

Faculty Readiness in Education in the New Normal: Basis For Intervention Program

Ronilo G. Berondo ¹

¹ Faculty, College of Teacher Education, Guimaras State College,
Guimaras, Philippines
rberondo94@gmail.com

Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic has caused significant disruptions in the education sector worldwide with most institutions opting to close physical classrooms and shift to remote learning to mitigate the spread of the virus. This study aimed to determine the faculty readiness in education in the new normal of Guimaras State College, Mclain, Buenavista, Guimaras, Philippines on School Year 2020-2021 as a basis for the development of an intervention program. The study used a quantitative research design, and the respondents were the 107 faculty members selected through purposive sampling. The results showed that the overall level of faculty readiness was high with no significant differences observed when classified according to age, sex, educational attainment, and years in teaching service. The study recommends the implementation of an intervention program to further improve faculty readiness and address concerns related to the shift to remote learning.

Keywords: Faculty Readiness, Intervention, New Normal.

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic, which originated in December 2019, had a profound impact on the functioning of educational institutions in the Philippines and other nations. This health crisis had a universal impact, affecting individuals of all ages, genders, and social classes. To limit the spread of the virus, most countries opted to close schools, colleges, and universities, leading to the suspension of ongoing classes. This abrupt cessation of educational activities posed a significant challenge for the education sector. To address this issue, educational institutions promptly introduced remote learning as an alternative strategy, aiming to mitigate the effects of the closure while maintaining the quality of education.

The shift to online learning for the opening of the classes has sparked a contentious debate in the Philippines with concerns raised about the poor living conditions of the learners. Magsambol (2020) highlights that this

shift has revealed stark disparities between those who can afford the necessary resources to access this new mode of education than those who cannot. Despite the Department of Education's promise of 'no child left behind,' the current condition of children within the public school system suggests a message of inequality. However, given the crucial role of education in driving the economy forward, it is imperative to find ways to sustain the operations of educational institutions. This presents a challenge to teachers, who must be prepared to adapt to the demands of the new normal, to effectively execute the teaching-learning process.

Kasrekar (2020) posits that one of the primary challenges faced by educational institutions in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic is the lack of preparedness among school faculty to conduct classes. To mitigate the risk of spreading the virus, online teaching and learning emerged as the most viable solution. However, this shift posed a challenge to school heads, teachers, and learners, who had to quickly adopt new approaches to teaching and learning. Felter & Maizland (2020) further wrote that it remains unclear how well-prepared academic institutions are in terms of technical infrastructure. Additionally, the cost of reopening schools at this stage is prohibitively high.

The current educational situation in the Philippines is concerning with initial enrollment figures for 2020 indicating a decline of over 50% from the previous year's 27.7 million students. The decrease in enrolment can be attributed primarily to financial constraints and limited access to the internet. While public schools struggle to provide resources for remote learning, private educational institutions face the looming threat of closure (Ancheta & Ancheta, 2020).

Considering the above researches, this study was conducted to examine the faculty readiness in education in the new normal and to formulate an intervention program to mitigate the concerning issues that might be found among the respondents.

1.1 Objectives of the Study

This study aimed to determine the faculty readiness in education in the new normal of Guimaras State College, Mclain, Buenavista, Guimaras, Philippines on School Year 2020-2021 as basis for the development of an intervention program.

Specifically, this study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What is the level of the faculty readiness in education in the new normal when grouped as a whole and when classified according to age, sex, educational attainment, and years in teaching service?
2. Are there significant differences in the level of the faculty readiness in education in the new normal when classified according to age, sex, educational attainment, and years in teaching service?

3. Based on the findings of the study, what intervention program can be developed?

1.2 Hypothesis

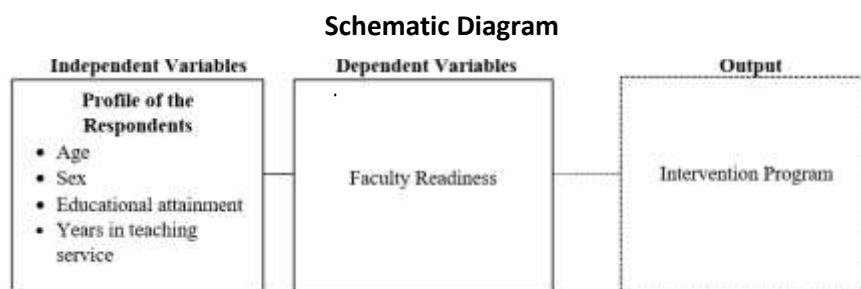
Based on the problems stated above, this hypothesis was formulated:

There are no significant differences in the level of the faculty readiness in education in the new normal when classified according to age, sex, educational attainment and years in teaching service.

