952

Consequently , the following results are tackled with the three major aspects of the questionnaire, viz; **Values, Ethics, and Norms**. Table 4.2 shows the W.M. and the W.P. of the three aspects. It was found that **Values** have gained (W. M.=4.235; W.P. =84.62), while **Ethics** have gained(W. M.=4.094; W.P. =81.888), and **Norms** have gained(W. M.=3.785 ; W.P. =80.749).

Table 4.2
Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for the three aspects of the questionnaire; Values, Ethics, & Norms

Aspects	No. of Items	W.M	W.P
Values	47	4.235	84.62
Ethics	21	4.094	81.888
Norms	4	3.785	75.714
Total	72	4.038	80.749

Correspondence with the above results, table 4.3 displays the weighted mean , weighted percentile , and rank of each subscale related to the aspects of the questionnaire , starting with the subscales of **values**. It was found that **university educational values** have gained the highest rating with (W. M.=4.571 ; W.P. =91.429),while **teacher values** have gained(W. M.=4.401 ; W.P. =88.027), whereas **professional values** have gained(W. M.=4.269 ; W.P. =85.397), also, **learning values** have gained(W. M.=4.102 ; W.P. =82.041), **college culture values** have gained(W. M.=4.095 ; W.P.

=81.905), and finally , **classroom cultural values** have gained(W. M.=3.946 ; W.P. =78.921). (See table 4.3 below)

Table 4.3
Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for Values Subscales

Subscale	No. of Items	W.M	W.P
University Education Values	4	4.571	91.429
Professional Values	6	4.401	88.027
Teachers Values	7	4.269	85.397
Learning Values	7	4.102	82.041
College Culture Values	8	4.095	81.905
Classroom Culture Values	15	3.946	78.921
Total	47	4.230	84.62

According to the **Ethics** subscales, it was found that **educational ethics** have gained(W. M.=4.122 ; W.P. =82.449), while **college ethics** have gained(W. M.=4.084 ; W.P. =81.693), whereas **teacher ethics** have gained(W. M.=4.076 ; W.P. =81.524). (See table 4.4 below)

Table 4.4
Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for Ethics Subscales

Subscale	No. of Items	W.M	W.P
Educational Ethics	5	4.122	82.449
College Ethics	7	4.084	81.693
Teacher Ethics	9	4.076	81.524

Total	21	4.094	81.888
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Finally, in terms of **Norms** subscales, it was found that **classroom social norms** have gained (W. M.=3.785 ; W.P. =75.714). (See table 4.5)

Table 4.5
Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for Norm Subscale

Subscale	No. of Items	W.M	W.P
Social Norms	4	3.785	75.714

As it is mentioned earlier, the questionnaire is designed to check the teachers' awareness towards hidden curriculum. The major results of the questionnaire show that all the participants (EFL Iraqi university teachers) are completely aware of hidden curriculum , these results are confirmed in the light of the statistical treatment findings that display the weighted mean and weighted percentile for the total of the questionnaire which is (W. M.=4.038 ; W.P. =80.749). In the light of the above consideration, it is to be noted that all EFL Iraqi teachers perceive, comprehend , and recognize the main aspects of hidden curriculum namely; values, ethics and norms . The way of hidden curriculum aspects have been characterized in the theoretical background as unspoken or implicit norms, values, ethic, skill sets, knowledge, and social processes have been perceived by those operating within a learning environment at university level. This means that the first null hypothesis is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted which

states that Iraqi EFL university teachers' have awareness of hidden curriculum.

4.2.2 Results Related to the Second Aim and Verification of the Second Null Hypothesis

In order to identify the comparison of EFL university teachers' awareness of hidden curriculum according to their colleges, the weighted mean and the weighted percentiles are calculated among the three colleges . So, the comparison shows that the College of Education for Women/ University of Baghdad has gained the highest rating (W. M.=4.386 ; W.P. =87.36), while the College of Education for Human Sciences has gained(W. M.=4.151 ; W.P. =83.02). Finally, the College of Education / Ibn-Rushd has gained (W. M.=3.681 ; W.P. =73.62). This means that the second null hypothesis is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that there are statistically significant differences among Iraqi EFL university teachers' awareness of hidden curriculum according to their colleges. See table 4.6.

Table 4.6
Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for EFL University Teachers to Colleges

Colleges	Rank	W.M	W.P
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College of Ed. For Women	1	4.386	87.36
College of Ed. For Human Sciences	2	4.151	83.02
College of Ed./Ibn Rushd	3	3.681	73.62

This signifies that the teachers at the College of Education for Woman are more aware of the hidden curriculum conception than those other at other colleges. This refers that most faculty members are women, and intrinsically, they are already exposed to the concept of hidden curriculum through gender biased. In education, Altermatt, Jovanovic, and Perry (1998:516-527) find that teachers are more likely to call on male volunteers in class as well as give them more attention. Boys have been found to have more positive interactions with their teachers than girls do, including more opportunities to answer questions. Researchers have demonstrated that boys are more likely than girls to be the recipients of management-oriented contacts, including punishment and behavior management (Ibid:1998). Generally speaking, males still dominate classroom discussion, particularly in traditionally male disciplines, even though females are now in the numerical majority among entering college students.

Spring (2005:137) argues that the combination of a need for teachers and the fact that more women completed school, led many into the profession of educators. Women numerically dominated the teaching profession since then, especially at the lower grade-level. Despite the fact that educational opportunity opened to women, socialization at home and school reinforced gender-determined roles and possible attainment level, even their enrollment inside the society. In sum, teachers should be aware of their own and

individual students' potential to have certain expectations about gendered ability within certain domains that can become limiting if negative, as well as to curriculum designers and educators. Yet gender bias in education reaches beyond socialization patterns.

Bias is embedded in textbooks, lessons, and teacher interactions with students. This type of gender bias is part of the hidden curriculum of lessons taught implicitly to students through the everyday functioning of their classroom. Gender bias in education is an insidious problem that causes very few people to stand up and take notice. The victims of this bias have been trained through years of schooling to be silent and passive, and are therefore unwilling to stand up and make noise about the unfair treatment they are receiving.

4.2.3 Results Related to the Second Aim and Verification of the Second Null Hypothesis

In order to compare among the EFL university teachers' awareness of hidden curriculum according to their fields of specialization which includes English Language Teaching, Linguistics, and Literature, the weighted means and the weighted percentiles are calculated among the three specialization. So, the comparison shows that Literature has gained the highest rating (W. M.=4.099; W.P. =81.98), while English Language Teaching has gained (W. M.=3.988; W.P. =79.76). Finally, Linguistics has gained (W. M.=3.129; W.P. =62.58). This means that the second null hypothesis is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that there are statistically

significant differences among Iraqi EFL university teachers' awareness of hidden curriculum according to their fields of specialization. See table 4.7.

Table 4.7
Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for EFL University Teachers according to Field of Specialization

Field of Specialization	Rank	W.M	W.P
Literature	1	4.099	81.98
ELT	2	3.988	79.76
Linguistic	3	3.129	62.58

The results show that Literature has obtained the first rank, followed by ELT, then Linguistic. The results discussions can be explained as follows: The effectiveness of teacher factor on creating a productive classroom environment as well as cultural and social production which requires both mental and physical work and entails “culture” having the necessities, material objects, and the production of symbols, the ordering and evaluations of objects. A society's conditions under which the production continues are produced during social production at the same time. Lundgren (1983:143-153) explains cultural-social reproduction as the reproducing processes of the existing material, textbooks and existing culture base. The transmission processes by means of which culture is reproduced and transmitted to the next generation is carried out in socialization and instruction processes. Thus, EFL Literature university teachers are already exposed to the cultural-social production through literature textbooks and by reviewing Literature

syllabuses including drama, stories, poetry, etc. which are considered as the labor of a society in terms of academic, literary, cultural and social productions . Typically, such syllabuses seek affective outcomes that include range of values, ethics, norms, attitudes, and behaviours.

Krathwohl et. al., (1973:33) clarify that “affective” relates to emotion (i.e., causing or expressing feeling). Thus, there are five categories of behavior in the schema for the affective domain, from the simplest to the most complex: receiving (e.g., hearing), responding (e.g., answering and discussing), valuing (the worth one imparts to an activity), organizing (prioritizing values), and internalizing values (behavior based upon an individual’s value system). As a result, it is obvious that the hidden curriculum is determined by the affective domain as one of effective source.

Regarding ELT university teachers, by the virtue of their specialization, they are already exposed to different types of humanistic education (teaching and learning) theories, approaches, methods, strategies, and styles which stress the importance of the professional self-image of interpersonal trust, cultural idealism and personality. These ideals can be developed in a humanistic school culture of security, fairness, dialogue and social involvement. The curriculum should translate knowledge into life-literacies that allow students to identify the value-laden messages of issues discussed in classes and to plan their actions with greater reason and responsibility. William (2001:7) states that barriers to humanistic education largely consist of elements of the informal and hidden curriculum.

