EURASIAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

EURASIAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

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İçindekiler

REVIEWERS of the 73rd ISSUE
73. Sayı Hakemleri

Eurasian Journal of Educational Research
www.ejer.com.tr

Undergraduate Students' Satisfaction Levels on the Quality of Faculty Life

Nermin CIFTCI ARIDAG[1], Merve AYDIN[2], Rukiye AYDIN[3]

A R T I C L E I N F O	A B S T R A C T
	Purpose: School life quality influences students in many ways with factors related to it. For this reason, the quality of life of the school needs to be taken seriously. Satisfaction with school life can contribute to students' positive attitudes toward the school. When the relevant literature is examined, it is observed that a limited number of researches have been conducted in our country. Based on this reason, it has been decided to carry out this research. **Research Methods**: The screening model was used in the study. The study population consists of year one, two and three undergraduate students who didn't receive preparatory education and who study in Yıldız Technical University Faculty of Education. The data were collected through Faculty Life Quality Scale (FLQS) and Personal information form.

Findings: According to the study, it was observed that satisfaction level of faculty life quality was higher in female students than male students with respect to all the sub-dimensions, apart from the satisfaction of faculty sub-dimension, and total scale score. Student satisfaction levels, with respect to all the sub-dimensions and total scale score, were observed to be highest in year one students; and lowest in year three students. Students, who had a "very high" and "high" satisfaction level with their department choice, were observed to have higher satisfaction levels about faculty life quality than the students with "low" and "medium" satisfaction levels. **Implications for Research and Practice**: It was observed that Faculty Life Quality Scale total score differed according to gender, grade level, satisfaction level of department choice and perceived socio-economic status.

[1] Yıldız Technical University, TURKEY, e-mail: nermin_ciftci@yahoo.com, ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0002-1993-8352

[2] Yıldız Technical University, TURKEY, e-mail: mrvydn2034@gmail.com, ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0001-9216-3410

[3] Yıldız Technical University, TURKEY, e-mail: rukiye_aydin@hotmail.com, ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0002-7183-3013

Corresponding Author: Nermin Çiftçi Arıdağ, Yıldız Technical University, Faculty of Education, e-mail: nermin_ciftci@yahoo.com, ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0002-1993-8352

Introduction

Qualified education is one of the important conditions for adapting to the change taking place throughout the world (Ihtiyaroglu, 2010). According to studies, managers and teachers are usually worked with on issues about quality (Yilmaz & Cokluk-Bokeoglu, 2006). But universities not just include managers and educators. Students are stakeholders of this system. Because they are the reason for schools' beings, student opinions on school life quality are crucial. School life quality influences students in many ways with factors related to it. For this reason, the quality of life of the school needs to be taken seriously. Satisfaction with school life can contribute to students' positive attitudes toward the school. When the relevant literature is examined, it is observed that a limited number of researches have been conducted in our country. Based on this reason, it has been decided to carry out this research.

School life quality can be defined as a feeling of good resulting from the children integrating with the school setting and getting involved in school life (Karatzias, Papadioti-Athanasiou, Power & Swanson, 2001). This concept is accepted to be a sign of general well-being (Durmaz, 2008). Bilgic (2009) defines the life quality of a school as well-being that occurs when children cohere with the school life. Parallel with these definitions, it can be considered as a synthesis of positive or negative experiences (Thien & Razak, 2013). It is obvious that the quality of school life depends on student opinions about the school setting.

Teachers, other students and managers are effective in the school life quality of students. It is believed that the cultural and social potentials offered by the school are related with school life quality (Sari, 2007). According to studies, school life quality has crucial effects on the sense of belonging to school, academic achievement, self-respect and attitudes towards teachers (Inal, 2009). According to a study conducted by Mok and Flynn (1997), school life quality is effective on academic achievement. Alaca (2011) states that school life quality is significant for personality development, academic achievement and future social experiences. High school life quality is crucial in decreasing the rate of dropping out of school and in developing the student's socialization process and learning performance through positive experiences (Ilmen, 2010). For this reason, stress should be laid on the quality of school life.

A high school life quality of students increases their satisfaction levels and enables their educational activities to be more effective (Gedik, 2014). In addition, satisfaction of school life can contribute to developing positive attitudes towards the school. Being satisfied with the educational settings will enable the educational process to be productive (Aydin, Gumus & Altintop, 2014). The state of being happy with these settings depends on how qualified the students perceive these institutions. Positive perceptions on the quality of school life can lead to positive effects on many variables such as academic achievement, commitment to school, subjective well-being; negative perceptions can lead to negative results such as absence, dropping

out of school, low academic achievement, school bullying and disobeying school rules (Kalayci & Ozdemir, 2013). Thus, studies that can increase student satisfaction levels with their school life should be carried out.

The faculty satisfaction dimension involves facts such as student reactions to the faculty, them being happy of being a member of the faculty, the sportive, social and cultural activities organized in the faculty (Cokluk-Bokeoglu & Yilmaz, 2007). The classroom setting and student relations satisfaction dimension involves facts such as student interests for activities that can contribute to the educational process, relationships among students, cooperation, friendship and classroom (Ayik & Aktas-Akdemir, 2015). The instructor satisfaction dimension involves issues such as the relationship between students and the instructor, the instructors showing interest to the students, working for the students' personal and academic development, informing and guiding them and generally their educational experiences (Cokluk-Bokeoglu & Yilmaz, 2007). When these dimensions are considered together, the students' satisfaction levels on faculty life quality becomes evident.

Enhancing quality is possible as a result of student evaluations (Tosun, 2012). It is evident in the national literature that very few studies have been carried out on this subject. Thus, satisfaction levels with the quality of faculty life was examined with respect to gender, grade, satisfaction level of department choice and perceived socio-economic status in this study. It is believed that this study will contribute to the literature by helping better understanding the factors that satisfaction level of faculty life quality. The overall purpose of the study is to examine satisfaction levels of students, studying in Yildiz Technical University, Faculty of Education, with their quality of faculty life. With this respect answer for the fallowing question was sought:

Do students' satisfaction levels on the quality of faculty life differ according to gender, grade level, their satisfaction level on department choice and their socio-economic status?

Method

Research Design

The screening model was used in the study. The purpose of screening studies is to describe the characteristics and opinions of large masses (Buyukozturk, Kilic-Cakmak, Akgun, Karadeniz & Demirel, 2016).

Research Sample

The study population consists of year 1., 2., and 3. undergraduate students who didn't receive preparatory education and who study in Yildiz Technical University Faculty of Education during the spring term of 2015-2016 academic year. The study sample was determined through the proportional cluster sampling method. Minimum 36% participation was enabled from the students of each department. The

study was conducted on 500 (participation level: 45%) volunteer students studying in the departments of Science Teaching (70, 50.3%), Primary School Mathematics Teaching (77, 48.1%), Pre-School Teaching (73, 46.8%), Classroom Teaching (73, 46.5%), Social Sciences Teaching (69, 47.3%), Turkish Language Teaching (54, 36%), Psychological Counseling and Guidance (84, 41.4%). Information about the general shape of the students who participated in the study is given on Table 1.

Table 1

Student Distribution Based on Various Variables

Gender	N	Percentage (%)
Female	387	77.4
Male	113	22.6
Grade Level		
Year 1.	193	38.6
Year 2.	166	33.2
Year 3.	141	28.2
Type of Department		
Science Teaching	70	14.0
Primary School Mathematics Teaching	77	15.4
Pre-School Teaching	73	14.6
Psychological Counseling and Guidance	84	16.8
Classroom Teaching	73	14.6
Social Sciences Teaching	69	13.8
Turkish Language Teaching	54	10.8
Perceived Socio-economic Level		
Low	8	1.6
Below medium	26	5.2
Medium	307	61.4
High	153	30.6
Very high	6	1.2
Total	500	100

According to Table 1, 387 (77.4%) of the students participating in the study are female and 113 (22.6%) are male. 193 (38.6%) students study in year one, 166 (33.2%) study in year two and 141 (28.2%) students study in year three. Among the student, 70 (14%) study in the department of Science Teaching, 77 (15.4%) in Primary School Mathematics Teaching, 73 (14.6%) in Pre-School Teaching, 84 (16.8%) in Psychological Counseling and Guidance, 73 (14.6%) in Classroom Teaching, 69 (13.8%) in Social Sciences Teaching and 54 (10.8%) in Turkish Language Teaching. It was observed that 8 (1.6%) students perceived their socio-economic status as "low",

26 (5.2%) as "below medium", 307 (61.4%) as "medium", 153 (30.6%) as "high" and 6 (1.2%) as "very high".

Data Collection Instruments

The data were collected through Faculty Life Quality Scale (FLQS) and Personal Information Form. Information on the data collection instruments are given below.

Personal information form. The personal information form which was developed by the researchers, includes information about the participant students' gender, grade level, satisfaction level of the department chosen, perceived socio-economic status.

Faculty Life Quality Scale (FLQS). It was developed by Yilmaz and Cokluk-Bokeoglu (2006). It consists of three dimension titles "Faculty Satisfaction", "Instructor Satisfaction" and "Classroom Setting and Student Relations Satisfaction". The scale consists of a total of 37 items, 15 items in the Faculty Satisfaction and Instructor Satisfaction sub-dimensions and 7 in the Classroom Setting and Student Relations Satisfaction sub-dimension. 17 items in the scale are scored reversely. The scale has three grades titled "I agree" (3), "I'm unsure" (2) and "I disagree" (1). The factor load values of the items in the Faculty Satisfaction sub-dimension vary between 0.32 and 0.63 and the item-total correlations vary between 0.24 and 0.49. The variance this factor accounts for itself is 23% and the Cronbach-Alpha internal consistency co-efficient is 0.75. The factor load values of the items in the Instructor Satisfaction sub-dimension vary between 0.37 and 0.67 and the item-total correlations vary between 0.32 and 0.58. The variance this factor accounts for itself is 31% and the Cronbach-Alpha internal consistency co-efficient is 0.83. The factor load values of the items in the Classroom Setting and Student Relations Satisfaction sub-dimension vary between 0.39 and 0.71 and the item-total correlations vary between 0.26 and 0.45. The variance this factor accounts for itself is 34% and the Cronbach-Alpha internal consistency co-efficient is 0.67. The Cronbach-Alpha internal consistency co-efficient of the Faculty Life Satisfaction Scale is 0.87. The internal consistency coefficient of the present study group was examined and found to be 0.875.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed through the SPSS 21 statistical software. Then the normality analysis of the data of the research variables and the subscales of the scales was done using Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. As a result of the analysis of the data obtained from the research, it was seen that the variables of the research did not show normal distribution ($p < .05$); For this reason, nonparametric tests were used in the analysis of the sub-problems of the study. During the data analysis process, the Mann Whitney U-Test was used for comparing Faculty Life Satisfaction Scale sub-dimension scores and the total score according to gender; the Kruskal Wallis H-Test was used for comparing according to grade level, satisfaction level with department choice and perceived socio-economic status variables; the Dunnett C Test was used to determine between which groups the difference occurred.

Results

Findings on Faculty Life Quality Satisfaction With Respect to the Gender Variable

Table 2. displays the Mann Whitney U-Test results, which was conducted to determine whether or not the Faculty Life Satisfaction Scale sub-dimension scores and the total score of the students who participated in the study differed according to gender.

Table 2

Comparison of the Faculty Life Quality Scale Sub-Dimension Scores and the Total Score with Respect to Gender

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Ran Sum	U	Z	P
FS Sub-Dimension	Female	387	256.91	99425.00	19384.000	-1.840	.066
	Male	113	228.54	25825.00			
IS Sub-Dimension	Female	387	259.54	100443.50	18365.500	-2.594	.009
	Male	113	219.53	24806.50			
CSSRS Sub-Dimension	Female	387	259.31	100353.00	18456.000	-2.535	.011
	Male	113	220.33	24897.00			
Total Scale	Female	387	259.71	100507.00	18302.000	-2.638	.008
	Male	113	218.96	24743.00			

It is evident on Table 2. that the mean rank scores of the Faculty Satisfaction sub-dimension with regards to gender is 256.91 for females; and 228.54 for males. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed not to be statistically significant (=-1.840; p<.05). The mean rank scores of the Instructor Satisfaction sub-dimension with regards to gender were observed to be 259.54 for females; and 219.53 for males. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (=-2.594; p<.05). It was observed that female students' satisfaction levels with the instructor are higher than the male students. The mean rank scores of the Classroom Setting and Student Relations Satisfaction sub-dimension with regards to gender were observed to be 259.31 for females; and 220.33 for males. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (=-2.535; p<.05). It was observed that female students' satisfaction levels with the classroom setting and student relations are higher than the male students. The mean ranks of the Faculty Life Quality Scale total scores with regards to gender were observed to be 259.71 for females; and 218.96 for males. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically

significant (=-2.638; p<.05). It was observed that female students' satisfaction levels with faculty life quality are higher than the male students.

Findings on Faculty Life Quality Satisfaction With Respect to Grade Level

Results of the Kruskal Wallis H-Test, which was conducted to determine whether or not the Faculty Life Quality Satisfaction Scale sub-dimension scores and the total score differed according to grade level, and the results of the Dunnett C Test, which was conducted to determine between which groups the difference occurred, are given on Table 3.

Table 3

Comparison of the Faculty Life Quality Scale Sub-Dimension Scores and the Total Score with Respect to Grade Level

	Grade	N	Mean Rank	SD	x^2	p	Difference
FS Sub-Dimension	1	193	286.32	2	24.869	.000	1>2
	2	166	245.72				1>3
	3	141	207.09				2>3
IS Sub-Dimension	1	193	268.53	2	10.607	.005	1>3
	2	166	257.28				
	3	141	217.84				
CSSRS Sub-Dimension	1	193	285.19	2	22.719	.000	1>3
	2	166	244.62				
	3	141	209.94				
Total Scale	1	193	283.76	2	23.949	.000	1>3
	2	166	250.08				2>3
	3	141	205.46				

It is evident on Table 3. that the mean rank scores of the Faculty Satisfaction sub-dimension with regards to grade level is 286.32 for year one students, 245.72 for years two students and 207.09 for year three students. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (x^2=24.869; p<.05). When the source of this difference is considered, year one students have higher faculty satisfaction levels than year two and year three students; and year two students have higher faculty satisfaction levels than year three students. The mean rank scores of the Instructor Satisfaction sub-dimension with regards to grade level was observed to be 268.53 for year one students, 257.28 for years two students and 217.84 for year three students. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (x^2=10.607; p<.05). When the source of this difference is considered, year one students were observed to have higher instructor satisfaction levels than the year three students. The mean rank scores of the Classroom Setting and Students Relations sub-dimension with regards to grade level was observed to be 285.19 for year one students, 244.62 for years two students and 209.94 for year three students. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (x^2=22.719; p<.05). When the source of this

difference is considered, year one students were observed to have higher classroom setting and student relation satisfaction levels than the year three students. The mean ranks of the Faculty Life Quality Satisfaction Scale total scores with regards to grade level was observed to be 283.76 for year one students, 250.08 for years two students and 205.46 for year three students. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (x^2=23.949; p<.05). When the source of this difference is considered, year one students were observed to have higher faculty life quality satisfaction levels than year three students; and year two students were observed to have higher faculty life quality satisfaction levels than year three students.

Findings on Faculty Life Quality Satisfaction With Respect to Satisfaction Level of Department Choice

Results of the Kruskal Wallis H-Test , which was conducted to determine whether or not the Faculty Life Quality Satisfaction Scale sub-dimension scores and the total score differed according to department choice satisfaction level, and the results of the Dunnett C Test, which was conducted to determine between which groups the difference occurred, are given on Table 4.

Table 4

Comparison of the Faculty Life Quality Scale Sub-Dimension Scores and the Total Score with Respect to Department Choice Satisfaction Level

	Satisfaction of Department Choice	N	Mean Rank	SD	x^2	p	Difference
FS Sub-Dimension	1.Very Low	25	226.02	4	10.712	.030	
	2.Low	44	204.74				
	3.Medium	186	244.12				5>2
	4.High	176	257.22				
	5.Very High	69	288.59				
IS Sub-Dimension	1.Very Low	25	231.56	4	20.857	.000	
	2.Low	44	213.68				4>3
	3.Medium	186	222.53				5>3
	4.High	176	278.21				
	5.Very High	69	285.55				
CSSRS Sub-Dimension	1.Very Low	25	239.76	4	15.645	.040	
	2.Low	44	207.84				5>2
	3.Medium	186	231.74				5>3
	4.High	176	264.96				
	5.Very High	69	295.29				
Total Scale	1.Very Low	25	226.02	4	18.923	.001	4>2
	2.Low	44	202.55				4>3
	3.Medium	186	229.88				5>2
	4.High	176	271.06				5>3
	5.Very High	69	293.07				

It is evident on Table 4. that the Faculty satisfaction sub-dimension mean rank scores with regards to satisfaction level of department choice is 226.02 for those with "very low"; 204.75 for those with "low"; 244.12 for those with "medium"; 257.22 for those with "high" and 288.59 for those with "very high" satisfaction levels. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (x^2=10.712; p<.05). When the cource of this difference is considered, it was observed that students who have "very high" satisfaction levels with their department choice have higher faculty satisfaction levels than student with "low" satisfaction levels. The instructor satisfaction sub-dimension mean rank scores with regards to satisfaction level of department choice is 231.56 for those with "very low"; 213.68 for those with "low"; 222.53 for those with "medium"; 278.21 for those with "high" and 285.55 for those with "very high" satisfaction levels. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (x^2=20.857; p<.05). When the source of this difference is considered, it was observed that instructor satisfaction levels are higher in students with "high" department choice satisfaction levels than those with "medium"; in student with "very high" than those with "medium" and "low" satisfaction levels. The classroom setting and student relations satisfaction sub-dimension mean rank scores with regards to satisfaction level of department choice is 239.76 for those with "very low"; 207.84 for those with "low"; 231.74 for those with "medium"; 264.96 for those with "high" and 295.29 for those with "very high" satisfaction levels. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (x^2=15.645; p<.05). When the source of this difference is considered, it was observed that students who have "very high" satisfaction levels with their department choice have higher classroom setting and student relations satisfaction levels than students with "low" and "medium" satisfaction levels. The mean ranks of the Faculty Life Quality Scale total scores with regards to satisfaction level of department choice was observed to be 226.02 for those with "very low"; 202.55 for those with "low"; 229.88 for those with "medium"; 271.06 for those with "high" and 293.07 for those with "very high" satisfaction levels. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (x^2=18.923; p<.05). When the source of this difference is considered, it was observed that students, who had a "high" and "very high" satisfaction levels with their department choice had higher faculty life quality satisfaction levels than the students with "low" and "medium" satisfaction levels.

Findings on Faculty Life Quality Satisfaction With Respect to Perceived Socioeconomic Status

Results of the Kruskal Wallis H-Test, which was conducted to determine whether or not the Faculty Life Quality Satisfaction Scale sub-dimension scores and the total score differed according to perceived socio-economic status, and the results of the Dunnett C Test, which was conducted to determine between which groups the difference occurred, are given on Table 5.

Table 5

Comparison of the Faculty Life Quality Scale Sub-Dimension Scores and the Total Score with Respect to Perceived Socioeconomic Status

	Socio-economic Income	N	Mean Rank	SD	x^2	p	Difference
FS Sub-Dimension	1.Low	8	220.44	4	5.513	.239	
	2.Below Medium	26	192.71				
	3.Medium	307	250.29				
	4.High	153	261.83				
	5.Very High	6	262.75				
IS Sub-Dimension	1.Low	8	245.44	4	10.744	.030	
	2.Below Medium	26	180.35				
	3.Medium	307	245.24				4>2
	4.High	153	274.01				
	5.Very High	6	230.67				
CSSRS Sub-Dimension	1.Low	8	251.56	4	12.137	.016	
	2.Below Medium	26	181.79				
	3.Medium	307	242.71				4>2
	4.High	153	276.44				
	5.Very High	6	283.92				
Total Scale	1.Low	8	236.19	4	12.003	.017	
	2.Below Medium	26	175.83				
	3.Medium	307	244.77				4>2
	4.High	153	275.21				
	5.Very High	6	256.33				

It is evident on Table 5 that the Faculty satisfaction sub-dimension mean rank scores with regards to perceived socio-economic status is 220.44 for those with "low"; 192.71 for those with "below medium"; 250.29 for those with "medium"; 261.83 for those with "high" and 262.75 for those with "very high" satisfaction levels. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed not to be statistically significant (x^2=5.513; p<.05). The Instructor Satisfaction sub-dimension mean rank scores was observed to be 245.44 for those with "low"; 180.35 for those with "below medium"; 245.24 for those with "medium"; 274.01 for those with "high" and 230.67 for those with "very high" levels with regards to perceived socio-economic status. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically

significant (x^2=10.744; p<.05). When the source of this difference is considered, it was observed that those who perceived their socio-economic status as "high" had a higher instructor satisfaction level than those who perceived it as "below medium". The Classroom Setting and Student Relations Satisfaction sub-dimension mean rank scores were observed to be 251.56 for those with "low"; 181.79 for those with "below medium"; 242.71 for those with "medium"; 276.44 for those with "high" and 283.92 for those with "very high" levels with regards to perceived socio-economic status. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (x^2=12.137; p<.05). When the source of this difference is considered, it was observed that those who perceived their socio-economic status as "high" had a higher classroom setting and student relations satisfaction level than those who perceived it as "below medium". The mean ranks of the Faculty Life Quality Satisfaction Scale total scores were observed to be 236.19 for those with "low"; 175.83 for those with "below medium"; 244.77 for those with "medium"; 275.21 for those with "high" and 256.33 for those with "very high" levels with regards to perceived socio-economic status. The difference between the mean ranks of the groups was observed to be statistically significant (x^2=12.003; p<.05). When the source of this difference is considered, it was observed that those who perceived their socio-economic status as "high" had a higher faculty life quality satisfaction level than those who perceived it as "below medium".

Discussion and Conclusion

When faculty life quality satisfaction level is considered with regards to gender, there was a significant difference between the groups. It was observed that satisfaction levels were higher in female students than male students with respect to all the sub-dimensions, apart from the faculty satisfaction sub-dimension, and total scale score. When the literature is considered, there are similar (Topsakal & Iplik, 2013; Barutcu-Yildirim, Yerin-Guneri & Capa-Aydin, 2015) and different (Egelioglu, Arslan & Bakan, 2011; Haliloglu-Tatli, Kokoc & Karal, 2011; Ozdemir, Kilinc, Ogdem & Er, 2013; Erdogan & Bulut, 2015) results with this finding. The difference between study results obligates more researchers on the subject to be carried out. In addition, that female students have higher faculty life quality satisfaction levels than male students, according to this study, can be due to the fact that female students attach more importance to education or because female and male students have a different educational level that they aim to achieve. Sahin, Zoraloglu and Sahin-Firat (2011) also observed that student opinions on the educational level they want to achieve differs according to gender; male students desire undergraduate education more and female students desire post-graduate education more. That female students have a further aim concerning the educational level they want to achieve than male students can have led them to perceive their faculty more positively. It can also be interpreted as female students desiring to make a career and male students desiring to enter into professional life as soon as they complete their university degree education.

When faculty life quality satisfaction levels of students are considered with regards to the grade level variable, there was a significant difference between the groups. It was observed that, with respect to all the sub-dimensions and the total scale score, year one students have highest; year three students have the lowest satisfaction levels. According to a study carried out by Cokluk-Bokeoglu and Yilmaz (2007), students who study in lower grades have high faculty life satisfaction levels and satisfaction decreases as their grade levels increase. Similarly, there are also studies that emphasize that year one university students have higher satisfaction levels than year four students (Haliloglu-Tatli et al., 2011; Şahin et al., 2011; Barutcu-Yildirim et al., 2015). Yelkikalan, Sumer and Temel (2006) underlined that students who are studying in year three have more positive perceptions about their faculty with respect to the students studying in year four. There is a consistency between the study findings. That faculty life quality satisfaction levels decrease as the grade level increases can be explained as because student expectations with their faculty change throughout time.

It is important for university students to be satisfied with their faculty as well as the department they study in (Altas, 2006). It is evident in the study that faculty life quality satisfaction level differs according to department choice satisfaction level. In general, students, who had a "very high" and "high" department choice satisfaction level were observed to have higher satisfaction levels than the students with "low" and "medium" satisfaction levels. Similarly, according to the study conducted by Uzgoren and Uzgoren (2007), there is a relationship between university students' being satisfied with their university and whether or not they are happy to be studying in the university. According to a study carried out by Aydin et al. (2014), there is a strong and reverse relationship between instructor satisfaction and the desire to change the department variable. It is evident that there are similarities among study findings. That satisfaction levels of students, who have a high department choice satisfaction level, are higher than students, who have a low department choice satisfaction level, can be due to the fact that students who are satisfied with their department choice are happy with their faculty and have positive perceptions about their faculty.

When faculty life quality satisfaction level is considered with regards to perceived socio-economic status, it is evident that the difference between the groups was significant in all sub-dimensions apart from the "Faculty Satisfaction" sub-dimension, and total scale score. It was observed that satisfaction levels of students, who perceived their socio-economic status as "high", were higher than the students who perceived it as "below medium". According to a study conducted by Alaca (2011), school life quality perceptions of students of various income groups do not differ. Uzgoren and Uzgoren's (2007) study underlines that students, whose families have 2000 TL and higher income a month, have a lower possibility of being satisfied with their university than students of the lowest income group. There is an inconsistency among the study findings. Thus, there should be more studies carried

out on the subject. The following recommendations have been made based on the findings of this study:

1. A study with a similar context can be carried out on students–in different faculties.

2. Because the results of the studies examining satisfaction levels of students are inconsistent with regards to the gender and perceived socio-economic status variables, further studies on these variables can be carried out.

3. Students can be given support about choosing departments that they can be satisfied with when they make department choices before starting university.

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Lisans Öğrencilerinin Fakülte Yaşam Niteliğinden Memnuniyet Düzeyleri

Özet

Problem Durumu: Üniversiteler içerisinde sadece yöneticileri ve eğitimcileri barındırmamaktadır. Eğitim hizmetinin sunulduğu öğrenciler de bu sistemin önemli bir paydaşıdır. Okul kurumunun varlık sebebi öğrenciler olduğundan, öğrencilerin okul yaşamının kalitesi hakkındaki görüşleri oldukça önemlidir. Okul yaşamının kalitesi, öğrencilerin okul ortamına ilişkin görüşlerine dayanmaktadır. Öğrencinin okul yaşam kalitesi üzerinde öğretmenlerin, diğer öğrencilerin ve yöneticilerin etkisi bulunmaktadır. Okul yaşam kalitesi ilişkili olduğu faktörlerle öğrencileri pek çok açıdan etkilemektedir. Bu nedenle okul yaşam kalitesi üzerinde ciddiyetle durulması gerekmektedir. Okul yaşam kalitesinin yüksek düzeyde olması, öğrencilerin okul yaşamından memnuniyet düzeylerinin artmasını sağlamaktadır. Okul yaşamından memnuniyet, öğrencilerin okula karşı olumlu bir tutum geliştirmelerine katkıda bulunabilir. Bu nedenle öğrencilerin okul yaşamından memnuniyet düzeylerinin yükselmesini sağlayacak çalışmaların yapılması gerekmektedir. Üniversite öğrencilerinin, fakülte yaşamının niteliğinden memnuniyet düzeylerini etkileyen faktörlerin bilinmesi, yükseköğretim kurumlarında verilen eğitim hizmetinin

kalitesini arttırabilmek açısından önem taşımaktadır. Ancak ilgili alan yazın incelendiğinde, ülkemizde bu konuda sınırlı sayıda araştırmanın yapıldığı gözlenmiştir. Bu gerekçeye dayanarak, bu araştırmanın yapılmasına karar verilmiştir. Araştırmada fakülte yaşamının niteliğinden memnuniyet düzeyi cinsiyet, sınıf, bölüm tercihinden memnuniyet düzeyi ve algılanan sosyoekonomik düzeye göre incelenmiştir. Araştırmanın fakülte yaşamının niteliğinden memnuniyet düzeyini etkileyen faktörlerin daha iyi bilinmesini sağlayarak, alan yazına katkıda bulunacağı düşünülmektedir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu araştırmanın amacı, Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi'nde öğrenim gören lisans öğrencilerinin fakülte yaşamının niteliğinden memnuniyet düzeylerini cinsiyet, sınıf, bölüm tercihinden memnuniyet düzeyi ve algılanan sosyoekonomik düzeye göre incelemektir.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Araştırmada nicel araştırma desenlerinden tarama modeli kullanılmıştır. Çalışma evrenini Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi'nde hazırlık eğitimi almamış olan, birinci, ikinci ve üçüncü sınıf lisans öğrencileri oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmanın örneklemi oranlı küme örnekleme yöntemi ile belirlenmiştir. Araştırmaya gönüllülük esası ile tüm bölümlerdeki öğrencilerden en az % 36 olacak şekilde katılım sağlandığı gözlenmiştir. Bu doğrultuda Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği (70, % 50.3), İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliği (77, % 48.1), Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği (73, % 46.8), Sınıf Öğretmenliği (73, % 46.5), Sosyal Bilgiler Öğretmenliği (69, % 47.3), Türkçe Öğretmenliği (54, % 36), Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik (84, % 41.4) bölümlerinde öğrenim gören 500 gönüllü üniversite öğrencisi araştırmaya katılmıştır (katılım oranı: % 45). Veriler Fakülte Yaşamının Niteliği Ölçeği (FYNÖ), ve yazarlar tarafından geliştirilen Kişisel Bilgi Formu ile toplanmıştır. Kişisel bilgi formunda araştırmaya katılan öğrencilerin cinsiyet, sınıf düzeyi, bölüm tercihinden memnuniyet düzeyi, algılanan sosyoekonomik düzey bilgileri yer almaktadır. Fakülte Yaşamının Niteliği Ölçeği "Fakülteden Memnuniyet", "Öğretim Elemanlarından Memnuniyet", "Sınıf Ortamı ve Öğrenci İlişkilerinden Memnuniyet" başlıklı üç alt boyuttan oluşmaktadır. Araştırma 2015-2016 eğitim-öğretim yılı bahar döneminde yapılmıştır. Uygulama öncesinde gerekli izinler alınmıştır. Araştırmadaki tüm veriler gönüllülük ilkesine uygun olacak biçimde toplanmıştır. Bu doğrultuda uygulama öncesinde katılımcılara araştırmanın konusu, amacı ve önemi belirtilmiştir. Ayrıca araştırmada kimlik bilgilerinin istenmediği, ölçekteki soruların doğru cevabının olmadığı, cevapları içtenlikle ifade etmelerinin önemli olduğu ve verilerin araştırmacılar tarafından gizli tutulacağı öğrencilere aktarılmıştır. Toplanan veriler SPSS-21 istatistik programı ile analiz edilmiştir. Verilerin analizinde Fakülte Yaşamının Niteliği Ölçeği alt ölçek puanları ve toplam puanın cinsiyete göre karşılaştırılmasında Mann Whitney U-Testi; sınıf düzeyi, bölüm tercihinden memnuniyet düzeyi ve algılanan sosyoekonomik düzey değişkenlerine göre karşılaştırılmasında Kruskal Wallis H-Testi; hangi gruplar arasında farklılık olduğunu belirlemek için Dunnett C Testi ile incelenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Araştırmada fakülte yaşamının niteliğinden memnuniyet düzeyinin fakülteden memnuniyet alt boyutu hariç tüm alt boyut ve ölçek toplam

puana göre kadın öğrencilerde erkek öğrencilere göre daha yüksek olduğu saptanmıştır. Ölçeğin, tüm alt boyutlarına ve ölçek toplam puana göre öğrencilerin memnuniyet düzeyleri birinci sınıf öğrencilerinde en yüksek; üçüncü sınıf öğrencilerinde ise en düşük olarak tespit edilmiştir. Araştırma sonucuna göre Fakülte Yaşamının Niteliği Ölçeği tüm alt boyutlar ve ölçek toplam puan saptanmıştır. Bölüm tercihinden memnuniyet düzeyi "çok yüksek" ve "yüksek" olan öğrencilerin, bölüm tercihinden "düşük" ve "orta" olan öğrencilere göre fakülte yaşamının niteliğinden memnuniyet düzeyleri daha yüksek çıkmıştır. Son olarak fakülteden memnuniyet alt boyutu hariç tüm alt boyutlarda ve ölçek toplam puanı algılanan sosyoekonomik düzeyini iyi olarak algılayan öğrencilerin, zayıf olan öğrencilere göre daha yüksek olduğu saptanmıştır.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Araştırma sonucuna göre kadın öğrencilerin fakülte yaşamının niteliğinden memnuniyet düzeylerinin erkek öğrencilere göre yüksek olması, kadın öğrencilerin eğitimi daha fazla önemsemelerinden ya da kadın ve erkek öğrencilerin ulaşmak istedikleri eğitim düzeyinin farklı olmasından kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Kız öğrencilerin ulaşmak istedikleri eğitim seviyesinin erkek öğrencilere göre daha yüksek olması, öğrenim gördükleri fakülteyi daha olumlu algılamalarını sağlamış olabilir. Kadın öğrencilerin kariyer yapmaya, erkek öğrencilerin ise lisans sonrası bir an önce çalışma hayatına atılma gereksinimleri ya da zorunlulukları nedeniyle olabileceği şeklinde de yorumlanabilir. Sınıf düzeyi yükseldikçe, öğrencilerin fakülte yaşamının niteliğinden memnuniyet düzeylerinin azalması, zamanla öğrencilerin fakülteden beklentilerinin farklılaşması ile açıklanabilir. Bölüm tercihinden memnuniyet düzeyi yüksek olan öğrencilerin düşük olan öğrencilere göre memnuniyet düzeylerinin daha yüksek olması, bölüm tercihinden memnun olan öğrencilerin fakülteye severek gelmelerinden ve buna bağlı olarak fakülteye yönelik olumlu algılar geliştirmelerinden kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Araştırmada sosyo-ekonomik düzeyini "iyi" olarak algılayan öğrencilerin "ortanın altı" olarak algılayan öğrencilere göre memnuniyet düzeylerinin daha yüksek olduğu saptanmış, literatürde bu bulgular, farklılık gösteren araştırmaların yer aldığı görülmüştür. Araştırma sonuçları doğrultusunda, benzer içerikte başka bir araştırmanın farklı fakültelerde öğrenim gören öğrenciler üzerinde yapılabileceği, öğrencilerin memnuniyet düzeyini inceleyen araştırmalarda cinsiyet ve algılanan sosyoekonomik düzey değişkenleri açısından tutarsız sonuçlar yer aldığından bu değişkenleri içeren başka bir araştırmanın yapılabileceği, üniversiteye başlamadan önce bölüm tercihi yapacak olan öğrencilerin memnun olacakları bölümleri tercih etmelerinin desteklenebileceği önerilmiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: YTU öğrencileri, cinsiyet, bölüm tercihi, algılanan sosyoekonomik düzey.

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Mobbing, Organizational Identification, and Perceived Support: Evidence from a Higher Education Institution[1]

Selda COSKUNER[2], Recai COSTUR[3], Pınar BAYHAN-KARAPINAR[4], Selin METIN-CAMGOZ[5], Savas CEYLAN[6], Selen DEMIRTAS-ZORBAZ[7], Emine Feyza AKTAS[8], Gonca CIFFILIZ[9]

A R T I C L E I N F O	A B S T R A C T

Purpose: The aim of the current study is twofold. First, it investigates the relationship between mobbing and organizational identification (OI) as an organizational attitude. Second, it explores the moderating effect of perceived organizational support (POS) on the relationship between mobbing and organizational identification. We proposed that perceived organizational support acts as a moderator between mobbing and organizational identification.

Research Methods: We used a cross-sectional design and data were gathered from employees working in a higher educational institution. The sample yielded 152 complete surveys, including 123 academics and 29 administrative staff. The questionnaire included measures of mobbing, perceived organizational support, and organizational identification. **Findings:** The results of the moderated regression analysis do not provide support for the moderating effect of perceived organizational support in the relationship between mobbing and organizational identification. However, the findings demonstrate that, rather than a moderating variable, perceived organizational support is positively associated with organizational identification.

Implications for Research and Practice: The results of the current study highlight the effect of organizational support in increasing the organizational identification levels of employees to their organizations. It would be beneficial for future research to assess the moderator effect of other dispositional or situational variables on the proposed relationships. Moreover, future research might also investigate other work outcomes, such as intention to leave, job satisfaction, and job performance.

Introduction

Mobbing is defined as "hostile and unethical communication, which is directed in a systematical way by one or few individuals mainly towards one individual who due to mobbing is pushed into a helpless and a defenseless position and being held there by means of continuing mobbing activities" (Leymann, 1996, p.168). This has gained growing attention during the last decades in both theory and practice. Empirical research provides evidence that mobbing may lead to detrimental outcomes at both individual and organizational levels. Individual consequences of mobbing are concentrated on the increasing rates of victims' psychological stress, such as anxiety, depression, and lack of concentration. Organizational consequences are focused on increasing absenteeism and turnover, losing competent and successful employees, reducing organizational loyalty and credibility, job alienation, and decreased organizational commitment (Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar, 1998; Ertüreten, Cemalcılar, & Aycan, 2013; Leymann, 1990; Zapf et al., 1996).

The prevalence of mobbing may vary according to the type of organization. In this regard, educational institutions rank high for mobbing and bullying complaints (Namie & Namie, 2009). Leymann (1996) indicates that in educational work settings, colleges and universities are over-represented in locations in which mobbing occurs. Likewise, the report of The Grand National Assembly of Turkey (2011) indicates the widespread rate of mobbing in educational organizations in Turkey. Studying mobbing in educational settings is worthy for a number of reasons. First, the quality of interpersonal relations, such as collegiality, is an important factor in the retention of faculty (Norman, Ambrose, & Huston, 2006). Second, most of the literature on conflict gives special importance to the structural and interpersonal opportunities for disagreement and hostility in higher educational settings (Keashly & Neuman, 2010). Moreover, when mobbing occurs in an educational organization, regardless of its level, the whole system of learning is interrupted because employees and students struggle for stability (Blasé & Blase, 2003; Hornstein, 2003). Therefore, the prevention and management of the mobbing process are considered vital for the effectiveness of educational systems.

The aim of the current study is twofold. First, it investigates the relationship between mobbing and organizational identification (OI) as an organizational attitude. OI is defined as "perception of oneness with or belongingness to" the organization (Ashforth and Mael, 1989, p.34). In other words, it refers to the overlap

Selda COSKUNER - Recai COSTUR - Pınar BAYHAN-KARAPINAR - Selin METIN-CAMGOZ - Savas
CEYLAN - Selen DEMIRTAS-ZORBAZ - Emine Feyza AKTAS - Gonca CIFFILIZ
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between the self-concept of an employee and the goals of the organization (Van Dick et al., 2004). Although it has attracted scholars' interest since the 1990's, to the authors' knowledge no research has taken into account the effects of mobbing prevalence on the individuals' sense of belonging and identity to the organization in educational settings. Universities and colleges are considered 'holographic organizations' (Albert & Whetten, 1985); that is, a place where members share a common organization-wide identity and are thus less likely to experience competing demands from department-level or occupational identities (cited in. Mael & Ashford, 1992, p.104). Therefore, the exploration of the plausible effects of mobbing on the employees' organizational identification in a higher educational setting warrants research attention.