1.3 Conceptual Framework

The independent variables in this study are the profiles of the respondents, the dependent variable is the faculty readiness of the faculty members of the Guimaras State College, Mclain, Buenavista, Guimaras, Philippines on School Year 2020-2021 and the output is the development of an intervention program.

Figure 1. A schematic diagram shows the connection between the variables.



Literature Review

The outbreak of a tiny virus has caused a global disruption that was not anticipated. The closure of schools worldwide has affected around 1.725 billion learners as of April 27th, 2020, with 186 countries implementing nationwide closures and eight countries implementing local closures. In the Philippines, the education system was taken aback when public exams and other competitive examinations had to be postponed or cancelled due to the pandemic. The uncertainty surrounding the trajectory of the virus has led to confusion among students and school authorities regarding the upcoming academic year. Furthermore, the extended absence from regular school has made it difficult to predict the impact on children (Ancheta & Ancheta, 2020).

Due to the susceptibility of students and teachers to COVID-19, numerous schools across the world have been forced to close down. UNESCO (2020) reported on April 6, 2020, that 91.3% of enrolled learners in 188 countries, totaling 1,576,021,818 affected individuals, have been impacted at all levels of education. Fox (2007) reported a similar situation that occurred during the outbreak of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome

(SARS) in China in 2003, resulting in the closure of schools and universities. In Hong Kong, for instance, 1,302 schools were closed, with one million students staying at home, and approximately 50,600 teachers struggling to employ technology to deliver education to their pupils.

The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on higher educational institutions in the Philippines has been significant with 4,195 confirmed cases reported as of April 10, 2020, according to the Department of Health (DOH) (2020) online tracker report. In response, the country quickly turned to online learning as an alternative. Some teachers utilized various online platforms such as Google Classrooms and WebQuest to record and upload their lessons for students. However, a large portion of teachers were unprepared for online education. After just three days of implementing alternative delivery methods, the Department of Education (DepEd) (2020) had to suspend online instruction due to a surge in the number of learners and teachers who were protesting against online learning due to various factors. In reality, many basic education institutions in the Philippines were ill-equipped to handle the shift to online learning.

Basic education institutions and their school heads should have a clear plan in place for continuing education in the new normal, which includes consulting with stakeholders to determine how to proceed with online enrollment, teaching and learning methods, and ensuring the availability of necessary learning resources. The Department of Education (DepEd) as cited by Hernando-Malipot (2020) requires private basic education institutions and other non-DepEd schools to present a sample class program and demonstrate their readiness to continue providing educational services during the pandemic, as long as they do not conduct face-to-face classes. Non-DepEd schools may proceed with distance learning (DLE), but parents have expressed concerns about the effectiveness of home schooling, which can have a negative impact on students' social lives and learning experiences. Sievertsen & Burgess (2020) agree that home schooling is a significant disruption for both parents and students, and may not be an ideal solution for continuing education during the pandemic.

In the context of the "new normal" in education delivery, basic education institutions have the flexibility to choose from various teaching and learning modalities. However, due to limitations in resources and infrastructure, not all institutions can readily adopt online teaching. Therefore, a blended approach that combines synchronous and asynchronous learning is the most common option. Blended learning is defined as a modality that integrates online and offline learning activities, where learners can interact with teachers using a designated platform, while also having the opportunity to work on performance tasks at their own pace. This definition is based on the work of Lawless (2019).

Asynchronous learning refers to a form of independent learning, where students have the flexibility to learn at their own pace and in their preferred time and location (Finol, 2020). This learning approach involves the use of various learning materials such as workbooks, modules, textbooks, and worksheets, which facilitate students' independent learning process. In this mode of learning, students usually rely on a single communication channel, such as an email, learning management system (LMS), Moodle, or other social media platforms, to access the learning materials. Asynchronous learning is based on the constructivism theory, which posits that students actively construct their knowledge through their own experiences, and it emphasizes the importance of learners' autonomy and self-directed learning (Elliott, 2020).

