

LATER 
**Language Teaching and
Educational Research**

Volume 6 | Issue 1
June - 2023

Editor-in-Chief

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yusuf DEMİR

<https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/later>

EDITOR-IN-CHIEF

Dr. Yusuf DEMİR

EDITORS

Dr. Abdu AL-KADI

Dr. Gülçin MUTLU

Dr. Mehmet KOÇYİĞİT

LANGUAGE EDITOR

Lec. Yavuz Selim ŞİŞMAN

CONTACT INFORMATION

laterjournal@gmail.com

+905063302054

Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER) is a scientific, non-profit, open-access journal and is indexed/abstracted in national and international databases. Authors are responsible scientifically and legally for all the contents published in the journal. Please check journal website for aim, scope, ethical principles of the journal and article publication processes.

LATER is Indexed/Abstracted in

	H W Wilson EBSCO
	EBSCO Education Research Complete
	DOAJ
	MLA
	WorldCat
	EZB
	ESJI
	TEİ
	MIAR
	Academindex
	ASOS
	Neliti
	ResearchBib
	JF
	idealonline
	Sjifactor
	Cosmos
	CiteFactor
	RootIndexing
	SIS
	Acarindex
	BASE by Bielefeld University Library

Editorial Board

Dr. Julia HABA OSCA, Universitat de Valencia / SPAIN

Dr. Paola DAMIANI, University of Torino / ITALY

Dr. Kemal Sinan ÖZMEN, Gazi University / TURKEY

Dr. Pedro Castro ALVAREZ, University of Information Sciences / CUBA

Dr. Shukran Abd.RAHMAN, International Islamic University / MALAYSIA

Dr. Mustafa YAVUZ, Necmettin Erbakan University / TURKEY

Dr. John SIVELL, Center for Canadian Language Benchmarks, CANADA

Dr. Hüseyin SERÇE, Selcuk University / TURKEY

Dr. Gökhan ÖZTÜRK, Anadolu University / TURKEY

Dr. Paul SEEDHOUSE, Newcastle University / UNITED KINGDOM

Dr. Cahit ERDEM, Afyon Kocatepe University / TURKEY

Dr. Vural TÜNKLER, Süleyman Demirel University / TURKEY

Dr. Hasan BOZGEYİKLİ, Selcuk University / TURKEY

Dr. Cihat ATAR, Sakarya University / TURKEY

Dr. Csaba Z SZABO, University of Nottingham / UNITED KINGDOM

Dr. Şahin DANIŞMAN, Düzce University / TURKEY

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Research title	Author(s)	Pages
<i>Examining the fourth grade Turkish textbook and classroom teachers' in-class practices in vocabulary teaching</i>	<i>Yasemin Boyacı-Altınay Hayati Akyol</i>	<i>1-23</i>
<i>Does primary students' writing ergonomics affect their handwriting legibility?</i>	<i>Nurhan Aktaş</i>	<i>24-38</i>
<i>An analysis of the studies on the effect of language transfer on teaching Turkish as a foreign language</i>	<i>Musa Kaya</i>	<i>39-54</i>
<i>Prospective teachers' metaphorical perceptions of "school, teacher, principal and superintendent"</i>	<i>Erkan Göktaş</i>	<i>55-70</i>
<i>The relationship between preschool teachers' perceptions of parental approach and levels of emotional labor</i>	<i>Münevver Şehitoğlu Mehmet Koçyiğit</i>	<i>71-91</i>
<i>How teacher leaders think about parents: A mixed methods approach</i>	<i>Özgür Bolat</i>	<i>92-109</i>

Language Teaching and Educational Research

e-ISSN 2636-8102

Volume 6, Issue 1 | 2023

Examining the Fourth Grade Turkish Textbook and Classroom Teachers' In-class Practices in Vocabulary Teaching

Yasemin Boyacı-Altınay
Hayati Akyol

To cite this article:

Boyacı-Altınay, Y., & Akyol, H. (2023). Examining the fourth grade Turkish textbook and classroom teachers' in-class practices in vocabulary teaching. *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1232299>

View the journal website



Submit your article to *LATER*



Contact editor



Copyright (c) 2023 *LATER* and the author(s). This is an open access article under CC BY-NC-ND license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>)

Research Article

Examining the fourth grade Turkish textbook and classroom teachers' in-class practices in vocabulary teaching

Yasemin Boyacı-Altınay* ✉ ORCID

Primary School Teacher, Ministry of National Education, TÜRKİYE

Hayati Akyol ✉ ORCID

Professor, Department of Basic Education, Faculty of Education, Gazi University, TÜRKİYE

Abstract

This study was conducted to identify the activities aimed at improving vocabulary included in the fourth grade Turkish course and textbook, the opinions of classroom teachers in this regard, the strategies, practices and activities they used for this purpose, and the time they spent on this in the teaching-learning process. The research was carried out as a case study, one of the qualitative research designs. In the data collection process of this study, an activity identification table was used for examining the Turkish textbook, a structured observation form was used for classroom observations, and a semi-structured interview form was used for interviews with the participants. Descriptive analysis and content analysis techniques were used for data analysis. As a result of the study, it was determined that the distribution of activities in the textbook, which is acknowledged as one of the important tools for supporting the development of vocabulary, varied depending on basic language skills. It was concluded that in the Turkish course teaching process, teachers included 14 different activities related to vocabulary instruction, using 19 different methods, techniques and strategies, in line with the textbook. The results obtained from the observations and interviews revealed that teachers did not have adequate knowledge about the methods, techniques and strategies that they used to improve vocabulary, and that therefore, they were unable to appropriately use the implementation steps required for the strategies.

Received
10 January 2023

Accepted
8 February 2023

Keywords
Vocabulary
Word
Vocabulary instruction
Teaching-learning
process

Suggested APA citation: Boyacı-Altınay, Y., & Akyol, H. (2023). Examining the fourth grade Turkish textbook and classroom teachers' in-class practices in vocabulary teaching. *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1232299>

Note(s) from the author(s)

- » *Corresponding author
- » This paper is part of the PhD thesis of the first author in this study.

Author(s)' statements on ethics and conflict of interest

Ethics statement: We hereby declare that research/publication ethics and citing principles have been considered in all the stages of the study.

We take full responsibility for the content of the paper in case of dispute.

Statement of interest: We have no conflict of interest to declare.