The second purpose of the study is to explore the moderating effect of perceived organizational support (POS) on the relationship between mobbing and organizational identification. We proposed that perceived organizational support, the degree to which employees believe their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being and socio-emotional needs (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), acts as a moderator between mobbing and organizational identification. Perceived organizational support is important because it is thought to be the organization's contribution to a positive reciprocity dynamic with the employees. Also, when the organizational climate is not supportive, mobbing problems could proliferate within the organizations (Kasen, Johnson, Chen, Crawford, & Cohen, 2011). Therefore, perceived organizational support might play an important role in regulating the relationship between mobbing and organizational identification by decreasing the negative effects of mobbing.

In general, this study contributes to the literature in examining how organizational support mechanisms might influence the negative experiences of mobbing victims. Building on Tyler and Lind's (1992) Relational Model of Authority, we believe POS might provide additional insights in leading the exchange relationship between employee and organization, buffering the effects of mobbing.

The research questions of interest in the study are presented below:

1- What is the relationship between mobbing and organizational identification?
2- Does perceived organizational support act as a moderator between mobbing and organizational identification?

Mobbing

Mobbing is a complex phenomenon that involves hostile, abusive, repeated, undesired, and unreciprocated behaviors towards targets (Di Martino, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003). The term mobbing was first used by Leymann (1990) to describe a hostile workplace behavior. To be considered mobbing, these behaviors must occur on a frequent basis, at least once per week, and continue over a long period, at least six months (Leymann, 1996). The victims of mobbing are exposed to a broad variety

of hostile and abusive behaviors. Those behaviors range from permanent criticism of their work to detrimental comments, gossiping, rumors; attacks on their nationality, ethnic heritage, religious or political attitudes; or threats and acts of mild physical violence (Einarsen, 2000; Leymann, 1996; Zapf, Knorz, & Kulla, 1996). In higher educational settings, the most frequent hostile behaviors are reported as threats to professional status and isolation; undermining employees' professional standing, performance, authority, or competence; hindering access to key resources for their work; criticism of their work prevention of career development, rejection of ideas, accusation of mistakes and errors, and demoralizing activities (Keashly & Neuman, 2010; Yelgeçen, Tigrel, & Kokalan, 2009). Supporting this, Ak-Kucukcayir and Akbaba-Altun (2016) indicate that the consequences of mobbing might have severe and broader implications in educational institutions due to the possibility of physical violence and destruction. Likewise, Celep and Konakli (2013) report that the victims of mobbing in educational areas are affected physically, psychologically, and economically, resulting in lower levels of job performance and less satisfaction in family life.

The literature uses the terms 'workplace psychological harassment', 'workplace bullying', and 'mobbing' to describe the hostile behaviors in organizations. The majority of research indicates the positive association between mobbing, workplace bullying and harassment, and unfavorable individual and organizational outcomes (Francis, 2014). Thus, in developing conceptual clarity, the current study uses the phenomenon of mobbing (Leymann, 1996) in explaining and understanding this complex issue (Branch, Ramsay, & Barker, 2013).

Mobbing might lead to detrimental individual and organizational consequences. Accordingly, those hostile behaviors might take away a victim's sense of safety, security, and identity and may cause severe physical and psychological effects, such as anxiety, depression, sleeplessness, exhaustion, frustration, aggressiveness, tiredness, stress, and lack of concentration and motivation (Akgeyik, Güngör, & Uşen, 2007; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Kayaci, 2014; Leymann, 1990; Leymann & Gustafsson, 1996; Yıldırım & Yıldırım, 2007, Yıldız, Tüzüntürk, & Giorgi, 2008). Regarding organizational outcomes, absenteeism, productivity loss, job dissatisfaction, and lower levels of trust have been reported as detrimental effects of mobbing (e.g., Akgeyik, Güngör, & Uşen, 2007; Cabaros & Rodrigues, 2006; Gül et al., 2010; Leymann, 1990).

Mobbing and Organizational Identification (OI)

Organizational identification is one of the most important conceptualizations regarding the relationship between the employee and his/her organization. OI has been found to be associated with important organizational variables such as job satisfaction, job involvement, turnover intentions, and in-role and extra-role performance (Riketta, 2005). Although initial researches on OI started with March and Simon's (1958, p.74) operational definition, interest in the topic widely increased

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in the late 1980s (Riketta, 2005), particularly with the application of Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) to work settings.

Ashforth and Mael (1989) defined social identification as the oneness with the group that leads to activities in support of the group (i.e., organization). Accordingly, the value congruence between the individual and the organization determines the quality of the identification process. Once organizational identification is formed, employees act toward the welfare of the organization. The main mechanism of this specific relationship depends on the assumption that an organization's successes and failures are felt personally by employees who are identified with their organizations. In other words, employees derive an important part of the proportion of their self-esteem from membership in their organization. OI can be revealed as a product of a positive relationship between the employee and the organization. However, one might presume that the experience of unpleasant behaviors (i.e., mobbing, workplace bullying, etc.) within the organization might have a detrimental effect on the organizational identification process.

The Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) serves as theoretical background for the association between mobbing and OI. The concept of Social Exchange Theory refers to an unspecified exchange where one party needs to trust the other, and the received benefits are reciprocal. In work settings, employees repay favorable work conditions through good performance and desired attitudes and behaviors without any formal contracts. That is, employees suffer a loss of identification when they perceive unfavorable treatments from their organization. Since mobbing is perceived as unfair by the victims, Social Exchange Theory presents the mechanisms through which mobbing is generalized into a negative evaluation of the employment relationship, leading to lower levels of employee OI .

Supporting the theory above, the study by Loh, Restubog, and Zagenczyk (2010) reports a negative association between workplace bullying and workgroup identification in their cross-national sample including Singaporean and Australian employees. The authors suggest that mobbing signals to employees that they do not have meaningful relationships in their workplace, leading them to become less identified with their organizations (Loh et al., 2010). Escartin, Ullrich, Zapf, Schlüter, and Van Dick (2013) report that being identified with the workgroup reduces the odds of bullying on their sample of industry, service, and educational employees. Similarly, Topa and Moriano (2013) note that group identity and group support have negative effects on horizontal mobbing in a sample of Spanish nurses.

Although studies on the direct effect of mobbing on organizational identification are rare, the relationship between mobbing and organizational commitment is well documented. OI and affective organizational commitment (AOC) are similar, albeit different, concepts. The meta-analysis of Riketta (2005) notes that the shared variance between affective organizational commitment and OI is 61% (Riketta, 2005). Bowling and Beehr (2006) report a significant negative association between mobbing and organizational commitment in their meta-analysis. Consistent with these findings,

Cantisano, Domínguez, and Depolo (2008) reveal a moderate correlation between harassment and organizational commitment. Studies conducted in Turkey also confirm the negative effects of mobbing on organizational commitment on a sample of health sector employees (e.g., Özler, Atalay, & Şahin, 2008; Yüksel & Tunçsiper, 2011) and hotel workers (Pelit & Kılıç, 2012). Borrowing from affective organizational commitment literature, we presume that exposure to mobbing decreases the organizational identification of employees. Thus,

Hypothesis 1: Mobbing is negatively related to OI.

Moderating Effect of Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

Perceived organizational support is described as "a general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values (employees') general contributions and cares for their well-being" (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990, p.52). Employees develop general beliefs concerning how much their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being in order to assess the organization's readiness to reward increased efforts (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001).

Perceived organizational support includes supporting attitudes and behaviors from co-workers, supervisors, and the organization, which indicates that the organization is ready to provide voluntary and consistent support to employees when needed (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). The common consequences of POS are commonly reported as high organizational commitment (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore and Tetrick, 1991; Shore and Wayne, 1993), positive emotions about the job (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2001), low level of job stress (e.g., Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999), lower disengagement behaviors in the form of turnover intentions and absenteeism (e.g., Aquino & Griffeth, 1999; Turunç & Çelik, 2010), higher organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Shore and Wayne, 1993), and higher organizational identification (Turunç & Çelik, 2010).

Tyler and Lind's (1992) relational model of authority theory provides a theoretical explanation for the moderating effect of POS. The theory provides that individuals tend to value group membership as it offers employees feelings of self-worth. The main part of this feeling is to the extent an employee believes that s/he is treated fairly and supported by the authority figures of the organization. Thus, it can be assumed that POS might be considered a signal for an individual, indicating that they are valued and cared for. In this sense, the victims of mobbing may also perceive support from their organizations. Thus, we argue that POS might hamper the negative effects of mobbing in a way that organizational support, as well as the presence of the effective implementation of workplace policies, help the victims cope with mobbing (Keashly, 2001). Alternatively, together with the Social Exchange Theory, based on the norm of reciprocity, the employee victims of mobbing who

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perceive adequate support from their organization continue to repay, dedicate themselves, and identify with their organizations.

Even though no study directly investigated the moderating effect of POS on the relationship between mobbing and organizational identification (OI), the literature has documented possible moderating effects of POS on the relationship between mobbing/workplace bullying and several organizational outcomes. These outcome variables include turnover and job satisfaction (Francis, 2014; Quine, 2001; Djurkovic, McCormack, & Casimir, 2008). For instance, Quine (2001) reports that POS moderates the effects of mobbing on the relationship between bullying, job satisfaction, and propensity to leave in their sample of nurses. Djurkovic, McCormack, and Casimir (2008) demonstrate that POS moderates the effects of bullying on intention to leave in school teachers. Consistent with their results, Ciby and Raya (2014) also confirm the positive role of POS on workplace bullying and turnover intentions. In this sense, one might argue that POS allows an understanding of employees' favorable reactions to positive treatment by their organizations. As reported by Francis (2014), POS, as a moderating variable, lessens the negative effects on employees of workplace bullying on job satisfaction and intention to leave. In other words, the presence of POS helps the employees personify their organization and makes them have benevolent intentions, thus creating a feeling of identification toward the organization. The current study hypothesizes that the negative relationship between mobbing and organizational identification lessens when employees perceive higher organizational support. Thus,

H2: Perceived organizational support acts as a moderator on the relationship between mobbing and organizational identification.

Method

Research Design

The present study used the cross-sectional research design. The research design is quantitative and descriptive/correlational in nature.

Research Sample

The current study is part of a larger project on the individual and organizational outcomes of mobbing. The study was conducted in a higher education institution in Ankara, Turkey. We administered a self-report survey to a convenience sample of academics and administrative staff currently employed by the university. Convenient sample method was used to reach out to the participants. Participants were provided with a consent form describing the study's purpose and ensuring the confidential nature of the study. A total of 350 questionnaires were distributed, and 152 were returned. The response rate (43.4%) is satisfactory and similar to self-report survey research of this type (Babbie, 2001). The final sample consisted of 123

academics and 29 administrative staff. 103 participants were women (68.2%), and the average tenure was eight years.

Research Instruments and Procedures

Leymann inventory of psychological terror. Mobbing was assessed by using the Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terror (Leymann, 1996). The inventory includes 45 items. The sample items include "oral threats are made" and "your political or religious beliefs are ridiculed." The scale reflects mobbing behaviors, and the participants responded to the degree they have suffered from such behaviors during the last six months, on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (every day). The Turkish version of the instrument is borrowed from Erenler (2010). Three bilingual researchers reviewed and revised the items of the scale to better measure behaviors in an educational organization. No disagreements were identified among these three judges. Higher scores indicate a higher prevalence of mobbing. Although the original instrument consists of five subscales, the current study used the total score. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .97 in the current study.

Perceived organizational support. We used an eight-item version of the scale developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986) to measure POS of respondents. Participants rated eight items (e.g., Help is available from the organization when I have a problem) in terms of how applicable each statement was to their current job. Responses ranged from definitely disagree (1) to definitely agree (5), indicating that higher scores are representative of higher POS levels. The Turkish adaptation of the instrument is borrowed from Erenler (2010). The Cronbach alpha reliability score for the instrument in the current study was .86.

Organizational identification scale. Participants' organizational identification was measured by the Organizational Identification Scale (Mael, 1988). The scale includes six items. Cronbach alpha for this scale was found to be .81 (Mael, 1988). The sample items included "When someone criticizes the organization it feels like a personal insult". The Turkish translation of the organizational identification scale is borrowed from Güleryüz (2004). The Cronbach alpha for Turkish form was found to be .80 (Güleryüz, 2004). In the current study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .91.

Data Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to determine the factor structure of the Leymann inventory of psychological terror, perceived organizational support scale, and organizational identification scale with the maximum likelihood estimation. Before conducting CFA, skewness & kurtosis, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov, tests were performed for assumptions of CFA. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were assessed using moderated regression analyses. The moderated regression analysis was conducted by regressing the mobbing, perceived organizational support, and organizational identification on a linear combination of predictors, moderator, and predictors-moderator interactions.

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Results

Preliminary Analyses

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA). Before conducting the analysis, the data were screened for assumptions of CFA, and there were no univariate and multivariate outliers. As no violations for multivariate normality were detected, we performed CFA on mobbing, POS, and organizational identification. For the mobbing scale, the single-factor model was tested. After removing the non-significant loadings of item 45 (p=.12, ns), item 43 (p=.20, ns), item 42 (p= .19, ns), item 44 (p=.16, ns), item 32 (p=.14, ns), and item 39 (p=.14, ns) and adding covariance terms between items 10-11, items 17-18, and items 26-36, the final model approached to adequate fit (X^2 (df = 699) = 936.7, p< 0.05, cmin/df= 1.34, CFI = 0.97, TLI = 0.97, GFI = 0.55, SRMR= .008, and RMSEA = 0.07). We created the mobbing index by averaging the remaining 39 relevant items.

For the POS scale, the one-dimensional factor measurement model afforded a good fit to the data (X^2 (df = 20) = 40.96, p< 0.05, cmin/df= 2.15, CFI = 0.98, TLI = 0.95, GFI = 0.94, SRMR= .037, and RMSEA = 0.08), providing evidence that eight items were significantly loaded on the respective latent variable of perceived organizational support. Similarly, for the organizational identification, the single factor model fit the data well (x^2 (df = 9) = 14.18, p=.11, cmin/df= 1.57, CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.98, GFI = 0.97, SRMR= .027, and RMSEA = 0.04), providing evidence of a one-factor model.

Descriptive statistics. Table 1 shows the zero order correlations among the study variables as well as the reliability scores of the instruments.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations among Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Gender	-	.098	-.134*	.065	.136
2. Age		-	-.199*	.017	.079
3. Mobbing			(.97)	-.494**	-.154
4.POS				(.90)	.537**
5.Org. Identification					(.91)
Mean.	--	--	1.47	2.93	3.06
SD	--	--	.58	.82	.93

Note: Reliabilities are presented at the diagonal in bold. Sample size= 152
*p<.05, ** p<.01, Gender was coded 0=women 1=men

The correlations between the study variables are somewhat in the hypothesized directions; such that, mobbing is negatively correlated with POS (*r* = -0.49, *p* < .01); however, it is not significantly correlated with organizational identification (*r* = -0.15,

p>.05) and POS is significantly and positively correlated with organizational identification (*r* = 0.54, *p*< .01). Those findings partially confirm the hypotheses of the study.

Hypotheses Testing

A moderated regression analysis was conducted with organizational identification as the dependent variable, mobbing as the independent variable, and perceived organizational support as the moderator. We followed the recommendations of Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003), and mean centered the independent variable and the moderator variable. We entered the independent and moderator variables in the first step, and the interaction term in the second step. Table 2 provides the hierarchical regression findings.

Table 2

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Predicting Organizational Identification

Predictors	B	R^2	Change in R^2	F
Step 1		.30	-	32,58**
Mobbing	.147			
POS	.609**			
Step 2	.058		.010	22,59**
Mobbing	.058			
POS	.592**			
Mobbing*POS	-.129			

Note: N=152, **p<.01

As can be seen in Table 2, mobbing and POS accounted for 30% variance in organizational identification [F (2.151) = 32.58, p<.01]. Among the direct effects, the standardized regression coefficient for POS (β= .609, p<.01) was significant; however, no significant main effect of mobbing was found. Thus, H1 is not supported. The second step of the regression model was significant [F (3,151) = 22. 59, p<.01]. Among the direct effects, POS was found to be significant (β= .59, p<.01). However, change in R^2 was not significant. Thus, the interaction term was not found to be significant, meaning that the interaction term did not explain significant incremental variance in organizational identification. In congruence with this finding, H2 is not supported as the interaction effect was not significant.

Discussion and Conclusion

Discussion

The current study aimed to examine the relationship between mobbing and organizational identification, as well as the moderating effect of perceived organizational support on this relationship. The study results showed that mobbing

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is not significantly associated with organizational identification and POS did not influence the strength of the relationship between the mobbing and organizational identification. Nevertheless, the findings suggest that POS is positively and directly associated with organizational identification, consistent with Eisenberger and Stinglhamber's (2011) findings. Similarly, Lam, Liu, and Loi (2016) found the positive effect of POS on organizational identification. Regarding the studies in educational settings, the findings of the study confirmed Sokmen, Ekmekcioglu, and Celik's (2015) study, in which a positive relationship was found between POS and organizational identification with a sample of research assistants from different public universities.

The results failed to replicate the direct effect of mobbing on organizational identification in Loh et al. (2010). There might be other factors affecting employees' identification to their educational organizations other than mobbing. In other words, organizational identification might be more related to global beliefs concerning the well-being of employees rather than specific ones, such as mobbing. Literature suggests that prestige and distinctiveness of the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Lee, 1971), opportunities for career advancement, positive interpersonal relationships (Johnston & Hewstone, 1990), and higher perceived access to organizational hierarchy foster organizational identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Lee, 1971; Reade, 2001), while workplace ostracism (Wu, Liu & Hui, 2010) diminishes the levels of organizational identification.

The lack of a relationship between mobbing and organizational identification might be explained by the fact that individuals are motivated to achieve and maintain positive concepts of themselves. As OI refers to the extent to which employees define themselves by organizational attributes, employees who have favorable work experiences might be more prone to develop OI for their organizations. In this sense, our study results might support this assumption by validating the positive association between POS and organizational identification in congruence with the previous literature (e.g., Edwards, 2009; Edwards, & Peccei, 2010; Fuller, Barnett, Hester, & Relyea, 2003; Riketta, Van Dick, & Rousseau, 2006; Caesens, Marique, & Stinglhamber, 2014). More clearly, it can be argued that when employees perceive support from their organizations (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), this might increase their sense of self-regard and lead to an increase in their identification levels to their organizations (Edwards & Peccei, 2010).

Alternatively, Turkey's standing on power distance (Hofstede, 1983) might be an important reason for the insignificant relationship between mobbing and organizational identification. Moreno-Jiménez et al. (2008) indicate that countries characterized by high power distance tend to experience higher levels of mobbing. Despite its higher level, mobbing is generally more accepted in high power distance cultures (Loh et al., 2010). In this sense, Lim (2011) reports significant differences between US and Singaporean employees' workplace bullying experiences. As a high-power distance culture, Singaporeans report significantly lower levels of workplace

bullying exposure with respect to the frequency. Thus, consistent with the literature, it might be argued that individuals in Turkey, as a high-power distance culture (Hofstede, 1983), are less likely to be responsive and voice their opinions about mobbing relative to counterparts from low-power distance cultures (Lim, 2011). Consistent with this argument, the fear of power and position were found to be the most important organizational factor that leads to mobbing in Turkey (Akar, Anafarta and Sarvan, 2011). However, as the current study has not measured the cultural value orientations of the participants directly, future studies assessing espoused the cultural value orientations of participants would provide more accurate information of the impact of cultural effects.

Conclusion

The study results highlight the importance of providing organizational support on the organizational identification level of employees to their organizations. That is, one might argue that educational institutions would greatly benefit from having employees who perceive high organizational support. Accordingly, enhancing organizational support is one of the most important ways to increase feelings of organizational identification. Valuing employees' contributions, acting in their best interests, and showing concern are some ways to enhance their perceptions of organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Moreover, such perceptions can be enhanced by human resources practices as well as managerial staff, such as maintaining open channels of communication and providing ethical and favorable working environments to educational employees (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

Recommendations

The present study is not without its limitations. First, given the cross-sectional research design of the study, we are unable to refer any causal relationship among the study variables. Future studies might benefit from collecting data in different times to obtain further causality linkages between these variables. Second, as the variables were measured using the same method source at a single measurement time, common method error bias might affect the results (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Although several remedies were taken, future research can minimize the bias by using multiple sources and methods. Given these results, it would be useful for future research to assess the moderating role of other dispositional or situational variables such as locus of control, personality type of employees, and organizational culture and/or power distance. Moreover, future research might also investigate other work outcomes such as intention to leave, job satisfaction, and job performance.

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Yıldırma, Örgütsel Özdeşim ve Algılanan Destek: Bir Yüksek Öğretim Kurumundan Bulgular

Özet

Problem Durumu: İşyerlerinde önemli stres kaynaklarından biri olarak kabul edilen yıldırma, "bir veya birkaç kişi tarafından en az altı ay süre ile sistematik olarak genelde bir kişiye karşı uygulanan, düşmanca ve ahlak dışı hareketler içeren ve bu kişinin yardımsız ve savunmasız bir duruma düşmesine neden olan davranışlar" olarak tanımlamaktadır. Bu kapsamda yıldırma, çalışanlara üstleri, astları veya eşit düzeyde olanlar tarafından sistematik biçimde uygulanan, en az altı aydır devam eden, her türlü kötü muamele, tehdit, şiddet ve aşağılama içeren davranışlar olarak değerlendirilmektedir.

Yıldırmanın hedefi olan birey, hem kendisi hem de örgüt için ciddi sonuçlar doğurabilecek fiziksel ve psikolojik sorunlarla yüz yüze gelmektedir. Tekrarlanan olumsuz davranışlarla karşılaşan kişi, kendisini dışlanmış, aşırı çalışmaya zorlanmış ve kişilik hakları, mesleki statüsü ve sağlığı açısından zedelenmiş hissetmektedir. Bu nedenle bireysel ve örgütsel düzeyde olumsuz sonuçlara neden olabilecek yıldırmanın farkına varılması, nedenlerinin belirlenmesi ve çözüm önerilerinin

geliştirilmesi büyük önem taşımaktadır. Yıldırmaya maruz kalma durumu farklı sektör çalışanlarında görülmekle birlikte araştırmalar yıldırmanın en yaygın olduğu ortamlardan birinin akademik ortamlar olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Mobbing ile Mücadele Derneği'ne göre yıldırma davranışları Türkiye'de en fazla üniversitelerde görülmektedir. Ancak ilgili alanyazın incelendiğinde eğitim ve yükseköğretim kurumlarında, yıldırmanın çeşitli bireysel ve örgütsel tutumlarla ilişkisini ele alan kapsamlı çalışmaların sınırlı sayıda olduğu görülmüştür.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu doğrultuda çalışmada yükseköğretim kurumlarında çalışan akademik ve idari personelin maruz kaldıkları yıldırma davranışları ile örgütsel özdeşim ve algılanan örgütsel destek değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkiler incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın iki amacı bulunmaktadır. Bu amaçlardan ilki; üniversitede yıldırma ile örgütsel özdeşim arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Örgütsel özdeşim, örgütün ve çalışanın amaçlarının bütünleşmesi veya uyuşmasıdır. Örgütsel özdeşimin gerçekleştiği durumlarda çalışanlar kurumlarına karşı aidiyet hissetmekte, sadakat göstermekte ve kurum değerlerini benimsemektedirler. Çalışanların yıldırma davranışlarına maruz kalmalarının onların kurumlarına karşı hissettikleri örgütsel özdeşimlerini azaltacağı düşünülmektedir. Çalışmanın ikinci amacı ise yıldırma ve örgütsel özdeşim arasındaki ilişkide algılanan örgütsel desteğin düzenleyici etkisini ortaya koymaktır. Örgütsel destek, örgütün çalışanın katılımına önem vermesi ve iyiliğini önemsemesine ilişkin duygulardır. Çalışanın örgütsel desteğin varlığını algılamasının, yıldırma davranışlarının örgütsel özdeşim üzerindeki olumsuz etkisini azaltabileceği öngörülmektedir. Bu çerçevede çalışma kapsamında test edilecek hipotezler aşağıda yer almaktadır:

H1: Yıldırma ile örgütsel özdeşim arasında negatif yönde bir ilişki vardır.

H2: Yıldırma ile örgütsel özdeşim arasındaki ilişkide örgütsel desteğin düzenleyici rolü vardır. Şöyle ki, örgütsel destek arttıkça, yıldırmanın örgütsel özdeşim üzerindeki etkisi azalmaktadır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Çalışmada veri toplamak amacıyla Leymann (1996) tarafından geliştirilen ve araştırmacılar tarafından üniversite ortamına uygun olarak çevirisi düzenlenen 45 maddelik Psikolojik Terör Envanteri, Eisenberger ve arkadaşları (1986) tarafından geliştirilen ve Türkçe adaptasyonu Erenler (2010) tarafından gerçekleştirilen sekiz maddelik Algılanan Örgütsel Destek Ölçeği ve Türkçe formunun geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması Güleryüz (2004) tarafından yapılan altı maddelik Örgütsel Özdeşim Ölçeği'nden (Mael, 1988) yararlanılmıştır.

Çalışmaya konu olan veriler, Ankara'da bir devlet üniversitesinde çalışmakta olan akademik ve idari personelden toplanmıştır. Dağıtılan 350 ölçek setinden %43,4 cevaplanma oranıyla 152 personelden geri dönüş alınmıştır. Toplamda çalışmanın örneklemi 123 akademik ve 29 idari personelden oluşmuştur. Katılımcıların, %68,2'si kadın, %31,8'i erkek ve üniversitedeki ortalama hizmet yılı sekiz yıldır. Verilerin analizlerine geçilmeden, ölçüm geçerliliğini test etmek amacı ile kullanılan tüm ölçekler için doğrulayıcı faktör analizleri yapılmıştır. Önerilen hipotezleri test etmek

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için ise Cohen, Cohen, West ve Aiken'in (2003) yöntemi ile düzenleyici regresyon analizi uygulanmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Yapılan analizler sonucunda, yıldırma ve örgütsel desteğin örgütsel özdeşimdeki varyansın %30'unu açıkladığı görülmüştür. Doğrudan etkiler arasında örgütsel desteğin standardize edilmiş regresyon katsayısı ($\beta= .609$, $p<.01$) anlamlıdır ancak yıldırma üzerinde anlamlı etkisi bulunamamıştır. Böylelikle, araştırmanın birinci hipotezi desteklenmemiştir. Örgütsel desteğin düzenleyici rolünün test edildiği ikinci aşamada ise örgütsel desteğin yıldırma ile örgütsel özdeşim arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici etkisinin anlamlı olmadığı görülmüştür. Böylelikle, araştırmanın ikinci hipotezi de reddedilmiştir. Ancak, çalışma bulguları algılanan örgütsel desteğin örgütsel özdeşim üzerinde doğrudan anlamlı ve olumlu yönde etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir ($\beta= .59$, $p<.01$).

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Elde edilen sonuçlar, çalışanların kurumlarına olan örgütsel özdeşimlerinin artması ya da azalmasında yıldırma davranışları haricinde algılanan örgütsel destek gibi başka faktörlerin de etkili olabileceğini göstermiştir. Bir diğer ifadeyle, örgütsel özdeşim üzerinde yıldırma davranışlarının yıkıcı etkilerinden çok; çalışanların iş yerlerinde desteklendiği ve yönetimi arkalarında hissettikleri durumların daha çok etkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bu bulgu, çalışanlarının örgütsel özdeşim ve aidiyetlerini artırmak isteyen eğitim kurumları yöneticilerine örgütsel desteğin önemi ve yararları hakkında uygulamaya dönük katkılar sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Yıldırma, örgütsel özdeşim, algılanan örgütsel destek, yüksek öğretim kurumları, üniversite.

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Students' Responses to CL-Based Teaching of English Prepositions*

Bui Phu HUNG[1], Vien TRUONG[2], Ngoc Vu NGUYEN[3]

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	Purpose: Most EFL textbooks suggest the use of vivid pictures and verbal explanations in teaching English prepositions. However, this word class appears in collocations, and rote-learning does not really help learners retain and use this word class successfully. Cognitive linguistics (CL) has implications for English language teaching as it rests against the relationship between the human mind and language. Several experimental studies have aimed to investigate the effects of CL-based treatment on learners' retention of target foreign or second language. However, most of these studies have not placed an emphasis on the learners' opinions of CL-based teaching. This current study aimed to collect college students' responses to CL-based teaching of English prepositions.

Research Methods: The study was conducted for four weeks, with a 90-minute session each time per week. The students learned the spatial meanings and then the metaphorical meanings of the ten prepositions *above, among, at, behind, beside, between, in, in front of, on,* and *under.* Questionnaires were administered before the study to collect the participants' opinions of the traditional teaching (primarily based on vivid pictures and verbal explanations) and after the study to collect the participants' opinions of the CL-based teaching of the prepositions. The participants' responses to the questionnaires were subject to comparison. Their responses in the interview after the study provided an in-depth qualitative analysis of the quantitative findings from the questionnaires. **Results:** All students generally showed positive opinions of the treatment and believed that the instructions were appropriate and positively affected their memories of the prepositions. They especially appreciated the use of image schemas to teach the semantics of the prepositions. **Implications for Research and Practice:** Most participants became more confident in both understanding and using the prepositions under CL-based teaching.

Introduction

The Context of the Study

Teaching of English prepositions is primarily based on pictorial illustrations and verbal explanations. However, recent research shows that most EFL students encounter problems in preposition use (Cho, 2010). It is crucial to develop effective methods of teaching prepositions. Contemporary literature shows that the acquisition and learning of an additional language should be based on its semantic properties to a certain extent (Ticio & Avram, 2015). Regarding adult language learning, it is widely accepted that there are connections between language production and memory, as using an additional language requires some cognitive process (Kroll, Dussias, Bice & Perrotti, 2015; Skrzypek & Singleton, 2013). The emergence of cognitive linguistics (CL) has implications for teaching English prepositions as it rests itself against the relationship between the human mind and language. In particular, it suggests the teaching of English prepositions should be meaning-based (Boers, 2011).

Different from other linguistic schools that aim at the output of language, cognitive linguistics explores how the output is generated. Consequently, it has many implications for English language teaching and learning. In terms of prepositions, cognitive linguists believe that humans first experience the physical relations between objects and then express such spatial relations in their language coding, called spatial meanings (Lee, 2001). These meanings can be either prototypical or non-prototypical. The following examples can illustrate the Theory of Prototype:

(1)   the cat in the house

(2)   the flowers in the vase

(3)   the bird in the tree

(4)   the finger in the ring

Example (1) shows a prototypical meaning of the preposition *in*. In particular, *the cat* is known as the trajector (the thing mentioned) and *the house* is the landmark or the reference point. Prototypically, the preposition *in* is used to indicate that the trajector is absolutely inside the landmark. Nevertheless, in examples (2), (3), and (4), the landmarks do not absolutely cover the trajectors, namely *the flowers, the bird,* and *the finger*. The preposition *in* used in (3) means that English speakers include the branches of the tree to mean *inside* by the preposition *in* (Lee, 2001).

Previous Research

There have been a number of studies on cognitive linguistics and teaching English prepositions, among which are Hung (2017), Song, Schnotz, and Juchem-Grundmen (2015), Bielak and Pawlak (2013), Tyler, Mueller and Ho (2011), Beréndi (2005), Boers (2000), Kemmerer (2005), and Huong (2005). These are considered relevant studies as they were conducted in EFL contexts, and have several things in

common. First, inspired by the Theory of Image Schemas, the semantics of the target items as CL were presented in the form of image schemas, as CL is a meaning-motivated approach. "An image schema is a relatively abstract conceptual representation that arises directly from our everyday interaction with and observation of the world around us [and it] derive[s] from sensory and perceptual experience" (Evans, 2007, p. 106). That is, humans experience the world through everyday observation and interaction from the senses and form conceptual representations of what they have experienced. Song et al. (2015) constructed two-dimensional image schemas based on the relationship between the trajector and the landmark, their distance, the presence or absence of contact, shape, and size of the trajector and landmark, and the orientation of the trajectory with respect to the landmark. It is also believed that image schemas can be three-dimensional (Hung, 2017). Hung (2017), Song et al. (2015), and Tyler et al. (2011) conducted experimental studies applying image schemas to teaching English prepositions.

Also, explicit formal instruction was applied as CL is a usage-based approach. Recent research in ELT and applied linguistics has also demonstrated that explicit instruction is significant in EFL contexts, where there is a lack of out-of-class exposure to English language use (Ellis, 2008). Bielak et al. (2013), Beréndi (2005), Huong (2005), and Tyler et al. (2011) applied teacher-fronted instructions in their studies and the findings were positive.

 Hung (2017), Beréndi (2005), Boers (2000), and Song et al. (2015) also applied the Theory of Conceptual Metaphors and Domain Mapping in their studies. The Theory of Conceptual Metaphors emphasizes humans' experience of the world (Evans, 2007, p. 137; Zhao, 2000). Zhao (2000) further explains that most everyday conversations take advantage of conceptual metaphors. Evans (2007, p. 51-53) and Tyler & Evans (2003) assert that prepositions can transfer from domain to domain. The domain in which prepositions are used with spatial meanings are called source domain and target domain (Figure 1). The spatial domain is usually the source domain and the target domain can be the temporal domain, where prepositions are used to indicate time and/or the abstract domain, where metaphors of prepositions are used.

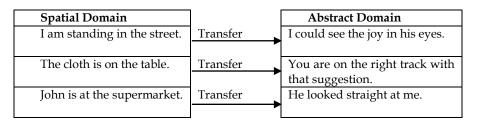| **Spatial Domain**		**Abstract Domain**
I am standing in the street.	Transfer →	I could see the joy in his eyes.
The cloth is on the table.	Transfer →	You are on the right track with that suggestion.
John is at the supermarket.	Transfer →	He looked straight at me.

Figure 1. *Cross-domain mapping of the prepositions in, on, and at*

Adapted from Lee, 2001, pp. 4-23.

Several studies were based on basic concepts in cognitive linguistics and proved successful in terms of effectiveness. This study made attempts to extend the previous studies to teaching ten prepositions: *above, among, at, behind, beside, between, in, in front of, on,* and *under*. Also, this study made efforts to provide time for productive skills after instruction. Some of the aforementioned studies did not apply any tasks for productive skills after instruction. However, contemporary literature shows that applying tasks for language production may help learners retain the target items longer (Bielak et al., 2013; Ellis, 2008; Norris & Ortega, 2000).

A number of studies showed positive results of the effectiveness of applying cognitive linguistics in teaching English prepositions. Kemmerer (2005) did several experimental studies and concluded that the spatial and metaphorical meanings of English prepositions could be taught separately.

It is important to know that most of these studies only focused on experimental studies. This study was not to develop nor to test the hypotheses of CL; rather, it was to investigate the participants' opinions of CL-based teaching of the prepositions to provide an alternative in English language teaching and implications for future research and practice.

Research Questions

1. What are the students' responses to CL-based teaching of the spatial meanings of the prepositions?

2. What are the students' responses to CL-based teaching of the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions?

Method

Research Design

The present paper mainly aimed to investigate students' opinions of CL-based teaching of English prepositions. To this aim, the study employed both qualitative and quantitative research designs during the data collection and analysis phases. Similar questionnaires were administered before and after the course. The only difference between them was in wording, in that the pre-questionnaire asked the participants' opinions of the treatment of prepositions and what type of treatment they had previously experienced. The quantitative data collected from the questionnaires were input into SPSS for computation. Also, all the participants were invited for an interview to triangulate the findings. The qualitative data collected from the interview were subject to a theme-based analysis. The recordings of the class performances were used to assure the validity and reliability of the findings.

Research Sample

Twenty-five first-year students from different intact classes at a university in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, were involved in the study. The new enrollees only needed to take four on-campus required courses of four hours a week. Thus, they had time to voluntarily attend one of these experimental classes and were required to take the same number of EFL courses. None of these classes, as scheduled, were constructed in English, which partly prevented incomparable exposure to English language during the study. Finally, they had an online account registered by the school, which helped the researcher communicate with the participants about research-related issues. The selected participants gained a score range of 17 to 23 out of 60, had a similar history of learning English, and a comparable level of motivation for joining the study.

Four EFL teachers voluntarily agreed to participate in this study. To be specific, two EFL (English-as-a-foreign-language) teachers with similar teacher characteristics (comparable experience as EFL teachers, qualifications, and age) volunteered to be involved in the study. Two other EFL teachers with an MTESOL working on campus volunteered to be assistants to the researcher to observe and video-record the class sessions.

Pilot Study

The procedure of the pilot was the same as that of the main study. As the Academic Council of the school agreed to the application of cognitive linguistics to teaching English prepositions to the students in the institution, the teachers involved were aware of how to apply cognitive linguistics, as they had had opportunities to apply the required instructional treatment in previous semesters. Teacher training was unnecessary, but observation was done throughout the four weeks. The factor analysis of the questionnaire showed there was only one component in each of the clusters. After the pilot, there were no amendments to the questionnaire. The participants involved in the pilot study did not participate in the main study.

Research Procedures and Instruments

The CL-based instruction was explicit, inductive, and meaning-focused. The teacher related the spatial and metaphorical meanings by using the same image schemas. In other words, meaningful learning was accommodated in hope that the participants had an opportunity to form a long-term systematic memory.

There were also five main activities in each session. The main difference in teaching the spatial meanings and metaphorical meanings was in the warm-up activity and teacher-fronted instruction. More specifically, in lessons of spatial meanings, the participants were required to gap-fill five sentences depicting five pictures given. The answers to these questions were given in the form of image schemas. In activity 2, each preposition was instructed with three examples, each of which was illustrated by a real-life picture directing the image schema, which

focused on the relation between the trajector and the landmark in the hope that the participants could generalize the semantics of the preposition. Teaching the metaphorical meanings related to the new input to the participants' existing knowledge. The teacher first delivered a review session in which image schemas of the prepositions to teach were displayed with examples of their spatial meanings. Then, instruction on metaphorical meanings of the prepositions was given by the teacher. Each preposition was presented with three examples, leading the participants to the same image schema used in the lessons of spatial meanings.

The questionnaires were based on Harmer (2009), Thornbury (2002), Ur (2009), and Hung (2017). Similar questionnaires were administered before and after the course. The only difference between the questionnaires was in their wording, in that the pre-questionnaire asked the participants about their opinions of the previous treatment they had experienced and what type of treatment they experienced; the post-questionnaire asked about their opinions on the treatment. The questionnaire was composed of a Likert-scale from 1-5 (1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = unsure/neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree) with 22 items. Items 1-5 asked about their interest in and appropriacy of CL-based teaching of the spatial meanings of the prepositions, items 6-11 about the effects of the CL-based teaching of spatial meanings, items 12-16 about the interest and appropriacy of CL-based teaching of the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions, and items 17-22 about the effects of CL-based teaching of metaphorical meanings. All the questionnaire items were translated into Vietnamese and then interpreted when administered. The interview questions also applied the framework of the questionnaire, but were open-ended to collect the participants' in-depth responses to the treatment.