Gardiner (2020) suggests that asynchronous learning can be beneficial for students who have difficulty attending classes at specific times. It also allows for peer collaboration through group assignments, which can be helpful for students who need additional support. Furthermore, this mode of learning can be advantageous for students who have limited access to the internet. Academic institutions with their own LMS can easily manage the learning materials, including quizzes, class work, and assessments. However, schools with limited resources may rely on a modular approach or require parents to pick up materials from the school. Asynchronous learning allows teachers to work remotely, while students learn at their own pace. However, online assessments pose a significant challenge due to interruptions and internet glitches that may negatively affect student performance and lead to increased failure rates. To address these issues, Gardiner (2020) recommends best practices for asynchronous learning, such as keeping a record of all components of the syllabus and providing specific instructions to students through email or a discussion thread in a portal. This approach can help to improve communication between teachers and students and provide clarity on expectations and assignments.

Synchronous learning is a mode of online education where the teacher and students interact in real-time using various online platforms such as Google Classroom, Zoom, MS Teams, and others (Finol, 2020). Unlike asynchronous learning, which allows for flexible scheduling, synchronous learning requires all participants to be present online simultaneously. This mode of learning is similar to traditional face-to-face classes, but with the added convenience of being accessible from anywhere (The Best School, 2020). Synchronous learning offers several advantages such as personalized learning, immediate Q&A sessions, and online interactions (Simonson et al., 2012). Research conducted on graduate classes has shown that there is no significant difference between online and in-class students in terms of learning strategies for synchronous discussions (Park & Bonk, 2020). However, it should be noted that the effectiveness of synchronous learning may differ for school children (Lorenzo & Ittelson, 2020).

Before selecting a learning modality, a survey should be conducted, taking into account the current state of internet connectivity in the country, which ranks 104 out of 160 countries. Salac and Kim (2016) acknowledge that internet infrastructure in the country lags behind that of developing countries in Asia, and not all students have access to technology and the internet. As a result, a blended learning approach that combines asynchronous (offline) and synchronous (online) methods is necessary to accommodate the limitations in internet connectivity and ensure that all students have access to learning opportunities.

According to Shank (2020), synchronous sessions can be included in the asynchronous learning model by recording them, thus enabling students to access the content at their own pace during independent learning hours. Perveen (2016) conducted a study in Pakistan with 1025 undergraduate students and found that asynchronous learning was beneficial for second language learners, especially when accompanied by scaffolding through synchronous sessions. The author recommends a blended learning approach as the most suitable model for e-learning.

Distance learning curriculum in the Philippines is now based on the revised Most Essential Learning Competencies (MELCs) as set by the Department of Education (DepEd) (2020). In addition, private basic education institutions are required to indicate the learning areas that their students will undertake for the whole year. Furthermore, they must provide course requirements to ensure that the intended learning outcomes are met per quarter. If a blended approach is used, a sample copy of prepared workbooks and/or worksheets must be presented or attached as part of the annexes. These measures are part of DepEd's response to develop a resilient education system, especially during emergencies.

To this end, DepEd is committed to delivering quality education that is relevant to basic education services anchored on its "SulongEdukalidad" framework (Pascua, 2020). As part of this framework, the revised MELCs are aimed at providing holistic education despite the use of blended or distance learning.

The major measures of teaching and learning in basic education are the learning outcomes in the form of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values. Assessments must still comply with DepEd's standards and indicate the required percentage in each component, including written work, performance task, and quarterly assessments. Classroom assessment is an integral part of the implementation of the curriculum, according to DepEd Order No. 8 (2015). It serves as the basis for measuring the performance and progression of students, as well as for making necessary adjustments in teaching strategies as set out in policy guidelines.

Previous studies have shown no difference in the achievement of learning outcomes measured in grades or exams between the face-to-face and e-

learning modalities. In a study by Francescucci & Rohani (2020), 698 undergraduate students in North America showed the same level of performance in both face-to-face and virtual, interactive, real-time, instructor-led (VIRI) methods. However, according to Russell (2020), the adaptation of e-learning at the current state may not lead to similar outcomes, as it may be affected by various factors such as the attention span of the children, the assessment mode, and monitoring and supervision during the assessment, as well as social and environmental factors.

Teachers' preparedness is crucial in the new normal learning situation and can greatly affect the teaching and learning process using the chosen modality. Compared to the typical classroom setup, teachers' duties have expanded. In the new normal, teachers are required to be available online at all times despite working from home. This may be burdensome for teachers, but they must be accessible in case of queries from students and parents. As explained by Tarek (2020), the teachers should tackle learning difficulties and individual needs of learners in terms of their learning style as distance learning requires a high level of interaction between the teacher and learners. Tuscano (2020) further emphasized that teachers are to encourage the students to engage in virtual learning activities such as collaborative work to inspire other students to learn in a more creative way. They should motivate students to participate actively in virtual classes and engage them in a deeper learning experience to attain the desired learning outcomes.

