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# Fostering the Concept of Autonomy in School-aged Children

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Senior Capstone Binder  
Submitted to  
Professor Paoze Thao  
Liberal Studies Department  
College of Education  
In Partial Fulfillment for  
LS 400: Liberal Studies Senior Capstone

By

Michelle Newcombe

## LS 400 Liberal Studies Senior Capstone

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### **Abstract**

Studies show that autonomy in school-age children helps students in terms of academics and in becoming well-rounded members of the society (Bandura, 1993). This senior capstone explores how autonomy is taught successfully in Japanese schools, explains its structure, and how it can be facilitated. Through the use of literature review as well as surveys conducted with 12 Japanese exchange students and 15 Liberal Studies students, results were inconclusive and are premature to determine how the concept of autonomy is fostered in U.S school-aged children. However, the literature review found that in Japanese elementary schools, educators use the Self-Determination theory and Self-Efficacy theory to facilitate autonomy in school-aged children; whereas no findings were found in the U.S. elementary schools.

Dressing somebody is easier than letting them dress themselves. It takes less time. It's less aggravation. So unless supporting people's capabilities is made a priority, the staff ends up dressing people like they're rag dolls. Gradually, that's how everything begins to go. The tasks come to matter more than the people. (Gaawande, 2014, p.102).

### **Introduction**

One may associate self-autonomy with adulthood and maturity; however, it is arguably no inherent ability, but a learned skill. By facilitating autonomy in the classroom, students can benefit in taking both their education and personal lives into their own hands. The drive behind this research comes from the idea that supporting each student's capabilities has been lax in US classrooms. Education should play a role in student self-autonomy in order to support the full abilities each student because of the immense benefits self-autonomy provides. Psychology studies from Bandura (1993) and Reeve et al (2004), show that school-aged children benefit both academically and emotionally by learning to govern themselves. Autonomy can promote persistence, expand academic achievement, and increase retention as well as the depth of learning. It also encourages, "positive emotions in the classroom, greater enjoyment of academic work, and more satisfaction at school" (Guay, 2008, p.235). Students who are self-autonomous also achieve stronger engagement, significant constructive emotionality, higher conceptual learning, openness to challenges, improved retention, and greater academic success (Reeve et al, 2004).

It's the belief of this research that educators have a responsibility to teach self-autonomy because it is a skill and not an inherent capability. Fostering self-autonomy in school-aged children is a broad subject that is open for discussion in both definition and facilitation. The two concepts that will be reviewed regarding its fostering are Self-Efficacy theory and Self-Determination theory. Using the secondary questions in this paper, fostering autonomy in school-aged children will be analyzed as an educational concept and a used methodology. The research

used has two harmonious concepts as the primary subject which are the following: How do schools foster the concept of autonomy in school-aged children.

Self-Efficacy theory covers the concepts of mastery, competence, and confidence. This theory fits into the deterrents of self-autonomy and strategies that can be used to facilitate autonomy in school-aged children. By analyzing the three elements of SET, I was able to deduce that the lack or weakening of one or more lowers the levels of autonomy in children. This holds true for Self-Determination theory which covers concepts of competence as well as autonomy and relatedness. The key element comes down to the presence or absence of inner-motivation, as the source of drive and defines if the child was achieving an autonomy or not. SDT also led this research to a number of facilitation strategies for educators to incorporate into their classrooms and stands as the main resource to turn to. Lastly, Japan was chosen as the sole example of a nation-state successfully implementing autonomy in school-age children due to its strong relatedness to SDT and SET.

In the pursuit to seek the answer to my primary research question, four secondary questions were chosen to guide the main purpose of this research: What hinders school-aged children from becoming autonomous in the school system? How do other countries foster the concept of autonomy into their school system? What strategies can be used to facilitate autonomy in an American primary school classroom? Are there resources available for schools to teach the concept of autonomy for school-aged children? These queries will be answered in the following sections of this paper.

## **Literature Review**

Self-efficacy theory and self-determination theory addresses overlapping elements to the concept of fostering autonomy in school-aged children. Self-efficacy, for example, focuses on the ability of students to meet objectives through the use of mastery and confidence (Bandura, 1997). Self-determination, on the other hand, stresses how the inner-motivation of the student leads them to seek their basic needs (Reeve, 2005). This literature review will discuss the roles each theory plays in fostering self-autonomy Japanese school-aged children. Psychologist Albert Bandura is the pillar source on Self-Efficacy theory and the role it plays in self-autonomy. Educational Psychology Professor Johnmarshall Reeve is the main source for Self-Determination theory. Lastly, director of lesson study research – Catherine Lewis's observational research was the cornerstone for this paper's Japanese education review.