Funding: None

Acknowledgements: None

Introduction

Words, which are among the elements of vocabulary, show the feature of being parts of the whole that makes up the language. The fact that language is the most important tool that distinguishes humans from other living things, and the relationship of words with language as the most important building block of language has revealed the necessity of presenting a framework that starts with language conceptually. "What is language?" The question has been a question that scientists, thinkers and researchers have been trying to answer and explain for a long time.

Since the beginning of mankind, language has been the most important tool enabling communication between people. Aksan (2017) defines language as a system based on agreed-upon rules that provides agreement and communication among the individuals of a society and nation, symbolizing thoughts. For this reason, individuals' language usage skills reveal their ability to communicate with each other. The use of language as a means of communication between people means that language also plays a social role, and this indicates that language also has the task of establishing a relationship with the society it belongs to and with the culture of that society (Demirel, 2002). Yalçın (2005) states that language, which is one of the most effective communication tools, will facilitate education and teaching, which is the planned implementation of this education, by ensuring that the thoughts intended to be conveyed are conveyed as correctly as possible.

Although there is such an important relationship between language and thought, it can be said that the relationship between words and thought are also very important. Since words are one of the most important components of language. The more developed and adequate the elements that make up the language are, the more advanced the thoughts will be. Since it is not possible to think without words, vocabulary knowledge is of great importance. Otherwise, without words, it is impossible to express the thoughts passing through the mind. Although there are a number of different definitions of the term "word", Korkmaz (2003, p. 6) defines words as "concrete or abstract vocables consisting of one or more than one syllabic phoneme and separately corresponding to certain concepts in the mind, and language units that establish a relationship between these vocables", while Akyol (2005) defines the word as "the label of the thoughts and attitudes we wish to express".

It can be said that the more words a person acquires, the more he/she thinks and can express his/her thoughts orally or in writing. Therefore, the richness of a language is closely associated with the number of words it possesses for expressing the concepts in thoughts in the most detailed way. Although the number of words that children know according to their age differs depending on various sources, Akyol (2018) states that children who reach preschool age can use approximately 8,000 words.

Written and oral communication are carried out with words. However, it is important that individuals have sufficient vocabulary to express themselves. Akyol (2018) states that reading, reading comprehension and transforming what one understands into production are among the important skills that people expect from school in the education process, and that one of the most important elements that make up the content of reading is vocabulary and the development of this vocabulary. Although many definitions of vocabulary have been made, it is defined in the Merriam-Webster online dictionary (<https://www.merriam->

webster.com/dictionary/vocabulary) as “a sum or stock of words employed by a language, group, individual, or work or in a field of knowledge”. The richness of people’s vocabulary is an indication that they are able to use their speaking, reading, writing and listening skills in the most effective way. Göçer states that students who have an appropriate vocabulary for their age and grade level have a great advantage in developing their language skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing) for the learning domains of comprehension and expression, and in understanding basic grammar topics, concepts and rules (Göçer, 2009, p. 1027). A rich vocabulary is of great importance, not only for improving reading, listening, speaking and writing skills, but also for improving comprehension and expression skills.

It is possible to develop the basic language skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening by improving one’s vocabulary. However, one of the most frequently mentioned problems in education today is that vocabulary is insufficiently developed and that people try to lead their daily lives with a very limited number of words. The absence of a common practice in the methods, techniques and strategies implemented for teaching vocabulary in education results in both the use of a limited number of words and failure to permanently and actively use the words that are taught and learned. Akyol (1997) states that teaching words and developing vocabulary is not only a process which involves looking words up in the dictionary, learning their meaning and writing sentences, but is also a complex process in which words are associated with ideas. Moreover, students need various opportunities and a good education if they are to create their own individual vocabulary, acquire a deep vocabulary, and develop certain strategies that will help them learn vocabulary independently (Butler et al., 2010). For this reason, it can be said that the practices of classroom teachers in school and the methods and techniques they use occupy a very important place in the development of vocabulary. In addition, in the Turkish Course Curriculum (2019), emphasis is placed on teaching words and developing vocabulary, and explanations on the development of vocabulary are given under separate headings both for general goals and for learning outcomes at each grade level. However, the curriculum does not include the methods and techniques that are to be used for teaching words and developing vocabulary, or how these methods and techniques are to be implemented by teachers. Researchers who have conducted studies on vocabulary (Justice, Meier & Walpole, 2005) agree that vocabulary acquisition has a very complex structure. This complex structure consists of many components such as the breadth of vocabulary, the level of vocabulary that students have, which words are taught, and how the learned words are assessed. Therefore, the main concern here is to identify the methods and techniques that will make this complex structure meaningful (Butler et al., 2010). To provide students with a quality vocabulary, and to teach words, their meanings and the related concepts, educators should act in a planned way, and as part of this, necessary and adequate opportunities should be provided. For this reason, the problems that need to be understood in determining an effective vocabulary acquisition are the strategies, methods and techniques that will help students to develop their vocabulary in the educational environment, the tools that classroom teachers use, and whether the materials they have developed are available. Accordingly, the aim of this study is to identify the learning outcomes related to vocabulary in the fourth grade Turkish textbook, which plays an important role in developing students’ vocabulary. The study is focused on revealing the methods and techniques with which the identified outcomes are fostered in students by teachers, who are the most important practitioners in education. There are studies to identify the problems encountered in

gaining vocabulary in Türkiye and to determine the methods and techniques used. (Gül, 2009; Gür, 2014; Karadüz & Yıldırım, 2011; Tağa, 2018; Uluçay, 2016). However, it can be said that these studies are insufficient. With this research, it is aimed to determine the strategies, methods and techniques that can help students improve their vocabulary.

Therefore, our research problem has been determined as “What are the classroom practices of the fourth grade Turkish textbook and classroom teachers for teaching vocabulary?”

Within this scope, solutions were sought to the following sub-problems:

1. To what extent is vocabulary development included in the activities in the fourth grade Turkish textbook?

2. Which activities aimed at improving vocabulary do fourth grade teachers implement in Turkish lessons, and how (in the introduction, development or conclusion sections of the lesson) are they implemented?

3. How much time do fourth grade teachers devote to practices aimed at improving vocabulary in Turkish lessons?

4. Which methods, techniques and strategies aimed at improving vocabulary do fourth grade teachers use in Turkish lessons?