Data Analysis

As this study was both qualitative and quantitative, the quantitative data collected from the participants' responses to Part 2 of the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire were input into SPSS for quantitative analysis. The findings were then compared to see their opinions of the treatments they had previously received from other teachers (Part 2 of the pre-questionnaire) and CL-based treatment in the course of this study (Part 2 of the post-questionnaire). In addition, their qualitative answers in the interview were thematically analyzed. The presentation of the analysis was divided into clusters for comparisons of results from the pre- and post-questionnaires. Each category included both the quantitative results from the questionnaires and the qualitative responses collected in the interview. Although the translated versions (in Vietnamese) of these instruments were administered, the researcher also explained each item in Vietnamese to avoid the participants' misunderstanding or confusion. In the interview, the researcher prepared some examples of the image schemas and the metaphorical meanings as illustrations. Part 1 of the pre-questionnaire asked about the participants' previous learning experiences and motivation for joining the study. Part 1 of the post-questionnaire asked about the participants' other comments.

Results

Participants' Responses to the Treatments of the Spatial Meanings of the Prepositions

The interest and appropriacy of a teaching method is one of the main categories in evaluation of whether that teaching method should be applied (Hung, 2017). A comparison of the participants' responses to the previous teaching and CL-based teaching of spatial meanings of the prepositions (Tables 1 and 2) showed that CL-based teaching of the spatial meanings was considered more appropriate and interesting than the treatment they previously experienced (primarily based on vivid pictures and verbal explanation, as in responses to the pre-questionnaire). In particular, they appreciated the teacher's instruction and the class activities the most, with a rise of .72 and .60, respectively. However, there was only a slight increase (.32) in whether the instructions clearly presented the spatial meanings of the prepositions. In short, all of the areas that asked about CL-based teaching were highly appreciated by the participants.

A qualitative analysis of the participants' responses in the interview confirmed the findings from the test instruments and questionnaires. While most of the participants provided positive feedback, the responses from the participants coded as C8, C14, C15, and C22 were of concern. All the participants liked the teacher's instructions and believed that the image schemas could clearly represent the meanings of the instructed prepositions, but they doubted the appropriacy of the treatment. Participants C8, C14, and C15 said they could visualize and form the abstract image in their minds themselves, without the teacher's use of the image schemas. They added that the teacher should have made the lessons more interesting by using songs and/or applying a sense of humor. Participant C22 responded that she felt uncomfortable with the teacher and other participants. She revealed that it usually took her two weeks to make friends with new classmates, which was why she did not improve any in the knowledge of spatial meanings. In contrast, participants C6, C10, C20, and C25 provided real enthusiasm and positive responses. They all said that prepositions indicating locations and places should be instructed with visuals rather than words and the use of the image schemas could form generalizations. Participants C6 and C17 were concerned if other prepositions could be instructed with image schemas, as prepositions might have overlapping meanings in use that might cause confusion among learners.

Table 1

Interest and Appropriacy of Teaching of the Spatial Meanings in Previous Learning Experiences

	Item (n=25)	Mean	SD
1	I liked my previous teachers' instructions on the spatial meanings of English prepositions (e.g., *The pen is __on__ the desk.*).	3.08	.493
2	My previous teachers' instructions on the spatial meanings of English prepositions were appropriate.	3.12	.526
3	My previous teachers' instructions clearly presented the spatial meanings of English prepositions.	3.20	.500
4	I enjoyed my previous class activities for teaching the spatial meanings of English prepositions.	3.08	.493
5	My previous class activities for teaching the spatial meanings of English prepositions were appropriate.	3.28	.458
	Total	3.15	.202

Table 2

Interest and Appropriacy of CL-Based Teaching of the Spatial Meanings

	Item (n=25)	Mean	SD
1	I liked the teacher's instructions on the spatial meanings of the prepositions (e.g., *The pen is __on__ the desk.*).	3.80	.707
2	The teacher's instructions on the spatial meanings of the prepositions were appropriate.	3.52	.770
3	The use of image schemas clearly presented the spatial meanings of the prepositions.	3.52	.586
4	I enjoyed the class activities for teaching the spatial meanings of the prepositions.	3.44	.651
5	The class activities for teaching the spatial meanings of the prepositions were appropriate.	3.88	.726
	Total	3.63	.496

The participants' opinions of the effects of the treatment of the spatial meanings of prepositions that the participants had previously undergone prior to the study and the CL-based teaching of the spatial meanings of the prepositions were compared (Tables 3 & 4). Overall, the respondents believed that CL-based treatment had more positive effects than the traditional treatment. In detail, most of the gains in their responses ranged from .76 to .80, except the retention of the spatial meanings. That is, they generally believed that CL-based teaching helped them understand the meanings, the instructions were effective, and they would like to continue to learn under CL-based instructions. Also, they were able to use the prepositions as a result.

Nonetheless, the treatment that helped them retain the meanings was evaluated the least in comparison with the other items, with a gain of .60, although the participants still thought that CL-based treatment assisted them in retaining the spatial meaning better than the traditional one. In a word, the statistics show that CL-based teaching of the spatial meanings of the prepositions was highly appreciated by the participants in that it was appropriate, interesting, and effective.

A qualitative analysis of the participants' responses in the interview confirmed the effects of CL-based teaching of the spatial meanings of the prepositions according to the analysis of quantitative data collected from the questionnaire. Essentially, the participants who made significant gains in the spatial meanings provided positive responses. Participants C2, C6, C10, C17, C24, and C25 especially provided comparatively positive responses about the effects of the CL-based treatment. In detail, they responded that the use of the image schemas helped them easily understand and retain the spatial meanings. The instructions were clear, concise, and sufficient. They also felt confident enough to use the prepositions and hoped that CL-based teaching would be applied widely. Finally, they addressed a wish to sign up for a similar course.

However, participants C9, C13, and C22 gave both positive and neutral opinions of the CL-based treatment, depending on the items asked. They sometimes showed their hesitation to answer the interview questions. When re-asked, C9 and C13 revealed they were unsure if they could use the prepositions effectively. C22 expressed a feeling that the use of lifelike photos or pictures would have made the lessons more interesting.

Table 3

Effects of Teaching of the Spatial Meanings in Previous Learning Experiences

	Items (n=25)	Mean	SD
6	My previous teachers helped me easily understand the spatial meanings of English prepositions (e.g., *The pen is <u>on</u> the desk*.).	3.28	.458
7	My previous teachers helped me retain the spatial meanings of English prepositions.	3.00	.577
8	My previous teachers' instructions on the spatial meanings of English prepositions were effective.	2.96	.611
9	My previous teachers helped me effectively use the spatial meanings of English prepositions.	3.04	.611
10	I would like to continue to learn the spatial meanings of English prepositions under my previous teachers' instructions.	2.96	.539
11	I believe that other teachers should apply my previous teachers' instructions on the spatial meanings of English prepositions.	3.24	.436
	Total	3.08	.221

Table 4

Effects of CL-Based Teaching of the Spatial Meanings

Items (n=25)	Mean	SD
6 The use of image schemas helped me easily understand the spatial meanings of the prepositions (e.g., *The pen is __on__ the desk*.).	4.08	.759
7 The use of image schemas helped me retain the spatial meanings of the prepositions.	3.60	.577
8 The teacher's instructions on the spatial meanings of the prepositions were effective.	3.76	.663
9 The teacher helped me effectively use the spatial meanings of the prepositions.	3.80	.764
10 I would like to continue to learn the spatial meanings of the prepositions under the type of instruction applied in the study.	3.76	.663
11 I believe that other teachers should apply this CL-based treatment of the spatial meanings of the prepositions.	4.00	.764
Total	3.83	.502

In summary, the participants' responses were positive. Those with high gains provided positive responses and those with low gains generally gave neutral opinions. Although the scores of the participants anonymously coded C9 and C13 rose by three points each, they believed they could remember the spatial meanings longer. These participants, together with participant C22, were unsure if they had a good sense of spatial meanings. Their responses showed a weakness in using image schemas that are inherently generalized and uncolored. Also, cognitive linguistics is a usage-based approach; that is, the instructions are somewhat teacher-fronted and require learners' attention. Therefore, C22 said that the instructions were not very interesting. However, the class procedure included a group work activity, during which the learners had an opportunity to speak to their peers after the instruction and exercise.

Participants' Responses to the Treatments of the Metaphorical Meanings of the Prepositions

A breakdown of the participants' responses to the interest and appropriacy of the previous teaching and CL-based teaching of the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions was analyzed (Tables 5 and 6). Their responses to the pre-questionnaire revealed that the previous instructions on the metaphorical meanings were mainly based on verbal explanations; that is, the teachers used verbal language and examples to explain them. Overall, they believed that CL-based teaching was more appropriate and interesting than the instructions they had received from their previous teachers. First, the mean scores for most items were below average, ranging from 2.92 to 2.96. In contrast, the mean scores for their responses to the post-questionnaire varied within a range of 3.40 to 3.68, which resulted in a mean score

development of .472 for this whole cluster. Second, they also showed more interest in CL-based teaching than in the instruction in their prior experiences. CL-based teaching was also considered more appropriate than the instructions they had previously received. However, the class activities were considered only slightly better than the ones in their previous classes.

The participants' responses in the interview provided qualitative data about the treatment. Overall, they preferred the CL-based teaching of the metaphorical meanings to the ways of teaching they had experienced from their previous teachers. The data collected from the interview gave in-depth information and were generally in line with what was obtained from the questionnaires. It could be seen from the data analysis that some of the participants who provided general and neutral opinions of the treatment of the spatial meanings believed that the treatment was interesting and appropriate for metaphorical meanings. Of all participants, C6, C9, C11, C17, C19, C20, C21, C22, and C24 provided very positive responses to the treatment. More specifically, they believed that the application was appropriate and they liked the speaking and writing tasks the most. They used different words, such as cubic pictures and abstract pictures, to refer to the image schemas illustrated by the researcher. Their opinions were re-asked and confirmed by the research.

However, participants C1, C5, C10, C13, and C15 revealed that they were unsure about the appropriacy of the treatment, although they generally liked it. They were also impressed with the speaking and writing tasks after instructions in each session.

Table 5

Interest and Appropriacy of Teaching of the Metaphorical Meanings in Previous Learning Experiences

	Items (n=25)	Mean	SD
12	I liked my previous teachers' instructions on the metaphorical meanings of English prepositions (e.g., *I depend __on__ my family*).	2.96	.539
13	My previous teachers' instructions on the metaphorical meanings of English prepositions were appropriate.	2.96	.539
14	My previous teachers' instructions clearly presented the metaphorical meanings of English prepositions.	2.92	.572
15	I enjoyed my previous class activities for teaching the metaphorical meanings of English prepositions.	2.96	.611
16	My previous class activities for teaching the metaphorical meanings of English prepositions were appropriate.	3.12	.440
	Total	2.98	.208

Table 6

Interest and Appropriacy of CL-Based Teaching of Metaphorical Meanings

Items (n=25)	Mean	SD
12 I liked the teacher's instructions on the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions (e.g., *I depend __on__ my family*).	3.68	.627
13 The teacher's instructions on the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions were appropriate.	3.48	.586
14 The use of image schemas clearly presented the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions.	3.40	.500
15 I enjoyed the class activities for teaching the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions.	3.44	.583
16 The class activities of teaching the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions were appropriate.	3.44	.507
Total	3.49	.183

The participants' opinions of the effects of prior teaching and CL-based teaching of the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions are compared (Tables 7 and 8). In general, they thought that CL-based teaching had better effects than the previous instructions they had received. First, they did not believe that the previous instructions were really effective and they did not want to continue to learn under that type of instruction, with mean scores of 2.92 and 2.96, respectively. However, these corresponding categories in CL-based teaching were highly appreciated, with mean scores of 3.32 and 3.48, respectively. Second, the participants responded that they would like to learn under CL-based teaching more than the traditional instructional descriptions. Finally, whether or not CL-based teaching should be widely applied obtained a slight gain (.32).

The theme-based analysis of the qualitative data collected from the interview demonstrate their confirmation of the quantitative data collected from the questionnaires. Generally, the participants' responses were positive. Participants C6, C9, C19, C20, and C21 gave absolutely positive responses. They believed that CL-based teaching of the prepositions helped them remember and retain the meanings longer and the teacher's instructions were clear and concise.

Nonetheless, responses from participants C2, C8, C12, and C14 were both positive and slightly negative, depending on the items asked. They provided positive feedback about most of the items asked, but C2 and C8 revealed that they did not see any matches between the image schemas applied and the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions. C12 and C14 responded that they did not think they could use the metaphorical meanings effectively.

Interestingly, participant C11 gave a slightly positive or at least neutral opinion about the effects of the treatment. He thought that participating in the study for a longer period would make him understand more about the semantics of the prepositions, as the treatment was short.

Table 7

Effects of Teaching of the Metaphorical Meanings in Previous Learning Experience

	Items (n=25)	Mean	SD
17	My previous teachers helped me easily understand the metaphorical meanings of English prepositions (e.g., *I depend **on** my family*.).	3.24	.436
18	My previous teachers helped me retain the metaphorical meanings of English prepositions.	3.00	.577
19	My previous teachers' instructions on the metaphorical meanings of English prepositions were effective.	2.92	.572
20	My previous teachers helped me effectively use the metaphorical meanings of English prepositions.	3.00	.500
21	I would like to continue to learn the metaphorical meanings of English prepositions under my previous teachers' instructions.	2.96	.611
22	I believe that other teachers should apply my previous teachers' instructions on the metaphorical meanings of English prepositions.	3.20	.408
	Total	3.05	0.224

Table 8

Effects of CL-Based Teaching of Metaphorical Meanings

	Items (n=25)	Mean	SD
17	The use of image schemas helped me easily understand the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions (e.g., *I depend **on** my family*.).	3.60	.577
18	The use of image schemas helped me retain the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions.	3.40	.500
19	The teacher's instructions on the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions were effective.	3.32	.476
20	The teacher helped me effectively use the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions.	3.40	.500
21	I would like to continue to learn the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions under the teacher's instructions.	3.48	.510
22	I believe that other teachers should apply this CL-based treatment of the metaphorical meanings of the prepositions.	3.52	.510
	Total	3.45	.190

In summary, it is obvious from the quantitative and qualitative analyses that the members of the cognitive group believed that CL-based treatment of the prepositions was more appropriate and had better effects on their understanding of both the spatial and metaphorical meanings. They also believed that the CL-based treatment was more applicable for the spatial meanings than the metaphorical meanings. The independent samples t-tests of all four clusters show that the statistics were significant, with *p* (2-tailed) <.01, and the statistics were quite reliable, with Cronbach's alpha (α) = .676 rounded as .7.

Discussion and Conclusion

Discussion of the Results

Concerning the participants' responses to each category about the treatment of the spatial meanings of the prepositions, all participants believed that the treatment was relatively appropriate for teaching spatial meanings. The participants' responses about the appropriacy of the teacher's instructions, use of the image schemas, and class activities in the post-questionnaire constituted mean scores of 3.52, 3.52, and 3.88, respectively. They also confirmed that the treatment was comparatively appropriate. What is more, they also thought that the treatment was generally interesting. They responded that they liked the teacher's instructions and class activities, with a mean score of 3.80 and 3.44, respectively. It is important to note that the mean score for the interest of class activities was the lowest in this construct. Three out of the 25 participants also wanted the teacher to make the activities more interesting (responses from C8, C14, and C15). Also, the participants thought that the use of the image schemas absolutely helped them understand the spatial meanings and other teachers should apply the treatment to teaching the spatial meanings, with a mean score of 4.08 and 4.00, respectively. All also confirmed this in the interview. Additionally, the treatment was considered effective, amounting to a mean score of 3.76. The issues of concern were about the participants' retention and use of the prepositions, with mean scores lower than the mean score of the whole cluster (3.83). Two out of 25 participants explained that they were not confident in their retention and use of the prepositions, but they admitted that their knowledge and use of the prepositions improved slightly. Overall, the participants responded that the CL-based treatment was appropriate and effective, but it was not very interesting.

It can be seen from the analyses that all the categories about the CL-based treatment received the participants' high appreciation. There was a rise in the mean score of each of the items asked. In general, there was a higher rise in the students' evaluation of the treatment on the spatial meanings than the metaphorical meanings. The mean scores for the appropriacy and interest of the treatment of the spatial and metaphorical meanings were 3.632 and 3.488, respectively. They also appreciated the effects of the treatment on their knowledge of the spatial meanings more highly than the metaphorical meanings, with the mean scores of 3.83 and 3.45, respectively. The participants' responses in the interview confirmed this.

Regarding interest and appropriacy, the participants believed that the CL-based treatment was more interesting than what their previous teachers had applied. There was a higher rise in the mean score of the interest of the instructions on the spatial meanings (.72) than the class activities (.36). The participants' responses also revealed that there was a higher rise in the mean score of the interest of the instructions on the metaphorical meanings (.72) than the class activities (.32). In the interview, some of the participants also said that they would have preferred learning with songs, music, or games to make to class more interesting. However, the appropriacy of the treatment underwent a lower mean score increase. The appropriacy levels of the instructions and the class activities for the spatial meanings improved by .40 and .60, and these figures for the metaphorical meanings were .52 and .32, respectively.

The participants also thought that the CL-based treatment had better effects on their knowledge and use of the prepositions than those they had experienced from their previous teachers. The quantitative analysis of the participants' responses to the questionnaires shows that there were rises in all the items of concern. The participants also believed that the treatment had better effects on their understanding of the spatial meanings (m=3.83) than the metaphorical meanings (3.45). The participants placed the highest appreciation on the use of the image schemas and the effectiveness of the whole treatment of the spatial meanings. The mean scores for these two concerns were 4.08 and 4.00 for the spatial meanings and 3.60 and 3.52 for the metaphorical meanings, respectively. The theme-based analysis of the participants' qualitative responses in the interview also showed that they believed the CL-based treatment was more effective for teaching the spatial meanings than the metaphorical meanings. All the participants wanted to continue to learn under the CL-based treatment of prepositions. Their willingness to remain in the treatment of the spatial and metaphorical meanings increased by .80 and .52, respectively.

In a word, the participants appreciated the use of image schemas in teaching the spatial meanings more than the metaphorical meanings. Most of the items referring to the metaphorical meanings amounted to lower mean scores than those referring to the spatial meanings. It may be important here to return to a conclusion in the study by Kemmerer (2005), that the teaching of the spatial and metaphorical meanings of English prepositions could be impaired.

Research Validity and Reliability

Variables should be an issue of concern with a kind of interference in educational research in order to know how valid and reliable the findings are. The selection of the participants in the present study was based on volunteering. The participants' willingness to join this study and their previous learning experiences revealed that they had a comparable level of motivation to participate and had never experienced CL-based teaching of English prepositions before the study. The questionnaires proved understandable to the participants in the pilot study. To avoid the participants' misunderstanding, the translated versions of the questionnaires were administered. Each item in these instruments was explained in Vietnamese. Also, in the interview the researcher showed the sample image schemas and examples of the

spatial and metaphorical meanings as illustrations to avoid the participants' misunderstanding or confusion of the terms used in the questions. The combination of the questionnaires and the interview was to triangulate the research findings. The researcher effect was also minimized by letting another teacher - instead of the researcher - perform the lessons. The teacher training before the study, the observations, and the video-recordings of the class performances also assured what was intended to be applied in this study.

Implications

It is useful at this point to return to Langacker's (2001, p. 3) suggestion that there should be more experimental results of the effectiveness of pedagogical applications of cognitive linguistics. Kemmerer (2005) believes that applying cognitive linguistics to teaching English prepositions is only an alternative. It is not considered the best nor unique as learners may score higher in one type of meaning, spatial or metaphorical. In other words, the transfer of prepositions from one domain to another is not always direct. As a result, the spatial and metaphorical meanings of English prepositions can be taught separately. It seems that at this point it is definitely too early to address with certainty that cognitive linguistics has passed the test of its implications for English language teaching, or that it has failed, and to recommend on this basis certain modifications of the theory. Referring to the experimental results from previous research (Hung, 2017; Song et al., 2015; Tyler et al., 2011), it is somewhat possible to apply cognitive linguistics to teaching the spatial meanings of English prepositions. Optimism with respect to relatively successful pedagogical application of cognitive linguistics are a confirmation of his words that "extensive pedagogical application remains a long-term goal" (Langacker, 2008, p. 66). In future studies, applications extending to learners in other contexts are expected.

Acknowledgement

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Eurasian Journal of Educational Research
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High School Students' Exercise-Related Stages of Change and Physical Activity Self-Efficacy*

Cevdet CENGIZ[1] , Kubra TILMAC[2]

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	Purpose: The existing literature has shown that the amount of sedentary time during early adolescence is low. This decrease is more pronounced among girls than boys. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to analyze high school students' exercise-related stages of change (ESC) and physical activity self-efficacy (PASE) for overcoming barriers with respect to gender, age, and school type. **Research Methods:** The survey method, which employed stratified sampling based on the total number of students at each school, was used to select participants (n=393). **Findings:** According to the results, male students were at more advanced stages of change and had higher levels of self-efficacy for overcoming barriers than their female counterparts. The distribution of high school

students across the stages of change was: inactive stages ($n_{precontemplation, contemplation, and preparation}$=216, 54.9%) and active stages ($n_{action and maintenance}$=177, 45.1%). Gender [ESC X^2(4, n=393)=14.64, *p*=0.01] and the type of school [X^2(20, n=393)=39.42, *p*>0.05] were not significantly related to ESC. MANOVA indicated that self-efficacy was related to ESC (Pillai's Trace=0.09, $F_{(12,678)}$=1.92, *p*<0.05). On the other hand, there was no significant difference in self-efficacy based on age, gender, or school type (*p*>0.05). **Implications for Research and Practice**: The sex of students was a significant variable affecting ESC. In addition, the results indicated that lower level of ESC and less PASE exist among female students. Further research should focus on cultivating girls' exercise habits with the goal of improving exercise behavior intention and self-efficacy for overcoming barriers via stage-specific interventions.

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[1] Corresponding Author: Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Teaching Physical Education and Sport, TURKEY, cevdetcengiz@gmail.com, ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0002-1051-8917
[2] Özel Bahcelievler Okyanus Ortaokulu, Bahcelievler, İstanbul, TURKEY, gultekinak@gmail.com, ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0002-0609-8569.

Introduction

Physical activity (PA) has numerous health benefits among children and adolescents. Specifically, it reduces the risk of obesity and the development of chronic diseases, such as diabetes (United States Department of Health and Human Services [USDHHS], 2010; World Health Organization [WHO], 2010), cardiovascular disease, and all-cause mortality (Tremblay et al., 2011). It strengthens bones and muscles, improves mental health and mood, decreases depression and anxiety (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2004), promotes social (Hallal, Victoria, Azevedo & Wells, 2006) and psychological well-being, and improves academic performance (Rasmussen & Laumann, 2013).

The USDHHS (2008) recommends that adolescents should participate in at least 60 minutes of moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA) daily in order to enjoy various health benefits. Despite these benefits, PA participation decreases with age among adolescents, particularly during the high school years (Anderssen, Wold & Torsheim, 2013; Currie et al., 2012; CDC, 2004; Janssen, Katzmarzyk, Boyce & Pickett, 2004; USDHHS, 2010). Contemporary research by the WHO has shown that 77–85% of European adolescents do not achieve 60 minutes of daily MVPA (Currie et al., 2012). The research correlates this decrease in PA to a lack of self-efficacy, motivation, and intention. Dumith et al. (2011) reported a clear increase in the amount of sedentary time during early adolescence in a developing country. This is more pronounced among girls than boys. Similarly, the amount of inactivity increased over the course of adolescence (Corder et al., 2015; Sanchez et al., 2007; Azevedo et al., 2014). Accordingly, promoting PA among adolescents is an urgent need.

The Transtheoretical Model (TTM), also known as the Stages of Change (SOC) model, was developed to help change unhealthy behaviors, such as alcohol addiction and smoking (Prochaska, DiClemente & Norcross, 1992). The model explains the behavior change process in the following terms: "people pass through stages toward making a behavior change and each stage is characterized by a particular pattern of psycho-social and behavioral variables" (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2005, p. 38). TTM is made up of four main components: (a) SOC, which depend on behavior; (b) processes of change, which depend on behavioral and cognitive processes; (c) self-efficacy; and (d) decisional balance (Prochaska, DiClemente, & Norcross, 1994). In addition, the model is intensively used for cultivating improved exercise behaviors relating to PA, and the SOC are the most widely used aspects of the model. TTM refers to "a person's readiness (intention) to engage in regular exercise" (Spencer, Adams, Malone, Roy & Yost, 2006). The SOC is a process defined and explained by Marcus and Forsyth (2003), which involves precontemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance stages.

Exercise intention research is widely conducted using different samples (Bourdeaudhuij et al., 2005; Hausenblas, Nigg, Downs, Fleming & Connaughton, 2002), but it is typically limited to adolescent age groups (Cardinal, Engels & Zhu, 1998) and by nationality (Bucksch, Finne & Kolip, 2008; Jeon, Kim & Heo, 2014;

Hausenblas et al., 2002). Previous findings have shown that male students tend to display more advanced stages of exercise intention than female students.

The self-efficacy construct is of central importance to exercise behavior. Based on Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (1986), self-efficacy is defined as the confidence individuals have in their ability to execute specific behaviors (Bandura, 1997). Strauss, Rodzilsky, Burack, and Colin (2001) outlined the psycho-social constructs of physical activity in a review article. Social influences such as family, peers and school, access to physical activities, personality characteristics, self-efficacy (Sallis, Prochaska & Taylor, 2000), self-confidence, and motivation strongly correlate with high PA levels. Among participants aged 10–16 years, physically active students were found to have higher self-efficacy compared to inactive students. Meanwhile, overweight students exhibited a low level of self-efficacy and confidence, which manifested in decreased PA. These findings indicated that participation in PA was related to a high level of self-efficacy (Certel et al., 2015; Dishman et al., 2004; Lewis, Marcus, Pate & Dunn, 2002; Reigal, Videra & Gil, 2014; Robbins, Pender, Ronis, Kazanis & Pis, 2004; Sallis et al., 2000). However, little research has focused on self-efficacy for overcoming barriers related to PA among adolescents (Dwyer et al., 2012; Reynolds et al., 1990; Ryan, & Dzewaltowski, 2002). Another important variable is exercise intention, which has been widely used to identify and promote healthy behaviors (Prochaska, DiClemente & Norcross, 1994; Spencer et al., 2006) among various age groups.

The school-based context, which is related to opportunities in the physical and social environments of the school relating to PA (i.e., indoor or outdoor facilities) is a critical variable. Author and Ince (2013) examined different social and physical environments. Their results indicated that PA self-efficacy correlated with the socio-economic, social, and physical environments. In addition, SOC in different school environments also differed. The use of ecological variables (social and physical) in the school environment was found to be effective for improving PA behavior (Author & Ince, 2014; Langille & Rodgers, 2010).

The Turkish Educational System is centralized and regulated by the Ministry of National Education. The placement and transition from middle school to high school take place when students graduate from middle school. Afterwards, these students are placed into different schools depending on their scores on Transition from Basic Education to Secondary Education (TEOG) exams (Ministry of National Education, 2014). Generally, students with the highest scores on the exam enter science or anatolian high schools. However, students with low exam results enter general, vocational, or multi-program high schools. Limited research has focused on different school types and self-efficacy (Certel et al., 2015; Pesen, 2016) or the ESC behavior of high school students (Author & Gültekin, 2014).

ESC and PA self-efficacy have been investigated among different age groups and nations. However, adult SOC are related to behavioral strategies for change, such as providing one-on-one training, books on relevant subjects, and information as needed (Jeon et al., 2014). Meanwhile, adolescents' SOC significantly correlated with

self-efficacy (Bucksch et al., 2008). A study by Bourdeaudhuij et al. (2005) pointed to sex and age differences. In particular, girls and older adolescents were typically more advanced with respect to the first three stages. Differences between the SOC were related to higher levels of PA of different intensities and within different contexts. Similarly, pre-adolescents' SOCs correlated significantly with gender, age, and grade level (Cardinal et al., 1998). Hausenblas et al. (2002) found that SOC were not significantly related with decisional balance.

Some research related to self-efficacy has been conducted with the adult population, showing that males had higher level of self-efficacy (Yan et al., 2015). Adolescent self-efficacy was similar for both sexes (Citozi, Bozo & Pano, 2013) and it did not mediate the relationship between PA self-efficacy and PA behavior (Plotnikoff, Gebel & Lubans, 2014). Physically active adolescents had higher levels of general self-efficacy (Reigal et al., 2014), and girls had lower levels of self-efficacy than boys (Robbins et al., 2004). Dwyer et al. (2012) also reported that self-efficacy helped overcome barriers to PA and predicted the levels of adolescent PA. Middle school students' self-efficacy was higher in wealthy schools (Author & Ince, 2013). No difference was found among elementary school students with respect to self-efficacy levels (Matthews et al., 2015). A literature review showed that few studies have examined adolescents' ESC and self-efficacy in different school-based contexts. Therefore, the aim of this study is to analyze high school students' ESC and physical activity self-efficacy (PASE) levels with respect to gender, age, and school type. Three research questions are addressed. (1) Is there a difference between gender, type of school and ESC levels? (2) Is there a difference between self-efficacy and ESC? (3) Is there a difference among gender, age, school type, and students' PA self-efficacy levels? This research builds on the hypothesis that gender, age, and school type do not affect the exercise intention and PA self-efficacy levels of Turkish high school students.

Methods

Research Design

The current study was conducted using a cross-sectional research design based on a survey method (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003).

Research Sample

Participants in the study were selected using a stratified sampling method, which involved considering the total number of pupils in each high school (grades 9–12) in Canakkale, Turkey. The total number of enrolled students (n=22,491) was provided by the Canakkale District of National Education. Schools that agreed to participate were admitted into the research project. Data were collected from 21 high schools (6 schools within the city of Canakkale and 15 schools in the surrounding province), reaching 25% of each school's student body. The aim was to reach 5% of the province's total high school student population. The target sample included 1,306 participants, and after deleting incomplete questionnaires, the final number of

participants was 1,283 (Table 1). The participation retention rate was 98%. The youngest students in the study were 14 years old, and oldest students were 19 years old (n_{male}=586; M_{age}=16.14, SD=1.10 and n_{female}=697; M_{age}=16.06, SD=1.07). The students were randomly divided into three groups for Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFA) (n=629, 49%), Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) (N=261, 20%), and Pearson's chi-square and MANOVA (n=393, 31%) analyses.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Participants' Gender and School Type

Gender	General	Vocational	Science	Anatolian	Anat. T.T*	Multi-Pr*
	f / %	f / %	f / %	f / %	f / %	f / %
	(n=272)	(n=207)	(n=136)	(n=485)	(n=48)	(n=135)
Male (n=586)	119 / 44	105 / 51	63 / 46	234 / 48	7 / 15	58 / 43
Female (n=697)	153 / 56	102 / 49	73 / 54	251 / 52	41 / 85	77 /57

*Anatolian Teacher Training
*Multi-Program

Research Instruments and Procedures

ESC: This instrument, which asked participants five questions, was validated by Schumann et al. (2002). The Turkish version was translated and validated by Author and Gultekin (2014) with a high test-retest reliability score based on a 2-week interval [Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC=0.87)]. The questionnaire examined whether individuals exercised regularly "Exercise" was defined as any planned PA of 20 minutes or longer that was intense enough to increase the rate of breathing and cause one to break a sweat. "Regular" was defined as exercising three to five times per week. Participants were asked to select which one out of five statements described them best. Each of the five statements reflected one of the five SOC. Precontemplation: "No, I do not exercise regularly and I do not intend to in the next 6 months." Contemplation: "No, I do not exercise regularly, but I intend to in the next 6 months." Preparation: "No, I do not exercise regularly, but I intend to in the next 30 days." Action: "Yes, I have been exercising regularly, but for less than 6 months." Maintenance: "Yes, I have been exercising regularly for more than 6 months."

PA Self-Efficacy. Dwyer, Allison, and Makin (1998) developed the 21-item PASE to overcome barriers related to the PA questionnaire. Limited research about PASE to overcome barriers related to PA has been performed in Turkey. The Turkish version of the questionnaire was validated in a pilot study by the researchers. The PASE was translated into Turkish after permission was granted by the developers. Two independent translators converted the English version of the PASE into Turkish. After reaching a consensus on each item, another translator converted the questionnaire back into English to ensure the quality of the translation, and the final version was prepared. Next, the questionnaire was given to 20 high school students from different types of schools to ensure face validity. In addition, the Turkish version was administered to another 23 high school students at a 2-week interval to

monitor test-retest reliability. Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) analyses showed a high correlation (ICC=0.89). The instrument examined the confidence level on a five-point Likert scale [(not at all confident (1) to very confident (5)] with which each subject participated in vigorous PA when particular perceived barriers to PA were present (e.g., lack of time because of school work; lack of support from family).

PASE to overcome barriers related to the PA questionnaire was administered to 629 high school students (aged 19 years or younger) from 12 high schools in Canakkale, Turkey. Participants of the study were randomly selected with 49% using for EFA. The original PASE had two factors termed self-efficacy to overcome external barriers and self-efficacy to overcome internal barrier. The 21-item questionnaire had a five-point Likert format ranging from "not at all confident" (1) to "very confident" (5). External barrier-related items were (2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14) and internal barriers were (6, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21). In addition, item 1 measured global self-efficacy for participation in vigorous PA, but this item was not included in the analysis.

EFA. A sample of the study was examined using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (0.91) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, which indicated a significant level (p=0.00). In addition, eigen-values higher than 1 were accounted as a factor (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation results indicated that there were three factors with eigen-values of 1.0 or greater (Hair et al., 1995). Three factors explained 51.78% of the total variance after removing items 8 and 9. The internal barriers factor accounted for 21.99% of the variance in the set of nine items. Factor 2 external barriers accounted for 17.45% of the variance in the set of five items, and the last factor (time-related efficacy) explained 12.34% of the variance in the set of four items. Factor loadings related to the 18 items of PASE are listed in Table 2.

Table 2

Factor Loadings for Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation of Self-Efficacy in Physical Activity Items: Total Sample (n=629)
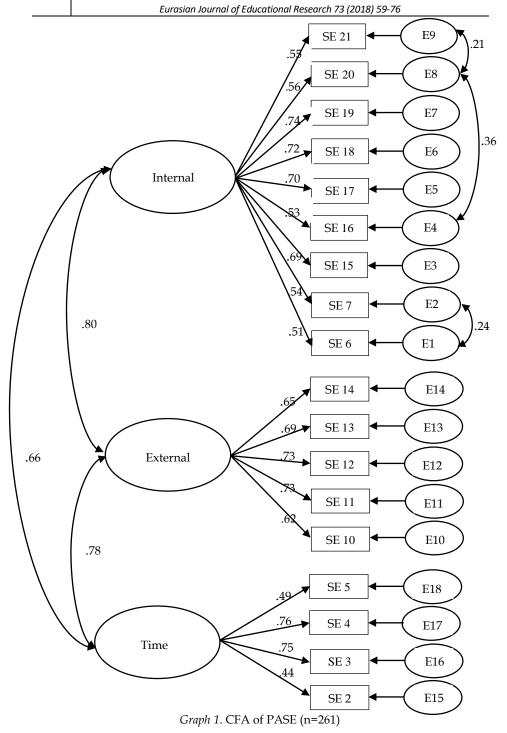
Item number	Component		
	1	2	3
6-If you lack energy (too tired).	0.771		
7-If you lack athletic ability.	0.704		
15-If you are self-conscious (feeling uncomfortable).	0.590		
16-If you have a long-term illness, disability, or injury.	0.648		
17-If you have a fear of injury.	0.605		
18-If you feel stressed.	0.586		
19-If you do not feel in the mood.	0.610		
20-If you feel discomfort (for example, soreness).	0.589		
21-If you do not have fun.	0.491		
10-If you lack a partner.		0.808	
11-If there is a lack of support from family.		0.758	
12-If there is a lack of support from friends.		0.689	
13-If participation costs money.		0.619	
14-If you lack self-discipline or willpower.		0.543	
2-If there is a lack of time due to school work.			0.772
3-If there is a lack of time due to part-time work.			0.726
4-If there is a lack of time due to family responsibilities.			0.508
5-If there is a lack of time due to other interests.			0.627

The internal consistency of the factor-derived subscales was calculated. The nine-item internal barriers subscale (items 6, 7, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, and 21) had an alpha coefficient level of 0.85, and the five-item external barriers subscale (items 10, 11, 12, 13, 14) had an alpha coefficient level of 0.81. This indicated high internal consistency and reliability. The last subscale, time-related efficacy (items 2, 3, 4, 5), had an alpha coefficient of 0.69.

CFA: A series of CFA models were undertaken to evaluate the structure of the PASE to overcome barriers related to the PA questionnaire in the current dataset (n=261). A sample of the CFA was randomly (20%) selected from the study participants (n=1,283).

In this study, the fit for the models was evaluated by four criteria: a non-significant chi-square test, the comparative fit index (CFI), the root means square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root means squared residual (SRMR). In these cases, a non-significant chi-square was preferred because this indicated a good model-data fit (e.g., no significant differences between the proposed and sample covariance matrix). However, the chi-square statistics are particularly sensitive to sample sizes. Thus, more often than not, this indicates a significant relationship (Byrne, 2001). However, CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR are relatively unaffected by sample size. Thus, these fit indices were also considered complimentary. The choice of cut-off criteria for the fit indices remains a contentious issue. In this study, the cut-off criteria recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999) were used. CFI values greater than 0.95, and RMSEA values smaller than 0.06 were considered indicative of good model-data fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The CFA included three subscales (internal barriers related to PASE, external barriers, and time-related barriers), and this structure was tested using the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) (Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2010). This model demonstrated a good fit based on four of the five absolute fit statistics examined ($\chi 2$=279,657 df=129; χ^2/df=2,168, RMSEA=0.063, NFI=0.866, CFI=0.922, IFI=0.923, GFI=0.903, RMR=0.063). The model after CFA is summarized in Graph 1. All the variances in Graph 1 were confirmed to be significant, and the smallest z value was calculated to be 3.45. Modifications between items 20–21, 16–20, and 6–7 were applied. The covariance among internal barriers and external barriers was calculated to be 0.80, the covariance among external barriers and time-related barriers was 0.78, and the covariance among internal barriers and time-related barriers was 0.66.

Graph 1. CFA of PASE (n=261)

Data Analysis

The appropriate institutional ethics review boards approved all data collection methods, and all participants consented. The methods used for data analysis were descriptive statistics (frequency, mean, and percentage) and the nonparametric Pearson's chi-square test (Hamarat, 2017). After normality assumptions were checked using MANOVA, a significance level of $p < 0.05$ was used (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2000).