### **Self-Efficacy Theory**

The concept of self-efficacy has three elements: skill utilization, the conception of ability, and social comparison influences (Bandura, 1993). Skill utilization is the act of students forecasting and preparing for possible outcomes (Bandura, 1993). This means students can sort through different scenarios and consequently be ready for various results. In order to achieve this, students must be self-efficient in the sense that they “remain task orientated in the face of pressing situational demands and failures that have social repercussions” (Bandura, 1993, p.120). If they can handle these stressors and remain focused the first element has been achieved. Personal goal setting is a side-effect of self-efficacy and influences self-approration in student's abilities. For example, students with high levels of self-efficacy can form mental schemes of a successful outcome and probable scenarios to guide them. Those with low self -efficacy hold

self-doubt and are less likely to reach their goal (Bandura, 1993). The second element is the conception of ability.

Some students view ability in an inherent light; meaning there is a limitation to talent based on an individual's genetics. However, self-efficient children see ability as an improvable skill that practice and time can advance. Children with high self-efficacy are more likely to believe that ability is a skill to be learned and mastered, while children with low self-efficacy tend to see ability as congenital (Bandura, 1993). It is this belief in capabilities that determine whether a person has low or high self-efficacy.

Perception of one's efficacy capabilities combined with an environment that is has modifiability promote self-efficacy. This can be heavily affected by teacher feedback. Positive comparative feedback is when the student can view their progression of a skill, nurtures efficient rational, and progresses performance achievement (Bandura, 1993; Reeve, 2004 & Reeve, 2006). On the other side, negative feedback can inhibit students if they see others as bested by their classmates and have the opposite results. In short, by focusing on the negative shortcomings of the student instead of the positive growth, deters a student's SET.

### **Self-Determination Theory**

Self-determination theory is a means of fostering human motivation; specifically, students' self-motivational resources that help them develop healthy personalities and autonomous self-regulation (Bandura, 1993; Guay, 2008; Reeve, 2005; & Zimmerman 1990). Outside of the class, fostering the concept of autonomy helps prepare students to become well-rounded members of society (Rhodes, 1994). It prevents students from shying away from challenges and gives them strong commitment goals.



The theory of Self-Determination as explained by Reeve (2005), is a macro theory comprised of four micro-theories: Basic Needs theory, Cognitive Evolution theory, Organismic Integration theory, and Causality Orientations. Basic Needs theory comprises of psychological needs that allow students to gain self-motivation for learning and developing (Reeve, 2005).

The first need that must be met to satisfy this Basic Needs theory is Autonomy. This is the need for one's behavior to be sourced from one's self and not outside sources. Fostering autonomy in school-aged children depends on fostering the inner motivational resources of a student. The hindering force of this would be creating a controlling and forceful environment via external motivation. Secondly, is the need for competence; Students pursue challenges that match their developmental levels and "show interest in activities that test, inform, develop, stretch, extend, and help them diagnose their developing capacities, skills, and talents" (Reeve & Deci, 2004, p.34-35). This means that students are searching to understand their learning. Lastly, relatedness is needed to form strong connections with others and form interpersonal bonds while still retaining self-authenticity (Reeve et al, 2004; & Deci et al, 1972). This relates to SDT because these three needs allow students to become internally motivated and leads to the connected micro-theories: Cognitive Evaluation, Organismic Integration, and Causality Orientation.

The central hypothesis taken out of these micro theories is that "students who are regulated by autonomous motivations (i.e., intrinsic and identified) experience positive consequences at school. These consequences can take different forms (behavioral, cognitive, or affective)" (Guay et al, 2008, p. 234). All three of these theories are used to discuss the motivational aspect of Self-determination theory. Cognitive Evaluation theory relates back to autonomy and how external controlling conditions pressure students and decreases their self-

determination (Reeve et al, 2004 & Deci, 1972). Organismic Integration theorizes that external regulation processes can become internalized and thus become internally regulatory (Reeve et al, 2004). According to Organismic Integration, this is possible due to the different levels of extrinsic motivation seen in Figure 1 below.