5. What are the opinions of fourth grade teachers about the activities aimed at improving vocabulary in Turkish lessons?

Methodology

Research design

The design of this research is a case study, which is one of the qualitative research types. Case studies are studies in which events and phenomena are examined in depth, based on a connected system formed by a certain individual, class or institution, generally under natural conditions and based on “how” and “why” questions (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). Yin (2014) evaluates case studies under four main headings: “the holistic single-case design”, “the embedded single-case design”, “the holistic multiple-case design”, and “the embedded multiple-case design”. Among these designs, the embedded single-case design is explained by Yıldırım and Şimşek (2018) as a type of design consisting of more than one subunit or layer in a single case. In this study, the case study design was used in the “embedded single case design” design, and the fourth grade Turkish textbook for vocabulary teaching and the classroom teachers' classroom practices were examined.

Determination of the case to be studied

In the study, a Ministry of National Education (MoNE) publication approved as a fourth grade Turkish textbook by the Board of Education and Discipline of the Ministry of National Education in the 2020-2021 academic year was examined. Activities aimed at the learning outcomes in the Turkish Course Curriculum (2019) were identified. This study includes observations and semi-structured interviews conducted with the participation of the researcher in order to identify the practices, strategies and activities that classroom teachers use in fourth grade Turkish lessons with the aim of developing vocabulary.

Study participants

Classroom teachers (11 participants) who taught fourth grade in an elementary school in the Selçuklu district of Konya province during the 2020-2021 academic year were included in the study (Table 1). Since there were 11 fourth grade teachers in the primary school where the research was conducted, 11 participants took part in the research. It was planned to select the teachers through convenience sampling, which is one of the purposive sampling methods. This sampling method adds speed and practicality to research, since with this method, the researcher determines a case that is nearby and easy to reach. This sampling method is generally used in cases where the researcher does not have the opportunity to use other sampling methods (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018, p.123). Reasons such as the fact that the researcher could easily reach the fourth grade teachers at the school where she was employed and could collect more detailed data from them were effective in the selection of the sample.

Table 1. Personal information of the teachers

Teachers	Gender	Education Status	Professional Experience	How Many Times to Read the Fourth Grade?
Participant 1	Female	University	21 years and above	4
Participant 2	Female	University	21 years and above	5
Participant 3	Female	University	16-20 years	5
Participant 4	Female	University	16-20 years	4
Participant 5	Female	University	16-20 years	3
Participant 6	Female	University	21 years and above	6
Participant 7	Female	University	6-10 years	2
Participant 8	Male	University	21 years and above	5
Participant 9	Male	University	21 years and above	4
Participant 10	Male	University	21 years and above	4
Participant 11	Male	University	21 years and above	4

Data collection tools

In case studies, it is generally recommended to use more than one data collection tool in order to increase validity and reliability and to access a variety of mutually supportive data. The most frequently used data collection techniques in case studies are interviews, observations and document analysis (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). In this study, three different data collection tools, namely document analysis, a semi-structured interview form and a structured observation form, were used to collect the data and associate them with the sub-problems.

Data collection process

This study includes practices for evaluating the fourth grade Turkish course in terms of vocabulary teaching. During the pilot implementations made before starting the study, it was observed that teachers generally taught Turkish lessons in line with textbooks. This observed situation revealed the necessity to determine the extent to which the activities in textbooks met the learning outcomes in the Turkish Course Curriculum (2019). In this context, in order to

determine which activities in Turkish textbooks were aimed at developing vocabulary, a MoNE publication approved as a fourth grade Turkish textbook by the Board of Education and Discipline of the Ministry of National Education in the 2020-2021 academic year, when the study was carried out, was chosen. In order to determine the extent to which the learning outcomes for vocabulary development in the Turkish Course Curriculum (2019) were included in the activities in the textbook, a textbook activity identification table was used. The textbook used as a data collection tool was examined within a certain system. For this purpose, first of all, the textbook activity identification table was created by the researcher. In the table, 8 themes in the textbook were tabulated separately. The table for each theme includes the name of the text, the number of activities, the activities aimed at vocabulary development, the type of these activities, and the learning outcomes related to vocabulary development.

In the study, a structured observation form was used as a data collection tool for classroom observations conducted to observe the strategies used for the development of vocabulary, which activities were implemented in the introduction, development and conclusion sections of the lesson and how they were implemented, and the time that was allocated for the development of vocabulary. The observation form was divided into three sections in order to identify the practices for vocabulary development in the introduction, development and conclusion sections of the lesson. It was decided to create categories and codes under these three sections. The main and sub-categories of the observation form and the codes within the sub-categories were created in line with the information obtained from the literature review for the evaluation of the teaching process related to vocabulary, the identification of the learning outcomes for vocabulary development in the Turkish Course Curriculum (2019), and the opinions of experts. Accordingly, it was decided to create the sub-categories and codes in the observation form under three main categories, namely "Introduction to the lesson", "Development of the lesson" and "Conclusion of the lesson".

The codes related to the teaching practices in the Introduction to the lesson were placed in the sub-category of "Words worth teaching", the codes related to the teaching practices in the Development of the lesson were placed in the subcategories of "Using strategies for teaching vocabulary" and "Utilizing technology for teaching vocabulary", and the codes related to the teaching practices in the Conclusion of the lesson were placed in the sub-categories of "Assessing vocabulary" and "Assigning homework". To test the reliability of the observation form, a pilot implementation consisting of 6 lesson periods was made in the fourth grade. The researcher filled in the observation form during the observations in the class she was observing, and the observations were recorded with a camera. Afterwards, the observation form was filled in by two observers who watched two periods of the camera-recorded Turkish lessons. In order to test the data reliability in this study, Miles and Huberman's (1994) formula for inter-rater agreement, which is $\text{Reliability} = (\text{Agreement}) / (\text{Agreement} + \text{Disagreement}) \times 100$ was used (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Based on the above formula, when the durations stated by the observers regarding the practices were examined, it was seen that the first observer specified the time allocated for the use of strategies related to vocabulary teaching as 22 minutes, while the second observer specified this as 20 minutes. Accordingly, the inter-rater reliability for a category was calculated as: $\text{Reliability} = 20.0 (\text{Agreement}) / [20.0 (\text{Agreement}) + 2.0 (\text{Disagreement})] \times 100 = 90.90\%$.