Results

The results of the surveys regarding ESC and PA self-efficacy to overcome barriers related to PA indicated that male high school students in different school types were at more advanced SOC (active stages) than their female counterparts except in Vocational and Multi-Program high schools. Here, the students had higher levels of internal, external, and time-related PA self-efficacy to overcome barriers (see Tables 3–4)

The Pearson's chi-square test showed that gender [ESC $X^2(4, n=393) = 14.64$, $p=0.01$] significantly correlated with ESC. However, the type of school [$X^2(20, n=393)=29.42$, $p>0.05$] did not significantly correlate with ESC.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Gender and Exercise-Related Stages of Change in Different Types of Schools

	Gender		School Type					
Stages	M	F	General (M/F)	Vocational (M/F)	Science (M/F)	Anatolian (M/F)	Anat. T.T** (M/F)	Multi-Pr.** (M/F)
Inactive Stages	79	137	43 (13/30)	28 (12/16)	22 (12/10)	87 (32/55)	17 (-/17)	19 (10/9)
Active Stages	94	83	43 (20/23)	32 (14/18)	15 (7/8)	58 (37/21))	4 (1/3)	25 (15/10)
Total	173	220	86 (33/53)	60 (26/34)	37 (19/18)	145 (69/76)	21 (1/20)	44 (25/19)

*Inactive Stages: Precontemplation, Contemplation, Preparation, Active Stages: Action, Maintenance, **Anatolian Teacher Training, **Multi-Program.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Gender and Physical Activity Self-Efficacy (SE) in Different Types of Schools

Gender	Self-Efficacy (SE)	High School Type					
		General M/SD	Vocational M/SD	Science M/SD	Anatolian M/SD	Anat. T.T** M/SD	Multi Pr.** M/SD
		(n=86)	(n=60)	(n=37)	(n=145)	(n=21)	(n=44)
Female (n=220)	Int. SE*	2.40/.96	2.22/.94	2.18/.65	2.35/.85	2.38/.98	2.72/.66
	Ext. SE*	2.55/.96	2.71/1.21	2.57/.94	2.03/1.13	2.65/1.02	3.17/1.00
	Time SE	2.41/.90	2.40/.87	2.22/.58	2.36/.99	2.57/.76	3.04/.95
Male (n=173)	Int. SE*	2.46/.98	2.43/1.08	2.38/.73	2.40/1.01	3.67	2.61/.98
	Ext. SE	2.76/1.05	2.43/1.15	2.29/.88	2.78/.101	2.80	2.76/1.13
	Time SE	2.84/1.11	2.43/.95	2.47/0.79	2.82/0.85	2.00	2.18/.81

*Internal Self-Efficacy, *External Self-Efficacy **Anatolian Teacher Training, **Multi-Program

Normality assumptions were checked using the Kolmogorow-Smirnov, Skewness and Kurtosis, Box's M, and Levene's Tests (p<0.05). Box's M test violated the assumption. Therefore, Pillai's trace values were reported.

The MANOVA indicated that self-efficacy levels for overcoming barriers related to PA significantly correlated with ESC [Pillai's Trace=0.09, $F_{(12,678)}=1.92$, $p<0.05$]. However, there was no significant difference in self-efficacy on the basis of a student's gender (Pillai's Trace=0.00, $F_{(3,224)}=0.03$, $p>0.05$], age (Pillai's Trace=0.04, $F_{(15,678)}=0.68$, $p>0.05$], or school type (Pillai's Trace=0.05, $F_{(15,678)}=0.81$, $p>0.05$]. Before interpreting the analysis of the ANOVA tests for significance between PASE and ESC, it is important to note that the alpha level was adjusted using the Bonferroni correction method. The alpha level was reduced to avoid making a Type II error (Stevens, 2002). Thus, the alpha level in this step was decreased to 0.016 because of the three subscales measuring self-efficacy. ANOVA results revealed the existence of significant differences among internal (F(4, n=393)=3.12, $p=0.01$), external (F(4, n=393)=3.24, $p=0.01$), and time-related self-efficacy (F(4, n=393)=3.29, $p=0.01$).

Discussion and Conclusion

To summarize, the findings of the present study revealed low PASE for overcoming barriers related to PA and ESC levels among female high school students in Canakkale, Turkey. Meanwhile, male students were more likely to be in the Active Stages (Action or Maintenance) or possess higher levels of self-efficacy for

overcoming barriers related to PA. ESC differed significantly by gender. PASE was also shown to differ significantly based on ESC. The research questions will be discussed with reference to these findings.

Our findings showed that male students were more often in the "active" SOC compared to female students, who more often described themselves as being in the precontemplation, contemplation, and preparation stages. Similar results have been reported across different nations and age groups (Bourdeaudhuij et al., 2005; Cardinal et al., 1998; Jeon, Kim & Heo; 2014; Nigg & Courneya, 1998). However, gender was not a significant variable in our research. ESC was a significant variable that may help researchers make specific recommendations for how to direct exercise behavior. Therefore, determining the ESC levels of high school students is significant for guiding interventional studies. This might be useful for physical educators, who can tailor their recommendations to students at different SOC when encouraging them to be physically active (Marcus & Forsyth, 2009).

Another critical finding of this study was the difference in ESC among students at different types of schools. Science and anatolian high schools are public schools that admit students with high standardized test scores. Vocational and multi-program schools accept students with lower standardized test scores. School context, student academic success, and the physical environment may affect PA behavior and ESC. It is important to provide PA opportunities in all types of school environments in order for policy-makers to shape students' exercise behaviors. The use of ecological variables by researchers and physical education teachers in schools may increase students' ESC, self-efficacy, and PA behavior (Author & Ince, 2014; Glanz, Rimer, & Viswanath, 2008).

Reigal et al. (2014) pointed out that high school students' general self-efficacy was related to higher levels of PA. Yan et al. (2015) similarly reported gender differences among Chinese and American college students. In both cases, female students exhibited low levels of self-efficacy. The present findings are, thus, consistent with those in the current literature (Dishman et al., 2004; Gao & Harrison, 2005; Reigal et al., 2014; Robbins et al., 2004). This demonstrates that insufficient self-efficacy levels reduce the ability of students to overcome barriers related to PA. Interventional study designs that aim to improve self-efficacy in adolescences, especially among girls, are strongly recommended.

Previous research showed that self-efficacy is a multidimensional construct (McAuley, 1992; Sallis, Pinski, Grossman, Patterson, & Nader, 1998). The current research extends prior knowledge by presenting three constructs: internal barriers, external barriers, and time-related barriers relating to PA. Similar results were described by Dwyer et al. (2012), who reported that multidimensional self-efficacy influences the ability of students to overcome barriers to PA. In addition, PASE constructs positively correlated with ESC. These results suggest that both instruments could be used in PA intervention research targeting self-efficacy to overcome barriers as a determinant of behavior change.

There are several limitations to the current research. First, the PASE and ESC research instruments were dependent on self-reporting. Therefore, we had to assume that participants answered the questionnaires honestly and accurately. Second, while we reached our target sample representation among the province high school students, we did not achieve this threshold of representation at every type of school, particularly at the Anatolian Teacher Training schools. Finally, we recommend that further research be conducted using intervention designs that include participants from additional regions in Turkey.

In conclusion, since female high school students lagged behind their male counterparts in ESC and PASE to overcome barriers related to PA, future studies should focus on developing ways to improve ESC and PASE among girls through stage-specific interventions. Lower stages of ESC and low levels of self-efficacy in students need to be developed with a strong experimental design. In addition, qualitative research investigating different school contexts and underlying reasons for low exercise intentions and self-efficacy is recommended for future research.

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Lise Öğrencilerinin Egzersiz Davranışı Değişim Basamakları ve Fiziksel Aktivite Öz-Yeterlik Düzeyleri

Atıf:

Problem Durumu: Fiziksel aktivite (FA) ve sağlık ilişkisi farklı boyutlarda araştırılmış ve çocuklarda, gençlerde birçok faydası olduğu kanıtlanmıştır. Özellikle obeziteye karşı riskleri azalttığı, diyabet vb. kronik hastalıkları önlemede etkin olduğu, kardiyovasküler rahatsızlıkları azalttığı, kemikleri ve kasları güçlendirdiği gibi akıl sağlığımızı, ruh halimizi iyileştirdiği, depresyon, endişeyi azalttığı, sosyal ilişkileri ve psikolojik iyi olma halimize katkılar sağladığı rapor edilmiştir. Ayrıca, akademik gelişime olumlu etkileri olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Buna rağmen, lise yıllarında öğrencilerin FA düzeyi ve spora katılımları yaşa bağlı olarak ciddi bir şekilde düşmektedir. Alan yazına baktığımızda erken gençlik yıllarında hareketsiz yaşam tarzının arttığı ve özellikle kız öğrencilerde daha yüksek olduğu görülmektedir. Lise öğrencilerinin egzersiz davranışı değişim basamakları ve FA öz-yeterlik düzeyleri hakkında ulaşılan alan yazında sınırlı bilgi mevcuttur.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu çalışmanın amacı lise öğrencilerinin FA katılımda engelleri aşmada FA öz-yeterlik ve Egzersiz Davranışı Değişim Basamakları (EDDB) düzeylerini cinsiyet, yaş ve okul türü değişkenleriyle incelemektir. Araştırma soruları ise; (1) Lise öğrencilerinin EDDB düzeyleri ile cinsiyet, okul türü arasında fark var mıdır?, (2) Lise öğrencilerini FA öz-yeterlik ile EDDB arasında fark var

mıdır?, (3) Lise öğrencilerinin FA öz-yeterlik düzeyleri ile cinsiyet, yaş, okul türü arasında fark var mıdır? şeklindedir.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Marmara Bölgesindeki bir il merkezi ve ilçeleri seçilen çalışmada farklı okul türlerinde okuyan lise öğrencilerine tarama deseniyle ulaşılmıştır. Örnekleme yöntemi, tabakalı örnekleme olup her bir okulda (temsil oranı=%25) katılımcılar belirlenmiştir. İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü ve Etik Kurul onayı ile okullara gidilerek uygun saatler belirlenmiş 21 lise (İl Merkezi=6, İlçeler=15) araştırmaya katılmayı kabul etmiştir. Çalışmanın örneklem sayısı ilde okuyan toplam öğrenci sayısının (n=22,491) %5'ine ulaşmak olmuştur. Örneklem sayısı anketler incelenerek boş, yanlış ve eksik olan anketler çıkartılarak (n=1283) olarak hesaplanmıştır. Katılımcılar "Egzersiz Davranışı Değişim Basamakları" ile "Fiziksel Aktivite Öz-Yeterlik" anketlerini doldurmuştur. Veri analizinde betimleyici istatistik, Pearson Ki-Kare testi ve Çok Yönlü Varyans Analizi [Multivariate Analyses of Variance (MANOVA)] uygulanmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Veri toplama aracı olan fiziksel aktivite öz-yeterlik anketi, açımlayıcı faktör analizi (n=629) ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizi (n=261) ile geçerlik ve güvenirliği sağlanmıştır. Elde edilen bulgulara göre (n=393) erkek öğrencilerin kız öğrencilere göre daha üst egzersiz davranışı değişim basamaklarında ve yüksek düzeyde FA öz-yeterlik seviyelerinde oldukları görülmüştür. Lise öğrencilerinin egzersiz davranışı değişim basamakları dağılımlarına baktığımızda: aktif olmayan basamaklarda ($n_{eğilim-öncesi, eğilim ve hazırlık}$=216, 54.9%) ve aktif basamaklarda ($n_{hareket ve devamlılık}$= 177, 45.1%) olduğu saptanmıştır. Egzersiz davranışı değişim basamakları ile cinsiyet [EDDB X^2(4, n=393) = 14.64, p=0.01] arasında anlamlı fark bulunurken okul türü [X^2(20, n=393) = 39.42, $p > 0.05$] arasında istatiksel olarak anlamlı fark tespit edilmemiştir. Yapılan MANOVA analizi sonuçlarına göre ise FA öz-yeterlik ile EDDB arasında fark belirlenmiştir (Pillai's Trace = .09, $F_{(12,678)}$ = 1.92, p < .05). Bu farkın lise öğrencilerinin FA katılımda engelleri aşmada öz-yeterlik ölçeğinin alt boyutlarının tamamından (içsel, kişisel ve sosyal, zaman ilişkili öz-yeterlik) kaynaklandığı görülmüştür. Diğer yandan istatiksel olarak FA öz-yeterlik ile cinsiyet, yaş ve okul türü arasında anlamlı fark tespit edilmemiştir ($p > .05$).

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Egzersiz davranışı değişim basamakları ile araştırmaya katılan öğrencilerin cinsiyetin etkili olduğu belirlenmiştir. Kız öğrencilerin düşük düzeyde FA katılımda engelleri aşmada öz-yeterlik ve egzersiz davranışı değişim alt basamaklarında oldukları görülmüştür. İleride yapılacak çalışmalarda kız öğrencilerin FA öz-yeterlikleri ve egzersiz davranış niyetleri esas alınarak basamak temelli deneysel araştırmalar önerilmektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Fiziksel aktivite, egzersiz davranışı değişim basamakları, öz-yeterlik, geçerlik, güvenirlik, lise öğrencileri.

Eurasian Journal of Educational Research
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The Effect of TMPT Program on Pre-school Children's Social Problem Solving Skills*

Cagla GUR[1], Nurcan KOCAK[2]

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	Purpose: Starting Thinking Training at an early age is important. However, few studies were found regarding Thinking Training programs for pre-school children and the contributions of these programs to children's social problem-solving. In this context, the TMPT Program was developed for pre-school children and the effect of the program on 5-6 year-old children's social problem-solving skills was examined. **Research Methods:** The data of the study were obtained from a total of 70 children, including 32 in the experiment group and 38 in the control group.

Thirty-two of the children in the study group were girls and 38 were boys. An experimental design with a pre-test and post-test control group was used. Within the scope of the study the Thinking from Multidimensional Perspectives Training Program was implemented in the experimental group. Through the TMPT Program, the following steps were examined: self-recognition, recognizing the other, recognition of the third one, group perspective, and social and universal perspective. The Wally Social Problem-Solving Test was used to determine if there was a difference between pre-test and post-test scores. Independent t-test was used to determine if there was a difference between experiment and control groups in terms of their pre-test and post-test scores (0.05 was determined as the significance level). **Findings:** The results revealed that the TMPT Program has a positive effect on 5-6 year-old pre-school children's social problem-solving skills. **Implications for Research and Practice:** Depending on the findings of the study, it is thought that training programs developed to support 5-6-year-old children's social problem-solving skills should include Thinking Training activities within their contents.

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[1] Corresponding Author: Cyprus International University, CYPRUS, e-mail: cgur@ciu.edu.tr ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0045-5158
[2] Selcuk University retired instructor, TURKEY, e-mail:anykocak@gmail.com ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4792-8124

Introduction

The preschool period is when children start to recognize and investigate their environment, are willing to communicate with their environment, curious, have a strong imagination, are inquisitive, they begin to acquire behaviors and habits that are appropriate to the values and cultural structure of society, and their personality lays its foundation (Oguzkan & Oral, 1997). During this period, when children work to resolve some of the situations or problems they encounter, and they start reasoning to solve these problems, they usually enter the process of thinking via using their current cognitive potentials (Turner & Helms, 1991; Bal & Temel, 2014). Thinking is the most important component of the process of gathering information,, understanding, and learning. It forms the basis of questioning, evaluating, and producing new information practices (Gunes, 2012). The person's quality of life and learning are associated with the quality of their thinking (Fisher, 2013). The main function of education should be teaching children active thinking skills (Fisher, 2013). Thinking education is an important factor for education.

Problem-solving is the basis of learning (Goffin & Tull, 1985; Kayili & Ari, 2015). All encountered problems require the use of problem-solving skills that are needed for establishing healthy interpersonal relationships and maintaining lives in an effective and consistent way (Yuksel, 2008). Social problem-solving skills can be expressed as the social and emotional adjustment of people via solving the problems arising from the differences in their ideas, beliefs, values, or requirements (Pellegrini & Urbain, 1986; Gur,2016; Gur, Kocak & Demircan, 2016). Cam and Tumkaya (2006) defined social problem-solving as discovering the effective coping methods used while solving problems encountered in everyday life and as producing effective cognitive-behavior processes. Social problem-solving skills that are a part of social development also plays an important role in children's socialization (Yilmaz & Tepeli, 2013; Yoleri, 2014). It is important for children to learn thinking skills that will help them avoid social problems and solve these problems when faced (Yoleri, 2014; Sun, Jackson,Burns & Anderson,2017). Thinking skills play an important role in problem-solving.

Social problem-solving skills that are personal can be a determinant of the quality of life (Yaban & Yukselen, 2007; Cayir, 2015).These play important roles in the social interactions of children (Diener, Wrighr, Beverly & Black,2016). Children's acquiring of values to solve social problems at an early age via thinking activities, making explanations about why they think like that and how, and the association of thinking with all fields are very important goals. Lipman (1988) expressed that these goals can only be fulfilled with thinking experiences (Mutlu & Aktan, 2011). The researches carried out on Thinking Training in the world and in the country are examined and found that Thinking Training has as a positive contribution to children's development (Fields, 1995; Imbrusciano, 1997; Campbell, 2002; Daniel, 2000; Doherr, 2000; IAPC, 2002; Cayir, 2015; Doron, 2016; Gur, Kocak & Demircan, 2016; Sun et al., 2017). In other respects, Trickey & Topping (2004) also carried out a study and found that Thinking Training enhances participation in listening and assertiveness. In addition, Okur (2008) conducted a study with 6-year-old children and found that

Thinking Training caused a difference in terms of children's acting as an individual and their ability to make original sentences. It can be said that Thinking Training has positive effects on children.

Teaching children how to think is both a rational and moral attempt (Gregory, 2008). Thinking is the more than the sum of isolated thinking skills (Bjorklund & Causey, 2007). Human beings are social creatures and it is important for them to understand themselves and others. Education should not only be individual-based; to bring the social perspective it should also be community-based (Fisher, 2013). Time should be made in the educational system for deliberately developing the ability to think, since the ideas that thinking is necessary and a skill that can be taught are both accepted (De Bono, 1972). Researches on the subject show that without a scheduled training process students cannot adequately develop their thinking skills, thus facing various difficulties and challenges (Pascarella, 1989; Romano, 1992; Gunes, 2012). A scheduled training process for Thinking Training is important for the development of thinking skills (Romano, 1992). For maximum potential development, scheduled Thinking Training is important.

Wallace (2002) and Legett (2017) point to the importance of starting Thinking Training at an early age. Since the preschool period forms the basis of human life (Hamre & Pianta, 2001), it is important to include Thinking Training it is important to include Thinking Training in the preschool educational process. A search of the literature shows that the few studies have been conducted regarding Thinking Training programs for pre-school children and the contributions of these programs to children's social problem-solving. In this context, thinking with the Multi-Dimensional Perspectives Training Program is developed for pre-school children (Gur, Kocak & Demircan, 2016) and the effect of Thinking with Multi-Dimensional Perspective Training Program on 5-6-year-old children's social problem-solving skills is examined. The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of the TMPT Program on 5-6-year-old pre-school children's social problem-solving skills.

Method

Research Design

This research took place in a pre-test, final test, and a control group research fashion. In this fashions, experimental and control groups were found. These groups were chosen randomly. The experiment and control groups were subjected to tests before and after the experiment. Experimental design provides opportunities to make comparisons like this (Buyukozturk, 2016; Buyukozturk, 2012; Karasar, 1999). The dependent variable for this research is the children's social problem-solving skills. The independent variable is the TMPT Program, which was applied to the experimental group.

Research Sample

The sample for this research was preschoolers in the Yenimahalle district of Ankara. In the experiment group, there were 6 teachers and 45 children (these children were educated in these 6 teacher's' classes). The experiment group took "TMPT Program Training''- the teachers took courses to learn the program and then applied it to their classes). The experiment group was from the Etimesgut Spring Flowers Pre-school Education Institution. The control group consisted of 45 children from the Sincan Spring Flowers Pre-school Education Institution.

At the beginning there were 90 children. However, this number decreased to 70 at the end of the research because of the absence of some children on pretest or final test applications and some children had 15 points right from pre-tests (the highest score to get from the test), so these children were removed. As a result, the research was carried out with the data collected from these 70 children. The distribution of the experiment and control groups according to age and gender is presented in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1

Gender Distribution of Experimental and Control Groups

	Experiment		Control		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Girl	16	50	16	42	32	46
Boy	16	50	22	58	38	54
Total	32	46	38	54	70	100

As seen in Table 1, there were 16 girls and 16 boys, totaling 32 children in the experiment group; and 16 girls and 22 boys, totaling 38 boys in the control group.

Table 2

Age Distribution of Experimental and Control Groups

	Experiment		Control		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Age 5	13	41	17	36	30	43
Age 6	19	59	21	64	40	57
Total	32	46	38	54	70	100

As shown in Table 2, there were 30 children who were 5-years-old and 40 children who were 6-years-old.

Research Instruments and Procedures

The Wally Social Problem-solving Test was used as a pretest and posttest for the experiment and the control groups in this study. Beside this, the Personal Information Form was used.

Wally Social Problem-solving Test: The Wally Social Problem-solving Test used to evaluate social problem-solving skills of children in the present study was reproduced from the combination of two tests: Spivack and Shure's (1985) Preschool Problem-solving Test and Rubin and Rose-Krasnor's (1988) Children Social Problem-solving Test (Rubin & Rose-Krasnor, 1992).The test was carried out by Carolyn Webster-Stratton within the project of "Incredible Years" (Webster-Stratton, 1990; Webster-Stratton, Reid, & Beauchaine, 2013). In the test, the responses of children in conflict situations occurring from interpersonal relationships are assessed and their social problem-solving skills are evaluated. The test consists of 15 images. These images are prepared for boys and girls separately, and show conflicts or issues in interpersonal relations. These images are presented to the child one by one. After each image, the child is asked how he would solve the problem or what he says if he faced this problem. The Wally Social Problem-solving Test has 11 themes. These themes are problems like rejection, making a mistake, unfair treatment, victimization, prohibition, loneliness, cheating, disappointment, having a dilemma, disapproval from adults, and attacks (Dereli, 2008; Yilmaz, 2012; Giren, 2013). Each answer given by children is scored as positive (P), negative (N), and no score (empty). The lowest score is zero (0), and the highest score is fifteen (15).

Kayili and Ari (2015) carried out the Turkish adaptation study of the Wally Social Problem-solving Test on pre-school children via 699 data. In the content validity of the study, eight field specialists reported that the test is appropriate for pre-school children for evaluating their social problem-solving skills. The KMO coefficient calculated for the construct validity was found to be .814. The Bartlett Sphericity Test was found to be significant ($x2 = 1164,354$; $p < .01$). The item factor loads ranged from .34 to .67. Fifteen questions were grouped under a single factor (Yilmaz, 2012; Dereli-Iman,2013; Giren, 2013; Yilmaz & Tepeli, 2013). Yılmaz and Tepeli's (2013) research also stated that the test is composed of 15 items in the original form and grouped under a single factor. Kayili and Ari (2015) calculated the reliability coefficient of the test for five-year-old children as .81. The high K-20 reliability coefficient values shows that the test is reliable (Buyukozturk, 2012). Yilmaz studied (2012) five-year-old children and found the two halves test reliability coefficient to be .77 for the Wally Social Problem-solving Test (n = 504). Test retest results were as follows; the lowest was .66 and the highest .93. The consistency ratio average of the participants was .77. The data obtained revealed that the test-retest reliability of the Wally Social Problem-solving Test was adequate. In her study with y-year-old children, Dereli-Iman (2013) retrieved similar results. According to all these results, the Wally Social Problem-solving Test is found and accepted as a valid and reliable instrument for assessment of five and six-year-old Turkish children's social problem-solving skills and considered appropriate to use in the study. The reliability coefficient of the test for this was calculated to be .71 and the reliability re-test result was found to be .73.

Personal Information Form: Developed by the researchers to gather information regarding participant's age, gender, and school.

Thinking from Multidimensional Perspectives Training Program: The TMPT Program was developed by researchers in order to enhance five- and a six-year-old children's multi-dimensional thinking. Based on Thinking Training, the main objective is to assist children explore by means of stimuli that are interesting to them (for example stories, poems, and arts), and to obtain the thinking skills about the topics that are directly related to their past, present, and future (Gur, 2010; Gur, 2011a;Gur, 2011b; Gur, Kocak &Demircan, 2016; Stanley & Bowkett, 2004). On developing the program, Socrates', Rumi's, Piaget's, Vygotsky's, Bruner's, and Lipman's views on education were all accepted as a base. Through the TMPT Program, five dimensions are examined.

First Dimension (Self-Recognition or Me Step): This dimension is relevant to a child's self-recognition. It contains the influence of incidents and conditions on children and evaluation of happening from the"I" point of view. As an activity for the class, after listening to the story of "The Little Red Hen", children answer the question "If I were the hero of the story, what would I do?" This activity can be used as a first-dimension activity for children.

Second Dimension (You step;recognizing the other, evaluating the incident from his point of view; empathic perspective): The aim of this dimension is children's awareness of other people or awareness of personal characteristics. This dimension centers upon the similarities and differences by making comparisons. As an activity for the class, after watching short films on horses and zebras and examining photos of these two animals, children can discuss the similarities and differences between them. "If we draw lines (like zebra's lines) on a white horse, does it become a zebra? Why?" This question is asked by the teacher and the children discuss the answer. This activity can be used as a 2nd dimension activity.

Third Dimension (Raising awareness of a third person/object or an incident rather than himself): The aim of this dimension is children's evaluation of a condition or incidents by joining the point of view of a third person. When the child thinks about a happening (living with their father) and the effect of this incident (how their mum felt), this can be seen as 3rd dimension thinking. As an activity for the class, after examining a painting by Vincent van Gogh (First Steps), the children think about the heroes of the painting, who they are, what they are doing, and what do they think about? Then they discuss the questions. This activity can be used as a 3rd dimension activity for children.

Fourth Dimension (Pluralist perspective (they)): Together with I and you and third dimension perspectives, the fourth perspective involves evaluations of groups, incidents, and conditions considering more than three dimensions. As an activity for the class, the pollution of the sea can be discussed. At first children watch a short documentary (film) on the sea pollution and examine sea pollution photos. How the sea becomes dirty can be discussed. (Why does it become dirty? How are the animals

living in the sea affected? How might they feel? These are questions that can be discussed concerning the topic.

Fifth Dimension (The evaluations of the condition from five or more perspectives or thinking from universal perspectives): The aim of this step is to establish the foundation of a universal perspective. As an activity for the class, "If you could make a device for a better world, what would this device look like?" This topic can be discussed and then each child can design his/her own device.

In the program, each month one dimension is discussed in the classroom and each dimension consists of 20 activities. In other words, the program consists of 100 activities in total. These are science, math, music, and story time activities. Each activity takes an average of thirty minutes. The activities carried out before the discussions are seen as an instrument for Thinking Training. Having unique or extraordinary tasks are not seen as an important factor; in fact, tasks that are easy to apply are preferred. For the TMPT Program application, the most important thing is the discussion process as it aims to enhance thinking skills. The adult should not judge the child's ideas. If necessary, s/he may try to clarify the topic by asking the children open-ended questions. The aim of the thinking activities is experiencing the thinking process, not to think as an adult. The most important thing here for the children is that: to learn how to think, not what to think (Gur 2016; Gur, Kocak & Demircan, 2016).

Research Process

The necessary information in relation to the content of the research was sent to preschools. Then permission was obtained from the schools. The pre-schools that volunteered to participate in the study were taken as the study groups. In one school the TMPT Program was applied and the other school was the control group. The six teachers in the experimental group were trained once a month about how to use the TMPT Program and then applied this content in their own classes. Educational content and special materials needed for training the children were given on a monthly basis to the teachers in the experimental group. Each month one dimension was discussed. Randomly selected children from the three different classes who had the Thinking from Multidimensional Perspectives Training Program formed the experimental group. Randomly selected children from the three different classes who did not have the Thinking from Multidimensional Perspectives Training, were volunteered to participate and had similar features with the pilot group formed the control group. Before and after the applications of the TMPT Program the researchers applied pre-tests and final tests to the experiment and control groups. Data was collected by the researchers. All pre-tests were applied to both the experimental and control groups in October. All post-tests were applied by the researchers in April. All pre-tests and post-tests were applied in the kindergartens where the children were educated. At the end of the program an evaluation meeting was organized. The teachers who participated in the study attended that meeting and all reported positive opinions about the activities of the program in terms of the children's age, participation, and the application process.

Ethics

This study was ethically approved by the researchers' universities. Teachers who participated in the study were volunteers. Children whose participation documents were signed and approved by their parents participated in the study. This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Data Analysis

The data gathered and encoded within the case of the running problem and the sub-problems of the research was tested using the SPSS 21 package program. The independent t-test was used in determining if there is a difference between the scores of the groups (pre-test and final test). In contrast, a dependent t-test (pre-test/final test) was used to determine the enhancement of the experiment and control groups within themselves and to test the differences (the significance level was taken as .05).

Results

The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of the TMPT Program on 5-6-year-old pre-school children's social problem-solving skills. In this part, the findings are given and explained in Tables 3-6.

Table 3

The Dependent T-test Results Regarding the Comparison of the Wally Social Problem-solving Pre-test Results of Children in the Experiment and Control Groups

	Groups	n	M	ss	M_1-M_2	sd	t	P
Pre-test	*Experiment*	32	10.47	2.918	0.81	68	-1.19	.237
	Control	38	9.66	2.763				

p> .05

As seen in Table 3, there is no significant difference in 5 and 6-year-old children's pre-test scores in the experimental and control groups (t = -, 1.19, p> .05). It can be said that statistically significant difference between the two groups cannot be found and the similarity of their features makes them appropriate for the study.

Table 4.

The Independent T-test Results Regarding the Comparison of the Wally Social Problem-solving Post-test Results of Children in the Experiment and Control Groups

	Groups	n	M	ss	M_1-M_2	sd	t	p
Post-test	*Experiment*	32	13.53	2.000	1.37	68	2.79	.007*
	Control	38	12.16	2.099				

p< .05

As seen in Table 4, there is a significant difference in terms of 5-6-year-old children's final test scores in the experimental and control groups (t = 2.79, p<0.05). While the arithmetic mean difference of the Wally Social Problem-solving test was 0.81 in pre-tests, the same difference increased to 1.37 arithmetic mean in post-tests.

Table 5

The Dependent T-test Results Regarding the Comparison of the Wally Social Problem-solving Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Children in the Experimental Group

Groups	n	M	Ss	M_1-M_2	sd	t	p
Pre-test	32	10.47	2.92	3.06	31	-6.13	.001*
Post-test	32	13.53	2.00				

P < .01

As seen in Table 5, there is a significant difference between 5-6-year-old children's pre-test and post-test scores in the experimental group (t = -6 13 p < .01). The increase of 3.06 in the arithmetic mean was in favor of post-tests.

Table 6

The Dependent T-test Results Regarding the Comparison of the Wally Social Problem-solving Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Children in the Control Group

Groups	n	M	Ss	M_1-M_2	d	t	p
Pre-test	38	9.66	2.763	2.5	37	-5.69	.001*
Post-test	38	12.16	2.099				

p< .01

As seen in Table 6, there is a significant difference in terms of 5-6-year-old children's pre-test and post-test scores in the control group (t = -5.69 p< .01). The increase of 2.5 in the arithmetic mean was in favor of post-tests. The difference in the experimental group children's pre-test—final test arithmetic mean is 3.06, and, the difference in the control group children's pre-test – final test arithmetic mean is 2.05. The difference between these two arithmetic means is 0.56.

Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of the study is to examine the effects of the TMPT Program on 5 and 6-year-old children's social problem-solving skills. Data for the study were gathered from 70 children. The experimental group had 32 children and the control group had 38 children. Thirty children were found in the 5-year-old group and 40 children were found in the 6-year-old group.

When pre-test and post-test scores of children in the experimental and control groups from the Wally Social Problem-solving test are compared, there are no significant differences between the experiment and control groups in terms of their pre-test scores. However, the difference is found to be statistically meaningful for the post-test scores. This shows that there was a positive increase/development in children's social problem-solving skills during the process. However, the difference between the pre-test and final test scores of the children in both groups was statistically significant.

Positive development in the control group suggests that during October through April, the preschool training process in kindergarten positively supported thechildren's social problem skills. These findings are also supported by Kok, Tugluk, and Bay (2005) and Cimen (2000). Since the process was long it is thought that preschool education also affects children's social problem-solving skills. However, the difference between the pre-test and final scores of children in the experiment and control groups was significant; the difference between both in terms of their post-tests was statistically significant. It is thought that the TMPT Program applied to the experimental group children affected them positively. In addition to this, if the discussion processes during the training program is taken into consideration, it can be said that children can make detailed interpretations on different topics.

Bal and Temel (2014) carried out research that consisted of 180 children over 4-6 years and concluded that having training in different perspective-taking skills supports interpersonal problem-solving skills. Perspective-taking makes it easy for the individual to understand and feel the thoughts of others, so it is important in terms of social interaction.

When the individual senses the thoughts of others, social interactions are more predictable and it is easy to take the next step, depending on the knowledge that people infer from each other (Dixion & Moore, 1990: 1502). Daniel, Lafortune, Pallascio, Splitter, Slade & Garza (2005) found in their study that Thinking Training

activates children's processes of metacognitive thinking, creative thinking, logical thinking, and responsibility-oriented thinking. Kefeli (2011) and Sun et al. (2017) state that the Thinking Training process contributes to children in expressing themselves and their reasoning.

Allen (2005) conducted a qualitative study that applied Thinking Training for four months and observed that after Thinking Training the children developed self-awareness, confidence, and sensitivity to others. Okur (2008) developed a program for Thinking Training and found that it positively contributes to 6-year-old children's social skills. Researches carried out on the effects of Thinking Training applications on children, shows that these applications support children in establishing cause-effect relationships and their social communication skills (Sasseville, 1994; Doron, 2016). An evaluation of these findings shows that the Thinking Training process can support children's social problem-solving skills. The results reveal that the TMPT Program has a positive effect on 5-6-year-old pre-school children's social problem-solving skills.

Depending on the findings of the study, it is thought that training programs developed to support 5-6-year-old children's social problem-solving skills should include Thinking Training activities. Social problem-solving skills are a key element the social lives of humans that cannot be ignored. Therefore, educational applications that contribute to the development of these skills are very important for children. Considering all of this, it is necessary to apply qualified practices on Thinking Training in pre-school education institutions. In this context, qualified Thinking Training-oriented education programs can be developed and a Thinking Training activity pool with various documents (booklets, web content, etc.) that are easily reached can be created for teachers. However, it should be remembered that before Thinking Training application, the teachers should receive adequate training via a scheduled training process. This will significantly affect the quality of the education given to children. Educational seminars about how to apply a TMPT program or other programs that have proven their effectiveness in Thinking Training can be organized for teachers who are working with 5-6 year-olds across the country.

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ÇBDE Programının Okul Öncesi Çocukların Sosyal Problem Çözme Becerileri Üzerindeki Etkisinin İncelenmesi

Atıf

Gur, C. & Kocak, N. (2018). Multidimensional thinking education in preschool. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 73,* 77-94, DOI: 10.14689/ejer.2018.73.5

Özet

Problem Durumu: Okulöncesi dönem, çocukların çevrelerini tanımaya başladığı, çevreleriyle iletişim kurmaya istekli olduğu, topluma uygun alışkanlıkları kazanmaya başladıkları bir dönemdir. Bu dönemde çocuklar, karşılaştıkları çeşitli problem çözmeye yönelik durumlar karşısında düşünme süreci içerisine girmektedirler. Düşünme, bilgi edinme, anlama ve öğrenme sürecinin en önemli bileşenidir ve bilgileri sorgulama, değerlendirme ve yeni bilgiler üretme çalışmalarının temelini oluşturmaktadır. Kişinin yaşam kalitesi ve öğrenmesi düşünme kalitesiyle birebir ilişkilidir.

Öğrenmenin düşünme kalitesi ile bire bir ilişki içerisinde olduğu gibi, problem çözme de öğrenme için vaz geçilmezdir. Sağlıklı iletişim ve etkileşimin varlığı, etkin ve uyumlu yaşam süreci ve iyi düzeyde toplumsal ilişkiler için etkin problem çözme becerileri gereklidir. Sosyal gelişimin bir parçası olan sosyal problem çözme becerileri de çocuğun toplumsallaşmasında önemli bir rol oynar. Çocukların sosyal problemler karşısında çözüm yolları üretebilmek için düşünmeye yönelik becerilerin desteklenmesi önemlidir. Çocukların düşünme etkinlikleri yoluyla erken yaşlarda sosyal problem çözmeye yönelik değerler kazanmaları, neden böyle düşündüklerinin ve nasıl düşündüklerinin açıklamalarını yapabilmeleri ve düşünmenin her alanla ilişkilendirilebilmesi çok önemli bir hedeftir. Bu hedef ise ancak düşünme deneyimleriyle gerçekleştirilebilecektir.

Dünyada ve ülkemizde Düşünme Eğitimi konusunda gerçekleştirilen çalışmalar değerlendirildiğinde, Düşünme Eğitimi çalışmalarının, çocukların gelişimlerine olumlu katkılar sağladığı görülmektedir (Fields,1995; Imbrusciano, 1997; Campbell, 2002; Daniel, 2000; Doherr, 2000; IAPC, 2002; Çayır, 2015; Doron, 2016; Gur, Kocak ve Demircan, 2016; Sun et al., 2017). Bunların yanı sıra, Trickey ve Topping (2004)'in yapmış olduğu çalışmanın sonucunda, Düşünme Eğitimi'nin dinlemeye ve grup tartışmalarına katılımı (atılganlık) arttırdığı sonucuna varılmıştır. Okur (2008) ise, altı yaş grubu çocuklarla yürütmüş olduğu çalışmasında, çocukların Düşünme Eğitimi ile bireysel hareket etme ve özgün cümleler kurabilme yeteneklerinde farklılaşma olduğunu gözlemlemiştir.

Çocuklara düşünmeyi öğretmek hem rasyonel, hem de ahlaki bir girişimdir. Düşünme hem bireyin kendisi, hem de kendisi dışında kalan diğer bireyler üzerine olabilmektedir. Eğitim sisteminde düşünme yeteneğinin geliştirilmesi için, bilinçli olarak zaman ayrılması gerekmektedir. Çünkü düşünmenin gerekliliği ve öğrenilebilir bir beceri olduğu fikri kabul edilmiştir (De Bono, 1972: 10). Konuyla ilgili araştırmalar, programlı bir eğitim süreci olmaksızın öğrencilerin düşünme becerilerini yeterince geliştiremediklerine, bu sebeple birçok sıkıntı yaşayabildiklerine işaret etmektedir (Pascarella, 1989; Romano, 1992; Güneş,2012). Düşünme eğitimine yönelik programlı bir eğitim süreci düşünme yeteneğinin gelişimi açısından önem teşkil etmektedir (Romano, 1992).