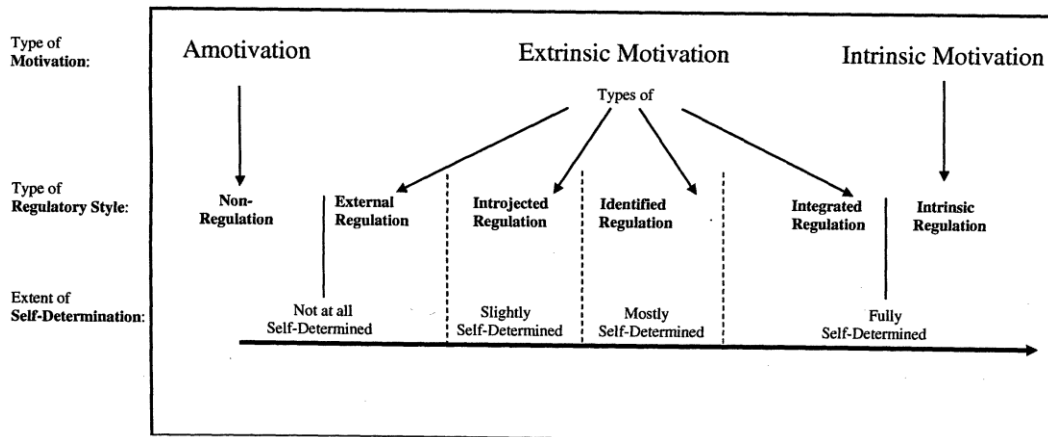


Figure 1. Reeve, J., Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2004). Self-determination theory: A dialectical framework for understanding sociocultural influences on student motivation. In D. M. McInerney & S. Van Etten (Eds.), *Big theories revisited: Research on sociocultural influences on motivation and learning* (pp. 31-60). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

As Figure 1 explains, some types of Extrinsic Motivation have some self-determination aspects that make them possible to become internalized. Introjected Regulation involves students being motivated by ego and retain self-control to avoid blame or stress (Ryan, & Deci, 2000).

Identified Regulation happens when the student recognizes the value of a set behavior and acts upon it to benefit themselves (Ryan, & Deci, 2000). Integrated Regulation is when motivation is sourced from the self via internalization and intrinsic motivation holds the same to be true in addition to interest and fulfillment (Ryan, & Deci, 2000). Two levels that hold no self-determined aspects are amotivation (the lack of motive) and external regulation (when students participate only to receive some type of reward or recognition).

Causality Orientations theory discusses how various motivational orientations cause certain behavior. These mirrors "the extent of self-determination in the [individual's] personality" (Reeve, 2004a, p.30). Thus, students who are highly autonomous in their personality, tend to be self-motivated and those less autonomous are motivated more by outside guides. Despite individual personalities, Organismic theory allows for inner-motivation to be learned at different levels.

### **Strategies for Facilitating Self-Autonomy**

In the previous section, the theories that form this model were discussed. This segment will break down tactics of fostering self-Autonomy in school-aged children by SDT. Reeve (et al, 2004) presents that the key to facilitating comes down to structure and autonomy support from the educator. Structure comes down to creating a thorough path of learning: a beginning, middle, and end. Pre-Lesson Plans create the basis for student expectations; Positive guidance in the form of encouragement and suggestions motivate momentum in learning; Positive Feedback of strengths and weaknesses, and rewards end the systematic lesson plan (Reeve, 2005 & Reeve, 2006). This way students can reflect, problem solve, and self-motivate.

Another strategy for promoting STD is educator promotion of Autonomy. Fostering self-autonomy is a vast subject but can be simplified into four focal points.