Having a communication plan is essential for teachers in implementing the new teaching and learning modality. This serves as a roadmap on how teachers, learners, and parents can connect with each other. According to Haythornthwaite (2020), there are three types of communication that play an important role in sustaining e-learning communities, namely, content-related communication, planning of tasks, and social support. A clear process should be established to ensure transparency to stakeholders about the medium and how important information, announcements, and updates reach them. As revealed by Everitt (2020), transparency is indispensable in maintaining a two-way communication channel about the status of the newly implemented program.

It is vital for teachers to ensure that everyone receive continuous learning and enhancement programs in the use of technology and other platforms. An explicit statement is needed in the Learning Continuity Plan to guarantee the quality of teaching and learning. Additionally, the school must certify this statement through a continuous improvement plan of its quality services, including training and seminars, before, during, and after implementing the new modality. As stated by Ancheta & Ancheta (2020), teachers' professional development is crucial as education is an ever-growing and evolving field. However, private school teachers often cannot afford professional development due to the high cost of training

programs. Furthermore, schools cannot finance their teachers' professional development. To provide a solution, schools sponsor in-house training for their teachers, which are usually funded by publishing book firms.

Monitoring and Evaluation is of utmost importance in light of the new normal. It is essential to ensure that the learning process and the applicability of the chosen learning modality is effectively evaluated and monitored, especially for students who were given the learning resources. To facilitate this process, a support system has been established which includes the provision of necessary feedback from students and parents to identify major gaps in the implementation and provide inputs for the improvement of the chosen platform. Alternative means of evaluation are needed to monitor the students' progress and achievement in the absence of traditional evaluation methods. The evaluation process should focus on students' performance to measure their achievement of the learning outcomes, according to Kamalludeen (2020).

As stated in DepEd Order No. 14, s. 2020, all private basic education institutions are required to develop health and safety protocols based on the guidelines for risk-based public health standards for COVID-19 mitigation. The objective of COVID-19 mitigation is to increase mental and physical resilience, reduce transmission and contact, and decrease the duration of infection, according to DOH AO No. 0015 (2020).

Observing general health and safety protocols is also critical in the context of DOH guidelines for risk-based public health standards for COVID-19 mitigation. As part of these protocols, learners, teachers, and non-teaching personnel are required to practice respiratory etiquette and engage in other protective measures like using PPEs and proper hygiene. According to Singh-Vergeire (2020), the public must be vigilant in observing infection prevention measures like social distancing and avoid the spread of the virus. Additionally, the school needs to ensure the availability of disinfecting paraphernalia at all times.

Detection and Referral strategies are essential during a pandemic outbreak. To ensure safety within the school community, schools must conduct temperature checks of both teachers and students upon entering the school premise. In the event of someone being detected with a high temperature, referral to the nearby local health unit is mandatory. However, these measures can burden schools as they are responsible for the monitoring of all individuals, symptomatic and asymptomatic. The school administration must implement this policy while promoting the sharing of information on prevention and control measures and following the guidelines outlined by health authorities (Bender, 2020).

Co-curricular activities are an integral part of student development as they aid in skill and talent enhancement. However, due to the pandemic, curricular and co-curricular activities in schools have been halted, except

those that can be executed online. According to DepEd Order No. 13, s. 2020, all activities of the private basic education institutions are postponed for the duration of school year 2020-2021. The delay in extracurricular and co-curricular activities such as field trips, school retreats, foundation days, will undoubtedly be missed by students during these times (Naik, 2018).

The school clinic plays a crucial role in ensuring the safety and well-being of its students. To manage the risks associated with the pandemic, schools need to ensure that sick teachers and personnel are not allowed to enter the school premise, and the school clinic must coordinate with local health authorities for the tracing and quarantine of confirmed positive cases. Emergency health kits must be made available to schools, including personal protective equipment and other essential supplies (Singh-Vergeire, 2020).

Physical arrangements of schools must conform to the guidelines set by the Department of Health. Proper ventilation, sanitation, and hygiene facilities must be provided in all classrooms to minimize the spread of the virus. Despite students being unable to attend physical classes, schools are still required to meet government standards for physical arrangements (DepEd Order No. 13, 2020).

To establish resilience, schools must provide proper orientation and administrative support to its teachers and learners. In the face of a pandemic, support mechanisms such as physical and mental resilience are essential in ensuring the continuity of education. Furthermore, the school guidance office must be functioning effectively in monitoring students' mental health. The school also makes sure that teachers working at home are provided with necessary logistics.