Wallace (2002) ve Legett (2017) düşünme eğitimine erken yaşlarda başlamanın önemine işaret etmektedir. Okul öncesi dönem bir çok kazanımın temelinin atıldığı bir dönemdir. Bu gerçekten hareketle düşünme eğitiminin okul öncesi dönemden başlayarak eğitim sürecine dâhil edilmesinin önemli olduğu ifade edilebilir. Düşünme Eğitimi konusunda gerçekleştirilen çalışmalara ilişkin yapılan literatür taraması sonucunda okul öncesi dönem çocukları için geliştirilmiş düşünme eğitimi programlarına yönelik olan ve bu programların sosyal problem çözmeye katkılarını değerlendirmek amacıyla yapılan çalışmaların yok denecek kadar az sayıda olduğu görülmüştür. Bu bağlamda, okul öncesinde düşünme eğitimine yönelik geliştirilmiş bir programın okul öncesi çocukların sosyal problem çözme becerileri üzerindeki etkisinin incelenmesinin çocuklarda düşünme eğitimi literatürüne katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmüştür.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Yukarıda ifade edilenlerden yola çıkılarak okul öncesi dönem çocuklarına yönelik olarak Çok Boyutlu Bakış Açılarıyla Düşünme Eğitimi Programı Gür, Koçak ve Demircan (2016) tarafından geliştirilmiş ve bu programın 5-6 yaş çocuklarının sosyal problem çözme becerileri üzerindeki etkisinin incelenmesi amacıyla bu çalışma gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Bu çalışmada veriler 32 deney 38 kontrol grubu olmak üzere toplam 70 çocuktan elde edilmiştir. 5 yaş grubunda toplam olarak 30, 6 yaş grubunda ise toplam 40 çocuk bulunmaktadır. Bu çocukların 32'i kız, 38'i ise erkektir. Çalışmada ön test- son test kontrol gruplu deneysel desen kullanılmıştır. Araştırma kapsamında deneme grubuna ÇBDE Programı uygulanmıştır. Ön test ve son test olarak Wally Sosyal Problem Çözme Testi (Wally Social Problem Solving Test) kullanılmıştır. Deneme ve kontrol gruplarının (öntest- sontest) puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığının test edilmesi için bağımsız t testi uygulanmıştır.. Bu grupların kendi içerisindeki ilerlemelerin belirlenmesi ve öntest-sontest arasındaki farklılıkları test etmek için ise bağımlı t-testi kullanılmıştır. Farklılıkların test edilmesinde 0.05 anlamlılık düzeyi baz alınmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Deneme ve kontrol gruplarında yer alan çocukların Wally Sosyal Problem Çözme Ölçeği ön test ve son test puanlarının karşılaştırıldığında, ön test puanları açısından istatistiksel olarak iki grup açısından anlamlı bir farklılık bulunmazken, son testler arasındaki farkın anlamlı olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Bu durum süreç içerisinde çocukların sosyal problem çözme becerilerinde olumlu artışın

gerçekleştiğini düşündürmektedir. Bununla birlikte hem kontrol hem de deney gruplarında çocukların ön test ve son test puanları arasındaki fark istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmuştur. Bu durum programın uygulandığı 5 aylık eğitim süreci içerisinde alınan okul öncesi eğitiminin çocukların sosyal problem becerilerini olumlu yönde desteklediğine işaret etmektedir. Sürecin uzun olması okul öncesi eğitimin etkilerinin de görülmesine neden olduğunu düşündürmektedir. Ancak hem deneme ve kontrol grubunda bulunan çocukların ön test ve son testleri arasındaki fark anlamlı olmakla birlikte, deneme ve kontrol gruplarının son test puanları arasındaki fark istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunmuştur. Bu farklılığın deneme grubuna uygulanan ÇBDE Programı ile ilişkili olabileceği düşünülmektedir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Öneriler: ÇBDE Programının okul öncesi eğitim kurumuna devam eden 5-6 yaş grubu çocukların sosyal problem çözme becerileri üzerindeki etkisinin incelenmesi amacıyla gerçekleştirilen bu çalışmanın sonucunda, bu 5-6 yaş grubu çocukların sosyal problem çözme becerileri üzerindeki etkisinin olumlu olduğu bulunmuştur.

Elde edilen araştırma bulguları doğrultusunda 5-6 yaş grubu çocuklar için hazırlanan sosyal problem çözme becerisinin geliştirilmesine yönelik eğitim programlarının içeriklerinde düşünme eğitimi etkinliklerine yer verilmesinin etkin bir öğrenme bağlamında ciddi katkılar sunacağı düşünülmektedir. Sosyal problem çözme becerisi insanın toplumsal hayatı için göz ardı edilemez bir unsurdur. Bu nedenle çocuklar için bu becerinin gelişimine katkı sunacak eğitimsel uygulamalar oldukça önemlidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Düşünme uygulamaları, küçük çocuklar Çok Boyutlu Bakış Açılarıyla Düşünme, düşünme becerileri.

Eurasian Journal of Educational Research
www.ejer.com.tr

A Comparison of Mother-Tongue Curricula of Successful Countries in PISA and Turkey by Higher-Order Thinking Processes

Erkan CER[1]

A R T I C L E I N F O	A B S T R A C T
	Purpose: The purpose of the current study is to reveal general qualities of the objectives in the mother-tongue curricula of Hong Kong and Shanghai-China, South Korea, Singapore, and Turkey in terms of higher-order thinking processes specified by PISA tests. **Research Methods:** In this study, the researcher used a qualitative research design. Mother-tongue curricula were obtained from the official websites of the Ministries of National Education of the researched countries. The mother-tongue curricula of the countries are in an updated form at these official websites.

This data was considered in terms of the levels of high-order thinking processes determined by PISA 2015. The data were analyzed in accordance with the content analysis. **Findings:** Hong Kong and Shanghai-China, and South Korea had the objectives at levels 3 and 4 most, and the fewest at 1a and below. This indicated that the objectives of the mother-tongue of these countries were similar to each other as they reflected higher-order thinking processes at these levels. Singapore included 51 objectives at level 4, although it had the most objectives at level 2 and 3. On the other hand, Singapore had the most objectives at levels 5 and 6. Turkey had the most objectives at levels 2 and 3 and the fewest at level 6. Also, Turkey had the fewest objectives at levels 5 and 6 and the most objectives at levels 1b and below. **Implications for Research and Practice**: What can be suggested by the current study is to conduct research on how to better objectives for higher-order thinking processes in mother-tongue curricula of countries.

[1]Amasya University, Faculty of Education, TURKEY, erkan.cer@amasya.edu.tr,
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3589-6604

Introduction

People's life experiences in different religious and cultural environments, and in different societies and nations have allowed their educational systems and curricula to become different. Advances in educational, developmental, scientific and technological areas have influenced nations and their educational politics in terms of quality, proficiency, equality, and internationalism (Scheurich et al., 2005). Particularly through globalization, and increasing the labor force to keep pace with the age of science and technology, countries have made attempts and innovations to raise individuals who have higher-order thinking, instead of individuals who have basic proficiencies, by changing educational politics because education is the source of change and progress in the world (Wall & Ryan, 2010). Since change and progress develop interactionally, advancements in education, on the one hand, have contributed to science and technology. On the other hand, advancements in science and technology have contributed to education (Barber & Mourshed, 2009). Countries that are conscious of this interactional reality attach significance to raising individuals who can handle knowledge critically, creatively and analytically. These individuals have higher-order thinking capacity thanks to budgets for educational systems, structured education curricula, and science-based practices.

Higher-order thinking is an intellectual style derived from basic thinking and based on reasoning. It requires consistency, connection and deep comprehension (De Bono, 2010). Clearly speaking, it involves cognitive skills such as decision-making, critical, analytic and relational thinking, being creative, analyzing and synthesizing, construing and inferring, self-regulation and self-assessment. Although education is a systematic teaching and learning process that promotes and structures an individual's knowledge, skills and attitudes in a planned and purposeful way (Scott & Evans, 2015), it is not that easy to make a person have higher-order thinking capacity through this system. Hence, if education is directed by the election and ruling politics of nations (Erginer, 2006), not supported by scientific and technological materials (Nickerson, 2009), not implemented in real life through activities and practices (Cer, 2016), qualitatively and quantitatively modified continuously in nursery, primary and secondary education by transition systems among levels (Cebi & Durmus, 2012), if there is an approach which makes students memorize mere information instead of generating it, and if students are assessed by information-based exams (Titiz, 2013), a higher-order-thinking person does not seem to appear, no matter how high-quality the educational system is. Thus, it is significant that nursery, primary and secondary levels of education, disciplines such as technology, psychology, program management and supervision, testing and evaluation, and learning practices inside and outside class be planned, organized, assessed and implemented in a way that will stimulate higher-order thinking.

Curriculum is broadly defined as the totality of student experiences providing decision-making for both learning and assessing (Demirel, 2015). Curriculum is accepted as a comprehensive and a multidimensional field of study, which encompasses objectives for individuals, the selected content to actualize these objectives, learning-teaching processes that indicate how the content will be given,

and assessment activities (Aykac, 2005). The primary purpose of the mother-tongue curriculum is to improve learners' reading, speaking, writing, listening and grammar skills. Further, this curriculum will improve skills in seeking knowledge, exploring, interpreting and cognitive restructuring, and improve higher-order thinking skills such as organizing, classifying, questioning, relating, estimating, inferring, construing, analyzing-synthesizing and assessing (Wall & Ryan, 2010). Hence, it is suggested that nations develop these qualities in objectives, content, teaching-learning process, and assessing language teaching curriculum (Hirst, 2010). Such improvement in a mother-tongue yields more specific results for higher-order thinking skills, as shown in the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA).

The Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) held by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development is a year-by-year follow-up system of 15-year-old learners' improvement in basic knowledge and skills such as mathematics literacy, science literacy, and reading skills; it which allows participating countries to assess their education systems. It is not an international competition; through this triennial exam, students' lower- and higher-order thinking abilities are determined and ranked in order of success (OECD, 2016).

Regarding the research, comparing Turkey with the three most successful countries of each term according to PISA science scores from 2003 to 2012 revealed significant differences between Turkey and the countries examined in terms of economy, pre-school education, length of compulsory education, transition to secondary and higher education, teachers' education, teachers' decision-making power and in-service training (Bakir et al., 2015). Korean and Finnish mother-tongue curriculums, which are among the countries scoring the highest mark in reading in PISA testing, are similar. Different implementation of curriculums are applied in mother-tongue instruction regarding linguistic skills, objectives, content, learning-teaching processes and measurement-assessment. However, their contribution to higher-order thinking processes has not been determined (Yildiz, 2015). Reviewing other research, PISA tests were not observed to be associated with higher-order thinking processes examined in teacher training or with the mother-tongue curricula of the countries (Demir & Yavuz, 2014; Orakci, 2015; Yaman & Dagtas, 2015).

Significance and Aim of the Study

The current study first examined the mother-tongue curricula of Hong Kong and Shanghai-China, Singapore, South Korea, and Turkey by higher-order thinking processes. These countries were included these countries' proficiency levels gradually improved in reading comprehension skills. While Shanghai-China took place on the 5th (17.0%) and 6th (2.4%) level in 2009, as well as on the 5th (21.3%) and 6th (3.8%) level in 2012, Singapore got a percentage of 13.1 on the 5th and of 2.6 on the 6th level in 2009; in 2012 it got a percentage of 16.2 on the 5th and of 5.0 on the 6th level. As observed in the examples, these countries prioritize reading comprehension improvement (Titiz, 2013). Second, research on this subject has only been performed on education and mother-tongue curricula or on raising teachers

(Erdogan & Gok, 2011). The current study aimed to assess the mother-tongue curricula of these countries for their contribution to higher-order thinking processes based on PISA tests. Such assessment may not only suggest a general view of the objective aspect of the mother-tongue curricula of the countries, but it may also help determine their contribution to higher-order thinking processes. Last, the current study may reveal the condition of objectives in Turkish language curriculum regarding higher-order thinking processes by comparing it with mother-tongue curricula of other countries.

In the mother-tongue curricula of Shanghai, Hong Kong, Singapore, and Turkey:

1. How were the objectives classified by higher-order thinking processes specified by PISA?

2. What are the similarities and differences in general aims for higher-order thinking processes?

3. How frequently can objectives of communication/speaking and listening reflect higher-order thinking processes?

4. How frequently can objectives of reading and writing skills reflect higher-order thinking processes?

Method

Research Design

The current study was of a qualitative research design type which aimed to compare the mother-tongue curricula of Hong Kong and Shanghai-China, South Korea, Singapore, and Turkey by higher-order thinking processes. Qualitative research includes interpretation of various concepts, concerns, and processes and is best known to be used in observing people, phenomena and situations in situ (Punch, 2005). Qualitative research in these regards are research types in which data collection methods such as observations, interviews, document analysis and surveys are utilized and in which perceptions and phenomena are realistically analyzed (Yildirim & Simsek, 2011).

Research Instruments and Procedures

Document analysis, one of the methods of qualitative research, was utilized in collecting data. Written documents concerning phenomena and facts discussed are analyzed in this method (Yildirim & Simsek, 2011). The main priority was to reach primary and up-to-date references while conducting document analysis. In that regard, the mother-tongue curricula of the researched countries were from primary and secondary school levels. In other words, documents discussed in this study composed the overall primary and secondary school curricula of the five countries. The curricula were obtained from the official websites of the Ministries of Education of the researched countries (CLC, 2015; KLC, 2007; SELS, 2010; TTC, 2015). Data were

collected from these websites whether the objective aspect of mother-tongue curricula of Shanghai, Hong Kong, Singapore, and Turkey included higher-order thinking processes. In line with this purpose, the official websites, published reports, OECD reports and scientific research of these countries were the secondary data resource of the current study. Secondly, levels 5 and 6 specified by PISA 2015 were taken as the basis for higher-order thinking ability in analyzing higher-order thinking processes of the mother-tongue of the countries.

Data Analysis

Content analysis was used to analyze the obtained data. The procedure in content analysis is to gather homologous data within certain concepts and themes and paraphrase them in a way that readers can understand (Yildirim & Simsek, 2011). Content analysis was used in the current study to compare researched countries with each other by higher-order thinking processes.

Table 1

Summary Description of the Two Levels of Higher-Order Thinking in PISA 2015

Level 6
Tasks at this level typically require the reader to make multiple inferences, comparisons, and contrasts that are both detailed and precise.
They require demonstration of a full and detailed understanding of one or more texts and may involve integrating information from more than one text.
Tasks may require the reader to deal with unfamiliar ideas in the presence of prominent competing information and to generate abstract categories for interpretations.
Reflect and evaluate tasks may require the reader to hypothesize about or critically evaluate a complex text on an unfamiliar topic, considering multiple criteria or perspectives, and applying sophisticated understanding from beyond the text.
A salient condition for access and retrieve tasks at this level is precision of analysis and fine attention to detail that is inconspicuous in the texts.

Level 5
Tasks at this level that involve retrieving information require the reader to locate and organize several pieces of deeply embedded information, inferring which information in the text is relevant.
Reflective tasks require critical evaluation or hypothesis formulation, drawing on specialized knowledge.
Both interpretative and reflective tasks require a full and detailed understanding of a text whose content or form is unfamiliar.
For all aspects of reading, tasks at this level typically involve dealing with concepts that are contrary to expectations.

In line with this purpose, the objectives of these countries in their mother-tongue programs are considered as units at the sentence level at which the research is to be coded. In this respect, the objectives of the mother-tongue programs of the countries surveyed are examined regarding whether the statements at levels 5 and 6 in PISA 2015 are appropriate. However, objectives that do not fit levels 5 and 6 are also classified according to the 1b and below, 1a, 2, 3, 4 levels determined in PISA 2015. These units are classified comparatively by coding according to the reflection levels

of higher-order thinking. Consequently, the classifications created by the researcher and the expert were found to be similar. This approach was preferred to reduce subjectivity in similarities and differences among the mother-tongue curricula of the countries and increase reliability. All research questions were assessed by another expert who was expected to give feedback on the data collected to record the findings and their analyses. Hence, every step of the research process was elaborately presented to the reader. The researcher hoped that the reader could visualize all components of the process by elaborate research reporting. Therefore, the researcher included direct citations in the results section. To ensure confirmability, the data, method and results sections are elaborately described, and raw data and codes are kept by the researcher within the research process.

Results

A Comparison of the Objectives of Mother-Tongue Curricula of the Target Countries by Higher-Order Thinking Processes in PISA 2015

As seen in Table 2, the objectives in mother-tongue curricula of the countries were classified by intellectual dimensions (OECD, 2016). Accordingly, Hong Kong, Shanghai, and South Korea had most objectives at levels 3 and 4, and the fewest at level 1a and below. This indicated that the objectives of the mother-tongue curriculum of these countries were similar as they reflected higher-order thinking processes at these levels. Singapore included 51 objectives at level 4, although it had most objectives at level 2 and 3. On the other hand, Singapore had the most objectives at levels 5 and 6 compared to other countries. Turkey had the most objectives at levels 2 and 3, and the fewest at level 6. Also, Turkey had the fewest objectives at levels 5 and 6, and the most objectives at 1b and below levels.

Table 2

A Comparison of the Objectives of the Mother-Tongue Curricula of the Countries by Higher-Order Thinking Processes in PISA 2015

Countries	Hong Kong-China/Shanghai-China	South Korea	Singapore	Turkey
1b, below	14	15	22	30
1a	16_b	17_b	29	51_a
2	23_b	19_b	66_b	155_a
3	52	34_b	59	83_a
4	58	44	51	43
5	23	20	29	17
6	21_a	19	27_a	6_b
Total	207	107	283	385

*Hong Kong and Shanghai-China have the same mother-tongue curriculum.

A number of chi-square tests were conducted to determine whether there was a significant relationship between the countries and the number of objectives in the mother-tongue curricula. Bonferroni correction was performed to effectively control the Type 1 error rate in multiple comparisons of the performed chi-square tests. The results of the chi-square analyses were shown in Table 2. There was a significant relationship between objectives in the mother-tongue curricula of the countries. The objectives at level 1a in Turkey's mother-tongue curricula were significantly higher than Hong Kong-China/Shanghai-China $(\chi^2(1, N=67) = 18.28, p< .0001)$ and South Korea, $(\chi^2(1, N=68) = 17.00, p< .0001)$. The objectives at level 2 in Turkey's mother-tongue curriculum were significantly higher than Hong Kong-China/Shanghai-China $(\chi^2(1, N=178) = 97.88, p< .0001)$, South Korea, $(\chi^2(1, N=174) = 109.30, p< .0001)$ and Singapore $(\chi^2(1, N=221) = 35.84, p< .0001)$. The objectives at level 3 in Turkey's mother-tongue curricula were significantly higher than South Korea, $(\chi^2(1, N=117) = 20.52, p< .0001)$. The objectives at level 6 in Turkey's mother-tongue curricula were significantly higher than Hong Kong-China/Shanghai-China $(\chi^2(1, N=27) = 8.33, p< .0001)$ and Singapore $(\chi^2(1, N=33) = 13.36, p< .0001)$.

As can also be seen in Table 2, at levels 4, 5 and 6, 102 objectives out of 207 in the Chinese language curriculum, 83 objectives of 168 of South Korea, 107 objectives of 283 of Singapore and 66 objectives of 385 of Turkey were found to reflect higher-order thinking processes. Singapore (107), Hong Kong/Shanghai-China (102) had the most objectives, whereas Turkey (66) and South Korea (83) had the fewest.

A Comparison of the General Objectives of Mother-Tongue Curricula of the Target Countries by Higher-Order Thinking Processes

Analyzing the general objectives by the way they reflected higher-order thinking processes, first, it was found that four (31%) general objective statements, which were the third, seventh, eighth, and ninth items, were related to higher-order thinking, although there were 13 general objectives in the Turkish language curriculum. Besides, only one (25%) item from Hong Kong/Shanghai-China was related to higher-order thinking, although they had four general objectives in their mother-tongue curricula. This is also true for South Korea. Although the Korean language curriculum had three general objectives, only one (33%) item reflected higher-order thinking. Last, in Singapore's English language syllabus, listening and reading skills were made active along with higher-order thinking processes only through one item.

Table 3

Similarities and Differences in General Objectives of the Mother-Tongue Curricula of the Countries by Higher-Order Thinking Processes

Turkey
3. Improving skills of reasoning, comprehending, organizing, classifying, questioning, relating, criticizing, estimating, construing, analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating.
7. Improving basic skills such as scientific, positive, creative and critical thinking, self-expression, communicating, cooperating, problem-solving and assertiveness.
8. Improving skills of seeking and exploring knowledge, interpreting and cognitive restructuring.
9. Improving skills of obtaining, using and generating information through printed materials and multimedia sources.
Singapore
1. Listen, read, view critically and with accuracy and understanding a wide range of literary and informational/functional texts from print and non-print sources.
Hong Kong and Shanghai-China
3. Enhance positive thinking through higher-order thinking skills.
South Korea
2. Learners become completely familiar with information and skills which are required to understand and generate speeches and writing creatively and critically.

(CLC, 2015; KLC, 2007; SELS, 2010; TTC, 2015).

Second, Table 3 shows similarities and differences in higher-order thinking processes in the mother-tongue curricula of the countries. Hence, expanded explanations on the way Turkish students should have higher-order thinking abilities through their languages such as "*reasoning, comprehending, organizing, classifying, questioning, relating, criticizing, estimating, construing, analyzing-synthesizing and evaluating, scientific, positive, critical and creative thinking, self-expression, communicating, cooperating, problem solving, seeking and exploring, interpreting and cognitive restructuring*" can be observed in Table 3 through statements reflecting higher-order thinking. In the mother-tongue curricula of Hong Kong/Shanghai-China, a general statement, "*improving higher-order thinking,*" was included. Two dimensions of higher-order thinking were discussed through the statement "*creative and critical thinking*" in the Korean language curriculum, and the Singapore English language syllabus included the statement, "*read and view critically*" in all three objectives. Comparing curricula of all the countries by higher-order thinking processes, the Turkish language curriculum can be said to include the most statements.

A comparison of Objectives for Verbal Communication/Speaking-Listening Skills in the Mother-Tongue Curricula of the Target Countries by the Reflection of Higher-Order Thinking Processes

Upon reviewing objectives for verbal communication/speaking-listening skills in the mother-tongue curricula of the researched countries, for Turkey, 47 (47%) objectives out of 100 for verbal communication/speaking-listening skills in its mother-tongue curriculum; 45 (58%) objectives of Hong Kong/Shanghai-China out of 78; 31 (38%)[b] objectives of South Korea out of 81, and 57 (45%)[a] objectives of

Singapore out of 126 were observed to mostly reflect level 4 ($\chi^2(1,$ N=88)= 7.68, p< .0001), but not enough at level 5 and 6 (CLC, 2015; KLC, 2007; SELS, 2010; TTC, 2015). This condition indicates that the countries' objectives for verbal communication/speaking-listening skills at higher-order thinking levels were few and accumulated at level 4. Even half of the objectives in the mother-tongue curricula of the countries, except Hong Kong/Shanghai-China, for verbal communication/speaking-listening skills do not seem to reflect higher-order thinking. Besides, as seen through the examples in Table 4, objectives reflecting higher-order thinking for such skills seem to be repeated in primary and secondary education levels of the countries researched, except for South Korea. This condition shows that objectives of higher-order thinking processes for the same kind of verbal communication/speaking-listening skills were included in the mother-tongue curricula by ignoring different grade levels and without any modifications. Below are examples of objectives of higher-order thinking for verbal communication/speaking-listening skills in mother-tongue programs:

Table 4

Examples of Objectives of Higher-Order Thinking for Verbal Communication/Speaking-Listening Skills in Mother-Tongue Programs

Turkey
1. Question the consistency of the information and thoughts in what is watched/listened (6th, 7th, 8th grades).
2. Draw inferences about the way the action may develop and draw a conclusion by envisioning what they listen (2nd, 3rd, 4th grades).
3. Analyze how sentences, acts, scenes or stanzas are related to the whole text and how these contribute to the storyline (6th grade).
4. Draw inferences from simple images and summarize a situation by interconnecting them with each other (2nd grade).
Singapore
1. Make predictions about subsequent action or activity by using prior knowledge, phonological cues, contextual clues (1st, 2nd, 3rd 4th, 5th, 6th grades).
2. Deduce meaning of words from how they relate to one another (3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th grades).
3. Elaborate on/substantiate points using details, anecdotes, concrete examples, experiences and feelings (4th, 5th, 6th grades).
4. Elaborate on, explain and/or justify the main idea of a paragraph by providing relevant factual information (5th, 6th grades).
South Korea
1. Discover lessons contained in a story after listening to moral speeches (3rd grade).
2. Predict subsequent events when watching dramas (6th grade).
3. Compare and understand online conversations with offline conversations (5th grade).
4. Judge arguments in a discussion (5th grade).
Hong Kong/Shanghai-China
1.Formulate questions, make predictions/estimations and hypotheses (1st, 2nd, 3rd grades).
2. Work out the meaning of unknown words using contextual or pictorial clues (1st, 2nd, 3rd grades).
3. Draw logical conclusions based on adequate data and evidence, and make predictions about consequences (4th, 5th, 6th grades).
4. Understand and make deductions/inferences from sources (4th, 5th, 6th grades).

 (CLC, 2015; KLC, 2007; SELS, 2010; TTC, 2015).

A Comparison of Reading and Writing Skills in the Mother-Tongue Curricula of the Target Countries by Higher-Order Thinking Processes

First, upon reviewing the objectives of reading and writing skills in mother-tongue curricula of the researched countries, 51 (43%) objectives of 119 of mother-tongue curricula of Hong Kong/Shanghai-China, 43 (49%) objectives out of 87 of South Korea, 109 (52%) objectives of 208 of Singapore, and 102 (36%) objectives of 285 of Turkey were observed to mostly reflect level 4, and not to reflect levels 5 and 6 by higher-order thinking processes (CLC, 2015; KLC, 2007; SELS, 2010; TTC, 2015). As a result of the chi-square test, there was not a significant relationship between objectives of reading and writing skills in the mother-tongue curricula and the countries themselves. Based on these data, all mother-tongue curricula of the countries may be said not to have adequately reflected higher-order thinking processes in reading and writing skills as they did not in the objectives of verbal communication/speaking-listening skills. The fact that almost one-third of 285 objectives in reading and writing skills in the Turkish teaching curriculum was for higher-order thinking implies that two-thirds of the overall objectives of reading and writing skills reflected lower-order thinking processes. Second, except for Korea, objectives in mother-tongue curricula in reading and writing skills, which reflect higher-order thinking processes, were repeated without any modifications or considerations for different grade levels, as seen through the examples in Table 5. Below are examples of objectives reflecting higher-order thinking processes in reading and writing skills in the curricula of the countries:

Table 5

Examples of Objectives Reflecting Higher-Order Thinking Processes in Reading and Writing Skills in Mother-Tongue Curricula of the Countries

Turkey
1.Specify heroes in the text and compare them with each other (3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th grades).
2. Construe the text by referring to examples and details when necessary (4th grade).
3. Make comparisons intertextually (4th, 5th, 6th grades).
4. Deduce opinions, justifications appropriate to the writing objective (5th, 6th, 8th grades).

Singapore
1. Organize facts, ideas and/or points of view in a way appropriate to the mode of delivery, purpose, and audience (1st,2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th grades).
2. Elaborate on, explain and/or justify the main idea of a paragraph by providing relevant factual, descriptive, emotive or sensory details and/or examples (5th, 6th grades).
3. Review and revise drafts to enhance relevance, focus, and clarity in the expression of meaning (1st,2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th grades).
4. Construct meaning from visual texts (1st,2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th grades).

South Korea
1. Write texts that interpret materials like paintings, pictures, graphs, or charts (3rd grade).
2. Imagine situations described in an interesting text (2nd grade).
3. Evaluate the appropriateness of a writer's suggested opinion (4th grade).
4. Assess the reliability of information contained in an advertisement (5th grade).

Hong Kong/Shanghai-China
1. Reproduce sentences based on teacher's model and use words (1st,2nd, 3rd grades).
2. Guess the meaning of unfamiliar words by using contextual or pictorial clues (1st,2nd, 3rd grades).
3. Work out the meaning of an unknown word or expression by using visual clues, context, and knowledge of the world (4th, 5th, 6th grades).
4. Predict the likely development of a topic by recognizing key words, using personal experiences, and making use of context and knowledge of the world (4th, 5th, 6th grades).

(CLC, 2015; KLC, 2007; SELS, 2010; TTC, 2015).

Discussion and Conclusion

The current study suggested that the mother-tongue curricula of Hong Kong/Shanghai-China, South Korea, Singapore, and Turkey embraced higher-order thinking objectives at level 4 and below, but they were inadequate in reflecting objectives of higher-order thinking processes at levels 5 and 6. Moreover, as a result of comparing objectives in the curricula of the countries with higher-order thinking processes specified by PISA tests (OECD, 2016), it was also found that these objectives showed parallelism with PISA results. That can be supported by the fact that objectives in mother-tongue curricula are basic variables in modifying skills, behaviors and thinking levels (Scott, 2016). Accordingly, students' higher-order thinking abilities in an intentional way render the reflection of objectives within curricula in higher-order thinking processes possible.

As a result of the analyses, the mother-tongue curricula with the most objectives regarding higher-order thinking processes belonged to Singapore (56) and Hong Kong/Shanghai-China (44), while the mother-tongue curricula with the fewest objectives belonged to South Korea (39) and Turkey (23). When the objectives of the mother-tongue curricula of the countries were evaluated in total, the countries with the most objectives were Turkey (385) and Singapore (283), whereas the countries with the least objectives were Hong Kong/Shanghai-China (207) and South Korea (107). The majority of the 385 objectives of Turkey were at levels 2, 3 and 4, whereas the majority of the 207 objectives of Hong Kong and Shanghai-China were levels 3 and 4. From South Korea, 107 objectives were at levels 3 and 4, and 283 objectives of Singapore were on level 2. In other words, the mother-tongue curricula of Singapore and Hong Kong and Shanghai-China focused more on students' higher-order thinking skills, while the mother-tongue curriculum of Turkey aimed to improve students' lower-order thinking skills of students.

PISA Tests

Comparing objectives in the mother-tongue curricula of Hong Kong and Shanghai-China, South Korea, Singapore, and Turkey by the way they reflect higher-order thinking processes, it can be observed that there are specific similarities and differences among them regarding levels of objectives in their curricula. First, objectives in the curricula of Hong Kong and Shanghai-China (53) and South Korea (51) show similarities in that they reflect lower-order intellectual skills at levels 1b and below and 2, specified by PISA 2015. However, 117 objectives in Singapore's English language syllabus at levels 1b, 1a and 2 differed from 236 objectives in the Turkish language curriculum. In other words, Turkey and Singapore included too many lower-order thinking objectives, such as locating a single piece of explicitly stated information, shapes and familiar symbols, making simple connections between adjacent pieces of information, drawing inferences from a specific part of the text, at level 2 and below (SELS, 2010; TTC, 2015). Second, while objectives in the curricula of Hong Kong and Shanghai-China (110) and Singapore (110) at levels 3 and 4 showed similarity, they differed from South Korea (78) and Turkey (126). The curricula of the countries except for South Korea included objectives of skills such as

recognizing the relationship between several pieces of information that must meet multiple conditions, dealing with concepts that are contrary to expectations, generating abstract categories for interpretation, organizing and interpreting similarities and differences, hypothesizing about or critically evaluating a complex text on an unfamiliar topic taking into account multiple criteria or perspectives, and applying sophisticated understanding from beyond the text (CLC, 2015; SELS, 2010; TTC, 2015). Third, Hong Kong and Shanghai-China (44) and South Korea (39) included similar objectives at levels 5 and 6; they differed from Singapore (56) and Turkey (23). This means that while other researched countries had objectives (CLC 2015; SELS 2010; TTC 2015) which required critical evaluating and hypothesizing, Turkey had 17 objectives at level 5 and 6 at level 6, which clearly shows that Turkey had very few objectives at level 5 and 6, and thus was quite behind other countries.

The level of the objectives in the curricula of Hong Kong and Shanghai-China, Singapore and Turkey somewhat seemed to support reading comprehension proficiency level of these countries in PISA tests because Hong Kong and Shanghai-China, South Korea and Singapore had the most objectives at level 3 and 4 and had the fewest at level 1a and below. Furthermore, while these countries had fewer students at level 1a and below in all PISA tests from 2000 to 2015, which included objectives for reading comprehension proficiency, they had more students at levels 3 and 4 (OECD, 2000, 2004, 2006, 2010, 2014, 2016). Turkey, however, includes objectives at levels 2 and 3 in its curriculum and had students mostly at levels 2 and 3 in PISA tests. The fact that Turkey had more objectives at level 1a and below corresponds to the fact that it had more students in PISA tests (OECD, 2004, 2006, 2010, 2014, 2016).

General Objectives

Comparing the mother-tongue curricula of the countries, it can be observed that Hong Kong and Shanghai-China, South Korea and Singapore had one general objective reflecting higher-order thinking processes each, whereas Turkey had four general objectives. In addition, Hong Kong and Shanghai-China mentioned enhancing higher-order thinking in a single statement by not referring to reading, speaking, writing and listening skills, whereas South Korea mentioned critical and creative thinking processes within higher-order thinking by referring to linguistic skills. Turkey, however, with its four detailed objectives of higher-order thinking processes, asserted its national objectives for this matter. When profoundly viewed, all these objectives can be observed to correspond with higher-order thinking processes at level 4 and above, specified by PISA (OECD, 2016).

Although Turkey elaborately described its general national objectives for higher-order thinking processes in its curriculum, these objectives were not observed to be reflected in objectives in the curriculum. The fact that 47 objectives out of 100 in verbal communication/speaking-listening skills and 102 objectives out of 285 in writing skills in its curriculum are for higher-order thinking processes concretizes this fact. Besides, although Hong Kong and Shanghai-China, Singapore and South Korea have one statement about higher-order thinking in general objectives, these

objectives can be said not to reflect in objectives in their curricula, either (Table 4 and 5). Notably, the fact that these countries have few objectives at levels 5 and 6 seems to support this datum (Table 2).

Verbal Communication/Speaking and Listening Skills

Objectives for verbal communication/speaking and listening skills in the curricula of researched countries may be inadequate for reflecting higher-order thinking levels because objectives set in such a conception are few in the curricula of the countries and seem to be repeated at different grade levels. Moreover, although there are enough objectives for these skills at different grade levels in the curricula of these countries, 47 objectives of Turkey, 45 of Hong Kong/Shanghai-China, 31 of South Korea and 57 of Singapore reflect higher-order thinking processes. This may negatively affect both thinking processes generated by these skills and the quality of the mother-tongue curriculum because students' improvement in speaking and listening skills is possible with an enhancement in the quality of mother-tongue curricula (Grez & Valcke, 2010). Such upgrade may be provided by restructuring objectives for speaking and listening skills to be improved in the mother-tongue curriculum to enhance higher-order thinking ability (Hirst, 2010).

Reviewing objectives for verbal communication/speaking and listening skills, considering higher-order thinking processes specified by PISA, these objectives may be observed as mostly for level 4 (CLC, 2015; KLC, 2007; SELS, 2010; TTC, 2015). These objectives reflect skills such as making intertextual connections, comparing and contrasting, construing, evaluating the features of the text, organizing the text, interpreting the meaning of nuances of language, hypothesizing and critically evaluating (OECD, 2016). Hence, it is suggested that researched countries promote higher-order thinking processes generated by speaking and listening skills as appropriate to levels 5 and 6 though they are top-performing countries in PISA results. It is also suggested that Turkey effectively reflect its national objectives, which it included in its general objectives for higher-order thinking processes in objectives for speaking and listening skills, while restructuring its curriculum. Thus, Turkey may have consistency among its mother-tongue curriculum, general objectives, and speaking-listening in terms of higher-order thinking.

Reading and Writing Skills

Objectives for reading and writing skills in the mother-tongue curricula of the countries seem to be inadequate, as they are in verbal communication/speaking-listening skills. Although Turkey has 285 and Singapore has 208 objectives for reading and writing skills at different grade levels, only 102 of Turkey's objectives and 109 of Singapore's objectives reflect higher-order thinking processes. This indicates that objectives for higher-order thinking processes for these skills are few for the different grade levels of primary and secondary education in both countries' curricula. Accordingly, objectives of Hong Kong/Shanghai-China (51) and South Korea (43) for reading and writing skills that reflect higher-order thinking are not only few in number but also reflect thinking processes only at level 4, as do Singapore and Turkey (CLC, 2015; KLC, 2007).

In conclusion, objectives have qualities that directly affect students, teachers, content, learning-teaching processes and activities, and assessment (Demirel, 2015). Therefore, it is suggested that educational managers in the countries researched in this study attach importance to revising and restructuring the objectives for higher-order thinking processes at levels 5 and 6 in their mother-tongue curricula. This is expected to particularly help raise individuals who can prioritize skills such as decision-making, critical, analytic and relational thinking, creativity, analyzing and synthesizing, construing and inferring, self-regulation, and self-assessment.

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PISA'da Başarılı Olan Ülkelerle Türkiye'nin Anadili Programının Üst Düzey Düşünme Süreçleri Bakımından Karşılaştırılması

Atıf:

Özet

Problem Durumu: Üst düzey düşünme, eleştirel ve yaratıcı düşünmenin temelinden oluşan, akıl yürütmeye dayanan, bilgiler arasında tutarlılık, bağlantı ve derin kavrayış gerektiren ve bulgulara dayalı olarak sonuçların oluşturulduğu düşünme biçimidir. Bu tür düşünme biçiminin ortaya çıkartılmasında başat sorumluluklardan birisi de anadili programlarına düşmektedir. Bu bakımdan, ülkelerin anadili programlarını kazanım, içerik, öğrenme-öğretme süreci ve değerlendirme yönlerinden geliştirmeleri gerekmektedir. Çünkü anadili programlarındaki bu nitelik gelişimi, üst düzey düşünme becerisi yönünden PISA sınavları sonucunda kendini daha iyi belli etmektedir. Bu çalışmada, Şangay-Çin, Hong Kong-Çin, Singapur, Güney Kore ve Türkiye'nin anadili programları üst düzey düşünme süreçleri bakımından incelemiştir. Bu çalışmaya adı geçen ülkelerin seçilmesinin nedeni, PISA 2006'dan başlayarak okuduğunu anlama becerisi bakımdan bu ülkelerin yeterlilik düzeylerinin sürekli olarak gelişmesidir. İkinci olarak, bu konuyla ilgili yapılan araştırmalar salt eğitim programları, anadili programları ya da öğretmen yetiştirme üzerine gerçekleştirilmiştir. Oysa bu çalışmayla ilk kez bu ülkelerin anadili programlarını PISA sınavları doğrultusunda üst düzey düşünme süreçlerine olan katkısı yönünden değerlendirilmektedir. Böyle bir değerlendirme, bu ülkelerin hem anadili programlarının kazanım boyutu ile ilgili genel bir görüş ortaya koyabilir hem de bu programların üst düzey düşünme süreçlerine olan katkısını belirleyebilir. Son olarak, bu çalışma, Türkiye'nin anadili programını diğer ülkelerin anadili programlarıyla karşılaştırarak Türkiye'nin anadili programında yer alan kazanımlarının üst düzey düşünme süreçleriyle ilgili durumunu ortaya çıkartacaktır.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu çalışmanın amacı, Şangay-Çin, Hong Kong-Çin, Singapur, Güney Kore ve Türkiye'nin anadili programlarında yer alan kazanımlarını PISA sınavlarıyla belirlenmiş üst düzey düşünme süreçleri bakımından karşılaştırarak bu kazanımların genel niteliklerini ortaya çıkarmaktır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Şangay-Çin, Hong Kong-Çin, Singapur, Güney Kore ve Türkiye'nin anadili programlarının üst düzey düşünme süreçleri bakımından karşılaştırılmasını amaçlayan bu çalışmada nitel bir araştırma deseni kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın verilerinin toplanmasında ise doküman incelenmesi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada doküman incelemesi yapılırken güncel ve birincil kaynaklara ulaşılmaya çalışılmıştır. Bu yönüyle, bu araştırmada ilk olarak, araştırmaya konu olan ülkelerin anadili programları ilköğretim ve ortaöğretim düzeylerinde ele alınmıştır. Yani, bu çalışmada incelenen dokümanlar, beş ülkeye ait ilköğretim ve ortaöğretim programlarının tamamını oluşturmaktadır. Bu programlar, ilgili ülkelerin eğitim bakanlıklarının resmi bilgisunar adreslerinden elde edilmiştir. Başka bir söyleyişle, Şangay-Çin, Hong Kong-Çin, Singapur, Güney Kore ve Türkiye'nin anadili programlarındaki kazanımlarının üst düzey düşünme süreçlerini kapsayıp kapsamadığı ile ilgili bu adreslerden bilgiler toplanmıştır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, verileri destekleyecek bir biçimde bu ülkelerin eğitim bakanlıkları ya da eğitim bürolarının bilgisunar sayfaları, bu kurumların yayımladıkları raporlar, OECD raporları ve bilimsel çalışmalar da bu araştırmanın ikincil veri kaynağını oluşturmuştur. İkinci olarak, ülkelerin anadili programları üst düzey düşünme süreçleri bakımından incelenirken PISA 2015'in belirlediği 5. ve 6. düzeyler (OECD, 2016), üst düzey düşünme yeterliliği olarak ele alınmıştır.