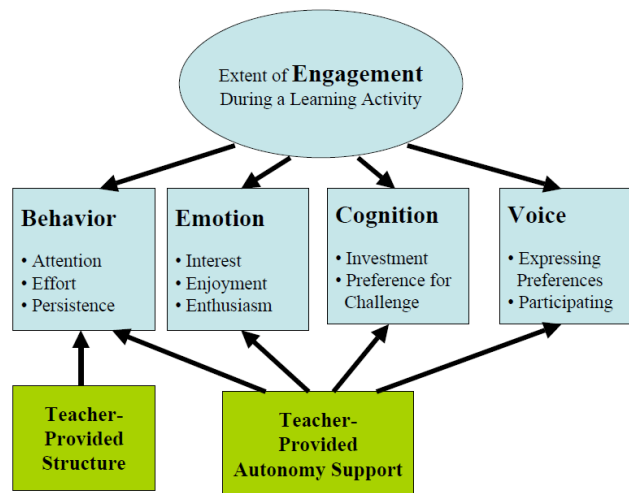


Figure 2. Reeve, J. (2004). How teachers can promote student autonomy during instruction: lessons from a decade of research. *Power Point: Iowa Educational Research and Evaluation.*

To create structure, behavior must be addressed to ensure students are capable of being focused, working hard, and not easily giving up. To allow engagement, emotion, cognition, and voice must be fostered (Reeve et al, 2004). Educators must create an environment of positivity that promotes engagement and curiosity. On a cognitive level, teachers need to help students find their value in their studies and enjoyment in difficult tasks. Various evaluation strategies can be used for this such as elaborating, summarizing, and rehearsing (Reeve et al, 2004). Lastly, voice allows students to be involved by speaking their opinions, preferences, and inquiries.

The environmental conditions of a class are another important aspect to consider. As discussed in the previous section of this paper, a controlling environment inhibits the support of autonomy. Thus, in order to maintain a classroom with an autonomy-supportive atmosphere, it is imperative to have support for self-motivation. Educators can foster this by using noncontrolling language, explaining value and rationality in learning, and recognize children's

complaints and frustrations (Reeve et al, 2006). All these strategies allow educators to create strong relationships with their students and promote both engagement and motivation.

### **Whole-Child Teaching: The Japanese Elementary School System**

The Japanese primary school system will be reviewed to see how fostering autonomy in school-aged children can be achieved successfully outside of theory. Lewis defines autonomy as observed in Japanese primary schools, as "the need to be the origin of one's actions" (Lewis, 1989, p.108). Elementary School Teachers have a class size of about 30-40 students. The objective of the teacher is insuring each student is academically learned and well-rounded as an individual to become prepared for entering society (Rhodes, 1994). Self-Autonomy comes into play in both Japanese academic-learning, but whole-child fostering as well.

As an example, autonomy is visibly embodied in Japanese classroom's yearly objectives. In an observational study of 19 first grade classrooms, Lewis discovered five consistent self-regulating goals. These included self-responsibility, personal hygiene, and neatness, time-management, self-perseverance, and take initiative in learning (Lewis,1995). Another example that can be observed is how each student gets a turn being a leader (Lewis, 1989). This means that even students who are less likely to take charge get a chance to take initiative in small groups. In addition, teachers allow students to choose their own small groups and these groups manage themselves (Lewis, 1989).

One observation Lewis (1998) made in this design was that despite educators evading controlling management of the class, children sought rules and responsibilities of their own volition. After a few weeks of school, students decided that rules should be made to solve certain issues that they faced. These observations lead to a consistent pattern of circumstances

were Japanese student's showed autonomy in their "commitment to classroom rules: regular opportunities to lead the class; involvement in shaping class rules and decisions; and teacher's low profile as authorities" (Lewis, 1998, p.120). In academics, Japanese teacher's foster autonomy by guiding students to govern their studies at home and in the classroom. For example, when a teacher is sick, no substitute is called to take their place. Instead, students take charge and self-study or are led by 'student monitors' (Lewis, 1994). Autonomy can also be observed in posted classroom goals. These observational patterns relate to the concept of whole-child teaching.

In whole-child teaching Cognitive Evaluation, Organismic Integration, and Causality Orientation is observable. Side by side with Reeve's research, Lewis's (1989 & 1995) argues that Japanese education practices self-motivation and is thwarted by external pressure. Techniques often used to embody this include, "Minimizing the Impression of Teacher Control", "Encouraging Self-Management by Children", "Small Groups", and "Attributing Children's Behavior to Benign Causes" (Lewis, 1989, p.141-142). As controls and pressures hinder Autonomy, Teachers use the ideology: "shizen ni (naturally) and muri naku (without force, voluntarily, naturally)" (Lewis, 1989, p.108). In this way, teachers' keep a low profile as directors and give students responsibility for their own learning. All these strategies mirror SDT's key points on engagement and behavior and SRT's skill utilization, the conception of ability, and social comparison influences.