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The study used a quantitative research design. Specifically, it used the survey method to determine the faculty readiness in education in the new normal in Guimaras State College, Mclain, Buenavista, Guimaras, Philippines on School Year 2020-2021.

The descriptive statistics used in the study were the frequency count, percentage, and mean. The inferential statistics used was the Mann Whitney U Test.

3.2 Respondents

The respondents of study were the purposively selected 107 faculty of Guimaras State College, Mclain, Buenavista, Guimaras, Philippines on School Year 2020-2021.

The participants were chosen through purposive sampling. This sampling technique refers to a type of non-probability sampling where the target

participants meet specific practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, availability at the given time, or the willingness to participate are included for the study (Etikan et al., 2016). The selection criteria for the participants of this quantitative study were the following: (a) currently teaching in the chosen school, (b) willing participants of the study, and (c) available during the conduct of the study.

Table 1 presents the distribution of the respondents according to the College Department that they belong to. The majority of the respondents were under the College of Arts and Sciences (39.3%) and followed by the College of Business and Management (17.8%). The College of Tertiary Education got 11.2% and the College of Engineering and Industrial Technology got 10.3%. The College of Science and Technology got 9.35% while the College of Criminal Justice Education got 8.41%. Lastly, the College of Agricultural Sciences got the lowest percentage at 3.74.

Table 1. Distribution of the respondents by college department

College Department	N	%
College of Agricultural Sciences	4	3.74
College of Science and Technology	10	9.35
College of Business and Management	19	17.8
College of Criminal Justice Education	9	8.41
College of Tertiary Education	12	11.2
College of Arts and Sciences	42	39.3
College of Engineering and Industrial Technology	11	10.3
ENTIRE GROUP	107	100

3.3 Data Gathering Instrument

A 20-item survey-questionnaire on the faculty readiness in education on the new normal was made. It was divided into two parts. The first part was to gather the profile of the respondents and the second part was to determine the level of their readiness in education in the new normal. The respondents responded whether they strongly disagree (1); disagree (2); neutral (3); agree (4) and strongly agree (5) in the practice of these standards. For the interpretation of the results, the following scale and its interpretation was used:

Scale of Means	Description	Interpretation
4.21-5.00	Very High	Exhibited readiness beyond what is required in the delivery of instruction

3.41- 4.20	High	Exhibited readiness required in the delivery of instruction
2.61- 3.40	Moderate	Exhibited readiness less than what is required in the delivery of instruction
1.81- 2.60	Low	Exhibited readiness minimally of what is required in the delivery of instruction
1.00- 1.80	Very Low	Failed to exhibit the readiness in the delivery of instruction

Data Analysis Procedure

In the interpretation of data, the statistical tools that were used were the frequency count, percentage, mean, and Mann Whitney U Test.

Frequency Count. It was used to determine the number of responses per item in the questionnaire.

Percentage. It was used in comparing the number of respondents per profile category.

Mean. It was used to determine the mean of the respondents in their readiness in education in the new normal.

Mann Whitney U Test. It was used to determine the significant differences in the faculty readiness in education in the new normal. Respondents were classified according to age, sex, educational attainment, and years in teaching service. The level of significance was set at .05 alpha.

Results

Table 2 presents the descriptive results of faculty readiness based on different variables such as age, sex, educational attainment, and years in teaching service. The mean values of the readiness scale range from 4.60 to 4.71, which are categorized as "very high" (VH) on the scale of means.

The mean age of the faculty members is 4.64 for the young group and 4.60 for the old group, indicating a similar level of readiness among both age groups. Similarly, there is not much variation in faculty readiness based on sex, with male faculty members having a mean score of 4.59 and female faculty members having a mean score of 4.63.

In terms of educational attainment, faculty members with a doctorate degree have a slightly higher mean score (4.71) than those with a master's degree (4.61), indicating that higher educational qualifications may positively influence readiness. However, the difference between the two groups is not significant.

Years in teaching service also do not seem to significantly influence faculty readiness, as both short-length and long-length faculty members have almost identical mean scores (4.60 and 4.61, respectively).

Overall, the entire group of faculty members has a mean readiness score of 4.62, indicating a very high level of readiness. Therefore, it can be concluded that the faculty members are well-prepared to carry out their teaching responsibilities, regardless of their age, sex, educational attainment, or years of service.