Concerning the awareness of EFL Linguistics university teachers towards hidden curriculum. This can be attributed to the sufficient awareness

of knowledge of language system into meaningful communicative behaviour through such competencies; sociolinguistic competence which addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors, and strategic competence is composed of mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies, or by interactional approach which means the development of students' communications, expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning involving interaction between two or more persons or between one person and a written or oral text. Finally, the above mentioned strategies involve correct usage of body language, personal space, affect, voice modulation etc which can be very culture specific and an effective source of hidden curriculum.

4.2.4 Results Related to the Second Aim and Verification of the Second Null Hypothesis

In order to compare among the EFL university teachers' awareness of hidden curriculum according to their years of experience ranging from (1-10) and (10-20), the weighted means and the weighted percentiles are calculated. So, the comparison shows that EFL university teachers whose years of experience range (1-10) have gained the highest rating (W. M.=4.145 ; W.P. =82.09), while the EFL university teachers whose years of experience range (10-20) have gained(W. M.=3.936 ; W.P. =79.26). This means that the second null hypothesis is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that there are statistically

significant differences among Iraqi EFL university teachers' awareness of hidden curriculum according to their years of experience . (See table 4.8.)

Table 4.8
Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for EFL University Teachers according to Years of Experience

Years of Experiences	Rank	W.M	W.P
(1-10)	1	4.145	82.09
(10-20)	2	3.963	79.26

The results reveal that EFL university teachers with experience range of (1-10) seem to have more awareness of the concept of hidden curriculum than EFL university teachers with experience range of (10-20) and that could be attributed to the fact that developing hidden curriculum in higher Education has just recently been done or activated as indicated by Margolis (2001) in his book entitled “The Hidden Curriculum in Higher Education” where he believes that hidden curriculum approaching in university since mid of nineties, the matter which justifies the fact a teacher with least experience might have better awareness of hidden curriculum than those with more experience. In other words , the recognition and perception of hidden curriculum functions by teachers with years of experience ranging from (1-10), may constantly motivate them to acquire new knowledge or refine their existing skills in hidden curriculum.

4.2.5 Results Related to the Second Aim and Verification of the Second Null Hypothesis

In order to compare among EFL university teachers' awareness of hidden curriculum according to their gender (male & female), the weighted means and weighted percentiles are calculated. So, the comparison shows that the females have gained the highest rating (W. M.=4.158 ; W.P. =83.16).While the males have gained (W. M.=3.796 ; W.P. =75.92). This means that the second null hypothesis is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that there are statistically significant differences among Iraqi EFL university teachers' awareness of hidden curriculum according to their gender. (See table 4.9)

Table 4.9
Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for EFL University Teachers according to Gender

Gender	Rank	W.M	W.P
Female	1	4.158	83.16
Male	2	3.799	75.92

The results reveal that the Females university teachers have more awareness than males university teachers .The rational and main reason beyond this result is due to gender bias which is part of the hidden curriculum. Many kinds of socialization are indeed covert, and will not work if made visible, and in fact will produce resistance if revealed. Here, ones think of intentionally produced forms of subordination, discrimination, and hegemony that benefit some at the expense of others.

Actually , the socialization of gender within educational institutions , is one of these forms, and evidence of a gender biased hidden curriculum demonstrates that females are shortchanged in the classroom. As a result , females are made aware that they are unequal to males at various aspect of educational institution for instance, classroom instructions , teachers, textbooks or sources, examinations , professions , society, etc. (see chapter two – 2.14.13 Gender).

4.2 Results and Discussions of the Checklist

The results obtained are presented according to the aforementioned aims of the present study and as shown below:

4.3.1 Results Related to the First Aim and Verification of the First Null Hypothesis :

In order to assess EFL university teachers' application of hidden curriculum, a checklist has been designed and administered to the sample of the study as mentioned in Chapter Three, furthermore , descriptive statistics are used to analyze the data gathered.

For the purpose of identifying the theoretical mean , two methods are calculated :

- 1- To find EFL university teachers' application of hidden curriculum, the weighted means and weighted percentiles are calculated. The theoretical mean* is 2, i.e. the item is achieved if it occurs above of theoretical mean, otherwise , the item is not fulfilled.

2- After consulting a number of specialists in the field of Statistics and Methodology, they agree to verify the percentile (75%) as a performing standard for EFL university teacher to apply the hidden curriculum conception . For this purpose, the highest score which is 261 is achieved with 75% percentile while the theoretical mean is 196 .

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*Theoretical mean = $\frac{\text{The summation of the frequencies}}{\text{The number of the frequencies}}$

After consulting a number of specialists in the field of Statistics and Methodology, they agree to verify the percentile (75%) as a performing standard for EFL university teacher to apply the hidden curriculum conception . For this purpose, the highest score which is 261 is achieved with 75% percentile while the theoretical mean is 196 **.

Yet, the results show that the ratio of EFL university teachers who apply the hidden curriculum is 9.44 % , while the ratio of EFL university

teachers who don't apply hidden curriculum is 90.56% . It was found that the weighted mean and weighted percentile for the total of the checklist are (W. M.=1.534 ; W.P. =51.235). This means that the first null hypothesis which states that Iraqi EFL university teachers' have no application of hidden curriculum is accepted. (See table 4.10).

Table 4.10
Weighted mean and Weighted percentile for the total of the Checklist

Scales	Weighted Mean	Weighted Percentile
Total	1.534	51.235

Table 4.11 displays the weighted mean , weighted percentile , and the rank for each item of the checklist. In fact, the number of checklist items is 87, the results show that ten items are achieved, whose weighted mean is higher than 2 (theoretical mean), which are ranging from (W.M.=2.181 to 2.) . It was found that item 7 has gained the highest rating with (W. M.=2.181 ; W.P. =72.727).

.....
 ** Theoretical mean = The highest score x (75%)

The achieved items are arranged according to their weighted means ; (7,2,87,84,81,26,83,27,82,85). This indicates that teachers apply the hidden curriculum at three subscales which are; **teacher values** (7&2), **teacher professionals** (26&27) and **social norms** (81,82,83,84,85, and 87) . It is worthy to mention that item number 4 has gained the lowest rating with (W. M.=1; W.P. = 33.333).

Table 4.11
Weighted mean ,Weighted percentile, and Rank for the items of the Checklist

No.	Items	Rank	W.M	W.P.
7	Being patient.	1.5	2.181	72.727
2	Controlling one's own actions and feelings.	1.5	2.181	72.727
87	Responding/answering when spoken to.	3.5	2.090	69.697
84	Being able to appropriately control his/her anger.	3.5	2.090	69.697
81	Having flexibility when faced with unexpected situations.	5.5	2.045	68.182
26	Repeating the questions when there is no response.	5.5	2.045	68.182
83	Using "polite" words, such as "please", "thank you", "excuse me", etc.	8.5	2	66.667
27	Modifying the question when it is not understood.	8.5	2	66.667
82	Avoiding spending too much time on trivial matters.	8.5	2	66.667
85	Speaking in a moderate tone of voice (neither too loud or too soft).	8.5	2	66.667
29	Modifying the idea by rephrasing it on conceptualization.	12	1.954	65.152
55	Creating opportunities for students to achieve the highest level of achievement that reflects their abilities and potentials.	12	1.954	65.152
3	Motivating or encouraging students in the classroom.	12	1.954	65.152
63	Practising authority in accordance with the law of the land and with evolving concepts of the student's needs and rights.	14.5	1.909	65.152
66	Asking students about topics of their interest.	14.5	1.909	65.152
68	Making eye contact while speaking, or when spoken to.	17	1.863	62.121
33	Providing concrete reinforcement for students.	17	1.863	62.121
78	Giving other students a turn .	17	1.863	62.121
5	Being consistently active in classroom and ensuring of getting work done.	20	1.818	60.606
25	Encouraging student to initiate questions.	20	1.818	60.606
31	Encouraging students to develop their personal values.	20	1.818	60.606
64	Avoiding gender discrimination in the classroom	25	1.772	59.091

28	Conversing by saying things that are relevant to the subject matter.	25	1.772	59.091
30	Encouraging students to consult other classmates before answering teacher.	25	1.772	59.091
12	Experiencing a high degree of (or frequent) excitement in the course of the work.	25	1.727	57.576
23	Giving students enough time to think before answering the question.	25	1.727	57.576
37	Exhibiting good problem solving strategies, thinking of all possible options to solve a problem.	25	1.727	57.576
72	Using positive feedback so that all students can feel that their contributions are valued.	25	1.727	57.576
4	Innovation thoughts and/or actions.	29	1.681	56.061
65	Avoiding intentionally exposing student to embarrassment or disparagement.	31.5	1.636	54.545
35	Allowing students to choose between alternative tasks or between different ways of doing the same task.	31.5	1.636	54.545
60	Allowing discussion and objection according to the assets of constructive dialogue and depending on the ethics of modern and broad, so as to create better opportunities for learning.	31.5	1.636	54.545
58	Applying a considerable freedom of expression and rituals.	31.5	1.636	54.545
8	Making decisions promptly and definitely in terms of self-determining.	36.5	1.590	53.030
10	Being involved in helping students in a direct way.	36.5	1.590	53.030
24	Asking questions to the entire class and trying to encourage all students to participate.	36.5	1.590	53.030
39	Activating students' background knowledge and building it in context before presenting new concepts.	36.5	1.590	53.030
42	Transmitting life styles and manners of other cultures .	36.5	1.590	53.030
46	Avoiding symbolic violence process which is based on gradual and subtle manipulations towards dominate cultural interest.	36.5	1.590	53.030
1	Being receptive and interested in the opinions and ideas of others.	41.5	1.545	51.515
11	Respecting students' ability to think independently, and respect their opinions based on specific grounds.	41.5	1.545	51.515