Japanese primary schools teach towards the whole-child and self-autonomy in a culturally normative manner that may clash with American social norms.

In fact, the very definition of teaching encompasses not only responsibility for the transmission of explicit knowledge, but also counseling, guidance, and discipline-tasks which in the United States

are either viewed as parental or beyond the scope of teachers who are not counseling specialist (Fukuzawa, 1994, p.62).

Fukuzawa (1994) argues that it is because of this separation of parental and teacher responsibilities that whole-child teaching is not seen in American Public schools. This cultural difference may be related to the inability to find American schools who foster the concept of autonomy. The lack of it's fostering may also contribute to the large chunk of time devoted to noncurricular lessons, cultural exclusion of parents from the classroom, and norm of teacher's not being the main control agent (Lewis, 1995). In addition, parents support the school's push for autonomy. Pomerantz, Grolnick & Price (2005) argue that a well-structured fostering of self-determination is needed for its success which in this research's findings, contributes to both parental and teacher social agents support. An example of this would be parents enforcing autonomy supported school rules of going to school alone from first grade and up. American parents may feel uncomfortable with children using public transportation or walking long distances alone to school. Culturally, American parents may find it unsafe for young children to be on the streets alone. Another example can be seen in how Japanese parents give their six-year and younger kids few controls because they enforce instead the learning of relating to others (Stevenson, 1994). This supports the Basic Needs theory. However, on a sociocultural level, American parents may want to play a solo role in teaching their children self-autonomy or have parental styles that obstruct it all together. There are several possible reasons that this model of fostering self-autonomy is not found in the United States.

### **Methods and Procedures**

Literature review and survey were the main methods of this research. The literature review focused on two main theories: self-efficacy theory (SET) and self-determination theory (SDT) and how these theories were applied in the fostering of Self-Autonomy in Japanese

school-aged children. To find data on if autonomy-supportive strategies were used in American and Japanese primary schools, a survey was designed towards Japanese exchange students and liberal studies majors.

The survey was designed to gather data on if American schools use select strategies to foster autonomy in school-age children. These strategies were taken from the Japanese primary school model inspired by the observations of Lewis (1989). To prove the questions were effective, both Japanese exchange students and American students were surveyed. Results from Surveying 12 Japanese Exchange students Vs. 15 American CSUMB students has unreliable results; Due to this, literature review played the sole role of methods.

In the pursuit to answer my secondary questions, I chose SDT and SET as my main subjects because they clearly addressed self-autonomy in the classroom. They provided a means for strategy and resources for educators and at the same time served as a guideline to compare to Japanese education. Japan, in particular, was chosen as the sole example of these theories at work because of my familiarity with the Japanese school system.

## **Results and Discussion**

*What hinders school-aged children from becoming autonomous in the school system?* A main deterrent of SET was self-doubt as it hinders students from taking the necessary steps to reach their objective (Bandura, 1993). Viewing one's aptitude as hereditary causes students to doubt themselves and hold them back from becoming highly autonomous (Bandura, 1993). On the educator's side, "High-lighting deficiencies undermines self-regulative influences" (Bandura, 1993, p.125) and high-lighting progress promotes self-efficacy (Bandura, 1993). SDT had hindering factors as well.



Motivation holds a key element in SDT and is hindered by force of this would be creating a governing and controlling setting. Immobility of the self in the form of strictness and external motivation was shown to hinder students from achieving autonomy. In fact, it could be speculated that traditional American public schools “result in the perception of an external locus of causality, produce pressure, and result in force-fed, poorly integrated and maintained learning. (Grolnick, 1987). External circumstances specifically decrease the self-determination of a student by pressuring them into certain behaviors (Reeve et al, 2004 & Deci, 1972). While external-motivation is capable of teaching internal-motivation on high levels of self-determination, the two lower levels completely prevent internalization. These levels are Amotivation and External Motivation. They fail to foster self-motivation because amotivation holds no purpose and external regulation is strictly prize based.

*How do other countries foster the concept of autonomy into their school system?*

Japanese schools follow self-efficacy in supporting the three key elements. Skill utilization is seen in the individual students and small groups preparing for various outcomes as posted in classroom objectives (Lewis, 1995). The conception of ability in Japanese education is more of a cultural norm as hard work is encouraged to achieve. Lastly, social comparison influences are given to in the form of positive comparative feedback in small groups (Lewis, 1995).