Based on the pilot implementations, in order to determine how much time was allocated in which minute of the lesson to practices related to vocabulary development during the teaching process of the Turkish lesson, it was decided to prepare the observation form in the form of a checklist by dividing the 40-minute lesson into five-minute sections.

In the study, a semi-structured interview form was created in order to obtain the fourth grade teachers' opinions about teaching vocabulary in Turkish lessons. In conducting the interviews, the aim was to reveal how well the teachers' ideas, opinions and conceptual knowledge corresponded with their classroom practices related to vocabulary in the teaching-learning process in Turkish lessons. Accordingly, open-ended questions were created by considering the categories and activities in the teaching process observation form related to vocabulary development, and when necessary, sub-questions were created to reveal the details of the responses depending on the flow of the interview. The semi-structured interview questions, prepared by the researcher in line with the observation form by considering the research problem and purpose, were first presented to three domain experts to elicit their views on language, expression and content. In line with the feedback from the experts, revisions were made to the form. To test the applicability of the semi-structured interview form, a pilot implementation was conducted with 2 teachers. Following the pilot implementation, the semi-structured interview form was given its final shape. The interviews, which were recorded with a voice recorder, were coded into participant forms prepared for each teacher by numbering the participants from 1 to 11. All of the interviews with the teachers were conducted by the researcher herself in the office of the school's deputy principal between 07/09/2020-22/01/2021, and took about 15-25 minutes with each teacher. All of the interviews were recorded.

Data analysis

Within the scope of the study, a descriptive analysis technique was used for the analysis of the data obtained from the document review, observations and semi-structured interviews aimed at the teaching process. Descriptive analysis is explained by Yıldırım and Şimşek (2018) as the summarization and interpretation of data obtained according to previously determined themes. In the analysis of the data obtained from the examination of the Turkish textbook, the activities aimed at improving vocabulary were analyzed by descriptive analysis according to the relevant learning outcomes and the methods and techniques used. By using the observation form for the analysis of the data obtained from the observations, the data obtained from the coded observation form and the data obtained from the interview forms were transcribed and made suitable for analysis. By comparing the data obtained from the coded observation and interview forms, the data in the same group were combined to form a meaningful whole. In this way, it was ensured that the themes comprising the basis of the research findings were found. In the analysis of the data regarding the teachers' thoughts about the activities aimed at developing vocabulary in Turkish lessons, the semi-structured interview forms, the notes taken by the researcher during the interviews, and the audio recordings were used. First of all, the responses given to the interview questions asked by the researcher were digitalized by listening to the audio recordings without making any changes. Then, the obtained data were subjected to descriptive analysis according to the categories determined on the basis of the interview questions. Furthermore, direct quotations to support the themes and sub-themes determined in the observation and interview forms were included.

Findings and Interpretation

An attempt has been made to explain the findings obtained from the observations, interviews and document analysis conducted within the scope of the study with the aim of evaluating the fourth grade Turkish course in terms of vocabulary teaching on the basis of the sub-problems of the study.

To what extent is vocabulary development included in the activities in the fourth grade Turkish textbook?

The activities aimed at enriching vocabulary and the related learning outcomes were identified by examining the 8 themes and the activities included in each theme in the fourth grade Turkish textbook (2019). Within this scope, the following table includes the themes in the fourth grade Turkish textbook, the total number of activities included in each theme, and the distribution of the number of activities and learning outcomes aimed at enriching vocabulary.

Table 2. Distribution of the number of activities and outcomes aimed at enriching vocabulary in the fourth grade Turkish textbook

Themes	Number of Activities <i>f</i>	Number of Activities Related to Vocabulary <i>f</i>	Percentage of Activities Related to Vocabulary (%)	Number of Learning Outcomes Related to Vocabulary <i>f</i>
1. Reading Culture	40	8	20.0	6
2. War of Independence and Atatürk	35	10	28.5	6
3. Virtues	37	14	37.8	6
4. Science and Technology	40	16	40.0	8
5. Nature and the Universe	45	14	31.1	7
6. Our National Culture	43	14	32.5	6
7. Health and Sport	41	15	36.5	7
8. Art	40	16	40.0	7
Total	321	107	33.3	53

When Table 2 is examined, it can be seen that there are different numbers of activities and learning outcomes belonging to each of the 8 themes. When we look at the number of activities aimed at enriching vocabulary among these activities and the number of related learning outcomes, it can be seen that the fewest activities and related outcomes are found in the first theme, while the most activities and outcomes are found in the fourth and eighth themes. When the total number of activities in the textbook is examined, it is observed that while there are 321 activities in the 8 themes, the number of activities aimed at enriching vocabulary totals 107.

Table 3. Distribution of activities aimed at enriching vocabulary in the fourth grade Turkish textbook in terms of learning outcomes

Outcomes Related to Vocabulary	Activities Used	f
T.4.1.2. The student can make predictions about the development and outcome of events when he/she listens / watches.	Gap-filling	1
T.4.2.1. The student can use words according to their meanings.	Using Words in Oral Expression	12
T.4.2.6. In his/her speech, the student can use the Turkish versions of words taken from foreign languages and not yet established in our language.	Using the Turkish Equivalent	1
	Using Words in Oral Expression	1
T.4.3.7. The student can find the antonyms of words.	Using Words According to their Semantic Features	3
T.4.3.8. The student can find the synonyms of words.	Using Words According to their Semantic Features	4
	Using Words in Sentences	2
T.4.3.9. The student can distinguish the meanings of homonyms.	Using Words According to their Semantic Features	1
	Using Words in Sentences	1
T.4.3.10. The student can determine the literal, figurative and phrasal meanings of words in the text he/she reads.	Using Words According to their Semantic Features	5
	Gap-filling	1
T.4.3.11. The student can grasp the contribution of idioms and proverbs to the meaning of the text.	Using Words According to their Semantic Features	8
	Using Words in Sentences	1
	Repetition	8
T.4.3.12. The student can guess the meanings of unfamiliar words and phrases by utilizing the context.	Guessing	32
	Using a Dictionary	32
a) Students are allowed to check the meanings of the words and phrases they have guessed by using dictionaries.	Keeping a Vocabulary Notebook	32
b) Students are allowed to create glossaries from the words and phrases they have just learned.		
T.4.3.22. The student can grasp the meanings of shapes, symbols and signs. Maps, and media signs and symbols are emphasized.	Forming a Mental Image	3
	Matching	3
T.4.3.35. The student can use information sources effectively. Information is given on how to use the table of contents in printed and digital contents and the dictionary section in order to access information,.	Using a Dictionary	1
T.4.4.1. The student can write poetry.	Memorizing/Writing Nursery Rhymes, Chansonnettes, Folk Songs, Lullabies	6
	Repetition	6
	Writing Study	14
T.4.4.8. In his/her writing, the student can use the Turkish versions of words taken from foreign languages and not yet established in our language.	Using the Turkish Equivalent	3
	Illustration	1
T.4.4.18. In his/her writing, the student can use conjunctions in accordance with the rules.	Working with Keywords	2
	Using Words in Sentences	2
T.4.4.19. In his/her writing, the student can use words with their literal, figurative and phrasal meanings.	Using Words in Sentences	36
	Using Words According to their Semantic Features	2
T.4.4.22. The student can write intensifying adjectives correctly.	Word Study	1