Table 2. Descriptive results of the faculty readiness

Variables	Mean	Description
Age		
Young	4.64	VH
Old	4.60	VH
Sex		
Male	4.59	VH
Female	4.63	VH
Educational attainment		
Master's Degree	4.61	VH
Doctorate Degree	4.71	VH
Years in teaching service		
Short Length	4.60	VH
Long Length	4.61	VH
ENTIRE GROUP	4.62	VH

Legend: Scale of Means: 4.21-5.00 – Very High (VH); 3.41-4.20 – High (H); 2.61-3.40 – Moderate (M); 1.81-2.60 – Low (L); 1.00-1.80 – Very Low (VL)

Table 3 shows the differences in faculty readiness based on several factors: age, sex, educational attainment, and years in teaching service. The table reports the mean rank, Z-score, and p-value for each variable.

For age, the mean rank for the young group is 8.39, and for the old group, it is 11.45. The Z-score is -1.19, and the p-value is 0.23, indicating that there is no significant difference in faculty readiness between the young and old groups.

For sex, the mean rank for the male group is 7.67, and for the female group, it is 12.82. The Z-score is -1.95, and the p-value is 0.05, indicating that there is a significant difference in faculty readiness between males and females, with males being more ready than females.

For educational attainment, the mean rank for the Master's Degree group is 8.06, and for the Doctorate Degree group, it is 12.05. The Z-score is -1.68, and the p-value is 0.09, indicating that there is no significant difference in faculty readiness between those with a Master's degree and those with a Doctorate degree.

For years in teaching service, the mean rank for the short length group is 6.94, and for the long length group, it is 12.32. The Z-score is -2.05, and the p-value is 0.04, indicating that there is a significant difference in faculty readiness between those with a short length of teaching service and those with a long length, with those with a long length being more ready.

In conclusion, this table provides insights into the factors that may influence faculty readiness, and it suggests that sex and years in teaching service are significant predictors of faculty readiness.

Table 3. Differences in the faculty readiness in education in the new normal when classified according to age, sex, educational attainment, and years in teaching service

Variables	Group (N)	Mean Rank	Z	p-value
Age				
Young	67	8.39	-1.19	0.23
Old	40	11.45		
Sex				
Male	33	7.67	-1.95	0.05*
Female	74	12.82		
Educational attainment				
Master's Degree	62	8.06	-1.68	0.09
Doctorate Degree	45	12.05		
Years in teaching service				
Short Length	71	6.94	-2.05	0.04*
Long Length	36	12.32		

P<0.05, Significant

Discussion

5.1 The level of faculty readiness in education in the new normal

The level of the faculty readiness in education in the new normal when grouped as a whole is very high and when classified according to age, sex, educational attainment, and years in teaching service are all very high.

The results presented in the table indicate a high level of faculty readiness among the participants, regardless of their age, sex, educational attainment, or years of service. This is a positive indication of the preparedness of the faculty members to carry out their teaching responsibilities effectively.

One notable finding found in this study and also in the study of Hew et al. (2020) is that there is no significant difference in faculty readiness between male and female participants. This finding suggests that gender does not play a role in determining faculty readiness, and that both male and female faculty members are equally prepared to teach their respective courses.

Furthermore, while participants with a doctorate degree had a slightly higher mean score than those with a master's degree, the difference between the two groups was not significant. This finding suggests that advanced degrees may have a positive influence on faculty readiness, but other factors may also be at play, such as experience and training.

It is also interesting to note that years of service did not have a significant impact on faculty readiness. Both short-length and long-length faculty members had similar mean scores, suggesting that the length of service did not affect the level of readiness of the faculty members. This result implies that faculty members may be continuously updating their knowledge and skills, regardless of their years of service.

Overall, the high level of faculty readiness among the participants is an encouraging sign for educational institutions as also suggested in the study of Oducado (2020). It implies that faculty members are well-prepared to impart knowledge and skills to their students and can effectively fulfill their teaching responsibilities. However, it is essential to note that the study's limitations may affect the generalizability of the findings to other contexts, such as different regions or educational systems.

5.2 The differences in the faculty readiness in education in the new normal when classified according to age, sex, educational attainment, and years in teaching service

There are no significant differences in the level of the faculty readiness in education in the new normal when classified according to age and educational attainment. However, there are significant differences noted when classified according to sex and years in teaching service.

The results presented provide valuable insights into the factors that may affect faculty readiness in an academic setting. One of the most striking findings is that there is a significant difference in faculty readiness based on sex with males being more ready than females. This result is consistent with many researches that have suggested that gender bias exists in academic settings, where males are often viewed as more competent and knowledgeable than females. One study is that of García-González & Jimenez-Sanchez (2019) showing that even in research institutions there is a disparity that exists among women and men researchers.