Japanese elementary schools foster the concept of Autonomy according to self-determination theory by removing the obstacle of external pressures in the overall environment and motivation of the classroom. In the category of Cognitive evaluation theory, teachers play a small role as an agent of control and allow students to make their own small groups in which they play equal roles as leaders in their learning (Lewis, 1995). However, this research theorizes that according to organismic integration theory, identified regulation is used in order to teach

value and importance of learning (Lewis, 1998; Reeve et al, 2004). In addition, whole-child teaching in the form of classroom yearly objectives that hold a generalized theme of self-regulation as well as the building of a future member of society embodies SDT.

*What strategies can be used to facilitate autonomy in an American primary school classroom?* Educators can use Reeve (2005) as a model for fostering autonomy in the classroom. The extent of engagement is one strategy found to enhance autonomy in the classroom. To achieve learner engagement the teacher must provide structure via behavior and support autonomy of the students by addressing their emotion, cognition, and voice (Reeve, 2005). Examples of this would be fostering an inner-motivational style of teaching such as rationalization, non-controlling language, and thinking in the students' points-of-view (Reeve, 2005).

The result of engagement in the classroom provides four important things to learning. Engagement allows learning, forecasts school functioning, is flexible and gives the educator feedback (Reeve, 2005). "The development of skills is practically impossible without attention, effort, persistence, positive emotion, commitment, and voice" (Reeve, 2005, p.15). Engagement is also a predictor of students' success and completion school (Reeve, 2005). Due to the flexibility of student engagement, interventions can be made to improve student-to-teacher engagement (Reeve, 2005). Finally, the well-structuring of engagement provides educators with the means to obtain feedback on students' motivation and efforts (Reeve, 2005).

*Are there resources available for schools to teach the concept of autonomy for school-aged children?* As per my research findings, several resources were discovered to assist schools in adopting the concept of self-autonomy. The main resources that were found to support

structure and strategy come from Psychologist Albert Bandura and Educational Psychology Professor Johnmarshall Reeve.

Bandura (1993)'s "Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning", is one of many of Albert Bandura's articles that can guide educators into understanding the role Self-Efficacy plays in fostering autonomy. This article focuses on student behavior, cognitive processes and the three elements of SET that must be met in order to properly foster self-efficacy. In addition, there are resources from Johnmarshall Reeve.

Reeve and Halusic (2009)'s "How K-12 teachers can put self-determination theory principles into practice", is a great article for educators who are unfamiliar with SDT. This article sets up specific steps in teaching a lesson that underlines self-autonomy in the students without overwhelming the reader with the details of SDT. Educators who are considering adopting self-autonomy into their classrooms can use these simple steps in facilitating lesson plans and determine if self-autonomy is worthwhile to foster in day-to-day instructions.

## **Discussion**

Despite SET and SDT being created by American theorists, I was unable to find research on either theory being used in American schools. However, outside nation-states such as Japan, Korea, and Finland were found to have adopted self-autonomy into their classrooms via these two main theories. I found it puzzling that the country that developed the concept of autonomy in school-age children did not facilitate it. Maybe this could be because of the stagnant design of the American Public-school system. After all, since its structuralizing in the industrial era, we have not seen a dramatic change. The classrooms are still designed to mirror the factory. We see this in the lecture environment that makes engagement difficult; with teachers acting as a strong control agent who relies on extrinsic motivations and in feedback that highlights the

students' failures. I would argue that not only does this old school-model not foster the concept of autonomy but obstruct it as well.

### **Limitations**

Limitations I faced were survey design flaws and time restraints. Results from Surveying 12 Japanese Exchange students Vs. 15 American CSUMB students has unreliable results because of the small population and possible mistranslation of the questions themselves. If I could do it again, I would use Reeve's suggested survey questions in place of Lewis's because they better fit the purpose of this paper in addressing the main concepts of SDT. Next, I would translate the questions into Japanese to account for mistranslation. In addition, I would like to see a larger poll of surveys from both CSUMB students and Japanese Exchange students. Due to my strict time restrictions, I will not recommend this survey being used or recreated as an analysis and will instead use the findings of other professionals in their fields. Appendix 1 and Appendix 2 hold the results of this inconclusive survey.