16	Acting realistically and practically.	41.5	1.545	51.515
34	Fostering effort and productivity of students by creating positive reinforcement and classroom environment.	41.5	1.545	51.515
6	Giving watchful attention to students and/or things.	45	1.5	50
32	Encouraging students to have communicated to each other through applying ideas, thoughts to the real world and involving them in real life situations.	45	1.5	50
57	Listening and respecting students' points of view.	45	1.5	50
48	Using authentic material in classroom for fostering the target culture.	47.5	1.454	48.485
62	Acting with justice.	48.5	1.454	48.485
19	Adopting communication strategies which are better in a learning environment such as foreignizing, word coinage , using wrong terms, self correction , repetition, approximation , using fillers, appeal for help , code switching ,etc.	50.5	1.409	46.970
36	Getting students to start working right away and look for any necessary information while they are doing the task.	50.5	1.409	46.970
47	Engaging students in natural activities such as listening to the native utterances and reading original texts to introduce cultural elements in the classroom.	50.5	1.409	46.970
77	Participating in other students' suggested ideas.	50.5	1.409	46.970
15	Having openness to new experiences, ideas, and options.	54	1.363	45.455
20	Adopting instructional / learning technologies which are better in a learning environment.	54	1.363	45.455
21	Asking different types of questions relevant to students such as open-ended and follow up questions.	54	1.363	45.455
41	Showing respect to other cultures.	57.5	1.318	43.939
44	Making connections between students' culture and linguistic diversity.	57.5	1.318	43.939
61	Being a model for the values of democracy, freedom of thought , opinion , expression and quality, and seek to develop these ethics and values in students.	57.5	1.318	43.939
69	Being overtly friendly with students.	57.5	1.318	43.939

43	Adopting positive values and beliefs from other cultural communities.	62.5	1.272	42.424
51	Using culture-based activities such as (cultural values) abundantly in the classroom to help students to be familiar with the target culture.	62.5	1.272	42.424
54	Showing honesty and accuracy when sharing information with students.	62.5	1.272	42.424
56	Encouraging students to apply positive educational ethics and values and critically appreciate their significance.	62.5	1.272	42.424
59	Using classroom time wisely and effectively in organizing the tasks according to students' interest.	62.5	1.272	42.424
67	Seeking information from students regarding their experiences.	62.5	1.272	42.424
71	Employing sarcasm, idioms, jokes, and metaphors.	70	1.227	40.909
13	Having the ability to discern inner qualities and relationships, insight, good sense and judgments.	70	1.227	40.909
22	Phrasing the question first and then call on the specific student to answer.	70	1.227	40.909
38	Using video and audio recordings.	70	1.227	40.909
45	Using teaching strategies that accommodate to the needs of cultural and linguistic diversity by students using a variety of grouping strategies, hands-on activities, visuals, oral language development, reading/writing workshops, etc.	70	1.227	40.909
53	Discussing current events from a multicultural view points.	70	1.227	40.909
73	Providing students with social norms through writing proverbs or wisdoms and asking them to comment.	70	1.227	40.909
76	Offering help to students if they are in need of .	70	1.227	40.909
80	Making interjections (wow, cool) to show interest in what someone is saying.	70	1.227	40.909
17	Being tolerant through accepting and respecting those who differ from him.	77.5	1.181	39.394
50	Using techniques to assist students in the process of acculturation in the classroom, such as role-play, reading, films, simulation, games, culture assimilors, culture capsules and culturgram.	77.5	1.181	39.394
52	Encouraging cultural awareness by exploring and sharing each student's unique culture and heritage.	77.5	1.181	39.394

74	Promoting students' social perspectives in writing social assignments through describing familiar social situations.	77.5	1.181	39.394
75	Promoting students ability to transfer their knowledge and skills across disciplines.	77.5	1.181	39.394
79	Interrupting appropriately saying “excuse me” or apologize for interrupting.	77.5	1.181	39.394
9	Being constant in responses.	82.5	1.136	37.879
49	Fostering target culture insights maintained by students' gestures, body movements, and distances.	82.5	1.136	37.879
70	Using more than two sources of information beside the instructor and textbook to manipulate social skills smartly.	82.5	1.136	37.879
86	Having one-to-one interactions with peers in unstructured situations.	82.5	1.136	37.879
14	Working collaboratively with students.	85	1.045	34.848
18	Integrating experience, imagination, information and application contributing to effective learning.	86.5	1	33.333
40	Helping students to grasp cause and effect .	86.5	1	33.333

On the basis of above results, table 4.12 shows the W.M. & W.P. of the three aspects viz ; **Values, Ethics, and Norms** . It was found that **norms** have gained (W. M.= 1,574; W.P. =52.486), while **values** have gained (W. M.= 1.520; W.P. =50.763), and **ethics** have gained(W. M.= 1.509; W.P. =50.456).

Table 4.12
Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for the three Aspects of the Checklist ;
Values, Ethics, & Norms

	No. of	Weighted	Weighted
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Aspects	Items	Mean	Percentile
Norms	20	1.574	52.486
Values	54	1.520	50.763
Ethics	13	1.509	50.456
Total	87	1.534	51.235

Table 4.13 below displays the weighted mean and the weighted percentile of each subscale reverts to the aspects of the checklist , starting with the **norms** subscales. It was found that **social norms** have gained (W. M.=1.752 ; W.P. =58.417), whereas, **classroom social norms** have gained (W. M.=1.396 ; W.P. =46.556).

Table 4.13

Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for Norms Subscales

Subscale	No. of Items	Weighted Mean	Weighted Percentile
Social Norms	9	1.752	58.417
Classroom Social Norms	11	1.396	46.556
Total	20	1.574	52.486

Table 4.14 displays the results of the **values aspect**. It was found that **university education values** have gained (W. M.=1.727 ; W.P. =57.576), while **professional values** have gained (W. M.=1.625 ; W.P. =53.783) ,whereas **learning values** have gained (W. M.=1.613 ; W.P. =53.780), **teacher values** have gained (W. M.=1.516 ; W.P. =50.58), also,

college culture values have gained (W. M.= 1.385; W.P. 46.21), finally , **classroom cultural values** have gained (W. M.=1.520 ; W.P. =50.763).

Table 4.14
Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for Values Subscales

Subscale	No. of Items	Weighted Mean	Weighted Percentile
University Education Values	2	1.727	57.576
Professional Values	22	1.625	53.783
Learning Values	4	1.613	53.780
Teacher Values	13	1.516	50.582
College Culture Values	6	1.385	46.21
Classroom Culture Values	7	1.285	42.640
Total	54	1.520	50.763

Regarding to **Ethics** subscales, it was found that **college ethics** have gained (W. M.=1.568 ; W.P. =52.272) , whereas, **teacher ethics** have gained (W. M.=1.567 ; W.P. =52.65), while **educational ethics** have gained (W. M.=1.393 ; W.P. =46.446) . (See table 4.15)

Table 4.15
Weighted Mean and Weighted Percentile for Ethics Subscales

Subscale	No. of Items	Weighted Mean	Weighted Percentile
College Ethics	2	1.568	52.272
Teacher Ethics	8	1.567	52.65
Educational Ethics	3	1.393	46.446
Total	13	1.509	50.456

This overlooking for the application of hidden curriculum by EFL university teachers in classroom makes the educational process face several barriers which may reflect its negative impact on the most important components (teacher-students interactions, Target language culture, classroom management , time management , misunderstanding the subject area and the difficulty conveyance of the subject given by the teacher etc.).

Yet, a teacher is a part of the whole educational system necessarily gets influenced by the ideology which shapes the society ; where he works in due to the fact that an ideology is reflected through the ideas and beliefs and consequently through the deeds of people . Being part of the transitional period since 2003 characterized in highly diversified politically unstable circumstances, Iraqi teachers have been struggling since then to cope with post war Iraqi environment . In spite of the wider technological revolutions of computer , i pods , phones, and the online access available to most of the Iraqi students, Iraqi classroom environment still undergoes the outdated chalk & boards as a teaching technique.

Thus , classrooms lack modernisations and striving to get on well with the updated syllabus towards LLT the matter which shoulder the Iraqi teacher a heavy responsibility of how to work or survive within such yield of contrasts. Moreover, the fact that most Iraqi teachers are looking forward to drastic & inclusive changes in the educational system. Yet, these circumstances still capturing and resisting most of EFL Iraqi university teachers' skills and competencies , which are still hanging on the late of controlled of classroom period and keep them enslaved.