Examination of Table 3 reveals that the fourth grade Turkish textbook includes 16 different learning outcomes aimed at vocabulary enrichment. Based on the findings obtained by examining the fourth grade Turkish textbook, it was determined that there are a total of 107

activities aimed at enriching vocabulary. In the activities included in this context, it can be seen that in vocabulary teaching intended to improve vocabulary, the aim is mostly to carry out context-based teaching by utilizing the semantic features of words. Furthermore, it was also found that oral and written expression activities are included and that the use of words with literal, figurative and phrasal meanings is given great importance. Accordingly, it can be said that all of the learning outcomes for developing vocabulary in the Turkish Course Curriculum (2019) are included in the activities in the fourth grade Turkish textbook. In the interviews conducted with the fourth grade teachers, the majority of teachers were of the opinion that the learning outcomes related to vocabulary in the textbook were sufficient except for the outcomes aimed at written expression. However, the teachers concurred that the period of time allocated to activities in the textbook was not sufficient. This situation was clearly revealed in the findings regarding the time allocated to the teaching process in the classroom observations within the scope of the third sub-problem of the study. It was observed that teachers spent a short amount of time on activities aimed at developing vocabulary in the teaching process.

Which activities aimed at improving vocabulary do fourth grade teachers implement in Turkish lessons, and how (in the introduction, development or conclusion sections of the lesson) are they implemented?

In order to determine which activities aimed at improving vocabulary were implemented by the participants, and how they were implemented (in the introduction, development or conclusion sections of the lesson), the activities used were tabulated according to the section of the lesson in which they were conducted.

Table 4. Activities included in the introduction section of the lesson

	Teaching Process	Activities	Participants	
			Participant 2 <i>f</i>	Participant 1 <i>f</i>
Introduction Section of Lesson	Selection of Words Worth Teaching	Predicting Keywords	1	3
		Reading Aloud	3	4
		Using a Dictionary	1	-
		Repetition	2	4

When Table 4 is examined, it can be seen that the participants included four different activities aimed at improving vocabulary in the introduction section of the lesson, namely prediction of keywords, reading aloud, using a dictionary, and repetition, with the aim of determining words worth teaching. Most of these activities were carried out by the participants in line with the instructions given based on the texts in the textbook.

Table 5. Activities included in the development section of the lesson

	Teaching Process	Activities	Participants	
			Participant 2 <i>f</i>	Participant 1 <i>f</i>
Development Section of Lesson	Using Strategies for Teaching Vocabulary	Guessing	7	9
		Using a Dictionary	5	7
		Using Words in Sentences	4	7
		Vocabulary Study on Newly Learned Words	3	4
		Repetition	8	5
		Using Words According to their Semantic Features	3	4
		Keeping a Vocabulary Notebook	-	3
	Utilizing Technology for Teaching Vocabulary	Visual Interpretation and Forming a Mental Image	3	1
		Illustration	1	-
		Gap-filling	6	2
		Matching	2	-
		Writing Study	5	4
		Oral Expression	3	4
		Written Expression	2	1

Examination of Table 5 shows that the participants included fourteen different activities aimed at improving vocabulary in the development section of the lesson, namely guessing, using a dictionary, using words in sentences, keeping a vocabulary notebook, forming a mental image, matching, using words according to their semantic features, illustration, repetition, word study, gap-filling, writing study, oral expression and written expression, with the aim of using strategies and utilizing technology for teaching vocabulary. As in the introduction part of the lesson, it was observed that the participants conducted most of the activities within the framework of the activities in the textbook. The activities included by the participants in the concluding part of the lesson with the aim of improving vocabulary in Turkish lessons are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Activities included in the conclusion section of the lesson

	Teaching Process	Activities	Participants	
			Participant 2 <i>f</i>	Participant 1 <i>f</i>
Conclusion Section of Lesson	Assessing Vocabulary	Repetition	1	2
		Matching	4	-
		Gap-filling	3	2
	Assigning Homework	Utilizing the Semantic Features of Words	5	3
		Oral Expression	1	-
		Written Expression	1	1

When Table 6 is examined, it is observed that for the development of vocabulary, the participants included activities such as oral expression, written expression, repetition, matching, gap-filling and using words according to their semantic features in the concluding part of the

lesson, with the aim of assessing vocabulary and assigning homework. Although it was not observed that the participants used any assessment scale for the assessment of vocabulary, it was observed that they mostly included assessment within the scope of activities that required the correct use of newly encountered words based on the texts in the textbook.

How much time do fourth grade teachers devote to practices aimed at improving vocabulary in Turkish lessons??

Below are detailed tables and descriptions regarding the selection of words worth teaching, using strategies for teaching vocabulary, utilizing technology for teaching vocabulary, the assessing vocabulary, assigning homework, and activities that do not include vocabulary teaching. Below are the results including the distribution of the participants’ practices aimed at improving vocabulary according to the time they spent teaching them:

Table 7. Distribution of participants’ practices related to vocabulary development in Turkish lessons according to time spent teaching them

Practices	Participants				Mean	
	Participant 2		Participant 1		min.	%
	min.	%	min.	%		
Selection of Words Worth Teaching	54	5.62	72	7.50	126	6.56
Using Strategies for Teaching Vocabulary	332	34.58	280	29.17	612	31.875
Utilizing Technology for Teaching Vocabulary	126	13.13	102	10.62	228	11.875
Assessing Vocabulary	28	2.92	64	6.67	92	4.79
Assigning Homework	55	5.73	22	2.29	77	4.01
Activities that do not Include Vocabulary Teaching	365	38.02	420	43.75	785	40.885
TOTAL	960	100	960	100	1920	100