Time restraints made the further research into if American schools use some aspects of SDT or SET to foster autonomy absent from these findings. It also made the inclusion of Self-Regulation Theory impossible to include. In addition, time restrictions narrowed the study of autonomy being fostered in other nation-states to solely Japanese primary schools.

### **Recommendations**

It is recommended that continued research be conducted on American schools that may foster autonomy; the relationship Self-Regulation plays in fostering autonomy in school-age children; and an analysis on how Scandinavian countries and other Asian-nation states may foster the concept of autonomy in school-age children. Lastly, it is the recommendation of this

paper as a whole, for American primary schools to recognize the importance of autonomy and to use Johnmarshall Reeves's research as a model for its facilitation.

### **Conclusion**

This research asked the primary question: *How do schools foster the concept of autonomy in school-aged children?* Autonomy is fostered through the use of Self-efficacy and Self-determination theory. Self-efficacy prepares students for various outcomes, teaches that ability is an improvable skill and provides positive comparative feedback on students' progress. Self-determination fosters autonomy for one's individual behavior, promotes inner-motivation, and forms interpersonal bonds while remaining self-authentic.

Japanese primary schools exhibit key points of both theories and thus have been found to successfully foster autonomy in school-aged children. Japan serves as a representative example of how these theories can successfully be implemented. Despite its American roots, no findings were made on American primary schools who may facilitate this methodology. It is the desire of this research paper, that educators take the fostering of autonomy into their own hands and use these practices to enhance their students' academic achievement and allow them to develop into well-rounded individuals.

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**Appendix A**

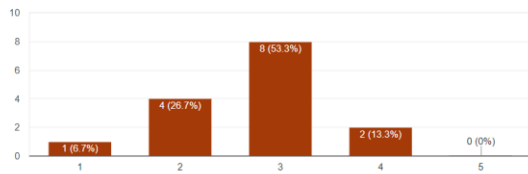
Results from Liberal Studies Majors at CSUMB – Online Survey

1) My primary education taught me self-regulation (self-motivation that leads to self-learning).	2) My primary education taught me academic skills that made me feel more independent in my education. (such as taking on difficult new tasks alone).	3) My primary education taught me non-academic skills that made me feel more well-rounded and prepared towards my adult years.	4) My primary teachers encouraged self-management.	5) My primary teachers encouraged small groups.	6) My primary teachers minimized the idea of teacher control in the classroom - "keep a low profile as control agents (Lewis, 1989).	7) My primary teachers thought that "when children engaged in undesirable behavior, it was because they did not 'understand' what was appropriate or had 'forgotten' the rules" (Lewis, 1989).	8) I feel that my primary school socialized and prepared me further for when I entered society as an adult.	9) What type of Primary School Did You Attend?		
3	2	4	3	5	2	4	3	Traditional public school		
3	3	3	2	1	1	2	1	Traditional public school		
3	3	3	2	4	3	4	2	Charter school		
3	4	3	4	4	1	1	4	Traditional public school		
3	4	4	4	4	3	2	4	Traditional public school		
3	3	1	2	1	1	4	4	Traditional public school		
4	4	2	2	2	2	4	4	Traditional public school		
4	4	4	4	5	2	3	4	Traditional public school		
1	2	2	3	1	1	1	3	Traditional public school		
3	4	4	5	2	2	2	2	Traditional public school		
2	2	4	2	3	2	2	4	Traditional public school		
2	4	1	3	3	1	1	1	Religious school		
3	3	1	2	3	1	3	3	Traditional public school		
2	3	1	3	4	2	4	1			
2	3	2	3	1	1	1	1	Traditional public school		



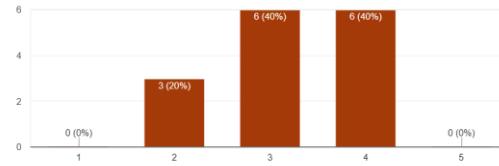
My primary education taught me self-regulation (self-motivation that leads to self-learning).

15 responses



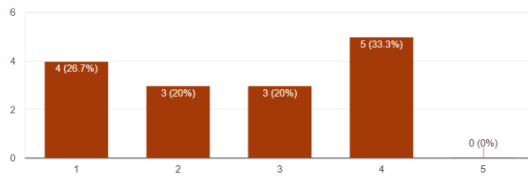
My primary education taught me academic skills that made me feel more independent in my education. (such as taking on difficult new tasks alone).