The results also show that there is a significant difference in faculty readiness based on years of teaching service, with those with a longer

length of service being more ready than those with a shorter length. This finding is consistent with the study of Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) that suggested that experience and time in the profession are important factors in developing the skills and knowledge necessary for effective teaching.

In contrast, the results suggest that there is no significant difference in faculty readiness based on age or educational attainment. This result may be surprising, as one might expect that more experienced or highly educated faculty members would be more ready to teach. However, it is possible that other factors, such as teaching style or approach, may be more important than age or educational attainment in determining faculty readiness.

Overall, these findings highlight the importance of considering various factors that may affect faculty readiness in academic settings. It is crucial to address issues of gender bias and provide opportunities for professional development and growth for all faculty members, regardless of their years of teaching service or educational attainment. Further research is needed to better understand the factors that influence faculty readiness and to develop effective strategies for improving the teaching skills and knowledge of all faculty members.

Conclusion

The findings on the level of faculty readiness in education in the new normal provide valuable insights into the factors that may influence teaching effectiveness. The results showed a high level of faculty readiness among the participants, regardless of their age, educational attainment, or years of teaching service. However, significant differences were observed in the level of readiness based on sex and years of teaching service. These findings suggest that gender bias still exists in academic settings and that experience and time in the profession are important factors in developing the skills and knowledge necessary for effective teaching. Addressing these issues and providing opportunities for professional development and growth for all faculty members are crucial to improve teaching skills and knowledge. Further research is needed to better understand the factors that influence faculty readiness and develop effective strategies to enhance teaching effectiveness in the new normal.

Bibliography

1. Ancheta, R., & Ancheta, H. (2020). The new normal in education: A challenge to the private basic education institutions in the Philippines. *International Journal of Educational Management and Development Studies*, 1(1).
2. Bender, L. (2020). Key Messages and Actions for Covid-19 Prevention and Control in School, Unicef and World Health Organization, March 2020.

3. Darling-Hammond, L., Hyler, M. E., & Gardner, M. (2017). Effective teacher professional development.
4. DepEd Order No. 007 s. 2020. (2020). Public School Requirements for the Opening of Classes for SY 2020-2021. www.deped.gov.ph.
5. DepEd Order No. 012 and 013 (2020). Basic Education Learning Continuity Plan for Public Schools. www.deped.gov.ph.
6. DepEd Order No. 14 (2020). School Plans for Compliance with Minimum Health Standards. www.deped.gov.ph.
7. DepEd Order No. 8 (2015). Classroom Assessment guidelines. www.deped.gov.ph.
8. DOH AO No. 0015. (2020). DOH Guidelines on the Risk-Based Public Health Standards for COVID-19 Mitigation. www.doh.gov.ph.
9. Elliott, S.N. (2020). Educational Psychology: Effective teaching and learning, 3rd edition, Boston, MA: Mc-Graw-Hill College.
10. Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American journal of theoretical and applied statistics*, 5(1), 1-4.
11. Everitt, J (2020). How to Get Stakeholders on Your Side With Campaign Transparency. www.wrike.com.
12. Felter, C. & Maizland, L. (2020). How Countries Are Reopening Schools During the Pandemic. *Council of Foreign Relations*. <https://www.cfr.org/backgrounder/how-countries-are-reopening-schools-during-pandemic>.
13. Finol, M.O. (2020). Asynchronous vs. Synchronous Learning: A Quick Overview. <https://www.brynmawr.edu/blendedlearning/asynchronous-vs-synchronous-learning-quick-overview>.
14. Fox, R. (2007). SARS epidemic: Teachers' experiences using ICTs. https://www.google.com/url?sa=t&source=web&rct=j&url=https://www.ascilite.org/conferences/perth04/procs/pdf/fox.pdf&ved=2ahUKEwi83IjD2N3oAhWm-GEKHRgcCCUQFjABegQIAhAB&usg=AOvVaw1pZFXsa8vwVtg_19X7YwtN
15. Francescucci, A. & Rohani, L. (2020). Exclusively Synchronous Online (VIRI) Learning: The Impact on Student Performance and Engagement Outcomes. *Journal of Marketing Education*. Volume: 41 issue: 1, page(s): 60-69. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0273475318818864>
16. García-González, J., Forcén, P., & Jimenez-Sanchez, M. (2019). Men and women differ in their perception of gender bias in research institutions. *PloS one*, 14(12), e0225763.
17. Gardiner, E. (2020). Remote Teaching: When and How to Use Synchronous vs. Asynchronous Methods. *Tophat*. <https://tophat.com/blog/remote-teaching-when-and-how-to-use-synchronous-vs-asynchronous-methods/>.
18. Haythornthwaite, C. (2020). Building Social Networks via Computer Networks: Creating and Sustaining Distributed Learning Communities, in Building Virtual Communities: Learning and Change in Cyberspace, K. Ann Renninger and Wesley Schumar, eds. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 159–190.
19. Hernando-Malipot, M. (2020). DepEd Private Schools allowed opening classes ahead of October 5. *Manila Bulletin*.
20. Hew, K. F., Jia, C., Gonda, D. E., & Bai, S. (2020). Transitioning to the “new normal” of learning in unpredictable times: pedagogical practices and