In addition , There are some common ‘phobias’ for applying ‘hidden curriculum’ in classroom, for example ; when the teacher wants to apply hidden curriculum in class but he does not have much time to do so in his/her lessons , or the educational institution administrations disagree to use this kind of curriculum or student’s – and their parents – do not consider them as “serious” learning materials.

On the other hand , chi- square is used to find whether the differences of teachers application towards hidden curriculum among the following variables ; colleges, field of specialization, gender, and years of experience, also to find the difference among students' achievements are statistically significant. For this purpose, the highest score which is 261 is achieved with 75% percentile while the theoretical mean* 196 .

4.3.2 Results Related to the Second Aim and Verification of the Second Null Hypothesis

In order to find the differences among teachers application towards hidden curriculum at the three colleges of education, Chi- Square formula is applied to find statistically significant differences among colleges and to check in favour of which college the significant differences is.

*Theoretical mean = The highest score x (75%)

4.3.2.1 College of Education for Women & College of Education for Human Sciences

The comparison shows that since the calculated χ^2 value which is 12.192 is found to be higher than the tabulated χ^2 value which is 5.99 when the level of significance is 0.05 and the degree of freedom is 2. This indicates that there are statistically significant differences in EFL university teachers application of the hidden curriculum, and the difference is in favour of the College of Education for Human Sciences. (See table 4.16)

Table 4.16
Comparison of College of Education for Women & College of Education for Human Sciences in Hidden Curriculum

College of Education	No. of the Sample	Observed	Expected	DF	Computed χ^2	Tabulated χ^2	Level of Significance
Women	7	77	75.6	2	12.192	5.99	0.05
		268	239.4				
		264	294				
Human Sciences	5	85	86.4				
		245	273.6				
		366	336				

4.3.2.2 College of Education for Women & College of Education / Ibn-Rushd

The comparison shows that since the calculated χ^2 value which is 37.478 is found to be higher than the tabulated χ^2 value which is 5.99 when the level of significance is 0.05 and the degree of freedom is 2. This indicates that there are statistically significant differences in EFL university teacher application of the hidden curriculum, and the difference is in favour of the College of Education for Women. (See table 4.17)

Table 4.17

Comparison of Education for Women & College of Education / Ibn-Rushd in Hidden Curriculum

College of Education	No. of the Sample	Observed	Expected	DF	Computed χ^2	Tabulated χ^2	Level of Significance
Woman	7	85	59.733	2	37.478	5.99	0.05
		245	256				
		366	380.267				
Ibn Rushd	9	27	52.267				
		235	224				
		347	332.733				

4.3.2.3 College of Education for Human Sciences and College of Education / Ibn – Rushd

The comparison shows that since the calculated χ^2 value which is 25.063 is found to be higher than the tabulated χ^2 value which is 5.99 when the level of significance is 0.05 and the degree of freedom is 2. This indicates that there are statistically significant differences EFL university teacher application of the hidden curriculum , and the difference is in favour of the College of Education for Human Sciences. (See table 4.18)

Table 4.18

Comparison of College of Education for Human Sciences & College of Education / Ibn-Rushd in Hidden Curriculum

College of Education	No. of the Sample	Observed	Expected	DF	Computed χ^2	Tabulated χ^2	Level of Significance
Human Sciences	5	85	59.733	2	25.063	5.99	0.05
		245	256				
		366	380.267				
Ibn Rushd	9	27	52.267				
		235	224				
		347	332.733				

According to the results of the comparison , the second null hypothesis is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that there are statistically significant differences among Iraqi EFL university teachers' application of hidden curriculum according to their colleges . The results of the comparison show that the College of Education for Human Sciences has gained the first rank, then the College of Education for Women , lastly, the College of Education /Ibn Rushd . The reasons behind College of Education for Human Sciences gaining the first rank by the attributed to the main two aspects of hidden curriculum as stated by Cronbleth (1984:29-36) which are;

- 1- Structural or organizational aspects of hidden curriculum which include time scheduling of classes and other school activities; facilities provided; materials, such as textbooks and computer software; examinations; required courses; special programs, such as speech therapy or advanced placement; extracurricular activities and services; and grading and grouping policies.
- 2- Cultural aspects of hidden curriculum which include school norms or ethos; décor and wall decorations; roles and relationships, including intergroup relations (within and between teachers and students); student cliques, rituals, and celebrations; and teacher expectations of various groups of students.

Most of the above mentioned aspects somewhat have been achieved through the cooperative relationship between the majority of the faculty members and students through department activities, extracurricular

activities and services, and culturally, through roles and relationships, including intergroup relations (within and between teachers and students); student cliques, rituals, and celebrations; and teacher expectations of various groups of students. The previously mentioned can be illustrated through the following activities;

- The English Language Department has been circulating a monthly periodical magazine “ Lakum” which deals with teachers and students opinions, views thoughts on several topics including academic, scientific, literary, cultural, social, and recreational.
- Weekly debates , Linguistic club, discussions held by students under the supervision of a faculty to discuss academic topics and comment upon by his colleagues as well as faculty.
- Literary shows and exhibitions are carried out yearly under the supervision of Literature professors ,with reference to act such dramatic actions, in drams , short stories, and poetry which performed by students. As well as to graphics and artistic images which depict the theatrical , literary and anecdotal characteristics in textbooks.
- Lately, the English Language Department has established a Web Site, exclusively for the faculty members and students for information exchange regarding all aspects of life.

4.3.3 Results Related to the Second Aim and Verification of the Second Hypothesis

In order to find the differences among teachers application of hidden curriculum according to the their field of specialization (English Language Teaching, Linguistic, and Literature) at the three colleges of educations. Chi- Square formula is applied to find statistically significant differences among field of specialization and to check in favour of which specialization the significant differences is.

4.3.3.1 Linguistics and Literature

The comparison shows that since the calculated χ^2 value which is 46.203 is found to be higher than the tabulated χ^2 value which is 5.99 when the level of significance is 0.05 and the degree of freedom is 2. This indicates that there are statistically significant differences EFL university teachers' application of the hidden curriculum according to the field of specialization , and the difference is in favour of Literature . (See table 4.19)

Table 4.19
Comparison of Linguistics and Literature in Hidden Curriculum

Fields of Specialization	No. of the Sample	Observed	Expected	DF	Computed χ^2	Tabulated χ^2	Level of Significance
Linguistics	9	15	40.679	2	46.203	5.99	0.05
		307	258.905				
		317	339.416				
Literature	9	81	55.321				
		304	352.095				
		484	461.584				

4.3.3.2 Linguistics and English Language Teaching

The comparison shows that since the calculated χ^2 value which is 104.152 is found to be higher than the tabulated χ^2 value which is 5.99 when the level of significance is 0.05 and the degree of freedom is 2. This indicates that there are statistically significant differences EFL university teachers' application of the hidden curriculum according to the field of specialization, and the difference is in favour of English Language Teaching. (See table 20)

Table 20
Comparison of Linguistics and English Language Teaching in Hidden Curriculum

Fields of Specialization	No. of the Sample	Observed	Expected	DF	Computed χ^2	Tabulated χ^2	Level of Significance
Linguistics	9	15	51.317	2	104.152	5.99	0.05
		307	300.168				
		317	287.514				
ELT	3	58	21.683				
		120	126.83				
		92	93.138				

4.3.3.3 Literature and English Language Teaching

The comparison shows that since the calculated χ^2 value which is 621.525 is found to be higher than the tabulated χ^2 value which is 5.99 when the level of significance is 0.05 and the degree of freedom is 2. This indicates that there are statistically significant differences EFL university teacher application of the hidden curriculum according to the field of specialization, and the difference is in favour of Literature. (See table 4.21)

Table 4.21
Comparison of Literature and English Language Teaching in
Hidden Curriculum

Fields of Specialization	No. of the Sample	Observed	Expected	DF	Computed χ^2	Tabulated χ^2	Level of Significance
Literature	9	81	106.050	2	621.525	5.99	0.05
		304	323.490				
		484	339.459				
ELT	3	58	32.949				
		120	100.509				
		92	136.540				

As previously mentioned , the results of the checklist show that the percentage of EFL university teachers who apply and manifest the concept of the hidden curriculum is 9.44% . This means that the second null hypothesis is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that there are statistically significant differences among Iraqi EFL university teachers' application of hidden curriculum according to their fields of specialization.

Due to the results of the comparison among the fields of specialization reveal that Literature has gained the first rank; this may be attributed to the fact that the literature contexts, syllabuses, and textbooks are part of multicultural and moral education in which the hidden curriculum enables educational institutions to argue in support of multicultural and moral initiatives. Besley (2002:26-36) states that moral educations remain largely unwritten in educational institutions polices and seldom form explicit goals of education policies. Rather they tend to be part of hidden curriculum.