Bu çalışmada, elde edilen verilerin çözümlenmesinde içerik analizi kullanılmıştır. Bu çalışmada içerik analizi kullanılmasının amacı, Şangay-Çin, Hong Kong-Çin, Singapur, Güney Kore ve Türkiye'nin anadili programlarındaki kazanımlarını PISA 2015'te belirlenmiş olan üst düzey düşünme süreçleri bakımından inceleyerek ülkeleri birbirleriyle karşılaştırmaktır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, bu ülkelerin anadili programlarında yer alan kazanımları, araştırmanın kodlama yapılacak tümce düzeyindeki birimleri olarak ele alınmıştır. Bu bakımdan, araştırmaya konu olan ülkelerin anadili programlarında belirtilen kazanımları PISA 2015'in 5. ve 6. düzeyde yer alan ifadelerine uygun olup olmaması bakımından karşılaştırmalı olarak sınıflandırılmıştır. Daha sonra, bu sınıflandırmalar hem araştırma konusuna aşina olmayan nitel araştırma konusunda deneyim sahibi başka bir uzman tarafından değerlendirilmiş hem de kodlamalar arasındaki farklılıklar için üçüncü bir alan uzmanından görüş alınmıştır. Sonuç olarak, araştırmacıyla her iki uzmanın yaptığı sınıflandırmaların birbirleriyle benzer olduğu görülmüştür. Bu yaklaşım, ülkelerin anadili programlarına yönelik ortaya çıkartılan benzerlik ve farklılıklardaki öznelliği azaltmak ve araştırmanın güvenirliliğini arttırmak amacıyla kullanılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Hong Kong-Çin, Şangay-Çin ve Güney Kore'nin anadili programlarındaki en çok kazanımın 3. ve 4. düzeylerde olduğu; en az kazanımın ise 1a ve aşağısındaki düzeylerde olduğu belirlenmiştir. Bu durum, bu ülkelerin anadili programlarındaki kazanımlarının bu düzeylerdeki düşünme süreçlerini yansıtması bakımından birbirleriyle benzer özellikler gösterdiğini ortaya koymaktadır. Singapur

ise, en fazla kazanımı 2. ve 3. düzeylerde bulundurmasına karşın 4. düzeyde de 51 kazanımı vardır. Bununla birlikte, Singapur diğer ülkelerle karşılaştırıldığında 5. ve 6. düzeylerde en fazla kazanıma sahip ülkedir. Türkiye'nin ise, anadili programındaki en fazla kazanımının 2. ve 3. düzeylerde; en az kazanımının ise 6. düzeyde olduğu görülmektedir. Aynı zamanda, diğer ülkeler ile karşılaştırıldığında 1b ve aşağısındaki düzeylerde en fazla kazanım ile 5. ve 6. düzeylerde en az kazanımın Türkiye'de olduğu görülecektir. Bununla birlikte, Hong Kong-Çin/Şangay-Çin'in anadili programında yer alan 207 kazanımından 5. ve 6. düzeyleri kapsayan 44 kazanımının; Güney Kore'nin anadili programında yer alan 168 kazanımından 5. ve 6. düzeyleri kapsayan 39 kazanımının; Singapur'un anadili programında yer alan 283 kazanımından 5. ve 6. düzeyleri kapsayan 56 kazanımının ve Türkiye'nin anadili programında yer alan 385 kazanımından 5. ve 6. düzeyleri kapsayan 23 kazanımının üst düzey düşünme süreçlerini yansıttığı belirlenmiştir. Üst düzey düşünme süreçleri bakımından en fazla kazanıma sahip olan anadili programı Singapur (56) ve Hong Kong-Çin/Şangay-Çin'e (44) ait olmasına karşın en az kazanıma sahip olan anadili programı Güney Kore (39) ve Türkiye'ye (23) aittir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Bu çalışma kapsamında ele alınan ülkelerin anadili programlarında yer alan kazanımlarını yeniden gözden geçirerek 5. ve 6. düzeylerle ilişkili üst düzey düşünmeyi ortaya çıkartacak nitelikteki kazanımlarla anadili programlarını yeniden yapılandırmaya önem vermeleri gerekmektedir. Özellikle bu yönde yapılacak değişiklikler karar verme, eleştirel, analitik ve ilişkisel düşünme, yaratıcı olma, çözümleme ve bireşim yapma, kestirim ve çıkarımda bulunma, özdüzenleme ve değerlendirme yapma gibi becerileri önceleyen bireylerin yetiştirilmesine olanak sağlayabilir. Bu araştırmanın ilk sınırlılığı, ülkelerin anadili programlarında yer alan kazanımlarının üst düzey düşünme süreçlerini yansıtması bakımından incelenmiş olmasıdır. Bu yönde yapılacak çalışmalarda, ülkelerin anadili programlarındaki içerik, öğrenme-öğretme süreçleri, ölçme ve değerlendirme boyutlarının da üst düzey düşünme süreçlerini yansıtması yönünden ele alınması gerekmektedir. İkinci olarak, bu araştırmada üst düzey düşünme süreçleri Hong Kong-Çin/Şangay-Çin, Güney Kore, Singapur ve Türkiye'nin anadili programları kapsamında bulunmaya çalışılmıştır. İlerleyen çalışmalarda hem bu ülkelerin sayısı arttırılmalı hem de üst düzey düşünme süreçleri başka disiplinlere yönelik programlara da uygulanmalıdır. Son olarak, bu araştırmada ülkelerin anadili programlarındaki kazanımları PISA sınavlarında belirlenmiş olan okuduğunu anlama yeterlilik düzeylerine göre sınıflandırılmıştır. İlerleyen çalışmalarda, okuma yeterlilik düzeyini ölçen PIRLS sınavı da göz önünde bulundurularak bir sınıflandırma yapılması gerekmektedir. Bu araştırmayla sunulabilecek öneri ise, anadili programlarında yer alan alt ve üst düzey düşünme süreçleriyle ilgili kazanımların daha iyi nasıl uygulanabilirliğine ilişkin çalışmaların yapılmasıdır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Anadili programı, üst düzey düşünce, PISA, Türkiye.

An Evaluation of the Vocabulary in Turkish Textbooks Before and After the Constructivist Approach in the Context of Frequency[1]

Sukran DILIDUZGUN[2]

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	Purpose: Research shows that students in Turkey are taught to write with much smaller vocabularies than students in other countries. Along with the constructivist approach, the frequency of words used in texts should be high, and unknown words should be at certain levels in order to allow for production, cognizance and creation of information based on existing information.

The aim of this research is to analyze the vocabulary in Turkish textbooks before and after the introduction of the constructivist approach on the basis of frequency and origin.

Method: The research was conducted using a general screening model composed of the words used in informative texts in Turkish textbooks before and after the introduction of the constructivist approach. With the aid of random sampling, informative texts with "Nature and Universe" themes that were used in 2001-2002 and 2013-2014 in secondary schools were chosen as samples. Frequency and percentage proportions were made in a descriptive way in order to compare the numbers of the same and different lemmas. T-test and Mann Whitney U test were used to determine meaningfulness.

Findings: While there is not a significant difference in frequency between TBCA and TACA in the Turkish, Arabic, Persian and western-based words. It has been determined that, among words that do not have synonyms, the same book after the introduction of the constructivist approach shows a preference for words used with less frequency.

Implications for Research and Practice: The word lists for each level should be made in the context of frequency of use in textbooks.

Introduction

One of the primary reasons for not being able to use a language in a competent and fluent way is either not finding the right words or not being able to use the words in an appropriate context. Ozdemir (2012:35) underlines that words are the building blocks of thinking in that they veer away from the reality. "If the name of something is does not exist in our language memory, it does not exist at all (Ozdemir, 2011: 51)." In addition, Vygotsky (1998) states that thinking is like a cloudburst of words, and thinking passes on to words through the aid of meaning.

Two accepted facts about primary school students are that they always use the same words in their essays (Author, 2013), and they are not very successful in using either active or passive vocabulary. Author, 2014, reveals the need for more institutional and application-oriented research into the style and content of the teaching of words. In addition, it has been observed that the number of words and concepts taught to students using course tools and equipment in the mother tongue education is quite low when compared to other countries (Akdogan, 1999, cited as in Ozbay ve Melanlioglu, 2008). Guzel (2006: 323) explains this by saying, "There hasn't been a research focusing on the quantitative analysis of vocabulary of primary school students in our country, and the vocabulary improvement of students is left to coincidence." Karadag's work (2005) titled "A Research on Vocabulary of Students in Primary Education," is a product of this kind of idea, and a non-proportional increase is seen textbooks in terms of total and unique vocabulary in different grades. The same research was applied to secondary education by Kurudayioglu (2005), and it emerged that common words should take their place in textbooks. The report prepared by the Ministry of National Education (MEB) titled "İlk Mektep Kitaplari Tetkik Komisyonu Elifba Kitaplari" also underlines the importance of increasing the vocabulary of students; even though creating committee was proposed to create a list of the words that children use the most, no rating scales or proper vocabulary for a given age and frequency of usage have been created yet (Karadag, 2005).

During the teaching process for both the first tongue and foreign languages for different age clusters, the priority of factors in the textbooks and dictionaries is determined by studies of frequency counts (Aksan, 1982). The "vocabulary control principle," which states that "the most frequent words should be shown first to people who are learning a new language," is shaped by the frequency studies of Thorndike (Aksan, Mersinli ve Yaldir, 2011). In addition, learning the frequently used words may make it easier to learn the words in different subjects and at different levels (Hatch & Brown, 1995). When the frequency of usage of words is taken into consideration, it is clear that the most frequent 1000 to 1500 words correspond to over 90% of that language (Aksan, 1982; Karadag, 2005). According to Nation and Newton (1997), the most frequently used 2000 words in a language form 85% of all the words in a book or newspaper published in that language. The greater the frequency of unknown words in a text, the more the reader will encounter these words and the less understandable the text will become (Ozturk, 2013). Nation (2001: 42) states that "there should be 1 unknown word in every 50 words in order to have pleasure in reading."

In this context, Aksan et al. (2012) compared the vocabulary lists gathered from purpose-made Turkish Textbooks Collection (251,860 words) that were created with Turkish textbooks published between 2005 and 2010 and approved by MEB, and a general collection (260.000 words) which was created using a sample of the Turkish National Corpus (Aksan et al., 2012) in order to see how the vocabulary in Turkish textbooks reflects the general use of language (Aksan, Mersinli & Yaldir, 2011). In addition to creating lists of the words frequently used in Turkish textbooks, the most common 100 words in 3 textbooks were selected to determine how many times they were used in total and in each of the textbooks separately (Arı, 2003). Apaydin (2010), Uludag (2010) and Turhan (2010) analyzed Turkish textbooks from the 6th, 7th and 8th grades, respectively, in terms of the vocabulary in these textbooks.

Aim of the Research

Since 2005, the system of national education in Turkey has been based on a constructivist approach aimed at encouraging an active learning process with innovation, mutual interaction, and a perspective of combining adaptational learning with productive learning (Yurdakul, 2005). During language education, the frequencies of word use in texts should be high, and unknown or unique words should be offered at certain levels in order to have production, cognizance and creation of information based on existing information, in order to place the learning responsibility on the learners.

The aim of this research is to analyze the vocabulary in Turkish textbooks before (TBCA) and after constructivist approach (TACA) was introduced on the basis of frequency and origin.

Sub-aims of the research are:

- To determine out the numbers of the same and different lemmas and the words derived from them.

- To determine the percentages of the same and different lemmas in TACA and TBCA in terms of their roots.

- To determine the origins of different lemmas in TACA and TBCA.

- To compare the most repeated 100 words, apart from the same words, with the total percentages of roots.

- To determine whether the difference between the frequencies of different lemmas in TBCA and TACA is meaningful.

- To determine the frequency and roots of synonyms.

- To determine whether there are differences between the conceptual fields analyzed in TACA and TBCA.

Method

Research Design

This research was conducted using a general screening model as a component of the quantitative research method. "Research models are approaches to research that describe a situation as it happened in the past or in the way it is happening currently" (Karasar, 1984: 80). In quantitative research methods, there is a preference for segmenting complicated facts and incidents into analyzable special parts, degrading the data into numerical values and summarizing the conclusions statistically (Buyukozturk, Cakmak, Akgun, Karadeniz & Demirel, 2009).

Research Sample

This research is composed of the words used in informative texts in Turkish textbooks before and after the introduction of the constructivist approach. The research is limited by informative texts, as the literary texts were generally the same in both of periods, and it is thought that there would not be much difference in terms of words used. According to Aksan et al. (2012), as frequency is not a direct linguistic or lexicological property of words, and as they represent a relativist result in a distinct linguistic dataset or a sample, it is important to know the source of text collection and the genres and eras in which the linguistic corpus that the words were collected. Because of that, two corpuses, which have distinct themes and are composed of distinct types of texts, were compared in this research.

Using random sampling, informative texts with "Nature and Universe" themes that were used in the 2013-2014 school year by 6th grade, 7th grade (Ada Press) and 8th grade (MEB Press) students, and informative texts of much the same theme that were used during the 2001-2002 academic year by 6th grade, 7th grade (Altin Kitaplar Press) and 8th grade (MEB Press), were chosen for TACA and TBCA, respectively. A similar number of words was selected for every grade, in order to mitigate any differences in grade levels in terms of number, difficulty and frequency of words. In TBCA, there are five travel essays, two interviews, two articles, and one news article, and in TACA, there are three essays, two articles and one interview. The texts chosen from the textbooks are provided in Table 1 based on their word counts.

Table 1

Texts chosen from TACA and TBCA, Genres and Word Counts

Grade	TBCA	Word count	TACA	Word count
6th grade	Yesil Cigerli Devler (article), Kartalkaya (travel writing) Serin Dere'ye Sicak Yuruyus (travel writing)	881	Bos Arsa (essay) Orman Kustu Bize (essay)	1135

Table 1 Continue

Grade	TBCA	Word count	TACA	Word count
7th grade	Beyaz Karanlik (travel writing) Karinca Yuvalarinin Gizi (article) Van Golu'nun Safagi (reportage), Saroz Korfezi (travel writing)	1339	Kutup Yildizi (article), Ormanda (essay).	1108
8th grade	Abant Cagiriyor (travel writing), Su (interview) Baska Karadeniz Yok (news)	1111	Yanan Ormanlarda Elli Gun-Orman Yanginlarinin Sebepleri (interview) Guney ve Bati Anadolu Ormanlari (article)	1088
Total		3331		3331

Research Instruments and Procedures

The four grammatical categories of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs were included in the scope of the research. L. Tesniere reduces grammatical categories to four by performing functional analysis: Nouns, verbs and their determinants as adjectives and adverbs, respectively (Kiran & Kiran, 2001). This grammatical base, which was built on the contrast and interaction of noun and verb, is suitable for the analysis of Turkish, where words are separated into nouns and verbs at the base level.

Lemmas were used as a base in this research in an aim to develop the expanding vocabulary of students. "Lemma" is defined as the nominative of a word which is purged from the word endings and the morphemes that may be lexical entries in dictionaries (Aksan et al., 2012). For instance, three times "ogrenci-y-di" (He was a student), two times "ogrenci-nin" (student's), and three times "ogrenci-ler" (students), which are all derived from the same word but use different word endings, constitute eight models and three kinds. In this example, there is only one lemma that represents the three kinds of words, which is "ogrenci" (student). The purged versions of words without word endings provide the real frequencies of the words in order to determine which Turkish words will be taught during foreign language learning and reading comprehension education. The research of Ozturk (2013)

reveals that the first 500 kinds correspond to 19% of the corpus, while the first 500 lemmas correspond to 57% of the sub-corpus.

In Turkish, morphemes are divided into the two main categories of "lexical" and "functional" morphemes. "While contextual definitions can be given for lexical morphemes, the definitions for functional morphemes use alikes or functional definitions are made" (Adali, 2004, 26). In this context, in the scope of the research, while the lexical morphemes were used, functional free morphemes such as pronouns (me, self, this, who, etc.), functional verbs (this, else, how many, which, few, etc.), prepositions (for, till, beyond, etc.), rating antecedents (more, most, a lot, etc.), conjunctions (but, however, etc.) and exclamations – Aksan (1982) named as structural words – and words formed with voice suffixes and verbal appendixes (apart from derivational affix functions), demonstratives and numeral adjectives, proper nouns, units of time and length, auxiliary verbs and reflection words were excluded. Research in contemporary era (Ozturk [2013]; Aksan, Mersinli & Yaldir [2011]; Arı [2003]) shows that adjectives (one, this, two, etc.), conjunctions (and, but, etc.), prepositions (like, for, so that, etc.) and pronouns (he, me, etc.) were used the most frequently in texts.

Examination of the words that constitute the compound words and idioms separately has been a limitation of this study. Additionally, words with multiple meanings are provided under the same entry, heading away from the definition of multiple meanings, by Aksan (1997: 58) who states that "It is caused by the need of human beings to explain based on structure, function, aim relevance and closeness of other concepts in order to utter concepts in a more effective, tangible and easy way," during the research, only one of the meanings of the words with multiple meanings was considered. Nevertheless, consistency within the text was observed as well.

Word lists with numerical order were created for the corpus of both time periods examined. Lemmas and model numbers were determined by computer, using the Ctrl+f keys, and they were ordered alphabetically in Microsoft Excel, resulting in two different lists being created for both periods. The lists were controlled using the Turkish Text Frequency Solver created by Kurt (2007) to examine terms of the frequencies of roots and stems of the words. Later, the same lemmas in both of the lists, and the other words which were derived from the roots of these words, were selected in order to determine the words with the same roots in the texts of both periods. Heading away from the idea that "Knowing the meaning of root of the word makes it easier to predict all the words derived from the same root" (Gunes, 2013:12), the words that were derived from the same base were excluded from both of the lists, and by the aid of the Written Turkish Word Frequency Dictionary, which includes 22.693 words and was created by Goz (2003), the vocabulary frequency lists with numbers were created separately for different words and roots by means of the Microsoft Excel program for Turkish, Arabic, and Persian, and especially for the words that come from other languages that were generally affected by French. The work of Goz (2003) was chosen as it includes a textbook category in its corpus, and it is also based on written Turkish and focused on lemmas.

Data Analysis

Frequency and percentage proportions were made in a descriptive way in order to compare the numbers of the same and different lemmas in TACA and TBCA, the percentages of the roots of the same and different lemmas in TACA and TBCA, the numbers and origins of the different lemmas in TACA and TBCA and the total percentages of roots of the 100 most frequent words, excluding the same words.

T-test was used (for total, Turkish, Arabic) in order to determine whether the difference between different words in terms of total and frequency of roots is meaningful, and Mann Whitney U test was used when the number in the vocabulary lists was less than 30 (for Persian and western-oriented words). Nisanyan dictionary, Eren (1999), Turkish Languages Dictionary of Kasgarli Mahmut (TDK, 2003), Tietze (2009), Kanar (2011) and Turkish Dictionary (TDK, 2005) were used to determine the origins of lemmas. In addition, the points of views and conceptual fields in the books for both periods were decided by looking at the most repeated 50 words on the vocabulary frequency lists.

Results

In the research, 841 lemmas that form 1567 words in TACA and 902 lemmas that form 2298 words in TBCA were detected from the 3331 words that were taken in equal numbers within the words that were excluded from the research. There are 347 of the same lemmas used in both of the books. By coincidence, there are 127 words in both of the books that were derived from these words. In summary, there are 474 words which are based on the same roots and which appear in both of the books. When the words from different roots were analyzed, 416 lemmas were observed that were derived from 371 different roots in TBCA and 345 lemmas that were derived from 323 different roots in TACA, as seen in Table 2.

Table 2

The Numbers of the Same and Different Lemmas in TACA and TBCA

Book	Word	lemma	same lemma	same root Lemma	Same root total	Different root	Different lemma
TBCA	2298	902	347	127	474	371	416
TACA	1567	841	347	127	474	323	345
difference	731	61	-	-	-	48	71

Of the lemmas that appear in both books (347), 264 have Turkish, 47 have Arabic, 27 have Persian, 2 have Mongolian, 2 have Armenian, 2 have Greek and 2 have French roots. When the percentages of bases of these words are compared with the percentages of bases of different words in the book, the results in Table 3 are reached.

Table 3

The Percentages of the Same and Different Lemmas in TACA and TBCA in Terms of Their Roots

Book	Turkish %		Arabic %		Persian %		Other %	
	Same Root	Dif. root	Same root	Dif. root	Same root	Dif. root	Same root	Dif. root
TBCA	76	52	13,5	21,6	7,8	7,5	2,3	18,5
TACA		43,6		34,9		8,6		13,6

While it is observed that the percentages of the same lemmas of Turkish origin in both of the books (76%) is higher than the words with other roots, the words of Turkish origin in TACA (43.6%) appear at a lower percentage than TBCA (52%). The percentage of the same Arabic words (%13.5) is lower than the percentage of Arabic words derived from different roots in both of the books; nevertheless, the percentage of different Arabic roots (%34.9) is higher in TACA. In terms of words with Persian origin, there is not a significant difference in the percentages of the same and different roots in the books from both of periods. However, the percentages of the roots of other languages that are the same in both periods (2.3%) is lower than for those from different roots. On the other hand, the percentage in TBCA (18.5%) is greater than the percentage in TACA (13.6%). The origins and the number of roots of different lemmas in TACA and TBCA are shown in Table 4 in detail.

Table 4

Origins and Numbers of Different Lemmas in TACA and TBCA

Book	Tur	Ar.	Pe	Fr	İng.	Gre.	İt.	Arm.	Kur	Ven	Ger.
TBCA	193	81	28	47	7	6	2	1	2	2	1
TACA	141	113	28	19	4	10	5	3	0	0	0
Differ.	52	32	-	28	3	4	3	2	2	2	1

As illustrated in Table 4, the number of Turkish roots (193) in TBCA decreases in TACA (141); the number of Arabic roots increases by 32; and, there is no change in the number of Persian roots. In terms of Western languages, there is a decrease in the number of French roots by 28, English roots by 3, but an increase in Greek roots by 5, Italian roots by 3, and Armenian roots by 2. On the other hand, there are no roots from Kurdish, Venice language or German. The numbers in Table 5 are reached when the total percentage of words in the textbooks, apart from the same lemmas, are compared to the roots of the most repeated 100 words.

Table 5

Comparison of the Most Repeated 100 words apart from the Same Words with the Total Percentages of Roots

Book	Turkish%		Arabic%		Persian%		Other%	
	First 100	Total	First 100	Total	First 100	Total	First 100	Total
TBCA	64	52	17	21,6	2	7,5	17	18,5
TACA	53	43,6	27	34,9	11	8,6	9	13,6

In TBCA, 64 of the Turkish words in the first 100 appear with great frequency compared to Turkish root percentage (52%), 17 words with Arabic roots are lower than the total Arabic percentage (21.6%), 2 words with Persian roots are lower than the total percentage (7.5%), and the first 100 and the total percentage are quite equal in the "other" category, where mostly western-based words are seen. When TACA is analyzed, the number of Turkish words (53) in the first 100 is observed to be lower compared to TBCA, while the Arabic (27) and Persian (11) are higher. In TACA, the percentage of the first 100 Turkish words (53) is higher than the total percentage (43.6). While the percentages of first 100 Arabic (27) and other (9) words are lower than the total percentage, the percentage of first 100 Persian words (11) is higher than the total percentage (8.6). This result implies that in both of periods, even though the number of words with Turkish roots in first 100 is higher, they are used less frequently in total, and the opposite applies to Arabic words.

Table 6 shows the results of the t-test, which was performed in order to determine whether or not the differences between the frequencies of different lemmas in TACA and TBCA, according to the Written Turkish Word Frequency Dictionary written by Goz (2003), are significant. While applying t-test in a parametric way, Turkish and Arabic words were appropriate in terms of number of lemmas, non-parametric Mann Whitney U test iwass applied for Persian and western languages (French/English) as the number of lemmas was too low.

As a result, no significant difference is observed in total between the lemmas, in terms of word frequency in the text books, between the periods $[t(759)=-,617, p>0.05]$; and on the other hand, in terms of the frequency of Turkish lemmas $[t(759)=-1,190, p>0.05]$ and the frequency of Arabic lemmas $[t(759)=-,442, p>0.05]$, no significant difference is seen between the words used in TACA and TBCA.

Table 6

The Result of t Test Presenting the Difference between the Frequencies of Different Lemmas in TBCA and TACA.

variables		N	$\bar{X}$	Ss	Sd	t	P
Turkish	TBCA	225	124,26	215,76	374	-1,190	,235
	TACA	151	150,44	198,82			
Arabic	TBCA	87	116,81	149,68	205	-,442	,659
	TACA	120	127,01	173,87			
Total	TBCA	416	123,53	205,51	759	-,617	,538
	TACA	345	132,36	185,22			

Table 7 includes the results of Mann Whitney U test, which was applied in order to observe the significance of the difference between frequencies of western-based and Persian lemmas that are not the same in the books of the two periods.

Tablo 7

The Result of Mann-Whitney U Test for the Various Persian- and Western-based Words in TBCA and TACA

Language	N	S.O.	S.T.	U	Z	P
TBCA Persian	29	29,52	856,00	420,000	-,008	,994
TACA Persian	29	29,48	855,00			
TBCA Western based	57	39,89	2274,00	462,000	-,954	,340
TACA Western based	19	34,32	4652,00			

A significant difference is not seen between the word frequencies of Persian-based words (U=420,000, p>0.05) and western-based (French/English) words (U=462,000, p>0.05), which are different in the books of the two periods.

As a result of the evaluation of vocabulary frequency, focusing on the frequency and roots of synonyms in terms of Turkish synonyms that are alternative to loanwords, when the words in the texts in TACA are analyzed according to Çotuksöken (2012), it is observed that either the words with less frequency or more frequency are used, or both of them are used.

Words Containing Both of Synonyms

(Arabic-Turkish): reason [*sebep* (311)] – cause [*neden* (323)] / homeland [*vatan* (58)] – country [*yurt* (105)] / neighbourhood [*etraf* (188)] – environment [c*evre* (708)] / to mention [*bahsetmek* (29)] – to speak of [*soz etmek* (190)] / simple [*basit* (181)] – easy [*kolay* (455)] / answer [*cevap* (381)] – reply [*yanit* (194)] / before [*evvel* (47)] - previous [<u>*once*</u> (1587)] / to suppose [*farz etmek* (6)] – to assume [*varsayma* (46)] / expression [*ifade* (253)] – statement [*anlatim* (933)] / field [*saha* (114)] – area [*alan* (15)] / supply [*tedarik* (1)] – provide [*saglamak* (965)] / fuss [*velvele* (2)] –rumble [*gürültü* (131)]

(Persian-Turkish): Trouble [*dert* (158)] – sadness [*uzuntu* (58)]

Words containing the synonyms with more frequency

(Arabic-Turkish): wreck [*enkaz* (12)] – ruin [*yikinti* (9)] / enthrallment [*esaret* (8)] – tutsaklık [*captivity* (6)] / suspicious [*supheli* (18)] – doubtful [*kuskulu* (15)] / flesh [*vucut* (503)] – body [*beden* (252)]

(Arabic-Mongolian): nation [*millet* (211)] – people [*ulus* (50)]

(Arabic-Turkish): possibility [*ihtimal* (87)] – probability [*olasilik* (106)] / generation [*nesil* (64)] – descendants [*kuşak* (100)] / level [*seviye* (103)] – degree [*duzey* (382)] / indigenous [*tabii* (50)] -natural [*dogal* (343)] / exoneration [*beraat* (6)] – be absolved [*aklanmak* (11)] / term [*devre* (138)] – period [*donem* (772)] / needy [*fukara* (14)] – poor [*yoksul* (64)] / longing [*hasret* (37)] –missing [*ozlem* (73)] / invention [*icat* (14)] – discovery [*buluş* (34)] / demonstration [*ispat* (18)] – to prove [*kanitlamak* (53)] / crop [*mahsul* (8)] – product [*urun* (759)] / thriving [*mamur* (3)] – prosperity [*bayindirlik* (12)] / issue [*mesele* (201)] – problem [*sorun* (915)] / destiny [*nasip* (8)] – share [*pay* (152)], income [*kazanc* (65)] / finally [*nihayet* (77)]– at last [*sonunda* (352)] / round [*sefer* (107)] – time [*kez* (642)] / *attester* [sahit (16)] – *witness* [tanik (28)] / *eviler* [ser (14)] – *malignancy* [kotuluk (43)] / task [*vazife* (42)] – duty [*gorev* (522) /] trappings [*ziynet* (4)] – ornaments [*sus* (26)]

(Persian-Turkish): merrymaking [cumbus (4)] – entertainment [eglence (115)] / remedy [care (113)] – solution [cozum (248)] / to coincide [rastlamak (95)] / to come accross [karsilasmak (214)]

(Arabic-Persian): spleen [garaz (1)] – resentment [kin (33)] / hostile [hasim (6)] – enemy [dusman (137)] / while [vakit (195)] – time [zaman (23)]

(Arabic- Arabic): to consume [sarf etmek (2)] – to spend [harcamak (149)] / round [sefer (107)] – time [kere (211)]

Words Containing the Synonym with Less Frequency

Differences were discovered between the conceptual fields analyzed in TACA and TBCA. Content words are in the upper range of the frequency lists in the corpus prepared by narrowing down subjects (Kennedy, 1998, cited in Aksan, Mersinli and Yaldır, 2011). When the most frequent 50 words in the numerically-ordered lists that are created for the textbooks of both periods are analyzed, it is seen that forest (88), tree (20), fire (17), to burn (22), cause (10), and reason (10) occupy the first rows in the new books, and "forest fires" and "the harm that human beings to nature" are underlined; conversely, the older books focus on water (32), sea (29), lake (29) and otherwise desert (10) and "warm". In addition to this, while the older books pay equal attention to mountain (28), forest (22) and hill (19), they also focus on different geographical terms and concepts such as sun (13), hillside (13), snow (12), storm (11), shore (10), stream (10), soil (10), dream (9), spike (8), rock (8), countryside (8) and tree (8). In the newer books, the frequency of words such as city (16), field (16), soil (13), house (12), land (8), man (8), villager (8), and to stay (17) draws attention to the dominance of human beings over nature. New books refer to plant and animal species such as leaf (11), bird (9), pine (8), and goat (8) repeatedly, while not paying much attention to mountain (7). Newer books repeatedly use sky (10), sphere (8), star (16) and planet (6), but these concepts are not seen in the old books, which show human beings who are finished with earth and seek their future in the sky. The older books underline "seeing (21)" nature and the universe, while the newer books are more didactic, referring to "saving" from burning (22), as can be understood from the frequencies with which "to burn" (22) and "to fire" (7) appear.

Discussion and Conclusion

Regardless of their origins, words with a high frequency of use should be included in the textbooks during the primary educational years. There is not a significant difference between TBCA and TACA and the frequency of use of Turkish, Arabic, Persian and western-based words. The use of identical texts from the same writers, such as Yasar Kema,l in both of the periods may be the reason for the lack of significant difference. There is a great difference between the synonyms in TACA where both of the synonyms are included [supply (1) – provide (965) / fuss (2) – rumble (131)]. Among the words that do not have synonyms in the same book in TACA, the words used with less frequency are preferred; however, in the case of synonyms, the use of words with higher frequency will increase the rate of understanding and decrease the number of unknown words. The same problem is seen in Turkish coursebooks for foreigners. The results of Ozdemirel's (2017) research evaluating words in Turkish and English coursebooks for foreigners in terms of frequency of occurance showed that English coursebooks present more frequently used words than their Turkish counterparts.

In TACA, concepts related to nature are seen less frequently, and instead of offering the students an understanding of the joy of life, curiosity; the books direct students to more negative acts and adopts a didactic and accusatory manner. Loving

nature is a prerequisite for preserving nature. In textbooks, including different concepts in a theme will generate ideas and eventually expand the range of ideas.

Unknown words should be chosen carefully by taking the frequencies of words in textbooks into consideration in the specified rates and deciding on the words that students should know based on their grade levels. Word frequency for Turkish can be obtained from TUD created with written texts, and Ts Corpus created with written correspondence such as newspapers, forms and conversations in virtual environments (Karaoglu, 2014). In addition, more vocabulary enhancement activities should take place in textbooks. The results of experimental research by Topkaraoğlu and Dilman (2013) showed a significant difference between a control group that followed the regular curriculum, which included learning the second one thousand most frequently used words in English, and the experimental group, which had a fourteen-week schedule of vocabulary enhancement activities including integrating the same second one thousand words into the regular curriculum. Institutions should also create criteria and data surrounding this topic. At this point, while deciding on the words to be taught based on grade levels, frequency studies may play a crucial role (Nation & Newton 1997).

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Yapılandırmacı Yaklaşım Öncesi ve Sonrası Türkçe Kitaplarındaki Sözcüklerin Sıklık Bağlamında Değerlendirilmesi

Atıf:

Özet

Problem Durumu: Türkiye'de ana dili eğitimi bağlamında yapılan araştırmalarda ilköğretim öğrencilerinin yazılı metinlerinde hep aynı sözcükleri kullanmasının, ne etken ne de edilgen sözvarlıkları açısından başarılı olmalarının, ders kitaplarında kullanılan sözcük ve kavram sayısının diğer ülkelere oranla oldukça düşük olmasının ve ders kitaplarında sözcüklerin toplam ve farklı sözcük bakımından sınıf düzeyleri arasında oranlı olmayan bir artış göstermesinin bulgulanması sözcük öğretiminin içeriği ve biçimi üzerine daha çok kuramsal ve uygulamaya dönük araştırmalar yapılmasının gerekliliğini ortaya koymaktadır. Türk Eğitim Sisteminde 2005 yılından beri benimsenen yapılandırmacı yaklaşım doğrultusunda dil öğretiminde de, bilginin idraki, üretimi ve eski bilgilere dayanılarak oluşturulması için metinlerde geçen sözcüklerin kullanım sıklıklarının yüksek olması gerekmektedir

Araştırmanın Amacı: Yapılandırmacı yaklaşım öncesi (YÖTDK) ve sonrası (YSTDK) Türkçe ders kitaplarında yer alan metinlerdeki sözcükleri sıklık ve köken değişkenleri bağlamında karşılaştırmaktır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Genel tarama modelinin temel alındığı bu nicel araştırmanın evrenini yapılandırmacı yaklaşım öncesi ve sonrası Türkçe ders kitaplarında yer alan

bilgi iletici metinlerdeki sözcükler oluşturmaktadır. Örneklem olarak; seçkisiz, tesadüfi örnekleme yöntemi ile 2013-2014 öğretim yılında "Doğa ve Evren" teması altında yer alan bilgi iletici metinlerle ile 2001-2002 öğretim yılında okutulan ders kitaplarında, üniteler temaya göre ayrılmadığı için, bu tema altına alınabilecek eşit sayıda sözcüklü bilgi iletici metinler seçilmiştir. Tesniere'in dörde indirgediği dilbilgisi ulamlarından ad, eylem, sıfat ve belirteçlerden hareketle, özgür biçimbirimler kapsamında ve başsözcük temelli düzenlenen derlemlerde sayısal sıralı sözcük listeleri oluşturulmuştur. Yapısal yaklaşım öncesi ve sonrası derlemler kendi aralarında ve Türkçe Ulusal Derlemi'ndeki kullanım sıklıkları bağlamında karşılaştırıldıktan sonra sıklık sayısı yüksek sözcükler köken ve sözcük türü yüzdeleri açısından da incelenmiştir. Ayrıca iki dönemin kitaplarında sözcük çalışmalarında hedeflenen sözcükler de sıklık, köken ve tür olarak karşılaştırılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: YÖTDK'de 2298 sözcük çeşidinin oluşturulduğu 902 başsözcük, YSTDK'de ise 1567 sözcük çeşidini oluşturan 841 başsözcük saptanmıştır. Her iki kitapta da ortak olarak kullanılan 347 başsözcük vardır. YÖTDK'de 371 farklı kökten oluşmuş 416, YSTDK'de ise 323 farklı kökten oluşmuş 345 baş sözcük olduğu görülmüştür. YÖTDK'de Türkçe kök sayısının (193) YSTDK'de (141) düştüğü, Arapça kök sayısında 32 artış olduğu, Farsça kök sayısında ise bir değişiklik olmadığı görülmüştür. Batı dilleri bağlamında ise YSTDK'de Fransızca köklerin 28 ve İngilizce köklerin 3 farkla azaldığı, Yunanca köklerin 4, İtalyanca köklerin 3, Ermeniceden gelen kök sayısının da 2 farkla arttığı görülürken Kürtçeden, Venedik dilinden, Soğdçadan ve Almancadan gelen kök yoktur. YÖTDK'de ilk yüzde yer alan 64 Türkçe kökenli sözcüğün toplam Türkçe köken yüzdesinden (%52) fazla olduğu, ilk yüzde yer alan 17 Arapça kökenli sözcüğün toplam Arapça yüzdesinden (21,6) az olduğu, ilk yüzde yer alan Farsça kökenli 2 sözcüğün toplam yüzdeden (%7,5) az olduğu ve özellikle batı kökenli sözcüklerin yer aldığı "diğer" kategorisinde ise ilk yüz ile toplam yüzdenin hemen hemen eşit olduğu görülmektedir. YSTDK'de de ilk yüz Türkçe kökenli sözcüğün oranı (53), toplam orandan (43,6) çoktur, ancak Arapça (27) ve diğer kökenli (9) ilk yüz sözcüğün oranı, toplam oranlardan azken Farsça ilk yüz sözcüğün oranı (11) toplam orandan (8,6) çoktur. Bağımsız t testi ve Mann Whitney U testlerinin sonucunda da iki döneme ait olan kitaplarda ortak olmayan baş sözcüklerin kelime sıklığı açısından toplamda anlamlı bir fark göstermediği gibi [t(759)=-,617, p>0.05], Türkçe baş sözcüklerin kelime sıklığı [t(759)=-1,190, p>0.05], Arapça kökenli baş sözcüklerin kelime sıklığı [t(759)=-,442, p>0.05], Farsça kökenli sözcüklerin kelime sıklıkları (U=420,000, p>0,05) ve batı kökenli (Fransızca/İngilizce) sözcüklerin kelime sıklıkları (U=462,000, p>0,05) açısından YÖTDK ile YSTDK arasında anlamlı bir fark görülmemiştir.