- learning performance in fully online flipped classrooms. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 17, 1-22.
21. Kamalludeen, R. (2020). Transitioning to the new normal in education. www.thestar.com.my.
22. Kasrekar, D., & Tapaswi, G. W. (2020). Impact of covid-19 on education system in India. *Latest Laws. com*, May, 16, 2020.
23. Lawless, C. (2019). What is blended learning. *Dostupno na*: <https://www.learnupon.com/blog/what-is-blended-learning/> (preuzeto: 16. lipnja 2020.).
24. Lorenzo, G. & Ittelson, J. (2020). An Overview of E-Learning in K-12 Education. In J. Michael Spector (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Educational Communications and Technology* (5th ed., pp. 327-342). Springer.
25. Magsambol, B. (2020). Over 200,000 students transfer from private to public schools amid pandemic. *Rappler*. <https://rappler.com/nation/students-privateschools-transfer-to-public-coronavirus-pandemic>.
26. Naik, N. (2018). Importance of Extracurricular Activities in School Life, www.yourstory.com.
27. Oducado, R. M. (2020). Faculty perception toward online education in a state college in the Philippines during the coronavirus disease 19 (COVID-19) pandemic. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 8(10), 4736-4742.
28. Park, Y.J. & Bonk, C.J. (2020). Synchronous Learning Experiences: Distance and Residential Learners' Perspectives in a Blended Graduate Course. *Journal of Interactive Online Learning*. Volume 6, Number 3, pp 245 – 264.
29. Pascua, A. (2020). K to 12 Most Essential Learning Competencies. at www.deped.gov.ph.
30. Perveen, A. (2016). Synchronous and Asynchronous E-Language Learning: A Case Study of Virtual University of Pakistan. *Open Praxis*, Vol. 8 issue 1, January–March 2016, pp. 21–39
31. Russell, T.L. (2020). The No Significant Difference Phenomenon, 5th ed. Montgomery, AL: International Distance Education Certification Center
32. Salac, R. A., & Kim, Y. S. (2016). A study on the internet connectivity in the Philippines. *Asia Pacific Journal of Business Review*, 1(1), 67-88. DOI: 10.20522/APJBR.2016.1.1.67.
33. Shank, P. (2020). The Right Learning Modalities to Deliver Digital Learning: Part 4. <https://elearningindustry.com/create-synchronous-learningdigital-modalities-part-4>.
34. Sievertsen, H.H. & Burgess, S. (2020, April 1). Schools, skills, and learning: The impact of COVID-19 on education. *VoxEU*. <https://cepr.org/voxeu/columns/schools-skills-and-learning-impact-covid-19-education>.
35. Simonson, M., Smaldino, S., Albright, M., & Zvacek, S. (2012). Teaching and Learning at a Distance: Foundations of Distance Education. Boston, MA: Pearson.
36. Singh-Vergiere. (2020). Safety Prevention Protocols Against Covid-19, Press Release, Department of Health, July 10, 2020.
37. Tanhueco-Tumapon (2020). Education and the New Normal. *Manila Times*. <https://www.manilatimes.net/2020/06/11/campus-press/education-and-the-new-normal-2/731008>
38. Tarek, S. (2020). Distance Learning: The Role of the Teacher. www.docuri.com.

39. The Best School. (2020). Synchronous vs Asynchronous Learning: Which is Better? <https://www.thebestschools.org/magazine/synchronous-vs-asynchronous-learning/>.
40. Tuscano, F. (2020). It's not about Online Learning: A Reflection on the "New Normal" in Education. www.francisjimtuscano.com.
41. UNESCO. (2020). Education: From disruption to recovery. www.en.unesco.org.