Above all other mainstream curriculum subjects, the study of literature arguably offers teachers the greatest scope for examining human, ethics, values, norms , morality, culture, motivation and vision. And yet, to leave the poems, novels, and plays ... this strain insists that teachers' works

communicate truth, fairness, freedom, harmony, honesty, loyalty, etc. to the student at whatever level that he or she is able to perceive. Thus, Literature teachers are always in the business of teaching students to acquire morality, ethics, values, norms, culture ; to question and challenge and, as a result to demand of literature a quality of message that is honourable, respectable and worthy of good report. As mentioned above may justify that EFL Iraqi university Literature teachers have more manifestation toward the concept of hidden curriculum than teachers of English Language and Linguistics.

4.3.4 Results Related to the Second Aim and Verification of the Second Null Hypothesis :

In order to find the differences among teachers' application towards hidden curriculum according to years of experience , Chi- Square formula is applied to find statistically significant differences among teachers' experience ranges (1-10, 10-20) and to check in favour of which range the significant difference is.

Table 4.22 shows that the calculated χ^2 value which is 35.519 is found to be higher than the tabulated χ^2 value which is 5.99 when the level of significance is 0.05 and the degree of freedom is 2. This indicates that there are statistically significant differences in teachers' application for the hidden curriculum according to the years of experience , and the difference is in favour of (1-10) range of experience. Therefore the second null hypothesis is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.22**Teacher's Application according to Years of Experience**

Years of Experiences	No. of the Sample	Observed	Expected	DF	Computed χ^2	Tabulated χ^2	Level of Significance
1-10	15	139	108.994	2	35.519	5.99	0.05
		416	447.931				
		658	656.075				
10-20	6	16	46.006				
		221	189.069				
		275	276.925				

The results show that EFL university teachers with experience range of (1-10) seem to have more application of the concept of hidden curriculum than EFL university teachers with experience range of (10-20) and that can be attributed as mentioned previously, to the fact that developing hidden curriculum in higher Education has just recently been done or activated as indicated by Margolis (2001). Yet, EFL university teachers with experience range of (1-10) like actions, feel things, meet others, and have new experiences. In Education, they are more active and increase student interest through approaching a variety of up-to-date methods, theories, techniques, etc., to teach project skills and knowledge. Klein (2006:1-22) states that research has shown that young teachers learn best by doing through active involvement with the learner, which is the basic key of learning and teaching. Thus, teachers should keep in mind that the more involved the students, the more s/he will retain. Teaching knowledge and skills by using a variety of tools and techniques, will provide good learning experiences for all. In sum, “Learning by doing” is a basic domain in hidden curriculum and often is the best way to retain knowledge.

4.3.5 Results Related to the Second Aim and Verification of the Second Null Hypothesis:

In order to find the differences among teachers application towards hidden curriculum according to their gender , Chi- Square formula is applied to find statistically significant differences among teachers (male & female) and to check in favour of which gender the significant difference is.

Table 4.23 shows that since the calculated χ^2 value which is 21.898 is found to be higher than the tabulated χ^2 value which is 5.99 when the level of significance is 0.05 and the degree of freedom is 2. This indicates that there are statistically significant differences in teachers' applications for the hidden curriculum according to gender , and the difference is in favour of females . Therefore the second null hypothesis is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.23
Teacher's Application according to Gender

Gender	No. of the Sample	Observed	Expected	DF	Computed χ^2	Tabulated χ^2	Level of Significance
Female	16	16	40.148	2	21.898	5.99	0.05
		208	192.272				
		290	281.580				

Male	5	131	106.852				
		496	511.728				
		741	749.420				

The result shows that the Females university teachers have more manifestations toward the concept of hidden curriculum than males . This may be due to the gender biased education , as aforementioned in chapter two (see 2.14.3 Gender).

4.3.6 Results Related to the Third Aim and Verification of the Third Null Hypothesis :

Yet, the results of the checklist of the present study show that the ratio of EFL university teachers who apply the hidden curriculum is 9.35 %. To verify this result statistically, it was found that two teachers at different universities have an awareness and application towards the concept of hidden curriculum and this may affect students performance in English language. See table (4.24)

Table 4.24
Teachers' Awareness & Application of Hidden Curriculum

University	Colleges	Field of Specialization	Score	Theoretical Mean	Gender	Years of Experience
Baghdad	College of Education for women	ELT	227	196	Female	1-10
Diyala	College of Education for Human Sciences	Literature	221			

4.3.6.1 Students Performances at the College of Education for Women

To achieve this aim , the students have been exposed to an essay written test which involves a question that is related with the field of the study of their teacher (ELT) who is found to be aware of and apply the hidden curriculum.(See Appendix 5-A) . In order to identify the effect of hidden curriculum on EFL university students' performance in English, Chi-Square formula is applied .

Table 4.25 shows that the calculated χ^2 value which is 7 is found to be less than the tabulated χ^2 value which is 11.07 when the level of significance is 0.05 and the degree of freedom is 5. This indicates that there are no statistically significant differences that signify any effect of hidden curriculum on students' performance in English language.

Table 4.25
Results of Students' Performance according to the Effect of Hidden Curriculum in English language

College of Education	No. of the Sample	Levels	Observed	Expected	DF	Computed χ^2	Tabulated χ^2	Level of Significance
Women	24	0-49	7	4	5	7	11.07	0.05
		50-59	6					
		60-69	5					
		70-79	3					
		80-89	2					
90-100	1							

4.3.6.2 Students Performances at College of Education for Human Sciences

To achieve this aim , the students have been exposed to an essay written test which involves a question that is related with the field of the study of their teacher (Literature) who is found to be aware of and apply the hidden curriculum.(See Appendix 5- B) . In order to identify the effect of hidden curriculum on EFL university students’ performance in English, Chi-Square formula is applied .

Table 4.26 shows that the calculated χ^2 value which is 5.001 is found to be less than the tabulated χ^2 value which is 11.07 when the level of significance is 0.05 and the degree of freedom is 5. This indicates that there are no statistically significant differences that signify any effect of the hidden curriculum on students' performance in English language .

Table 4.26
Results of Students' Performance according to the Effect of Hidden Curriculum in English language

College of Education	No. of the Sample	Levels	Observed	Expected	DF	Computed χ^2	Tabulated χ^2	Level of Significance
Human Sciences	40	0-49	10	6.666	5	5.001	11.07	0.05
		50-59	9					
		60-69	7					
		70-79	6					
		80-89	5					
		90-100	3					

The result shows that the awareness and application of hidden curriculum have no effect on students' performance in English language . Therefore the Third null hypothesis which states that there is no effect of hidden curriculum on EFL university students’ performance in English is accepted. This is due to the following two reasons:

- 1- EFL Iraqi university teachers are simply not applying the concept of hidden curriculum as it should be really applied .
- 2- Although the results have shown that two teachers have realized and applied the hidden curriculum but this did not make any sense toward hidden curriculum effect on EFL university students' performance in English language. However, the rational justification is simply related to a recent definition of a hidden curriculum given by Meighan (1981:314) who stated that The hidden curriculum is taught by the school, not by any teacher...something is coming across to the pupils which may never be spoken in the English lesson or prayed about in assembly. They are picking-up an approach to living and an attitude to learning.

In brief , hidden curriculum is a set of concepts, mental processes, attitudes ,values , ethics , norms , and performances which are voluntary acquired by the student through the experience of attending school rather than the stated educational objectives of such institutions (formal or official curriculum) in a manner of absorption and without any supervision. It is a matter of student's interaction with different peers, teachers and administrators at the school (a process of socialization within school experiences), and through the extracurricular activities, direct observation and model (Mari, et al, 1993: 24). Thus, the educational institutions must take into account the impact of hidden curriculum on teachers , administrators, students , by establishing their own values system in order to be required by their students .

4.4 Conclusions

In the light of the statistical analysis and results of the study , the following conclusions are drawn:

- 1- EFL Iraqi university teachers are aware of hidden curriculum.
- 2- EFL Iraqi university teachers specialized in literature have better awareness of hidden curriculum than those specialized in ELT and Linguistics .
- 3- EFL Iraqi university teachers with years of experience ranging (1-10), have better awareness of hidden curriculum than those who have more years of experience ranging (10-20).
- 4- EFL Iraqi university female teachers are more aware than male teachers of the conception of hidden curriculum.
- 5- EFL Iraqi university teachers do not apply hidden curriculum, and this may be due to many factors which are: society ideology , education system, classroom organization , teacher expectations, outdated curriculum, target culture disparity , affective learning outcomes.. etc. Hence, the preparation and implementation of hidden curriculum by university teachers do not serve preparing competent Iraqi learners and users of English, nor does it appear to have internalized the powerful role of English as a fundamental tool that serves multiple purposes and facilitates Iraqi learners manipulations of their roles as activate citizens in society.

- 6- EFL Iraqi college student's level in English is not affected by the concept of hidden curriculum. This led students to have difficulty with rules often from their own curriculum -- in other words, a student-imposed curriculum, exemplified through outbreaks of gender, race, and social class discrimination, followed by conflicts over personality and differences in skill abilities.
- 7- Although the formal curriculum includes three domains of objectives , vis; cognitive , affective, and psychomotor, EFL Iraqi university teachers are interested in carrying out the cognitive objectives which are based on knowledge and facts that are always explicit at the expense of the affective ones which seem implicit and hard to be recognized by others , in addition to the psychomotor objectives which are both correlated in one way or another within the concept of hidden curriculum.
- 8- Outdated curriculum is adopted , thus, the majority of EFL Iraqi university teachers still rely on the traditional approach which depends on the intronaite (lecturing method) . This may oblige teachers to cover the unlimited material and knowledge in short term by discussing and debating.