15 responses



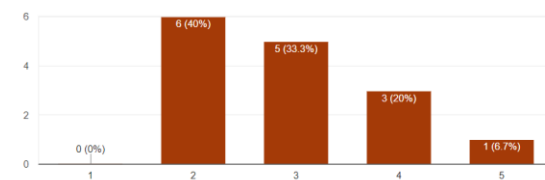
My primary education taught me non-academic skills that made me feel more well-rounded and prepared towards my adult years.

15 responses



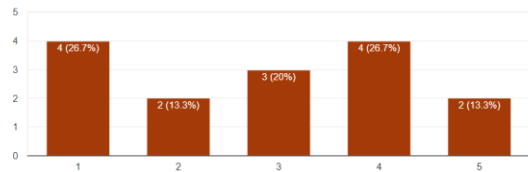
My primary teachers encouraged self-management.

15 responses



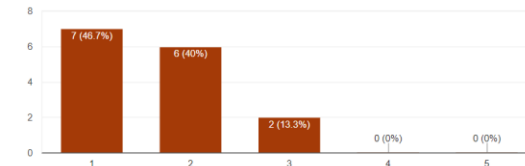
My primary teachers encouraged small groups.

15 responses



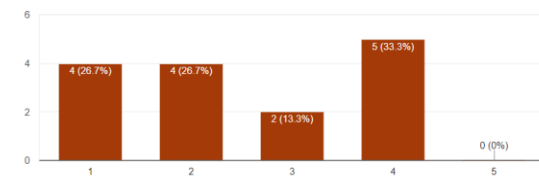
My primary teachers minimized the idea of teacher control in the classroom - "keep a low profile as control agents (Lewis, 1989).

15 responses



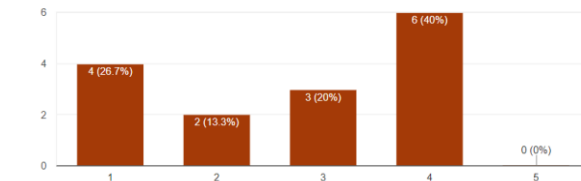
My primary teachers thought that "when children engaged in undesirable behavior, it was because they did not 'understand' what was appropriate or had 'forgotten' the rules" (Lewis, 1989).

15 responses



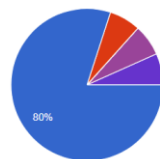
I feel that my primary school socialized and prepared me further for when I entered society as an adult.

15 responses



What type of Primary School Did You Attend?

15 responses



- Traditional public school
- Charter school
- Magnet school
- Virtual or Online school
- Traditional private school
- Boarding school
- Language immersion school
- Montessori school

- Private special education school
- Parochial school
- Religious school
- Reggio Emilia school
- Waldorf school
- Traditional Public school, then Religious Private school

▲ 1/2 ▼

**Appendix B**

Results from Japanese Exchange Students at CSUMB – In person Survey

1) My primary education taught me self-regulation (self-motivation that leads to self-learning).	2) My primary education taught me academic skills that made me feel more independent in my education. (such as taking on difficult new tasks alone).	3) My primary education taught me non-academic skills that made me feel more well-rounded and prepared towards my adult years.	4) My primary teachers encouraged self-management.	5) My primary teachers encouraged small groups.	6) My primary teachers minimized the idea of teacher control in the classroom - "keep a low profile as control agents (Lewis, 1989).	7) My primary teachers thought that "when children engaged in undesirable behavior, it was because they did not 'understand' what was appropriate or had 'forgotten' the rules" (Lewis, 1989).	8) I feel that my primary school socialized and prepared me further for when I entered society as an adult.	9) What type of Primary School Did You Attend?			
4	4	3	3	4	2	2	4	Traditional public school			
4	4	2	4	2	4	4	4	Traditional public school			
3	4	3	2	3	5	3	1	Traditional public school			
2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	Traditional public school			
3	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	Traditional public school			
4	5	3	3	5	2	2	1	Boarding school			
2	2	2	2	1	3	2	1	Traditional private school			
5	2	3	4	3	2	1	5	Traditional private school			
2	2	2	1	2	3	4	3	Traditional public school			
4	4	5	4	3	5	4	5	Magnet school			
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	Charter school			
4	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	Language Immersion school			