Ödünç sözcüklerin yerine geçebilecek yerleşmiş eş anlamlı Türkçe kökenli sözcükler bağlamında kitaplarda ya ikisine de yer verilmiş ya kullanım sıklığı çok olanlar ya da kullanım sıklığı az olanlar tercih edilmiştir. Her iki döneme ait kitaplar için oluşturulan sayısal sıralı listelerde en çok yinelenen ilk 50 sözcüğe bakıldığında yeni kitaplarda orman (88), ağaç (20), yangın (17), yak-(22), neden (10), sebep (10) ilk sıralarda yer alırken "orman yangınları" ve "insanların doğaya verdiği zarar vurgulanmış", eski kitaplarda ise daha çok su (32), deniz (29), göl (29) ve aksi

durumda çöl (17) ve sıcak (10) olma durumu üzerinde durulmuştur. Bunun yanı sıra eski kitaplarda doğa ile ilgili dağ (28), orman (22), tepe (19) kavramlarına da eşit oranda yer verilirken güneş (13), yamaç (13), kar (12), rüzgâr (11), kıyı (10), dere (10), toprak (10), serap (9), diken (8), kaya (8), köy (8) ve ağaç (8) gibi farklı coğrafi terimler ve farklı kavramlar üzerinde de durulmuştur. Yeni kitaplarda ise kent (16), tarla (16), toprak (13), ev (12), arsa (8), adam (8), köylü (8), kal- (17) sözcüklerinin sıklığı insanların doğa üzerindeki hâkimiyetine dikkat çekmektedir. Yeni kitaplarda gökyüzü (10), gök (8), yıldız (16) ve gezegen (6) sözcükleri de bulunmaktadır. Eski kitaplar doğa ve evreni "gör- (21)" meyi vurgularken, yeni kitaplarda yak-(22) ve yan- (7) eylemleri sıklık göstermektedir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: YÖTDK'de 48 daha fazla kökten 71 daha fazla başsözcüğe rastlanmıştır, yani daha fazla kavram yer almaktadır. YÖTDK'de daha fazla Türkçe kökenli ve Batı kökenli sözcük varken YSTDK'de daha fazla Arapça sözcük bulunmaktadır. YSTDK'ye bakıldığında ise metinlerde en çok kullanılan ilk yüzde Türkçe kökenli sözcük sayısı YÖTDK'den daha azdır, Arapça ve Farsça kökenli sözcük sayısı ise daha çoktur. Her iki dönemde de Türkçe kökenli sözcüklerin ilk yüzde sayılarının çok olmasına rağmen toplamda daha az kullanıldığı, Arapça sözcüklerin ise ilk yüzde oranları daha azken toplamda daha çok kullanıldığı görülmektedir. Her ne kadar her iki dönemde de köken olarak bazılarının oranları yükselip bazılarınınki azalıyorsa da YÖTDK ile YSTDK arasında Türkçe, Arapça, Farsça ve batı kökenli sözcüklerin kullanım sıklıkları açısından anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Yapılandırmacı yaklaşım bağlamında sözcüklerin kökenlerinden çok sıklık oranlarına göre ders kitaplarında yer almaları önemlidir.

YSTDK'de eşanlamlı sözcüklerin her ikisini de bulundurduklarında sözcüklerin sıklıkları arasında büyük fark vardır, eşanlamı kitapta bulunmayan sözcüklerden ise kullanım sıklığı az olanların daha çok tercih edildiği görülmüştür. Eşanlamlı sözcüklerden kullanım sıklığı yüksek olanların tercih edilmesi anlamı bilinmeyen sözcük sayısının oranını düşürecek ve anlama oranını yükseltecektir.

YSTDK'de doğa ile ilgili daha az kavram yer almakla birlikte YÖTDK'de olduğu gibi öğrencilere yaşam sevinci katmak, merak arttırmak, güzellikleri hissederek korumayı sezdirmek yerine daha didaktik bir tavır sergilendiği görülmektedir.

Düzeylerine göre öğrencilerin anlamını bildikleri sözcükler belirlenerek saptanan oranlarda anlamı bilinmeyen sözcükler metinlerde kullanım sıklığı dikkate alınarak seçilmelidir. Bu konuda ilgili kurumlar tarafından bir ölçüt ve veritabanı oluşturulmalıdır. Bu noktada düzeylere göre öğretilecek sözcüklere karar verilirken sıklık çalışmalarının önemli yardımları olabilmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Sözcük sıklığı, sözcük kökeni, başsözcük, sıklık listeleri.

Early Childhood Pre-service Teachers' Views about Visual Arts Education and Aesthetics*

Gamze BILIR-SEYHAN[1], Sakire OCAK-KARABAY[2]

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	Purpose: Pre-service teachers start their university study with only a limited knowledge of art and aesthetics. Early childhood pre-service teachers should be equipped with visual arts education and aesthetics so they will be able to direct artistic activities. Elective courses about art and aesthetics raise pre-service teachers' awareness of these subjects and prepare them to lead children in qualified activities. This research aimed to compare the thoughts, expectations and experiences about the process of practicing art activities amongst early childhood junior and senior pre-service teachers.

Research Methods: Phenomenology was used in this qualitative study. The participants included juniors and seniors enrolled in the Early Childhood Education Program. For each group, ten students were included. Seniors had taken elective courses in visual arts education and aesthetics. Two focus group interviews were conducted at the end of the spring semester. The content analysis was used for data analysis.

Findings: The findings were grouped under four themes: definition of visual arts education and aesthetics, their content, experiences related to them, and visual arts education in children's lives. According to the findings, seniors' responses had deeper meanings about visual arts education and aesthetics compared to the responses of the juniors. It was discovered that juniors have very limited experience of the subject.

Implications for Research and Practice: In this study, elective courses in art and aesthetics raise early childhood pre-service teachers' awareness of visual arts education and aesthetics, and contribute to them leading appropriate activities. These findings suggest that these courses have enriched pre-service teachers' background. Future research could discuss the effects of such courses on classroom teaching and learning.

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[1] Corresponding author: Ege University, TURKEY, gamze.bilir.seyhan@ege.edu.tr, ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0002-9888-8612
[2] Ege University, TURKEY, sakire.ocak@ege.edu.tr, ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0003-2240-0251

Introduction

The early childhood education classroom could be approached as an important environment providing an aesthetic perspective for children. They are surrounded by objects and an environment that have a rich visual quality. Together with the sights and sounds, the children experience them in what has been called an aesthetic, creating deep feeling (Flannery, 1977). In such an aesthetic environment, visual arts and aesthetics education involves activities for high quality art (Eckhoff, 2008). The skill to evaluate aesthetic art works is defined (Feeney & Moravcik, 1987) as an awareness of satisfying emotional experiences and knowledge of the value of these experiences for the children (Reber, Schwarz & Winkielman, 2004). Early art and aesthetic experiences provide an environment in which children learn to appreciate beauty, to express themselves, to develop their creativity, and to use their imagination. Moreover, adult intervention, adequate space and time are all necessary for children to perform qualified art and aesthetics activities (Bruce, 1998). The role of an early childhood teacher, as one of the most important adult figures during the early years, is great (Cutcher & Boyd, 2016; Kalburan, 2012; Özkan & Girgin, 2014). The influence of early childhood teachers includes their status as role models, source providers, and facilitators for the visual arts and aesthetics. In this context, children need teachers for effective guidance.

For early childhood pre-service teachers to have knowledge of the visual arts and aesthetics education and the ability to lead appropriate practices is considered a learning outcome. When pre-service teacher education is evaluated, it must be remembered that, except for a couple of high schools, art classes are an elective in middle high schools (Altuner, 2007). Acer (2011) has stated that the Material Development course has increased pre-service teachers' abilities to criticize and view art, work individually, learn different techniques, learn how to use the materials in education, see through different eyes and design creative products using scrap materials. Furthermore, Ercivan Zencirci (2012) has revealed that pre-service teachers, in addition to creating art products with scrap materials, acquire skills in this subject and become capable of supporting children's psychological and physical development through this practice. In this context, the more experience they have, the more awareness they will have. Hereby, these early childhood pre-service teachers will be competent educators for visual arts and aesthetics education in children's early years of schooling.

The views related to visual arts and aesthetics education in the early years have changed over the years. As the essentials of children's engagement with art are discussed, intellectual changes are transforming the teacher's responsibilities as well. In this context, diversity in the approaches towards art education has increased (Fox & Schirrmacher, 2014; Terenni, 2010). Today, a view defending children's own intellectual structure from being degraded is supported more and more. According to this view, creativity is developed spontaneously during childhood, and this development must not be interrupted (Wright, 2003). Too much guidance or help from teachers may hinder children's creativity. The fact that the adult becomes a model may be disappointing since the abilities of children are not suitable for

repeating what their teacher shows them. Similarly, Lowenfeld and Brittain (1970) locate children's feelings and creativity at the core of artistic study by respecting their creativity. Thus, when proper conditions are presented to children by keeping them away from the models, the artist living in the spirit of every child will be released. One view opposing this view is that children are inarticulate, and the teacher's duty is to civilize them. Yet, according to Bresler (1998), few children in a classroom that is under tight control can perform inventive art activities. Furthermore, Wright (2003) argues that the art education in which teachers give many instructions to children is not a proper experience. Education should continue by giving the responsibility of an artist to children in a process that a child is capable of producing. Fox and Schirrmacher (2014) have stated that children can have their first opportunity to learn what to do and which materials to use by way of art experiences. In this context, a teacher can support them to produce visual arts and aesthetic works by creating a positive atmosphere in the classroom. Another view on art education is that it is supposed to be dependent on activities appropriate to a child's developmental stages (Wright, 2003). In fact, the process in which materials suitable to those developmental levels and the lives of the children are presented has its supporters (Bresler, 1998). Thus, implementation of art education by discovering, finding out, forming and constructing with the notion that independence and entertainment are at the core of childhood aesthetic learning has been claimed to be a sensible approach (Fox & Schirrmacher, 2014; Wright, 2003). This underlines the importance of art education for early childhood education.

As suggested above, serious dilemmas and different opinions have arisen among researchers about visual arts and aesthetics education. However, if children are kept away from any models to inspire them, the content of art education supporting children's aesthetic development and participation in art activities may become insufficient (Lowenfeld & Brittain, 1970). It is necessary to be brave to teach art techniques and to improve children's skills because art is a distinctive discipline having its own language that can make communication meaningful. The visual arts support creativity and aesthetic values in children by presenting different techniques and methods (Ercivan Zencirci, 2012). Fox and Schirrmacher (2014) have stated that children cannot create something from nothing. Furthermore, research has shown that activities enrich the world of children, improve their creative and artistic skills, and help their aesthetic perception and their view toward the world progress positively (Alekseevaa, Shkolyara & Savenkovaa, 2016). From this point of view, teachers must be aware of the importance of visual arts and aesthetics.

Among the duties of a teacher is the need to present rich experiences, proven materials, visual stimuli and opportunities. It is vital that teachers must have developed their own notions about the meaning of the visual arts and aesthetics first. This will allow them to have a viewpoint concerning the question "What should art be?" (Twigg & Garvis, 2010; Wright, 2003) and because of this viewpoint to consciously apply art education. Bresler (1998) emphasizes that it is imperative to impress children with the importance of the aesthetic experience, finding meaning in and interpreting art education. The teacher education process should raise pre-

service teachers' awareness, lead to a restructuring of their knowledge, remove any trace of the feeling that being connected to art is a threatening factor and make them feel confident and comfortable (Frawley, 2013). All of these points show that the key point is that teachers must have qualifications.

Teachers are expected to conduct effective visual arts and aesthetics activities. On the other hand, it has been observed that there are tasks related to painting, cutting and pasting in visual arts activities in early childhood education in Turkey (Özkan & Girgin, 2014). It is also well known that these activities are too limited. The most basic reason for this situation is that personal experience in art affects the quality of art education, positively or negatively (Power & Klopper, 2011). Hudson and Hudson (2007) think that pre-service teachers should be equipped with effective teaching for providing a qualified visual arts and aesthetics education. Frawley (2013) claims that changing the power of art increases teachers' awareness of the importance of art. According to one researcher, an early childhood teacher education program should provide enough knowledge, show a method to improve the various skills of children, and make the teachers confident to provide art education (Bae, 2004). The content of art education courses in universities must be enriched and the findings are to be discussed in the literature for qualified art and aesthetic practices.

The education that pre-service teachers receive before entering university is not adequate because the previous courses they take in primary and secondary education are insufficient in terms of quality and quantity. This situation increases the need to provide a high quality visual arts and aesthetics education to early childhood teachers. In this context, education courses in the universities definitely need to be enriched (Acer, 2011). It must be of critical importance to determine which educational techniques will increase vocational development that motivates teachers to work with materials and concepts that widen their repertoire and to specify the effects of these techniques (Mages, 2016). The aim of this study is to compare the thoughts, expectations and experiences related to the process of practicing art activities among early childhood pre-service teachers who have taken elective courses as opposed to those who did not have elective courses on art and aesthetics.

Method

Research Design

Phenomenology has been used in this qualitative research. The aim was to discover the meaning of the experiences that different individuals have gained through phenomenological research (Creswell, 2013; Husserl, 2012). In this study, the pre-service teachers' thoughts about the importance of the visual arts and aesthetics education and their experience related to the elective courses were examined. The importance of data gathering of the pre-service teachers' thoughts in the qualitative research has increased (Nderu-Boddington, 2008). Hereby, the personal experiences of pre-service teachers will be captured to understand the place of visual arts and aesthetics in the teacher education program.

Participants

Participants in the study consisted of 10 junior students and 10 senior students in the Early Childhood Education program at Ege University in İzmir, Turkey. The ten junior participants all volunteered for the study. These juniors had not taken any courses in the visual arts and aesthetics in the Early Childhood Education Teacher Education Program. Since this research aimed at finding out the difference brought about through the elective courses related to art and aesthetics for pre-service teachers, the second group was selected from the senior pre-service teachers who had taken visual arts and aesthetics courses. For this reason, the second group was composed of senior pre-service teachers who had taken Visual Arts Education and two elective courses of Art Development in Children and Creativity and Art Education in Childhood. Each group comprised one male and nine females. While the mean age of the junior pre-service teachers was 18, the mean age of the senior pre-service teachers was 21.

Course Information

The two elective courses of Art Development in Children and Creativity and Art Education in Childhood were offered by one of the authors of this study, and the other author served as a research assistant in these courses. Art Development in Children meets two hours a week during fall semester, while Creativity and Art Education in Childhood is a two hour a week course in the spring semester. For each lesson, theoretical information about the courses is provided in the first four weeks. In the remaining 10 weeks, early childhood pre-service teachers work on their own creations with the perspectives of visual arts and aesthetics. During the creation weeks, the authors, as the course instructors, proceed to give theoretical information and feedback concerning the students' creations.

Research Instrument and Procedures

Focus group interviews were conducted with the early childhood pre-service teachers. The reason for the focus group interviews was to create a discussion environment. Hereby, participants had similar backgrounds and this similarity provides a chance to share their experiences by discussing the advantages and disadvantages of them. The researchers had studied the literature about art and teaching methods. In the direction of the literature, draft questions were formed by the researchers and a questionnaire was evaluated by an expert working in the Early Childhood Education Department.

After expert opinion, face validity was conducted. In this context, the interview form used in the focus group was revised as the final version and then the interview was performed. The interview form included 11 questions under three different subheadings: definitions of visual arts education and aesthetics, contents of such courses, and experiences. Since the participants of the study included two groups, the focus group interviews were held as two independent sessions at the end of the spring semester of the 2015-2016 academic year.

Data Analysis

Content analysis was used. In this process, the following steps were executed: preliminary preparation, qualitative data coding, identifying themes, interpreting the findings and reporting the findings. The interview sessions, each lasting about 90 minutes, were conducted by the researchers and an audio recording was made. The researchers tried to create an intimate and comfortable atmosphere for the participants.

Interview proceedings were transferred into written form. These written data were read over by the researchers. The aim was to agree on themes defining the experience of the participants by identifying the problems and patterns in the data (Westman & Bergmark, 2014). It was tried to make a common definition by reaching beyond the personal experience of the pre-service teachers. Researchers formed thematic codes by analyzing the data separately. Similar data in the content analysis method were gathered into specified concepts and themes, and interpreted in a way for readers to understand easily (Yildirim & Simsek, 2004). For this reason, the researchers used thematic codes to group similar data collected for this study.

Trustworthiness

The researchers did not expect to find a single, simple truth, since the aim is not to produce a generalization in qualitative research. On the other hand, some measures are needed to enable reliability and validity. It is important that the findings are correct, that is, that the research is valid (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982). In this research, the literature was considered as a basic source. Additionally, the data were categorized by eliminating the discrepancies. Expert opinion was consulted from the beginning of the planning so the research could reach valid findings. In particular, expert opinion during the preparation of the questionnaire was consulted to help finalize the questions. The other measures were to identify the research process in a detailed way, to compare the findings with the literature and to share the participants' answers directly. This procedure also increased the reliability of the findings. Moreover, the findings were explored separately by the researchers. Later, these analyses were compared and calculated by using an inter-rater reliability formula and were found to be 89% compatible. All data have been archived for the reliability of the study. The last two factors to increase the reliability of the research were that the analysis process was explained and the researchers have tried to be objective.

For ethical considerations, permission for conducting the study was obtained, and the informed consent form was prepared for the participants. The process was explained to the pre-service teachers, and the informed consent forms were handed out. The pre-service teachers signed the forms and returned them. Before the focus group study, their permission was taken for sound recording to prevent any potential data loss. All participants gave their permission for the sound recording. Even though the interviews were conducted at the end of the semester, authors did not give any promises about grading for participation in the study.

Results

This research aims to compare the thoughts, expectations and experiences related to the process of practicing activities about art and aesthetics of the early childhood junior and senior pre-service teachers. The findings of the research have been compiled under four themes: definition of visual arts education and aesthetics, their contents, the experience of pre-service teachers and the place of art in the lives of children. These themes, which emerged from focus group interviews, are presented with early childhood pre-service teachers' explanatory statements. The findings are given by comparing within each theme. The quotations of the participants were coded in terms of the groups. To illustrate, at the end of the quotation by the fifth participant from the junior group, the code designation J5 is used.

The Definition of Visual Arts Education and Aesthetics

Three questions were asked to guide the pre-service teachers' in defining visual arts education and aesthetics. These questions dealt with the definition of visual art education, the description of aesthetics and the meaning of aesthetics for children. It transpired that the seniors defined aesthetics and art education by using more expressions than the juniors. The juniors employed these themes in their definition: the imagination of children, their art objects, the presentation of visual materials, the children's view of art, freedom and limitation, and gaining the skill of self-expression. On the other hand, the seniors developed the following themes: activities enabling children to think differently, the use of natural, creative and unstructured/open-ended material, the inclusion of families, the importance of applying different branches of art and the awareness of the emotions with which children infuse their art objects.

> When a child looks at an art object – for example a painting, we can teach him/her how to evaluate it. (J2)

> When we give crayons to a child, we do a great opportunity for providing an environment in which the child externalizes his/her inner world. (J4)

> We should give unstructured/open-ended materials and completely leave the creative process up to the child. We must do activities that will enable children to use their imaginations and produce different and creative art objects. (S3)

> Maybe, a child has a skill that she or he is not aware of. As a teacher, we should work on his/her potential by giving different stimuli. (S5)

The juniors described aesthetics as everything that is beautiful, interesting and colorful for a child. The seniors used different definitions. They have inquired into the meaning of aesthetics from the views of children and concluded that everthing that is beautiful and merits praise means aesthetics for children.

> Everything, which children see as beautiful, is aesthetic. (J1)

> If children are praised for what they do, this is aesthetic. (S2)

The Contents of Visual Arts Education and Aesthetics

The second emerging theme from the focus group interviews was related to the contents of visual arts education and aesthetics. This theme included answers for these three questions: What should a visual arts education should be like for children?, Does the 2013 Preschool Education Program include visual arts education and aesthetics?, and If it does not, what would you do to further visual arts and aesthetics education? Providing visual materials, child-centered education, being multidirectional, and art sightseeing themes were common responses for both groups. In particular, the juniors talked about the themes of the importance of art, about granting the children freedom, the art education process, the inclusion of family and being attractive. On the other hand, the seniors made statements based on unique children's products in different art places.

> When we hang their paintings on the wall, children become more motivated the following week. Children need to express themselves as well. (J5)

> They use the same materials in their schools, whereas the materials that they have never seen before may motivate them more. Different branches of art may be introduced. For example, they can be taken to watch a ballet. (S1)

Yet, when early childhood pre-service teachers were requested to discuss the content of art and aesthetics in the context of the Early Childhood Education Program, only the vocational high school graduates of the junior group knew the programme. To the contrary of this group; the senior group has argued that Early Childhood Education Program is flexible, sufficient and has few details, but preschool teachers prefer stereotyped activities. Furthermore, they have added that implication and elaboration of the programme has been left to teachers.

> When I look at the program, I can see that there are more points about arts and children when compared to the previous program. (J1)

> In all the schools I visited, I saw teachers applying stereotyped activities. Before anything else is tried, the way of teachers' thinking should be changed. (S8)

Under the content title, early childhood pre-service teachers have been asked what they plan to do about these subjects. It was discovered that the juniors talked about the daily schedule without mentioning art and aesthetics. On the other hand, it was noticed that the seniors were ready to use different techniques for art and aesthetics. It was apparent that early childhood pre-service teachers have quite rich notions, such as using visuals, using a mascot as a "classroom artist", drama, teaching how to think like an artist and to reflect their inner world, and taking support from the artists.

Participants' Experiences of the Visual Arts Education and Aesthetics

The third theme was pre-service teachers' experiences of the visual arts education and aesthetics. The answers for three different questions emerged from this theme: whether they use activities related to the visual arts and aesthetics or not; what the

advantages of the courses are; and what experiences they have about the visual arts and aesthetics. It was revealed that the juniors have had only limited experience in the visual arts, such as the Turkish Education Volunteer Foundation and the technology design course in the middle high schools.

> We were preparing art homework while watching TV one day before handing in the homework. (J2)

> I really wanted to do drawing, but I lost my interest since my teacher was not interested. (J4)

> We had our annual exhibition. Most of the people in the town had visited the exhibition and seen my art work, which I was proud of. (J9)

On the other hand, the seniors mentioned ebru art (paper marbling) and the artworks of the artists, collage, and project works. The same group emphasized the positive and negative points of visual arts education and aesthetics courses in the university. This attitude of pre-service teachers supports the hypothesis that activates critical thinking skills by way of those courses. Early childhood pre-service teachers have decided that to be interested in art, to utilize natural material, to gain experience are the positive sides, while the inability to involve children in art, to feel under stress to prepare the product in time and to be evaluated by a point system are the negative sides.

> I did not see these courses as normal courses because I attended them for fun, doing something, reducing my stress level, and being interested in the arts. (S8)

The seniors stated that they met some constraints on the visual arts education in their practice. These constraints were practicing art activities just one day a week, classroom teachers' resistance, directors' and parents' underestimation of art products, the overpopulation of classrooms and performing stereotyped art activities. An example of the statements is this one from a senor participant:

> My biggest problem was the overcrowded classroom. I tried to reach all 27 children, but I failed. (S10)

The Aesthetics and Visual Arts Education in Children' Lives

The last theme was the place of aesthetics and visual arts education in children's lives. Pre-service teachers' statements about two different questions were grouped under this last theme. These questions were What are the advantages of visual art education for children? and What is the place of aesthetics in a child's life and education? Similarly, both groups have expressed their thoughts about this subject with the terms of common themes: improving the imagination, teaching different points of view, and forming a base. For their part, the juniors discussed how art and aesthetics support different developmental areas and provide ways to succeed in what seemed like an impossible task. The seniors stated their thoughts under the themes of supporting creativity and breaking down stereotypes.

> A child can do everything that she or he thinks is impossible. For example, if the child is drawing a picture above the clouds, she or he cannot climb up over the clouds without a balloon, but that can be done in the picture. (J10)

> Their imagination is so powerful that they produce many things in their minds. Maybe he does not have material to make it or somebody to guide him. He can turn it into reality thanks to art education. (S6)

Furthermore, the juniors expressed that aesthetics in a child's life is something that is missed, something that have chosen freely and a basis for their future life. Similarly, the seniors stated that aesthetics is something that is interested and a basis for future life. Yet, different from those views, it has been noticed that unique themes emerged, such as teaching how to see differently, working individually with a student and seizing the importance of his own thoughts.

> We should teach arts and aesthetics, and there is no right or wrong in art. Then, I am sure, it will be beneficial for future life. (S7)

Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, the aim was to compare the thoughts, expectations and experiences of the process of practicing art activities of early childhood among junior and senior pre-service teachers. In this part of the study, the results are discussed in light of the literature on the subject. Research studies have revealed that art education is effective in improving reading and comprehension skills (Gravalin & Maki, 2013), increasing student creativity (Nderu-Boddington, 2008), contributing to the development of thinking skills and aesthetic sensitivity, and awakening the consciousness of recognizing beauty and protecting it (Sungurtekin & Cakir-İlhan, 2015; Yazari, Aslan & Sener, 2014). Because of contributions, for an effective art education it is essential to study the contents of the art education, also art education should be given at every level of the education, properly. In a study to define art education in teacher education programs in Greece, it was determined that art education is more theoretical or mechanical in comparison to the other lessons, while its quality is low (Sotiropoulou–Zormpala, Trouli & Linardakis, 2015). The authors stated that diversity in the art disciplines is ignored and the number of compulsory art lessons must be increased. In the current study, seniors similarly criticized the courses they take. Under the experiences about visual arts education and aesthetics, seniors indicated that practicing art activities just one day a week and classroom teachers' resistance to their original work decreased the quality of their activities in the visual arts and aesthetics.

It is important to review the art lessons in education to discuss the results of this study. It is thought that art lessons have not been recognized for their deserved value in the educational system in Turkey (Yazari, Aslan & Sener, 2014). According to Acer (2011), it has been stated that scientific lessons have become more popular and art lessons have become less popular in Turkey, and because of the current education system, early childhood pre-service teachers graduate without enough skills and

have to do art activities with children. Taking art lessons with a wide variety of content in universities and collaborating with professionals who work in different branches of art will eliminate their deficiencies and increase their competencies. On the other hand, Ozkan and Girgin (2014) stated that most of the teachers (88.2%) in their study found art education in the university insufficient. In a similar manner, in this study a pre-service teacher has admitted, "We used to study mathematics in Visual Arts Lessons", a statement that summarizes the situation.

It is essential that art education must be present at every level of the education system in a certified way. Unfortunately, in 2005, the Art History course studied in high schools was converted into an elective lesson in all middle and high schools, except in Anatolian High Schools of Fine Arts. This situation will lead to an increase in the citizens of Turkey lacking even a basic knowledge of art history (Altuner, 2007). It has been deduced that the junior pre-service teachers feel incompetent in art education. The junior group's experience related to aesthetics and the visual arts compared to that of the senior group was limited and this result was an expected finding in the research. When asked what they could do in art activities, it has been concluded from their responses that seniors made more conscious selections concerning the techniques and methods of the daily schedule. In a similar way, Ercivan Zencirci (2012) conducted a study with early childhood pre-service teachers, and used the diversity of materials and techniques in art activities. Furthermore, the results of the study indicated that pre-service teachers used different techniques except for traditional painting applications, and so their awareness and competences in the visual arts and aesthetics had increased.

The development of programs in art education is essential for early childhood education to be applied, but these moves are not enough. The teachers must be trained to have a sensitivity to aesthetics and art consciousness (Acer 2011; Cutcher & Boyd, 2016; Ozkan & Girgin, 2014). In the present study, the seniors admitted that they had met with some difficulties in their practice. The following statement from one of the seniors can serve as an example:

> Teachers in the classrooms restricted us while practicing. When I wanted to use different paints, the teacher did not allow me to use paints because she thought the paints would make the tables, chairs and their hands dirty. Also, we had limited time with the children. (S7)

Similarly, the results of another study revealed that newly graduated teachers have some difficulties such as the lack of educational technologies, and inadequate time for art and aesthetics activities. The findings of the present study and of Aykut's (2006) study have made us think that classroom settings and teachers' views towards unique art works must be improved. In other words, the finding of this study shows parallels with what one finds in the literature.

It is recommended that pre-service teachers improve their strategies and techniques, profiting from workshops, courses and visiting artists who will contribute to introducing the richness of art to children. Kalburan (2012) explains that observing architectural designs, researching some branches of art, visiting museums,

galleries and art exhibitions all improve the perspectives of children and educators. Both of our groups in this present study emphasized the necessity to organize visits on field trips, especially to museums. Furthermore, it has been noted that the senior group have put forward these suggestions: using visual materials, using a mascot as a "classroom artist", requesting professional support, using natural materials and teaching children how to think in an artistic manner and how to reflect their inner world by using art. According to Twigg and Garvis (2010), teachers need to be supported with education related to art in their professional career. Thus, it will be possible to allow children to convert their dreams into practice, to live through perceptional experiences and to find beauty by way of art and aesthetics (Acer, 2015; Barnes, 2002). In this study, it has been determined that early childhood pre-service teachers see art as a way of converting dreams into reality.

A child must have artistic skills to freely express his/her own feelings and thoughts by drawing, painting, and ceramics. To reflect the diversity of the visual arts program in the activities done with children during the education process must be a part of teachers' responsibilities. In this context, contemporary teachers must be informed about qualified art programs and have a view to make conscious decisions. On the other hand, Ozkan and Girgin (2014) conducted a study with early childhood pre-service teachers, in which pre-service teachers indicated that they believe in the importance of visual art education and its effect on children's creativity. It has also been thought that early childhood pre-service teachers have similar thoughts. In their research study, Gonen, Aydos and Erdem (2016) determined that pre-service teachers are also aware of the importance of art activities for children. In this present study, the seniors expressed the opinion that art contributes to children's development.

To conclude, the senior students in our study developed a deeper awareness of the areas of art and aesthetics as well as increased knowledge of how to adapt these issues to early childhood education. Furthermore, they expressed a preference for using natural materials and said they planned to profit from professionals and different art branches while arranging early childhood education classrooms and activities. Additionally, early childhood pre-service teachers discussed the negative points of the visual arts lessons that they had taken, supporting the hypothesis that activates their questioning, evaluation and reasoning processes.

It is hoped that the data from this study will cast some light on how to improve the content of art lessons to be presented to early childhood pre-service teachers. The desire of the pre-service early childhood teachers will collaborate with professionals working in various art branches will be effective in improving the skills they need. Application of different models in collaboration with professionals in studies to be done in the future, monitoring best practices and sharing the findings will contribute to spreading improvements rapidly. In this direction, early childhood pre-service teachers performing unique art practices in the conception of these courses will be likely to bring a different viewpoint to the professional skills of the working teachers. Pre-service teachers who take visual arts and aesthetics courses will be able to apply well-designed art activities to the lessons they teach, so in-service teachers have a

chance to observe these well-designed art activities. In this way, pre-service teachers could be a model for in-service teachers of exciting visual arts and aesthetics practices.

The findings of this study will contribute to the intellectual content of the visual arts and aesthetics education courses in universities. In these course contents, it is important to emphasize the following issues: an art teacher need not be a professional artist but should be a role model for children (Fox & Schirrmacher, 2014, p. 272); teachers should integrate visual arts and aesthetics with the early childhood education program; teachers should increase their awareness of the visual arts and aesthetic education by referring to arts, artists and artistic and aesthetic components; teachers should provide various materials to children to activate their curiosity and creativity; and teachers should use more technology if there is even a limited chance to bring the visual arts and aesthetics into the classroom (Fox & Schirrmacher, 2014, p. 140).

It has been determined that the pre-service teachers expect theories and practice to be executed together and not to be evaluated by grades based on art products. The most basic limitation is that the education given in elective courses does not integrate with practice at an adequate level. The pre-service teachers' viewpoint on art will gain a deeper insight if they find opportunities to try out during practicing what they have learned by taking advantage of theoretically multi-dimensional and multi-directional opportunities. The same research should be done in wider samplings, with various scales, and research designs. Such expansion will contribute to the development of art and aesthetics activities for young children. The elective courses including art techniques and models in early childhood education should be examined with wider samplings to integrate them with practice. A similar longitudinal study may be done to compare the thoughts of the pre-service teachers. In this context, we could suggest that the sample model elective courses with the integration of different art materials and techniques in various art branches should be examined with varied samplings.

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Okul Öncesi Öğretmen Adaylarının Gözünden Görsel Sanat Eğitimi ve Estetik

Atıf:

Özet

Problem Durumu: İlk yıllarda içinde bulunulan sanat etkinlikleri duyusaldır ve çocuklar kendi yaptıkları bu çalışmaların diğerleri üzerindeki etkisinin farkında değildirler. Sanata ilişkin erken yıllarda yaşanılan deneyimlerin olumlu ve çocuğun gelişim düzeyine uygun olması çocuklar için keyif verici bir nitelik taşıyacaktır. Çocuklar erken yaşlarda güzelliklerle tanışmazlarsa, gelecek yaşantılarında güzelliği fark etme ve güzelliğe değer verme konularında sorunlar yaşayabileceklerdir. Bu bağlamda, erken dönemde çocukların sanat ve estetik konusunda bilgi sahibi, kendilerini yönlendirecek ve destekleyecek yetişkinlere ihtiyaçları bulunmaktadır. Erken yıllarda çocuklar üzerinde etkisi olan en önemli yetişkinlerden biri okul öncesi

öğretmenleridir. Bu nedenle, okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin lisans eğitimlerinden itibaren sanat ve estetik konularında donanımlı olmaları ve bu konularda nitelikli uygulamalar yapmaları önemli bir kazanım olarak görülmektedir. Ancak öğretmen adayları ilk ve orta öğretim kurumlarında sanat üzerine aldıkları eğitimin yeterli seviyede olmaması nedeniyle üniversiteden alacakları eğitimin niteliğinin artırılmasına gereksinim duymaktadır. Bu bağlamda Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği lisans programlarında sanat ve estetik konularına yönelik zorunlu seçmeli derslerin çeşitliliği ve işlevselliği öğretmen adaylarına daha fazla deneyim fırsatı sağlayacaktır. Öğretmen adayının resim, müzik, tiyatro, drama, dans gibi sanat dallarından yararlanarak öğrenme ortamını zenginleştirmesi, çocukları sanat merkezlerine, sergi açılışlarına, müze gezilerine, konserlere götürerek farklı deneyimler yaşamalarına olanak sağlaması ve farklı sanat dallarından sanatçılar (ressamlar, heykeltıraşlar, müzisyenler, grafikerler vb.) ile işbirliği içinde çalışarak çocukların yaşantılarını ve bakış açılarını zenginleştirebilmesinde kritik bir işleve sahip olan söz konusu derslerin içeriklerinin alanda tartışılması, adayların bu derslerle ilişkili görüşlerinin açığa çıkartılması farklı özgün içeriklere sahip sanat derslerinin geliştirilmesi için çeşitli araştırmalara gereksinim duyulmaktadır.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu çalışma, okul öncesi eğitim programında sanat ve estetik konularında daha fazla sayıda seçmeli ders almış öğretmen adaylarıyla seçmeli ders almamış öğretmen adaylarının görsel sanat eğitimi hakkındaki düşüncelerini, aldıkları derslere ilişkin deneyimlerini ve sanat etkinliklerini uygulama hakkındaki görüşlerini karşılaştırmak amacıyla yürütülmüştür. Alınan geri bildirimlerin söz konusu derslerin eğitim programındaki yerlerinin olumlu ve olumsuz boyutlarının gözden geçirilmesi derslerin yeniden yapılandırılmasına ve gelişmekte olan yeni derslerin içeriklerinin düzenlenmesine düşünsel bir katkı sağlayabilecektir.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Bu çalışmada, nitel araştırma yöntemlerinde kullanılan desenlerden biri olan fenomenoloji kullanılmıştır. Çalışma grubu, Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği lisans programında 1.sınıfa ve 4.sınıfa devam eden öğrencilerden belirlenmiş onar öğrenciden oluşmaktadır. Araştırma kapsamında, iki farklı grup öğretmen adayıyla iki farklı oturumda odak grup görüşmeleri yürütülmüştür. Verilerin analizinde içerik analizi yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Bu süreçte, ön hazırlık, nitel verileri kodlama, temalara ulaşma, bulguları yorumlama ve sonuçları raporlaştırma aşamaları izlenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Çalışmanın bulguları şu 4 başlık altında incelenmiştir; görsel sanat eğitimi ve estetiğin tanımı, içeriği, deneyimleri ve görsel sanat eğitimin çocukların yaşamındaki yeri. Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği lisans programında sanat ve estetik konularında seçmeli dersler almış olan öğretmen adaylarının bu dersleri almamış adaylara göre görsel sanat eğitimi ve estetiğe yönelik daha zengin içeriğe sahip tanımlamalarda bulundukları saptanmıştır.

İçeriğe yönelik olarak görseller ve materyaller sağlama, çocuğu merkeze alma ve çok yönlü olma ve alan gezileri uygulama temaları iki grup tarafından değinilen ortak temalardır. Ayrıca seçmeli dersleri henüz almamış grubun sanatın önemi, özgürlük sağlama, süreç, aileyi içerme ve ilgi çekici olma temalarından ifadeler kullanırken

diğer grup sanat eğitiminde farklı mekanlarda özgün çalışmalara yönelik düşünceler açıklamışlardır. Sanat ve estetik ile ilişkili neler yapmayı düşündükleri araştırıldığında seçmeli dersleri henüz almamış grubun okul öncesi eğitimin geneline yönelik günlük eğitim akışlarından bahsettikleri, dersleri alan grubun ise doğrudan bu konular ile ilişkili günlük eğitim akışlarına yönelik teknikler ve yöntemleri düşünsel olarak kullanmayı planladıkları görülmüştür.

Adayların sanat eğitimi ve estetikle ilgili deneyimlerini ortaya çıkarmaya yönelik sorulara verdikleri yanıtlar incelendiğinde seçmeli dersleri henüz almamış grubun çok kısıtlı deneyimlerinin olduğu saptanmıştır. Görsel sanat eğitimi ve estetik konularına yönelik seçmeli dersleri daha yoğun şekilde alan grubun söz konusu dersleri çeşitli açılardan olumlu ve olumsuz yanlarını ortaya koyarak tartıştıkları gözlenmiştir. Sanatla ilgilenmek, doğal materyalleri değerlendirmek, deneyim kazanmak olumlu kazanımlar olarak sıralanırken, çocuklara sınıf ortamında uygulayamamak, ürünlerin notlandırılması ve yetiştirmek için zaman kısıtlığı nedeniyle baskı hissetmeleri olumsuz unsurlar olarak ortaya konmuştur.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Sonuç olarak, sanat ve estetik konularında verilen derslerin okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının sanata ilişkin farkındalıklarını ve bilgi düzeylerini arttırdığı, uygulama ile ilişkili farklı sanat dallarına yönelik çalışmalar gerçekleştirme konusunda bilinçli bir çaba içinde olmalarına katkıda bulunduğu gözlenmiştir. Odak grup görüşmelerinin kullanılması, öğretmen adaylarının bireysel görüşmelere göre kendilerini daha güvende ve rahat ifade etmelerini sağlamış, seçmeli sanat derslerine yönelik eleştirel görüşlerinin ortaya çıkmasını kolaylaştırmıştır. Bu görüşlerin bundan sonraki çalışmalar için söz konusu derslerin hazırlık aşamasında düşünsel bir katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir. Araştırmada sanat ve estetikle ilgili seçmeli derslerin öğretmen adaylarının bu konulardaki birikimlerini zenginleştirmiş olmasının diğer programlarda da artırılması için bir örnek teşkil edebileceğini düşündürmektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Öğretmen eğitimi, sanat ve estetik, erken çoculuk eğitimi, öğretmen adayı, nitel araştırma.