4.5 Pedagogical Implications

Academic studies in university under everyday conditions is needed mostly to bring about any desired change in curriculum. It is often difficult to bring about any real change in education because there are so many variables that must be addressed if change is to be permanent. This study needs to be

approached systemically because educational reform requires attention to the subculture or hidden curriculum of the teacher , the students, the university and, community.

It is necessary to look at the institutional, sociocultural, psychological, organizational, philosophical, and political ideas which can play a role in the initiation, implementation and continuation of change. It is also necessary to address the curriculum or the subject matter. Studies should focus on teacher's role and teacher's effectiveness as a source of communication besides the student roles and student needs since students are the reason for the system to function. More understanding is needed for learning organizations in terms of teachers, students and curriculum and how these factors are related to values and beliefs, both individually and collectively.

One way to look at the teaching world is that preferences for certain teaching styles, curriculum, school and classroom climate may be as much a function of temperament as of reason or design. According to Sergovanni and Starratt (1993 :25) , administrators have two alternatives: Continue the present practice of developing singular and standardized supervisory systems, putting them into place, and evaluating everyone on the same terms or providing options for evaluation and inviting teachers to play key roles in deciding which option makes sense and in sharing responsibility for implementing the options.

One implication of hidden curriculum is that it is important to respect differences and encourage diversity in both teachers and students in order to enhance both teacher autonomy and student learning. It is necessary

to respect each teacher's uniqueness and to have an understanding of how diversity enhances rather than limits the educational process. Students come from many diverse backgrounds and teacher must strive to understand the student in relation to their cultural background.

In too many classrooms, different ethnic groups are still being seen as passive, docile, dependent, and inferior to other students. Students sometimes receive negative messages through classroom instruction and teacher behavior. According to Kuykendall (2004 :14) , many teachers still respond to students who are different in predictable ways- they isolate them, ignore them, retain them, suspend them, expel them and in far too many instances they fail to love them or teach them.

One issue that has long interested curriculum ethnographers is how to conceptualize the social relations and forms of cultural knowledge expressed through, and constructed by, curriculum or (the hidden curriculum) in use. In addressing this issue, researchers have typically resorted to the conceptual and methodological tool of subcultures that operate in social institutions. The hidden curriculum is analyzed in aspects of organizational structure and culture, content of lessons, and methods of communication. Gender and disability are embedded into organizational structure and education also.

For Van Manen (2001:36) the researcher aims to transform experience into a textual expression of its essence – in such a way that the effect of the text is at once a reflexive re-living and reflective appropriation of something meaningful: a notion by which a reader is powerfully animated in his or her own lived experience. It is very difficult to define the hidden

curriculum in textual expression because it is such an elusive phenomenon. The hidden curriculum changes in relation to differing people and situations.

Research is a necessary component to becoming a scholarly teacher and a "reflective practitioner" (Schon 1983:87), engaged in continuous self-directed development and capable of making informed decisions about approaches to learning and teaching within particular disciplinary and academic contexts.

One important implication is that teacher attitudes have far reaching consequences. If teachers develop low expectations and the accompanying negative behavior, they send signals to students that suggest that the student is not capable of success in a given subject area. Students are quick to pick up the attitude that a teacher is unhappy with their job, disgruntled with the system, bored, boring, or unfair. Students will avoid teachers who make them feel uncomfortable. They may skip class or have a high absenteeism rate.

The professional teacher must realize that the classroom does not exist in a vacuum, and that the ability to examine and understand the larger social context in which students operate is crucial to ones success. Teachers must be mindful of the forces that influence students thinking outside the classroom, and they must not look at students as a number that represents a score on a test. Teacher must create an environment that allows each student to develop to their fullest potential; however testing practice today stifles any true freedom to educate students. Putting such emphasis on high stakes test intensifies problems already inherent in the educational system, thus teachers face serious ethical dilemmas.

4.5.1 Hidden Concepts

Teachers are guilty of or not skillfully using language to cover up what actually occurs in the university system as well as administrators and others in control want to keep many occurrences out of the public view. Also, most parents do not have a complete idea about what their sons and daughters are taught in university, and only a few delve into the curriculum and really understand the indoctrination that the university accomplishes through rules and curriculum. Parents are often led by the nose with the use of web sites that list a student's homework or grades, and meetings with teachers that do not accomplish any purpose, except to state that a meeting was held.

Donmoyer (1989 :257) states that when those who look 'behind the classroom door' discover that even when a curriculum theory has been adopted and translated into official policy it is normally not implemented by classroom teachers, and why even when teachers sincerely espouse a particular curriculum theory, the gap between their espoused theory and their theory-in-use often remains wide.

Thus ,when teachers enter their classroom, even though research states that their autonomy is compromised they still have some freedom to teach what and how they wish. There are major constraints placed on teachers, but once in the classroom teachers can stress some areas while ignoring others. Teachers should encourage students to make good choices by looking at a situation and in the process make the best possible choice for their future.

Another implication or way to look at the teaching world is that preferences for certain teaching styles, curriculum, college and classroom climate may be as much a function of temperament as of reason. Most

universities are organized as bureaucracies with well-defined procedures for dealing with students, for dealing with teachers, and for working with the community. These procedures determine who will be allowed to participate in the educational process, how they will be treated and expected to behave, how their performance will be judged, and down what path they will be directed once they leave the university. While these procedures may seem equitable, there still is, to a certain extent, a hidden curriculum in universities underlying, unpublished rules that emanate from the cultural beliefs of those who work in the universities and those who set policy for them.

4.5.2 Ministry of Higher Education

The role of Ministry of Higher Education has also brought attention in regulating language through regulating the curriculum and censorship. Language is censored because textbooks carefully limit language, and monitor ideas. These ideas which powerful groups wish to be imbedded in student are espoused in textbooks while other ideas are carefully censored. Books are censored, ideas are censored, values, ethics, norms are censored, beliefs are censored. Academic buildings are censored, and educational outcomes are censored. The Ministry system exercises careful control over many issues that are pertinent to the students.

4.5.3 The Role of The University

University is an institution that demands uniformity and this uniformity brings to light many issues that are a part of the hidden curriculum. Even though some conformity is necessary for the institution to survive too much emphasis conformity stifles learning and causes students to become

unmotivated. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993:46), the demand for a standard curriculum, embodied in textbook, may suppress the legitimate place in society of some minorities. The stress on “public knowledge” as defined on standardized tests may displace the legitimating and expression of knowledge. The emphasis on conformity may rob student of the choice to make decisions. University appear to disenfranchise students from legitimate sources of self-esteem and personal growth.

4.5.4 Teacher

Several implications regarding teachers that they should know their students well are enough to create learning opportunities for them that will bring them to a condition of learning. Teachers also have a responsibility to know their subject matter well enough so that they can effectively impart this knowledge to their students so that students can connect with the subject matter. In this context, Jackson (1968) raises the issue on how teacher can help facilitate change and not biased material , Delpit (1988:122) best classifies this phenomena as the “ Culture of power”. She finds that teachers with different class backgrounds led to different roles, authorities roles versus the informal. Mainly her argument suggests that authoritative teachers do not supply students with tools needed to manipulate and fully participate in society. On the other hand, informal teachers supply the “codes” students need to fully understand their own expertness and clear their own place in society (Ibid.,138).

Teachers need a large repertory of teaching strategies so that they can engage students with various learning modalities. Teachers also need to teach

by example and counsel a broad array of learning, which goes beyond academic learning to a variety of personal and social learning such as social manners, acceptance of differences, self-esteem and a sense of responsibility.

4.5.5 Knowledge of Students

Accomplished teachers care about their students and show their students that they care about them. They use their knowledge about adolescents and adolescent development, and their knowledge about how this development affects their learning, to guide their curricular and instructional decisions. Every student is different and teachers must learn how to respond to each student in a special way if the student is to succeed. Caring teachers understand the impact of home life, cultural background, and experiences in the learning process and strive to relate this knowledge to teaching the students.

When students' home culture and the university's culture are very different, teachers can easily misunderstand students' behavior and in response to these differences, use instructional strategies and discipline that actually are at odds with the students' cultural or community norms (Delpit 2001:549). It is imperative that teachers strive to understand the background of the students in their classrooms.

4.5.6 Culture Classes

The classes in language and culture aim at improving ones understanding of the language and the people who speak it. Trained to be prospective teacher of English, for students in English language teaching ,

studying target culture is not arbitrary but a necessary activity . In culture classes, Gene and Bada (2005:81) suggest that a culture class is significantly beneficial in terms of language skills, raising cultural awareness, changing attitudes towards native and target societies, and contribution to the teaching profession . The implications of culture in the curriculum of language teaching are varied, some experts, however , approach the issue of teaching and applying culture in classrooms with reservation . Bada (2000:100) clarifies that awareness of cultural values, ethic, norms and societal characteristics does not necessary invite the student to conform to such values, since they are there to refine the self so that it can take more universal from .Thus the purpose of teaching and manifestation classes culture is to facilitate the communications of students in target language.