When Table 7 is examined, it can be seen that the total observation period was determined as 1,920 minutes, while the part that included practices not aimed at improving vocabulary was determined as 785 minutes. The most time spent on practices that were not intended to improve vocabulary was spent in Participant 1’s class (420 minutes). In Participant 2’s class, however, 365 minutes were spent on practices that were not aimed at developing vocabulary. During the total observed teaching period (1,920 minutes), it was observed that in the part of the period that included activities for improving vocabulary, the most time was allocated to using strategies for vocabulary teaching (612 minutes) and to utilizing technology for vocabulary teaching (228 minutes) in the development part of the lesson. A total of 126 minutes was devoted to the selection of words worth teaching, which was included in the

introduction part of the lesson and included practices for determining the words that would be taught to the students. In the concluding part of the lesson, 92 minutes were devoted to practices aimed at the assessment of vocabulary, in which it was assessed whether the students had learned the newly encountered words and in which the practices for determining vocabulary development were indicated. It was observed that the least amount of time during the total teaching process was allocated to homework assignment activities (77 minutes) which included homework given for vocabulary development at the end of the lesson and practices related to checking homework.

Which methods, techniques and strategies aimed at improving vocabulary do fourth grade teachers use in Turkish lessons?

The strategies used by the participants to improve vocabulary in the Turkish lesson teaching process are shown in Table 7. The strategies most used by the participants are included according to their frequency of use.

Table 8. Strategies used by the participants to improve vocabulary in the Turkish lesson teaching process

Strategies Used	Participants	
	Participant 2 <i>f</i>	Participant 1 <i>f</i>
Direct Vocabulary Teaching	9	11
Referring to Context	12	15
Oral/Written Expression by Selecting from the Word and Concept Pool	4	2
Word Games/Word Puzzles	3	-
Note-taking	4	5
Think-Pair-Share	6	-
Question-Answer	26	34
Repetition of the Word at Certain Intervals	10	14
Drawing Attention to Target Words	5	9
Utilizing Preliminary Knowledge	2	4
Associating with Daily Life	4	7
Exemplifying	4	7
Brainstorming	2	5
Oral Story Completion	1	-
Matching Words with Visuals	2	-
Reading Aloud	5	7
Keeping a Vocabulary Notebook	-	5
Using a Dictionary	6	7
Guessing	8	12

Examination of Table 8 reveals that the participants used 19 different strategies aimed at improving vocabulary in Turkish lessons during the observed teaching period. While some of the strategies used (keeping a vocabulary notebook, guessing, using a dictionary, reading aloud, and matching words with images) are included within the scope of activities related to the textbook in the introduction, development and conclusion sections of the lesson, they are also discussed under this heading in order to determine the frequency of inclusion of strategies

frequently used by the participants. The participants’ practices aimed at the specified strategies emerged when there were instructions related to them in the textbook. Therefore, all the participants included these strategies on an activity basis. The participants included these strategies in the activities they used in the introduction, development and conclusion sections of the lesson. In the interviews conducted with the teachers, they stated that in addition to the strategies they used the most, such as guessing, using a dictionary, and oral and written expression, they also included strategies such as brainstorming, drama, word pool, word puzzles and word games, and this shows parallelism with the findings obtained from the classroom observations.

What are the opinions of fourth grade teachers about the activities aimed at improving vocabulary in Turkish lessons?

To find an answer to the last sub-problem of the research, interviews were conducted with the participants after the observations. The participants were asked various questions about vocabulary teaching during the Turkish course teaching process. In this context, the findings obtained as a result of the interviews with the participants are explained thematically in the form of tables.

Table 9. Findings on questions asked to determine the most effective methods used by the participants and the time allocated

Category	Theme	Codes (Teachers' Statements)
Methods Used for Vocabulary and Time Allocated	Importance of developing vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading comprehension • Expressing ideas • Academic achievement • Developing active and passive vocabulary
	Methods, techniques and strategies used	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guessing • Reading aloud • Using a Dictionary • Oral and written expression • Word games • Word puzzles • Drama • Creating oral and written stories • Matching
	The most effective strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Associating with daily life • Guessing • Using a dictionary • Using contextual clues • Brainstorming • Oral and written expression • Word wall
	Number of repetitions of newly encountered words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2-3 times (per week) • 3-4 times (per week)
	Methods used to ensure retention of learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oral expression • Repetition • Keeping a vocabulary notebook • Utilizing visuals • Games

Time allocated	1-2 hours per week
----------------	--------------------

Table 9 contains information about the methods used by the participants for vocabulary development and the time they allocated for these methods. Accordingly, all of the interviewed participants expressed opinions about the importance and necessity of developing vocabulary. As for the reasons why it is necessary to develop vocabulary, the participants stated that the achievement of students in all subjects is related to the vocabulary they have acquired. All of the participants stated that they included guessing, using a dictionary, and oral and written expression activities for the development of vocabulary. Stating that he used the oral expression method, Participant 1 said, "...I attach great importance to students' oral expression. While giving an oral presentation, students generally use short and unclear sentences. When pronouncing words, they do not express them fully. I have them repeat the words that they incompletely express. I pay close attention to pronunciation...". Participant 8 explained the methods, techniques and strategies he used with these words: "...in order to improve their vocabulary, I primarily have them read lots of books. We work with keywords. We work on guessing the meanings of unknown words. Then we work on finding them in the dictionary....".

Participant 5 stated that he allocated at least 2 hours out of 8 hours a week to practices aimed at vocabulary development in Turkish lessons, but that he always made sure he associated it with other subjects, and stated that learning and teaching vocabulary are too important to be limited only to Turkish lessons. Stating that he devoted at least 2 lesson periods a week to practices aimed at improving students' vocabulary, Participant 3 said, "...if there are too many words that they encounter for the first time in the text we are reading, we definitely allocate 1 lesson period for this, and sometimes even 2 lesson periods a week, but if the words they encounter are not very unfamiliar to them, I can say that 1 lesson period is enough...". When the responses given to the question are evaluated in general, all of the participants stated that they allotted at least 1-2 lesson periods a week for practices aimed at improving vocabulary in line with the texts and the activities related to the texts. Furthermore, the participants stated that practices related to vocabulary were not limited only to the Turkish course, and that they sometimes included new words learned in other lessons.