Pre-School Teachers' Classroom Management Competency and The Factors Affecting Their Understanding of Discipline*

Sema BUYUKTASKAPU SOYDAN[1], Devlet ALAKOC PIRPIR[2], Ayse OZTURK SAMUR[3], Duriye Esra ANGIN[4]

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	Purpose: This research was carried out to determine the classroom management competency and the levels of perception of understanding of discipline among preschool teachers, the effect of their classroom management competency and understanding of discipline on child-teacher relationship, the relationship between interpersonal problem-solving and liking of children, the student-teacher relationship and the predictive power of interpersonal problem-solving and liking of children in teachers' classroom management competency and understanding of discipline.

Research Methods: The research was designed using single and correlational survey designs and the sample included 180 preschool teachers working at public and private preschools. Research data was collected using the "Scale of Classroom Management Competency Levels", "Teacher's Understanding of Discipline Scale", "Interpersonal Problem-Solving Inventory", "Barnett Liking of Children Scale" and "Teacher-Student Relationship Scale". **Findings:** The results revealed that 81% of the teachers need to be supported in terms of classroom management and %55 of them in terms of understanding of discipline. The results showed that professional seniority, negative attitude towards problems and liking of children are the variables that predict strict/over-controlling understanding of discipline, and the constructive problem solving and the discipline based on understanding of equity are the variables that predict their classroom management competency. **Implications for Research and Practice**: Teachers' development about interpersonal problem-solving skills must be supported as well as their pedagogical knowledge about classroom management. It is suggested that teachers' classroom management competencies should be increased and their understanding of discipline should be developed via education seminars.

[1] Corresponding Author: Karatay University, TURKEY, sema.soydan@karatay.edu.tr ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0003-0232-3818.

[2] Selçuk University, TURKEY, devletalakoc@gmail.com ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0002-5132-9020.

[3] Adnan Menderes University, TURKEY, ayseozturksamur@yahoo.com ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0003-1976-3078

[4] Adnan Menderes University, TURKEY, esra.angin@adu.edu.tr ORCID: orcid.org/oooo-0001-6601-4892

Introduction

Classroom management is an interdisciplinary subject matter that covers education, psychology, and anthropology (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006). Because it is a complex concept with many dimensions (Martin & Sass, 2010; Fries & Cochran-Smith, 2006), classroom management has been defined in various ways. "Classroom management" is a term teachers use to describe the process of creating an effective environment for academic education, developing positive interactions and relationships with students, encouraging social/emotional development and focusing on disruptive behavior or misbehavior by students (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006). It is further defined as the conscious implementation of all the stages related to planning, communication, and evaluation to accomplish goals (Erdoğan, 2010). Moreover, it is regarded that organization of the physical setting, planning and implementation of an effective education, and the management of children's behavior have been accepted as subdimensions of classroom management (Carter & Doyle, 2006; Levin & Nolan, 2007; Weinstein & Novodvorsky, 2011; Weinstein, Romano & Mignano, 2011). Hence, it is anticipated that a good class leader should have the abilities and qualities to choose teaching goals, class activities, and management techniques and strategies suitable for students (Emmer & Stough, 2001).

Although classroom management is a detailed subject (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006) and covers many dimensions of planning and implementation, the most important concern for school directors, teachers, parents, and students is to maintain discipline (Romi & Freund, 1999). Moreover, it is revealed that the term "discipline" is usually used in place of "classroom management" in the literature (Hardin, 2004; Martin & Sass, 2010). The studies carried out about classroom management in our country focus on the undesirable behavior or misbehavior of children and discipline methods (Akar, Erden, Tor, & Şahin, 2010; Guleç, Bağçeli, & Onur, 2008; Uysal, Akbaba, & Akgün, 2010). Thus, classroom discipline plays a vital role in this study with classroom management.

There are different perspectives about discipline in the literature. The classical behavioral approach aims at maintaining discipline via display of deficiencies and weakening of negative behaviors and reinforcement of positive behaviors (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006). The ecological approach focuses on the proactive side of classroom management while creating the education setting and also involves nonreactive movements while maintaining discipline. Teachers should interfere in maintaining an orderly learning environment indirectly and while attempting it, they must react as quickly and quietly as possible in this approach (Doyle, 2006; Carter & Doyle, 2006). In the social studies (integrated) curriculum approach, discipline has been considered an opportunity for teachers to show students which behaviors are appropriate and maintaining discipline has also been evaluated as an opportunity rather than perceiving it as an obstacle (Nucci, 2006). This understanding of discipline is based on "teaching something". Moreover, it is considered as a kind of understanding of education which aims at having children acquire the desired behaviors and habits and maintaining the development of self-control (Adams, 2000; Edwards, 1993; Tulley & Chiu, 1995).

Studies carried out to date have determined that teachers frequently use imperative sentences as a discipline method (Dobbs, Arnold, & Doctoroff, 2004). They also use rule-making and verbal appraisal and then preferred verbal warning, abolition of privileges and sending notes home as classroom management strategies (Little & Akin Little, 2008). They further use physical and verbal intervention more (Reschke & Hegland, 1999). It has been found that pre-school teachers in our country mostly focus on types of behaviors which could be categorized as responsive to maintain discipline (Akgün et al., 2011; Akar et al., 2010; Denizel Güven & Cevher, 2005; Guleç & Alkış, 2004, 2005; Sadık, 2002, 2003; Uysal et al., 2010). In addition, pre-service teachers mostly prefer the confrontation-agreement model of discipline (Polat, Kaya, & Akdağ, 2013), set rules mostly related to cleanliness and tidiness and movement and peer relationships (Durmuşoğlu Saltalı & Arslan, 2013), and use methods of punishment and reward to control children (Durmuşoğlu Saltalı & Arslan, 2013; Uysal et al., 2010). In addition to these findings, it was determined that while setting classroom rules, teachers did not ask students for their opinions, instead making decisions about the class themselves, that they were insistent on implementing the decisions, and that they mostly used imperative sentences (Uysal et al., 2010). To sum up, a reading of the literature has found that the classroom management studies carried out in our country focused on teachers' desire to control children's behaviors and on discipline strategies.

In this traditional model of classroom management, based on behaviorism, discipline is teacher-centered and teachers want to reduce children's undesirable behaviors via punishment and rewards, to correct their behaviors, and to enable them to focus on their educational activities (Freiberg & Lamb, 2009). This kind of classroom management understanding causes children's behaviors to depend on external factors (Fennimore, 1995). On the contrary, children are expected to be active in all the processes in the classroom from promoting their learning and development to educational activities and behavioral control (Winsler & Carlton, 2003). Teachers' instant decisions in the classroom have an important effect to maintain this balance.

Teachers' first tendencies with these instant decisions generally focus on "correcting" children's negative behaviors. Teachers think that it is preferable to change a child's behavior by intervening in his behavior immediately; however, the reality is that immediate behavioral corrections do not work. A more effective strategy is not to correct the child immediately. Thus, teachers should focus on changing themselves and building a positive relationship with the child instead of trying to change the child (Bredekamp, 2014). Many personal characteristics of teachers are effective in maintaining order in the classroom and building a positive relationship with each child. Therefore, teachers should be aware of which interpersonal problem-solving skills they are using. In addition, it is considered that appreciating children as people, relying on professional experience, and the formation of relationships with the children are important for the decisions teachers make. However, it is revealed that the research studies related to classroom management focus on creating an effective physical environment (Landrum, Lingo & Scott, 2011; Sterling, 2009; Wasik, 2008), planning and educational activities (Gatongi, 2007; Wolfgang, 2009; Wubie, 2011),

building a relationship in the classroom and communication (Downer, Sabol & Hamre, 2010; Esturgó Deu & Sala Roca, 2010), and behavior management for children (Allen, 2010; Kim & Stormont, 2012; Rambusch, 2010). Thus, this research study aims at determining the classroom management competency and the levels of perception of understanding of discipline among preschool teachers, the effect of their classroom management competency and understanding of discipline on the child-teacher relationship, the relationship between interpersonal problem-solving and liking of children, and investigating the student-teacher relationship and the predictive power of interpersonal problem-solving and liking of children in teachers' classroom management competency and understanding of discipline.

Methods

Research Design

This research project was designed by benefiting from single and relational screening. The single screening model was performed to describe pre-school teachers' classroom management skills and understanding of discipline. The relational screening model was used to determine the relationship between teachers' understanding of discipline and classroom management competencies and student-teacher relationships, interpersonal problem solving and the liking of children.

Research Sample

The research was carried out with 180 pre-school teachers working in state and private pre-school educational institutions. Convenience sampling, one of the non-probability sampling types, was used in the study to determine the participating teachers. Almost all of the teachers participating in the study were female (90%), undergraduates (89%), and 44% of them had between 1 and 10 years of working experience, with 56% of them having more than 10 years of teaching experience.

Research Instruments and Procedures

Classroom management skills scale: A scale consisting of 40 items and prepared to detect teachers' perceptions about classroom management skills was developed by Denizel Güven and Cevher (2005). The scale's Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability was determined as .82 and the Spearman Brown split-half reliability coefficient was calculated as .84. As a result of the analysis carried out, it was determined that the scale factor was one-dimensional.

Teacher understanding of the discipline scale: The scale developed by Şimşek (2004) consists of the subdimensions of "Strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline", "obedience-based discipline", "discipline based on understanding of equity", and "student-centered discipline" and totals 14 items. As a result of the factor analysis results of the scale, it was found that the factor loadings for the first factor were between .53 and .72, .68 and .70 for the second factor, .40 and .78 for the third factor, and .71 and .76 for the fourth factor, with the cumulative explained variance rate of the scale 53%. It was determined that the scale's item-total correlation values varied

between r = .34 and .81; the scale's internal consistence reliability was between .46 and .69, and the split-half correlation was between r = .36 and .74. While a high score from the scale reflects a democratic understanding of discipline, a low score reflects an authoritarian or non-democratic understanding of discipline (Şimşek, 2004).

Interpersonal problem-solving inventory: The inventory developed by Çam and Tümkaya (2007) consisted of five factors: "negative attitudes to problems, constructive problem solving, lack of confidence, lack of responsibility, and persistence-perseverance approach". Of the total variance, 38.38% was explained in the inventory and 14.84% was explained by the subscales of negative attitudes to a problem, 12.76% by constructive problem solving, 4.64% by lack of confidence, 3.44% by lack of responsibility and 2.70% by the persistence-perseverance approach. The subscales' Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability varied from .67 to .91 and the test-retest reliability coefficients ran between .69 and .89. It was stated that negative attitudes to a problem and the persistence-perseverance approach could be evaluated in the dimension of *approach to a problem*, constructive problem solving, lack of confidence, whereas a lack of responsibility could be evaluated in the problem solving dimension (Çam & Tümkaya, 2007). Therefore, subdimensions of "constructive problem solving" and "lack of confidence" were used in this research study.

Barnett liking of children scale: The scale developed by Barnett and Sinisi (1990) and adapted by Duyan and Gelbal (2008) is a 14-item measure. The scale's test-retest reliability was calculated as 0.85 and the internal consistence reliability as .92 (Gelbal & Duyan, 2010).

Student-teacher relationship scale: The Student-Teacher Relationship Scale developed by Pianta (2001) and adapted to Turkish by Şahin (2014) consists of 28 items and three subdimensions of conflict, closeness, and dependence. The study carried out for the scale's validity and reliability revealed that the scale's factor structure explained 41.21% of the total variance, and it was determined that the scale's test-retest reliability coefficients were .90 for the subdimension of conflict, .82 for the subdimension of closeness, and .55 for the subdimension of dependence, with a total score of .87. The scale's Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability was .84 for the subdimension of conflict, .80 for the subdimension of closeness, and .72 for the subdimension of dependence, with a total score of .86.

Data Analysis

The professional seniority of the pre-school teachers considered as an independent variable turned into a dummy variable and the teachers with 10 and more years of teaching experience were used as a reference category. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used for the analysis of the pre-school teachers' understanding of discipline and classroom management skills and their relationship between liking of children, student-teacher relationship, and interpersonal problem solving and teacher seniority. Multiple regression analysis was used to reveal the extent to which the factors addressed in the study (liking of children, student-teacher relationship, and interpersonal problem solving and teacher seniority) predicted the teachers' understanding of discipline and classroom management.

Results

The findings obtained as a result of statistical analysis are presented in the tables.

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics about Variables*

Variable	Subdimension	n	*M*	Ss
Understanding of discipline	Strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline	180	16.28	4.05
	Obedience-based discipline	180	16.02	3.36
	Equity-based understanding of discipline	180	10.82	2.86
	Student-centered discipline	180	8.28	1.26
Student-teacher relationship	Disagreement	180	23.66	8.92
	Closeness	180	39.65	7.03
	Dependence	180	18.73	4.61
Interpersonal problem-solving skills	Negative attitudes to a problem	180	37.58	10.70
	Constructive problem solving	180	55.83	10.84
	Lack of self-confidence	180	13.93	4.81
Liking of children		180	81.71	7.60
Class management competency		180	119.45	11.87

In order to reveal the general distribution of teachers' class management competencies and understanding of discipline, the upper and lower standard deviation of the group's general average scores were calculated and the general distribution table about the pre-school teachers' class management competencies and understanding of discipline is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Teachers' Class Management Competencies and Perceptions of Understanding of Discipline

Variable	General Distribution		
	Low %	Medium %	High %
Class management competencies	11	70	19
Strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline	32	61	21
Obedience–based discipline	24	42	34
Equity-based understanding of discipline	22	61	17
Student-centered discipline	1	23	76

According to Table 2, it was determined that 19% of teacher perceptions about class management competencies were at a high level, 11% of them were at a low level, and 70% of them were at a medium level. This research finding reveals that 81% of pre-school teachers' class management competencies must be supported. When the general distribution about the understanding of discipline adopted by the teachers was examined, it was found that more than half of the teachers (55%) adopted a strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline and obedience–based discipline at a high level. This finding reveals that teachers' understanding of discipline must be supported.

Table 3. The Relationships between Teachers' Understanding of Discipline and Class Management Competencies and Student-Teacher Relationship, Liking of Children, and Interpersonal Problem Solving

Variables	Conflict	Closeness	Dependence	Liking of children	Negative Attitudes to Problems	Constructive prob-lem solv-ing	Lack of confidence	Professional seniority	Class management competencies
Strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline	.14	-.15*	-.04	-.16*	-.18*	-.00	-.12	-.21**	-.10
Understanding of obedience–based discipline	.05	-.11	-.02	-.15*	-.11	-.03	-.00	-.04	-.03

Table 3 Continue

Variables	Conflict	Closeness	Dependence	Liking of children	Negative Attitudes to Problems	Constructive prob-lem solv-ing	Lack of confidence	Professional seniority	Class management competencies
Equity-based understanding of discipline	-.08	.03	.01	.08	-.09	.01	-.01	.03	.15*
Student-centered discipline	-.01	.00	.09	.04	.01	.01	-.00	.09	.10
Class management competencies	-.00	.01	.09	.14	-.05	.23**	-.17*	.04	1

**p<.01 * p<.05

It was found that there was a negative significant relationship between teachers' strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline and closeness, liking of children, negative attitudes to a problem and professional seniority and obedience-based understanding of discipline and strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline. It was found that there was a positive significant relationship between equity-based understanding of discipline and classroom management competencies. There was no relationship between student-centered discipline and the other variables. It was revealed that there was a positive significant relationship between teachers' classroom management competencies and constructive problem-solving in the subdimension of interpersonal problem-solving skills but a negative significant relationship between their classroom management competencies and lack of confidence.

Table 4. Stepwise regression analysis related to prediction of teachers' strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline

Variables	B	Std Error	β	t	p	R	R²
First Stage							
Professional Seniority	-1.85	.66	-.21	-2.79	.00**	0.21	.044
Second Stage							
Professional Seniority	-1.89	.65	-.21	-2.89	.00**		
Negative Attitudes to Problems	-.073	.02	-.18	-2.55	.01*	0.28	.080

Table 4 Continue

Variables	B	Std Error	β	t	p	R	R²
Third Stage							
Professional Seniority	-1.90	.64	-.21	-2.94	.00**		
Negative Attitudes to Problems	-.073	.02	-.18	-2.58	.01*	0.32	.108
Liking of Children	-.089	.03	-.16	-2.30	.02*		

**p<.01 *p<.05

As seen in Table 4, professional seniority, negative attitudes to the problem, and liking of children are ranked from highest to lowest in terms of contributions of dependent variable to variance. The variable of the feeling of closeness, a subdimension of the student-teacher relationship scale, is an unimportant predictor on the dependent variable, so it was left out in the regression equation and the stepwise regression analysis was completed in three stages. In the first stage, out of these variables identified, professional seniority, which made the most contribution to the strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline, was entered into the regression equation and it was found that it explained 4.4% of the variance in the strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline (R=0.21, R^2=0.044). In other words, the strongest predictor of strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline was determined as the variable of professional seniority. The negative (-) beta value reveals that there is an inverse relationship between the strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline and professional seniority, and as professional seniority increased, the strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline decreased.

In the second stage, the variable of negative attitudes to a problem was included in the model and the explained variance in the strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline went up from 4.4% to 8% (R=0.28; R^2=0.080). This means that the variable of negative attitudes to a problem made 3.6% contribution to the explained variance. Moreover, it was determined that the beta value belonging to the variable of negative attitudes to a problem was -0.18. It can be stated that as the attitude toward a problem increased, the strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline went down.

In the third stage, the variable of liking of children was included in the model and the explained variance in the point score of the strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline went up from 8% to 10.8% (R=0.32; R^2=0.108). In other words, the variable of teachers' liking of children made 2.8% contribution to the explained variance. When the table was examined, it was found that the beta value of liking of children was -0.16. This situation can be interpreted like this: As the liking of children increases, the strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline will decrease. Considering these results, it is found that the variables which predict the teachers' strict/overcontrolling

understanding of discipline are professional seniority, negative attitudes toward a problem, and liking of children, respectively.

Table 5. *Stepwise Regression Analysis Related to Predictions of Teachers' Classroom Management Competencies*

Variables	B	Std Error	β	t	p	R	R²
First Stage							
Constructive problem solving	.176	.057	.232	3.094	.00**	0.23	.054
Second Stage							
Constructive problem solving	.174	.056	.230	3.098	.00**	0.27	0.27
Equity-based understanding of discipline	.427	.211	.150	2.021	.04*		

**p<.01 *p<.05

In the stepwise regression analysis, the beta values of independent variables were first calculated to determine the important predictors of classroom management competencies, and it was concluded that two variables related to classroom management competencies were important predictors in terms of their contributions to variance. The variable of lack of confidence, which is not an important predictor of the dependent variable, was left out of the regression equation, and the regression analysis was competed in two stages. In the first stage, constructive problem solving was entered into the regression equation and it was determined that 5.4% of the classroom management competencies variance was explained with this variable (R= 0.23, R²=0.054). In the second stage, the variable of equity-based understanding of discipline was included in the model. With the addition of this variable to the model, the variance that explains classroom management competencies went up from 5.4% to 7.6% (R=0.27; R²=0.076). In other words, the variable of teachers' equity-based understanding of discipline made 2.2% contribution to the explained variance. According to this result, first constructive problem-solving skills and then equity-based understanding of discipline predict teachers' classroom management competencies.

Discussion and Conclusion

As a result of the research study, it was found that 19% of teachers' perceptions about classroom management competencies were high, 11% were low, and 70% of them were at a medium level. Considering this result, it can be stated that 81% of teachers' classroom management competencies must be supported. Teachers state that classroom management is the most challenging aspect of their teaching (Merrett &

Wheldall, 1993). Pre-school teachers and elementary school first-grade teachers consider classroom management to be their most important professional development need (Coalition for Psychology in the Schools and Education, 2006).

The studies carried out reveal that pre-school teachers who believe that they cannot manage children's behaviors make more erratic decisions than those who believe in themselves (Massetti & Bracken, 2010; Pianta et al., 2003). Moreover, when the literature is examined, there are research studies which reveal that the beliefs of pre-school teachers affect their implementation of education activities and classroom management behaviors (Bracken & Fischel, 2006; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Massetti & Bracken, 2010; Polat, Kaya & Akdağ, 2013; Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004). In addition, some research studies claim that the effect of the stress factor and its interactions have been explored in teachers' self-efficacy to classroom management competencies (Dicke et al., 2014; Aloe, Amo & Shanahan, 2014; Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Egyed & Short, 2006; Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004).

According to Bandura, self-efficacy is "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations"(Bandura, 1977, s. 201). Teachers with a strong sense of self-efficacy are expected to improve students' behavior and achievement despite challenging problems, but teachers with a weak sense of self-efficacy are expected to have less of an ability to have an effect on students' motivation and cognitive development (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Thus, we conclude that teacher self-efficacy influences student achievement and motivation (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Furthermore, a positive relationship was identified between teacher self-efficacy and teacher commitment (Klassen & Chiu, 2010), job satisfaction (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni & Steca, 2003) and education quality (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The findings of this study reveal that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are important with regard to classroom management.

However, it is revealed in the studies carried out about teachers' classroom management competencies in our country that teachers consider themselves incompetent when it comes to classroom management and their classroom management competencies must be reinforced (İlgar, 2007; Şentürk & Oral, 2005; Akkaya Çelik, 2006). The results of these studies reveal, first, that it is important to investigate pre-school teachers' classroom management competency perceptions and, second, that primary school and pre-school teachers in particular feel themselves incompetent in matters of classroom management. These findings support the findings of our study.

When the other results obtained from the research study were examined, the results of the stepwise regression analysis revealed that the variables of professional seniority, negative attitudes to a problem, and liking of children were determined as the variables which predicted the teachers' scores on a strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline. Moreover, the variable of professional seniority was detected as the strongest predictor of strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline. It can be stated that as teacher experience increases, the

strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline decreases. McDaniel (1994) states that personal philosophy, values, and teacher experience are important determiners when adopting a specific understanding of discipline (as cited in Şimşek, 2004). Considering the negative attitudes to a problem, it was found that as the negative attitudes to a problem increased, the strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline decreased. If the person has a negative attitude toward a problem, his/her problem-solving skills will be lacking and inadequate and s/he will choose to avoid problems (Çam & Tümkaya, 2007). The teachers who prefer to avoid problems adopt a strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline to eliminate the problem. Another result revealed by the stepwise regression analysis is that as the liking of children increases, the strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline decreases. These results run parallel with the literature. Durmuşoğlu Saltalı & Erbay (2013) in their studies identified that teachers' state of liking of children was related to listening, speaking, and empathy skills in their communication with children and it was a meaningful descriptor. Listening, speaking, and empathy skills used in communication promotes the positive communication between the teacher and the child and this causes teachers' strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline to diminish. According to Gelbal and Duyan (2010), one's liking of children has a very special and important place among the knowledge, skills, and values teachers have. The ability of children to be able to stand on their own feet, develop self-confidence, be at peace with themselves and their environment, and express themselves clearly all depend on their being loved by their family and teacher unconditionally and being valued and accepted as an individual (Çetindağ, 2013).

Multiple regression analysis carried out to determine whether or not understanding of discipline scores based on constructive problem solving and equity predicted teachers' classroom management competencies revealed that the constructive problem-solving variable was the most important predictor of teachers' classroom management competencies. Aydın (2004) stated that teachers' reaction styles were important to overcome the discipline problems in the classroom. It is vital that the problems encountered in the classroom should be eliminated with the right methods and techniques so that they can make positive contributions to children's development and help them to gain good habits (Öztürk, Gangal & Ergişi, 2014). Classroom management requires effective organization and implementation of communication and interaction processes (Tutkun, 2002). The teacher is able to anticipate possible student behaviors and prevent possible negative behaviors in a well- organized classroom (Tertemiz, 2000). According to Gordon (2013), after teachers learn to use skills that do not require force to maintain discipline and order, they start to use a totally different language about discipline. Teachers who can generate constructive solutions to problems and adopt an understanding of discipline based on equity are expected to have strong classroom management competencies.

Teachers' consistent discipline implementations are one of the factors that affect their teaching skills directly (Blandford, 1998). Effective classroom management and the competency to maintain discipline are included in the skills teachers must have to transfer the knowledge they have (Öztürk, Gangal & Ergişi, 2014). The knowledge that

is included in the literature supports the results obtained in this research which reveal that there is a negative meaningful relationship between classroom management competencies and a lack of confidence. Today, classroom management is viewed from a broad perspective and it is addressed three dimensionally in terms of class leadership, classroom atmosphere for learning, and discipline (Tertemiz, 2000). Teachers are expected to exhibit effective leadership inside and outside the classroom because students with different personality traits need a teacher-leader who will lead their behaviors (Dağ & Göktürk, 2014). These teachers understand their effects on the students and they use this effect positively (Jones & Jones, 1998). It is an anticipated result that a self-confident teacher feels himself competent about classroom management.

Recommendations

It is revealed in this research study that teachers' classroom management competencies are influenced by constructive problem-solving skills and that their understanding of discipline is affected by negative attitudes to a problem. In summary, it can be stated that teachers' interpersonal problem-solving skills effectively contribute to their decisions about classroom management. Thus, pre-school teachers' development of interpersonal problem-solving skills should be supported in addition to their pedagogical knowledge about classroom management.

In line with the finding that states most of the teachers feel themselves incompetent about classroom management and adopt the strict/overcontrolling understanding of discipline, it is considered that teachers could not transfer the theoretical knowledge they learn during their undergraduate studies to practice and they need to be supported due to the challenges they encounter during the implementation process. It can be stated that it is important and necessary for teachers to connect theory and practice via educational seminars with inter-institutional cooperation and thus their competencies can be increased.

Considering the other components of classroom management, teachers' classroom management competencies and understanding of discipline can be explored. Teachers' classroom management competencies and understanding of discipline can be carried out with studies designed with a qualitative research approach.

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Okul Öncesi Öğretmenlerinin Sınıf Yönetimi Yeterlikleri ve Disiplin Anlayışlarını Etkileyen Etmenler

Özet

Problem Durumu: Disiplinlerarası bir konu olan sınıf yönetimi pek çok boyutu olan bir kavramdır. Bu sebeple literatürde sınıf yönetiminin farklı boyutlarını içeren tanımlara rastlanmaktadır. Bu tanımlarda sınıf yönetimi; öğretmenlerin akademik öğretim için elverişli bir ortam oluşturma, öğrenciler ile olumlu ilişkiler geliştirme, sosyal/duygusal gelişimi teşvik etme ve sorunlu davranışa odaklanma davranışlarını içeren bir süreç, hedeflerin gerçekleştirilmesinde planlama, iletişim ve değerlendirmeye ilişkin tüm basamakların bilinçli bir şekilde uygulanması olarak ifade edilmektedir. Sınıf yönetiminin alt boyutları olarak; fiziksel ortamın düzenlenmesi, eğitimin etkili bir şekilde planlanması, uygulanması ve çocukların davranışlarının yönetilmesi başlıklarının kabul edildiği görülmektedir.

Sınıf yönetimi, öğretmenlerin çeşitli yeteneklerini içeren detaylı bir konu olmasına planlamanın ve uygulamanın birçok yönünü kapsamasına rağmen, okul müdürleri, öğretmenler, ebeveynler ve öğrencilerin gözünde en önemli endişe, disiplinin korunmasıdır. Ülkemizde yapılan sınıf yönetimi ile ilgili çalışmalar ise, çocukların istenmeyen davranışlarına ve disiplin yöntemlerine odaklanmaktadır. Bu nedenle sınıf yönetimi ile birlikte sınıf disiplini, bu çalışmada merkezi bir rol oynamaktadır.

Okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin disiplin sağlamak amacıyla en çok tepkisel kategoriye girebilecek davranış biçimlerine odaklandıkları, öğretmen adaylarının en çok tercih ettikleri disiplin modelinin yüzleştirme-anlaşma modeli olduğu, sınıf içinde en çok temizlik ve düzen, hareket ve akran ilişkileri ile ilgili kurallar koydukları, çocukları kontrol edebilme adına ceza ve ödül yöntemini kullandıkları görülmektedir. Bununla birlikte, okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin sınıf kurallarını belirlerken çocukların düşüncelerini almadıkları, sınıf ile ilgili kararları kendilerinin aldıkları ve bu kararların uygulanması için ısrarcı oldukları, çoğunlukla emir cümleleri kullandıkları tespit edilmiştir.

Öğretmenin sınıf düzenini sağlaması ve her bir çocukla olumlu ilişkiler kurmasında pek çok kişisel özelliği etkili olmaktadır. Bu nedenle öğretmenin, hangi kişiler arası problem çözme becerisini kullandığının farkında olması önemlidir. Ayrıca öğretmenin aldığı kararlarda çocuk sevgisi, mesleki tecrübesi ve çocuk ile olan ilişkisinin de etkili olduğu düşünülmektedir. Ancak sınıf yönetimi ile ilgili araştırmaların, fiziksel ortamı organize etme, planlama ve eğitim etkinlikleri, sınıfta ilişki kurma ve iletişim, çocukların davranışlarını yönetme üzerine odaklandığı görülmektedir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Araştırmada, okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin sınıf yönetimi yeterlikleri ve disiplin anlayışlarının belirlenmesi, öğrenci-öğretmen ilişkisi, kişilerarası problem çözme ve çocuk sevmenin öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi yeterlikleri ve disiplin anlayışlarını yordama gücünün incelenmesi amaçlanmaktadır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Bu araştırma, tekil ve ilişkisel tarama modellerinden yararlanılarak tasarlanmıştır. Tekil tarama modeli; okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin sınıf yönetimi becerilerinin ve disiplin anlayışlarının betimlenmesi amacıyla, ilişkisel tarama modeli ise; öğretmenlerin disiplin anlayışları ve sınıf yönetimi yeterlilikleri ile öğretmen çocuk ilişkisi, kişilerarası problem çözme ve çocuk sevme arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemeye yönelik olarak kullanılmıştır.

Araştırma 180 okul öncesi eğitim öğretmeni ile yürütülmüştür. Araştırmaya katılan öğretmenlerin belirlenmesinde olasılık dışı örnekleme türlerinden uygun örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi yeterliklerine ilişkin algılarının %19'unun yüksek, %11'inin düşük ve %70'inin orta düzeyde olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Bu araştırma bulgusu okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin %81'inin sınıf yönetimi yeterliklerinin desteklenmesi gerekliliğini ortaya koymaktadır. Öğretmenlerin benimsedikleri disiplin anlayışlarına ilişkin genel dağılım incelendiğinde ise, öğretmenlerin yarıdan fazlasının baskıcı/aşırı denetleyici disiplini ve itaate dayalı disiplini (%55) yüksek seviyede benimsediği görülmektedir. Bu bulgu öğretmenlerin disiplin anlayışının desteklenmesi gerektiğini göstermektedir.

Araştırmaya katılan öğretmenlerin baskıcı/aşırı denetleyici disiplin anlayışları ile yakınlık, çocuk sevme, probleme olumsuz yaklaşma ve mesleki kıdem arasında ve itaate dayalı disiplin anlayışları ile çocuk sevme arasında negatif yönlü anlamlı bir ilişki tespit edilmiştir. Eşitlik anlayışına dayalı disiplin ile sınıf yönetimi yeterlilikleri arasında pozitif yönlü anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Öğrenci merkezli disiplin ile araştırmada ele alınan diğer değişkenler arasında herhangi bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin sınıf yönetimi yeterlilikleri ile kişilerarası problem çözme becerileri alt boyutundaki yapıcı problem çözme arasında pozitif, kendine güvensizlik arasında ise negatif yönlü anlamlı bir ilişki görülmektedir. Öğretmenlerin baskıcı/aşırı denetleyici disiplin anlayışlarını yordayan değişkenler en yüksekten en düşüğe doğru sıralandığında bunlar; mesleki kıdem, probleme olumsuz yaklaşma ve çocuk sevmedir. Sınıf yönetimi yeterliliklerini ise birinci sırada yapıcı problem çözme becerileri, ikinci sırada eşitlik anlayışına dayalı disiplin anlayışı yordamaktadır.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Araştırma sonucunda, öğretmenlerinin sınıf yönetimi yeterliklerinin desteklenmesi gerekliliğini sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Öğretmenlerin yarıdan fazlasının baskıcı/aşırı denetleyici disiplini ve itaate dayalı disiplini benimsediği görülmüştür. Mesleki kıdem, probleme olumsuz yaklaşma ve çocuk sevme değişkenleri öğretmenlerin baskıcı/aşırı denetleyici disiplin anlayışı puanlarını yordayan değişkenler olarak belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca mesleki kıdem değişkeni baskıcı/aşırı denetleyici disiplin anlayışının en güçlü yordayıcısı olarak saptanmıştır. Yapıcı problem çözme değişkeninin de öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi yeterliklerinin en önemli yordayıcısı olduğu bulunmuştur.

Öğretmenlerin kişilerarası problem çözme becerilerinin sınıf yönetimi ile ilgili aldığı kararlarda etkili olduğu bulgusundan yola çıkarak, okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin, sınıf yönetimi ile ilgili pedagojik bilgilerinin yanı sıra kişiler arası problem çözme becerileri konusunda gelişimleri desteklenmelidir.

Öğretmenlerin çoğunluğunun sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini yetersiz hissettikleri ve baskıcı disiplin anlayışını benimsedikleri bulgusu doğrultusunda, öğretmenlerin lisans eğitimleri sürecinde aldıkları teorik bilgileri uygulama sürecine aktaramadıkları ve uygulama sürecinde karşılaştıkları zorluklar sırasında desteklenmeye ihtiyaç duydukları düşünülmektedir. Bu nedenle Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı ve üniversiteler işbirliğinde yapılacak projeler, eğitim seminerleri aracılığıyla okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin mesleki gelişimlerini tamamlamaları, teori ile uygulama arasında bağ kurulması sağlanarak yeterliliklerinin artırılmasının önemli ve gerekli olduğu söylenebilir.

Bu çalışmada ele alınmayan değişkenler işe koşularak öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi yeterlilikleri ve disiplin anlayışları incelenebilir. Öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi yeterlilikleri ve disiplin anlayışları nitel araştırma deseninde incelenebilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Okul öncesi sınıf yönetimi, öğretmen öğrenci ilişkisi, çocuk sevme, kişilerarası problem çözme becerileri.

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15	☒	*An extended (750-1000 words) Turkish structured abstract is placed following the "References" section using five required headings: Problem Statement, Purpose of Study, Methods, Findings and Results, and Conclusions and Recommendations.* (These headings may need some adaptation in the case of discussion papers: *Background, Purpose of Study, Sources of Evidence, Main Argument, and Conclusions).* More information available from http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/authors/rereabstracts.asp Kaynakça'dan sonra 750-1000 sözcükten oluşan Türkçe yapılandırılmış öze yer verilmiştir. Türkçe yapılandırılmış öz *Problem Durumu, Araştırmanın Amacı, Araştırmanın Yöntemi, Araştırmanın Bulguları, Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri* başlıklarını içermektedir. Bu başlıklar tartışma yazıları için: *Çalışmanın Temeli, Çalışmanın Amacı, Kanıt Kaynakları, Ana Tartışma ve Sonuçlar* şeklinde olabilir. Daha fazla bilgi için; <u>http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/authors /rereabstracts.asp</u>
16	☒	*Following the Turkish structured abstract, four to six keywords are included.* Uzun Türkçe özetten sonra 4-6 anahtar sözcüğe yer verilmelidir.
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18	☒	*The format of headings, tables, figures, citations, references, and other details follow the* **APA 6 style** *as described in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 6th edition, available from http://www.apa.org* Aday makalenin başlıkları, tabloları, şekilleri, atıfları, kaynakçası ve diğer özellikleri tamamen APA altıncı baskıda belirtildiği şekildedir.
19	☒	*All illustrations, figures, and tables are placed within the text at the appropriate points, rather than at the end.* Aday makalenin şekilleri ve tabloları metin içerisinde bulunmaları gereken uygun yerlere yerleştirilmiştir. Makale sonunda sunulmamıştır.
20	☒	Citations in the text of the document include the author's surname, the year of publication, and, when there is a specific quote from a source used, a page number where the quote is located in the text. **Example:** Nothing seemed so certain as the results of the early studies (Tatt, 2001, p. 445). It was precisely this level of apparent certainty, however, which led to a number of subsequent challenges to the techniques used to process the data (Jones & Wayne, 2002, p. 879). There were a number of fairly obvious flaws in the data: consistencies and regularities that seemed most irregular, upon close scrutiny (Aarns, 2003; West, 2003, p. 457).

		With studies by two authors, always include both author names: (Anderson & Bjorn, 2003)
		As Anderson and Bjorn (2003) illustrated in their recent study
		As recently as 2003, a prominent study (Anderson & Bjorn) illustrated
		When a study has 3, 4, or 5 authors, include the names of all the authors the first time the work is cited: (Anderson, Myers, Wilkes, & Matthews, 2003)
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		İçeriden, italik, tamamı küçük harflerle yazılmış ve nokta ile biten başlık.
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		Turkish References Only:
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		Article in an Internet-only journal/Periodical, database

		Fredrickson, B. L. (2000, March 7). Cultivating positive emotions to optimize health and well being. *Prevention & Treatment, 3,* Article 0001a. Retrieved November 20, 2000, from
		http://journals.apa.org/prevention/volume3/pre0030001a.html
		More information is available from:
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23	☒	***Order of the main parts in the manuscript is as follows:*** *Main title in English (max. 12 words)*
		Structured abstract (min. 200- max.250 words length)
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		Extended structured abstract (min.750-max.1000 words length in Turkish)
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		Aday makaleyi oluşturan ana öğeler aşağıdaki düzendedir:
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		Ana Metin
		Kaynakça
		Türkçe Ana Başlık (En fazla 12 sözcük)
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		Anahtar Sözcükler (Türkçe, en az dört, en fazla altı)
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		Manuscript Title
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		Purpose of Study:…
		Method:….
		Findings:….
		Implications for Research and Parctice:…
		Keywords:..
		Introduction Method (sub-headings):
		Research Design

		Research Sample
		◆*Research Instrument and Procedure*
		Data Analysis
		Results, Discussion and Conclusion, References
		Extended Turkish Abstract (750-1000 words) Sub-headings:
		Problem Durumu:…
		Araştırmanın Amacı:…
		Araştırmanın Yöntemi:…
		Araştırmanın Bulguları:…
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