4.5.7 Learning Environment

Accomplished teachers help students learn by creating environments in which students are active, show willingness to take intellectual risk, develop confidence and self esteem, and value learning. This kind of environment fosters student learning. University climate can also help or hinder teachers as they attempt to satisfy their needs at work. The learning environment or interpersonal work life affects teachers, administrators and students. If the learning environment is conducive then both teachers and students will work harder to achieve a designated goal. Owens (1995) on organizational culture states that student learning thrives in university where there is respect and trust among faculty, staff and students, and where parents and other community members volunteer their time and develop a sense of

pride. Character education is the process through which this culture of pride and climate of success are developed within a university.

It is the ideal of bringing together teachers, parents, community, and students to establish the constancy of purpose that fosters the emergence of high-quality university environments. Such environments support the total education of students in a community of respect, safety, and spirit, resulting in optimized student learning. Character education is the foundation for school improvement.

Fundamental to establishing and developing an excellent university culture and climate is the importance of effective, caring leadership. “Effective leadership is a force that not only changes, but protects and intensifies a university’s structure and hence culture in a way that enhances meaning and significance for students, teachers and the entire university’s community”(Sergiovanni, 2000:28). Leadership, as exercised by the principal, must be seen as an educative rather than as a management process. The principal must be a strong, caring person because the principal of the university is the one person most responsible for the climate and culture of the university and for the outcomes of productivity and satisfaction attained by students and staff.

4.5.8 Family and Community

Accomplished teachers support and promote the involvement of families in their sons and daughter’s education because the teacher must consider all the variables that might affect the student. They help varied communities understand the role of the university in today’s classroom.

Accomplished teachers collaborate with peers and other education professionals to strengthen their university's program, advance knowledge, and contribute to improving practice within the field. They value individual learning differences, student attitudes and aspirations, and community expectations and values and their effect on student learning.

4.5.9 Lifelong Learning

One very important implication that arose is that students need to be guided into becoming lifelong students. Several of the students indicated that they believe that a balanced education where they are encouraged to think is important. They also believed that their education should offer them more opportunities to think and function in a more effective way. They see most of their classes as dull and uninteresting. These students did believe that a balanced education and character building skills were the perceived benefits of the educational program that enhance lifelong learning.

The current study indicates crucial factors in the development of lifelong learning to be critical thinkers, self-confidence, creativity, a sense of valuing of students and a love of learning. By focusing on listening, speaking, reading and writing effectively students will be more effective communicators. If students are allowed to explain their thought processes in arriving at outcomes and by applying problem solving and decision-making skills to real life situations, they will be more informed thinkers. Students must be taught to assess and reflect on their attitudes, skills and behaviors, to set priorities, plan and take action to accomplish goals.

They need to be taught to manage time and resources efficiently, by applying what they learn to real life situations, and they should explore and

prepare for academic, extracurricular and career opportunities. In completing these goals they will become self – directed students. If they can learn to recognize diverse ethnic, linguistic, cultural and economic backgrounds, to recognizing the rules and processes that govern societies, by demonstrating and exercising the skills required to be a contributing member of a society, and by applying practices that preserve the safety and health of one's self, others and the environment, they will be more responsible members of society.

Ultimately, change does not come easily in any institution and the school is no exception. It is often very difficult to change practices both in the classroom and the school. For change to have meaning and effect it must change not only the way things look but also the way things work. Sometimes efforts to change are directed toward doing the same things better, but that is not true change. True change is that which alters basic issues of schooling such as goals, values, believe, working arrangements and the distribution of power and authority.

4.6 Recommendations

Based on the results, pedagogical implications, and conclusions arrived at in this study, the following recommendations are put forward:

- 1- The Ministry of Higher Education could utilize the results of the present study by cooperating with the Ministry of Education to set up a course or practicum pertaining to the theme of the hidden curriculum, at the Teacher Training Institutes .Under and post graduates need to receive proper knowledge of the concept of hidden curriculum and

the significance of its negative and positive impacts on the teaching / learning process.

- 2- The Ministry of Higher Education can benefit from this study to overcome transmitting negative messages of hidden curriculum by conducting workshops for all teachers throughout the universities. Workshops should focus on applying the hidden curriculum theme as a main theme in at least one of the curriculum and instruction courses to provide teachers with full knowledge about the concept of hidden curriculum.
- 3- Effective channels of constructive communication between the Ministry of Higher Education, the students, and the society are a prerequisite here to ensure that foreign language education contributes to an efficient and smooth transition to a more economically, socially, culturally and scientifically, dynamic, demanding and challenging world through embracing students into a broad program and as a regular on- campus course.
- 4- Curriculum designers, educators, teachers , administrators , and university faculty should put in consideration the factors which impair applying the concept of hidden curriculum. Time has changed and so have the purposes and methods underlying teaching and learning hidden curriculum through adopting values, ethics, norms, which have evolved in accordance with the current speedy academic, economic, political and social , cultural changes and demands on the world arena.
- 5- Departments of education should be providing mandatory gender-equity resource modules to in-service teachers, and gender bias needs

to be addressed with all pre-service teachers through socialization messages, inequitable division of special education services, sexist texts and materials, and unbalanced time and types of attention spent on males and females in the classroom.

- 6- Educators and teachers must be able to compete in a technological world, that there is a hidden agenda of shifting technological experiences for each student because of the varied qualities of mass telecommunication. On the other hand, technology enhances students' motivation and learning through participation and making connections to the real world.
- 7- Educators need to be more aware and manifest the symbolic aspect of university environment (i.e. its, culture), as well as , adolescents' and teachers' perceptions (i.e., university climate). Greater understanding of hidden curriculum will help them to achieve the goal of providing effective universities in the current century.
- 8- Curriculum stockholders, leaders and designers need to be more aware and manifest humanistic approaches in textbooks in terms of to which extent that university teacher achieve the affective, psychomotor, and behavioural objectives.

4.7 Suggestions for Further Studies

In connection with this work, a number of studies can be suggested;

- 1- A study using the same procedures can be conducted towards the EFL Iraqi college students awareness of hidden curriculum.
- 2- A study is suggested to find whether there are statistically significant differences between male and female students at college level in gender biased at higher education in the hidden curriculum conceptions.
- 3- A study can be conducted to analyze the prescribed textbooks of the English language department and for certain grade to see to what extent these textbooks imply a hidden curriculum.
- 4- A study using the same procedures can be conducted on EFL college students to investigate students' perspectives on the extent to which educational technologies transmit negative or positive messages to their performance.
- 5- A study using the same procedures can be conducted in preparatory schools to investigate students' perspectives on the extent to which the EFL teachers transmit negative or positive messages to their students about English language target culture.
- 6- A study can be conducted analyzing the prescribed textbooks of EFL at preparatory schools for certain grade to see to what extent these textbooks imply a hidden curriculum conception.
- 7- A study is proposed to find the progress achieved after applying a programme or certain procedures to enhance hidden curriculum use.
- 8- A study can be conducted to describe and analyze the student and faculty experiences of a "performance-based" pre-service teacher education program.

9- A comparison can be conducted to investigate adults and adolescents students' perspectives on the extent to which the EFL teachers transmit negative or positive messages to their students about English target culture by applying a hidden curriculum.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Types of Values

Physical Values	Interpersonal Values	Psychological Values
Accuracy	All for one & one for all	Adventurousness
Beauty	Concern for others	Commitment
Cleanliness	Equality	Creativity
Content over form	Collaboration	Decisiveness
Continuous improvement	Cooperation	Determination
Discipline	Coordination	Equanimity
Efficiency	Community	Faith
Endurance	Fairness	Goodwill
Excellence	Freedom	Goodness
Hard work	Harmony	Gratitude
Maximum utilization (of time , resources)	Honesty	Integrity
Orderliness	Loyalty	Knowledge
Perfection in details	Pleasing others	Love
Punctuality	Respect for others	Openness
Quality of work	Self-giving	Perseverance
Regularity	Service to others	Personal Growth
Safety	Teamwork	Resourcefulness
Speed	Tolerance	Self-reliance
Systemization	Trust	Self-respect
		Truth

Appendix

No.	Items
72	The fact that university education is the recognition, worth and integrity of all involved in the life and work of the school, and is central to the creation of a value-based learning community that fosters positive relationships and quality in education.
71	The fact that there is no university education without values.
70	The fact that university education is the capacity to exercise judgment and responsibility in matters of morality, ethics and social justice, and the capacity to make sense of learners' world.
69	The fact that real university education is about the whole and integrated person – the learner as a learner of knowledge, skills, understandings, attributes, dispositions, and the development of an autonomous, well-defined self.