Table 10. Findings on the evaluation of the Turkish textbook used in class in terms of vocabulary

Category	Theme	Codes (Teachers' Statements)
Evaluation of Textbook in Terms of Vocabulary	Adequacy of inclusion of learning outcomes in the activities in the textbook	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adequate apart from activities for written expression • Insufficient time allocated for activities • Limited inclusion of visuals in activities
	Suitability of texts for improving vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Excessive number of unknown words • Long and boring texts • Inverted sentences • Majority of words not used in daily life • Difficulty in finding meaning by using context • Words encountered in one text not encountered in other texts. • Positive view regarding suitability of texts • Texts make it possible to encounter different words
	Effect of activities on improving vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inadequate time allotted to activities • Limited number of gaps in written expression activities

- Loss of interest due to repetitive activities
- Insufficient activities including keywords associated with texts
- Activities ensure retention of learning
- Association with daily life
- Positive view regarding contribution of activities to development of vocabulary

Table 10 includes information about the evaluation of the Turkish textbook by the participants. When we look at the statements of all the participants regarding the evaluation of the Turkish textbook, it can be seen that the learning outcomes aimed at vocabulary development in the Turkish Course Curriculum (2019) are adequately included in the textbook. However, the participants agreed that the current duration of the lessons was insufficient in terms of the applicability of the curriculum. Participant 7 summed up this situation as follows: "...actually, there are activities in the textbook for all learning outcomes, but how much can we foster the competencies that need to be fostered with only the activities in the book?... We only keep to the activities in the book, but since the words learned are not included in the next text or theme that we move on to, they are forgotten...". Participants agreed that the learning outcomes related to vocabulary in the textbooks were sufficient apart from the written expression outcomes. For example, with the statement that "...[The texts are] appropriate, very appropriate. They are also suitable for teaching the word concept. They are appropriate for the lives of children, and when we look at them in terms of culture, they are also suitable for the culture of the region... It is just that some texts are too long, and so we find it difficult to draw the students' attention...", Participant 11 expressed the view that the texts were appropriate in terms of vocabulary development but that they were too long.

Table 11. Findings on determining how the participants chose the words they deemed it necessary to teach

Category	Theme	Codes (Teachers' Statements)
Determination of Words Worth Teaching	How words are chosen	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Underlining unknown words in text • Unknown words encountered in activities • New words encountered in books read other than texts • New words encountered in daily life • Academic words
	Number of words taught	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5-6 words per week • 6-7 words per week • 7-8 words per week • Number of words changes weekly
	Utilizing a word list	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No creation of a list of words that can be used

Table 11 includes information on how the participants chose the words worth teaching, the number of words they taught, and whether they utilized a word list. Accordingly, it was observed that participants had different views about determining the words worth teaching. Participant 9 reported that the words worth teaching were determined completely by the

students during the processing of the texts. In this respect, he stated that he asked the students the words whose meanings they did not know while reading the texts, and that he taught the words that the students specified. Participant 9 reported that the students specified the words as follows: "...we definitely ask the child. If the student does not know the meaning of a word, he/she must learn it. That is to say, we ask the student all the words whose meaning is unknown in the text. If they do not know, we try to teach them by focusing on those words and concepts. In other words, rather than the teacher, what matters here is whether the student knows the words in the text. If even one single student does not know a word, that word should definitely be learned...". Although the number of words that the participants taught each day/week differed from each other, all participants reported that they processed one text each week and taught at least 3-4 words based on the text given in the textbook. However, the majority of the participants stated that they did not keep to the words given in the textbook and that they included all the words appearing in the text and activities that the students did not know. When the responses given by the participants are evaluated in general, it can be understood that they mostly carried out vocabulary teaching in line with the words encountered in the texts and activities included in the textbook. Furthermore, it can be seen that they also included the teaching of words that they encountered in books they had read other than the textbook, or in daily life. However, there was no word list that the participants regularly created and used while teaching vocabulary.

Table 12. Findings on determining how the vocabulary acquired by the students was assessed

Category	Theme	Codes (Teachers' Statements)
Assessing Vocabulary	How vocabulary is assessed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oral expression • Written expression • Daily conversations
	What type of assessments are made	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Written expression • Oral expression • End-of-theme assessments • Inclusion in daily conversations • In-class observation
	How often assessments are made	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 8 times per year with end-of-theme assessments • 4-5 times during the year with written exams

Information about how the participants assessed vocabulary, what kind of assessments they made and how many times they made assessments can be seen in Table 12. Accordingly, it was observed that the participants mostly assessed children's vocabulary during written and oral expression activities at the beginning of the academic year. Stating that they assessed students' vocabulary according to whether they used words appropriately or not by having the students do oral and written expression exercises, Participant 7 said, "...First of all, I make an oral and written pre-assessment. How and with which words does the student express him/herself, and how does he/she write them down?... I try to determine it in this way", while Participant 2 put it like this: "...I mostly look at expression skills. That is, can he/she express him/herself while speaking or describing an event?... Then I look at his/her writing skills.... Can he/she use words

properly and in accordance with their meanings in his/her sentences? I pay attention to these, but I mostly make an assessment based on their oral expressions by examining their speaking skills...”.

Although the participants reported that they did not use an assessment tool to assess whether words had been learned or not, they were of the opinion that students learn new words depending on the degree to which they can associate them with different subjects and include them in their daily conversations. Based on this, it can be said that when students included words they had learned in their active vocabulary, they reflected them both in their written expressions and in their conversations, so that teachers were also able to make assessments in this way.