Professional Values

No.	Items
68	Being involved in enhancing strategies for ensuring equitable use of education technology for all students.
67	Being involved in studying or appreciating the beauty of works , ideas , and things.
66	Being creative in expressing thoughts and feelings and novel in creating new ideas, programs, organizational structures or anything else and not following a format previously developed by others.
65	Accepting critical judgments of students in terms of success and achievements.
64	Having the ability to use one's knowledge effectively and readily in the execution of performance.
63	Being free of overwhelming anxieties and barriers to Well-Being effective functioning; peace of mind; inner security and self respect.

Teachers Values

No.	Items
62	Being accurate in expressing opinions and beliefs.
61	Sharing innermost experiences with others which is essential.
60	Developing students' curiosity towards learning.
59	Fostering a climate of mutual trust ,encouraging the free exchange of ideas, and enabling all to reach their highest potential.

58	Promoting the quest of truth and knowledge by requiring intellectual and personal honesty in learning ,teaching, and service.
57	Having self-esteem and self-acceptance through feeling good about oneself as he/she is .
56	Having purpose , meaning and direction in the learning and teaching process.

Learning Values

No.	Items
55	Developing students' awareness towards the values of learning as a priority task for them.
54	Developing students' awareness towards using a variety of technologies to support their work in an authentic task.
53	Encouraging students to be innovative through effective learning environment.
52	Promoting concrete reinforcement to support positive learning environment.
51	The effect of technologies in creating the learning environment .
50	Motivating learners abilities through available learning opportunities and styles.
49	Improving students' learning can be achieved through an awareness of their own learning styles and learning strategies.

College Culture Values

No.	Items
48	The importance of having awareness of cultural values such as traditions , languages, customs and social or cultural communities .
47	Recognizing how people in a given culture typically behave in common, everyday situations.
46	The idea that effective communication requires discovering the culturally conditioned images that are evoked in the minds of students when they think, act, and react to the world around them.
45	Student knowledge of how people in the target culture act in common mundane and crisis situations.
44	Situational variables and conventions which shape behavior in important ways.
43	Cultural anthropology supplies in determining the cultural content of the context.
41	Developing informed and active learners with a strong sense of self-confidence who can explore questions-seeking solutions and make informal decisions.
42	The idea that EFL teachers with cross-cultural experiences will have more authentic knowledge to share with their students, making their teaching more effective and interesting.

Classroom Culture Values

No.	Items
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40	The necessity of students' awareness of cultural disparity.
39	Developing the communication skills through learning the target culture in classroom.
38	Developing intercultural and international understanding is important.
37	Promoting students` distinction between the cultural norms, beliefs, or habits of target culture.
36	Developing an awareness of socio-cultural and sociolinguistic differences between L1and TL.
35	Introducing culture-specific elements in the classroom teaching to raise interest from students' interests.
34	Creating a learning atmosphere for students about the target culture rather than giving them knowledge.
33	The idea that teaching with cross-culture awareness can nurture the students' minds for critical thinking and hearts for global awareness.
32	The idea that cultural knowledge pays facilitates in teaching and learning new lexical items.
31	Using home-language culture, such as culturally reading materials, and topics.
30	Using home-language (informal language) and target language culture in class to figure out the differences or common thread between them.
29	Exposing target language sarcasm, idioms, jokes, and metaphors involved with target language in classroom.
28	Being sensitive towards student's fragility in target culture in order not to lose their motivation.
27	Enhancing teachers and students' awareness of target cultural to improve communicative competence.
26	Empowering students to be more critical , self and cultural analysts.

Educational Ethics

No.	Items
25	Promoting the principles of equal opportunity in teaching .
24	Providing equal educational inputs for equal future outputs.
23	Appreciating what is ethical and striving to achieve it by students .
22	Advancing the interests of the teaching profession to the personal interest through responsible ethical practice which develops the process of learning.
21	Engaging students in continuous professional (after graduation) development.

College Ethics

No.	Items
20	Addressing issues of values contribute to obtaining an estimate of others is a fact.
19	Developing academic ethics contents in terms technology educations programs and patent.
18	A conviction that values by themselves are virtues.
17	Establishing and motivating trust , fairness, and respect by colleges that sets clear and consistent academic standards.

16	Developing ethical behavior through training programs, lectures, etc.
15	Necessity of promoting innovation and excellence on students' part.
14	Intensifying the advantages of ethics and values in society.

Teacher Ethics

No.	Items
13	Directing students' sources of knowledge , information sources and references support the study of the students involved with.
12	Directing teacher's professional effort to assist the student to develop his/her whole personality including the ability to work.
11	Recognizing students' individual differences.
10	Recognizing an obligation to assist all students under teacher's charge to develop talents suitably and to the fullest extent feasible.
9	Promoting additional efforts to incorporate awareness of ethics and values into daily classroom activities.
8	Empowering students' self-confidence.
7	Transferring responsibility to students is one way of reconstructing the ethics climate of classroom is a fact.
6	Avoiding restrictions involved with excluding students from participation in program, such as sex, race, political tendencies, and religious beliefs.
5	Disregarding symbolic violence towards target language.

Classroom Social Norms

No.	Items
4	Acquiring social norms .
3	Adjusting students' conduct according to social norms involved with common proverbs ,wisdoms and sayings.
2	Planning social activities with peers is important.
1	Infecting students' behaviors in classroom interaction through exposing to propaganda.

40	Promoting students' social perspectives in writing social assignments or describing familiar social situations.			
41	Fostering effort and productivity of students by			

	creating positive reinforcement and classroom environment.			
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Observed Items

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Appendix 9

Analytical scale for rating composition tasks (Brown & Bailey, 1984 : 39-41)

Categories	20-18 Excellent to Good	17-15 Good to Adequate	14-12 Adequate to Fair	11 - 6 Unacceptable	5-1 Not – College Level-Work
<p>Organization: Introduction, Body, and Conclusion</p>	<p>Appropriate title, effective introductory paragraph, topic is stated, leads to body; transitional expressions used; arrangement of material shows plan (could be outlined by reader); supporting evidence given for generalizations; conclusion logical and complete</p>	<p>Adequate title, Introduction, and conclusion ; body of essay is acceptable, but some evidence may be lacking some ideas aren't fully developed; sequence is logical but transitional expressions may be absent or misused</p>	<p>Mediocre or scant introduction or conclusion; problems with the order of ideas in body; the generalization may be fully supported by the evidence given; problems of organization interfere</p>	<p>Shaky or minimally recognizable introduction can barely be seen; severe problems with ordering of idea; lack of supporting evidence; conclusion weak or illogical; inadequate effort at organization</p>	<p>Absence of introduction or conclusion; no apparent organization of body; severe lack of supporting evidence; writer has not made any effort to organize the composition (could not be outlined by reader)</p>
<p>Logical development of idea: Content</p>	<p>Essay addresses the assigned topic; the ideas are concrete and thoroughly developed; no extraneous material; essay reflects thought</p>	<p>Essay addressed the issues but misses some points; ideas could be more fully developed; some extraneous material is present</p>	<p>Development of ideas no complete or essay is somewhat off the topic; paragraphs aren't divided exactly right</p>	<p>Ideas incomplete; essay does not reflect careful thinking or was hurriedly written; inadequate effort in area of content</p>	<p>Essay is completely inadequate and does not reflect college-level work; no apparent effort to consider the topic carefully</p>

	<p>Native-like fluency in English grammar; correct use of relative clauses; prepositions, modals, articles, verb forms , and tense sequencing; no fragments or run-on sentences</p>	<p>Advanced proficiency in English grammar; some problems don't influence communication, although the reader is aware of them; no fragments or run-on sentences</p>	<p>Ideas are getting through to the reader, but grammar problems are apparent and have a negative effect on communication; run-on sentences or fragments present</p>	<p>Numerous serious grammar problems interfere with communication of the writer's ideas; grammar review of some areas clearly needed; difficult to read sentences</p>	<p>Sever grammar problems interfere greatly with the message; reader can't understand what the writer was trying to say; unintelligible sentences structure</p>
<p>Punctuation, spelling, and mechanics</p>	<p>Correct use of English writing conventions: left and right margins all needed capitals, paragraphs indented, punctuation and spelling; very neat</p>	<p>Some problems with writing conventions or punctuations; occasional spelling errors; left margin correct; paper is neat and legible</p>	<p>Uses general writing conventions but has errors; spelling problems distract reader; punctuation errors interfere with ideas</p>	<p>Serious problems with format of paper; parts of essay not legible; errors in sentence punctuation and final punctuation; unacceptable to educate readers</p>	<p>Complete disregard for English writing conventions; paper illegible; obvious capitals missing, no margins, severe spelling problems</p>
<p>Style and quality of expression</p>	<p>Precise vocabulary usage; use of parallel structures; concise; register good</p>	<p>Attempts variety ; good vocabulary; not wordy; register OK; style fairly concise</p>	<p>Some vocabulary misused; lacks awareness of register; may be too wordy</p>	<p>Poor expression of ideas; problems in vocabulary; lacks variety of structure</p>	<p>Inappropriate use of vocabulary; no concept of register or sentences variety</p>

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