Table 13. Findings on determining how teachers utilized technology for the development of vocabulary

Category	Theme	Codes (Teachers' Statements)
Utilizing Technology	Importance of using technology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocabulary development • Chance to offer fun and interesting activities • Providing convenience and variety • Saving time • Increasing retention of learning through visual and auditory activities • Inhibiting creative thinking
	Types of technology used	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Computer • Internet • Projector • Smartboard • Web 2.0 tools
	Types of activities for which technology is utilized	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Word puzzles • Matching • Finding images of words • Synonyms • Antonyms • E-dictionaries • Gap-filling • Listening to stories and fairy tales • Watching animated films and cartoons
	Software programs used	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • EBA • Eğitimhane • Vitamin • Okulistik • Morpa Kampüs

In Table 13, information about the importance of using technology in Turkish lessons for the development of vocabulary, the types of technology used, the types of activities for which teachers used technology, and the software programs they used can be seen. Stating that it is important to use technology in Turkish lessons and that it enables permanent learning especially in vocabulary teaching, Participant 5 said, “...I think that if technology is used consciously, it is certainly effective in the development of children’s vocabulary”, while Participant 7 was of the opinion that “...Of course, technology has an impact on lessons, just as it has on everything else. It is also very important for Turkish lessons... Especially in vocabulary learning, students at least

have the opportunity to see the visuals associated with a particular word visually. I think this also increases retention of learning”. When the participants’ statements are evaluated in general, they were of the opinion that technology is indispensable nowadays, and that therefore, it is effective when consciously included in the development of vocabulary in Turkish lessons. However, although the participants thought that technology is important for the development of vocabulary, they emphasized that vocabulary can develop the most when children are given the opportunity to express what they have learned through oral and written expression. Moreover, they stated that thanks to technology, they could offer children fun and interesting activities related to vocabulary, but that none of them were as effective as reading books. Participants reported that they generally preferred software programs used for improving vocabulary in the sense that they provided convenience and variety in the preparation of activities. Participants specified the programs they utilized. For example, Participant 3 said, “...EBA is my favorite program, but in the 4th grade, ‘Vitamin’ is very successful. Apart from these, I use ‘Morpa Kampüs’. Sometimes, I also use ‘Okulistik’...”. All participants stated that they utilized software programs in the preparation of different activities aimed at improving vocabulary. Moreover, when the responses given by the participants are evaluated in general, it can be seen that they mostly preferred programs such as “EBA”, “Okulistik”, “Vitamin”, “Morpa Kampüs”, and “Eğitimhane”.

Conclusion and Discussion

In this study, which was conducted to identify the activities used for the development of vocabulary in the fourth grade Turkish lessons and textbook, the opinions of classroom teachers in this regard, the strategies, practices and activities they used for this, and the time they spent on this in the teaching-learning process, it was determined that in the textbook, there were 16 different learning outcomes for the development of vocabulary. It was revealed that there were 107 activities related to the 16 different outcomes.

In this context, activities related to guessing the meanings of words, using words in sentences and using a dictionary were mostly included. Apart from these, it was revealed that activities requiring the use of literal, figurative and phrasal meanings of words, and repetition and sentence use activities requiring the use of idioms and proverbs by utilizing the semantic features of words were included more than other activities.

In the study conducted by Maden (2020), it was determined that activities for guessing, using words in sentences and utilizing the semantic features of words were the most frequently used activities in all elementary school textbooks from first grade to fourth grade. Although textbooks are one of the important tools supporting the development of vocabulary, it is expected that the words intended to be taught to students will be placed in themes and texts within a certain plan according to grade levels. However, it can be seen that the number of words required to be taught in both the Turkish Course Curriculum (2019) and the textbooks is not systematically included. Yet the learning outcomes aimed at vocabulary development, the framework of which have been determined with the Turkish Course Curriculum (2019), are concretized through textbooks.

At the same time, although the numbers of activities and learning outcomes in each theme are different from each other, 107 out of the 321 activities included in the 8 themes are aimed at improving vocabulary. It was also seen in the results of the studies conducted by

Karadüz and Yıldırım (2011), Yağcı, Katrancı, Erdoğan and Uygun (2012) and Uğur (2014) that guessing, using a dictionary, using words in sentences, utilizing the semantic features of words, and written and oral expression activities, which are the activities mostly included in the Turkish textbook, were the methods most frequently used by classroom teachers in the teaching process. These results reveal that in Turkish textbooks, activities that teachers have knowledge of and that can be used in the classroom are preferred.

In the classroom observations, it was concluded that in the introduction part of the lesson, the participants included four different activities aimed at determining words worth teaching, namely prediction of keywords, reading aloud, using a dictionary, and repetition. All of these activities, which were included for determining words worth teaching, were carried out within the scope of the fourth grade vocabulary learning outcomes in the Turkish Course Curriculum (2019) and the textbook activities. In the related literature, it is stated that in addition to teaching words, determining the words to be taught is very important for the development of vocabulary (Nagy & Hiebert, 2011; Tağa, 2018). However, there are no instructions or explanations regarding how to determine the words to be taught in either the current curriculum or the textbooks in use.

Other than the activities in the textbook, the choice of words to be taught depends entirely on the experience and preference of the teacher. Although determining the words to be taught with a planned approach for the development of vocabulary is an issue that needs to be emphasized, neither the lists of words to be taught nor the path that teachers should follow in word selection are specified in the current curriculum.

The importance of including newly learned words in different activities in order to improve vocabulary has also been revealed in studies. It was concluded that in the teaching process conducted within the scope of text-based activities, the inclusion of activities such as using words in sentences, using a dictionary, utilizing the semantic features of words, making use of visuals, illustration and repetition had a positive effect on vocabulary development (Akyol, 2001; Alenezi, 2014; Göçer, 2009; Lundmark, 2009; Stahl & Nagy, 2006; Wright, 2011). Çetinkaya (2011) stated in his study that the inclusion of word repetition activities had a significant effect on vocabulary development.

In the observed teaching process, it was determined that participants mostly used the strategies of referring to the context, repetition, question-answer and drawing attention to the target words. While teaching unknown words during the processing of texts and activities related to the texts, the participants included all of the determined strategies in line with the textbook. As a result of the study, it was concluded that the strategy of teaching unknown words by using contextual clues by reading texts aloud was frequently utilized by the participants while teaching words appearing in the text that were unfamiliar to the students besides the keywords in the textbook. The related literature emphasizes the effect of teaching words in context on the retention of learned words by using different methods, techniques and strategies for vocabulary teaching, and stresses the importance of developing children's vocabulary (Akyol, 2018; Alenezi, 2014; Baumann, Kame'enui & Ash, 2003; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2010; Coyne, McCoach, Loftus, Zipoli & Kapp, 2009; Dilidüzgün, 2014; Goodson, Wolf, Bell, Turner & Finney, 2010; Yıldız, 2019).

In line with the interviews conducted to determine classroom teachers' views about the activities aimed at improving vocabulary in Turkish lessons, the participants were of the opinion

that vocabulary development has a significant impact not only on students' reading comprehension skills and ability to express their ideas correctly, but also on their academic achievement. In the study by Karadüz and Yıldırım (2011), in which they sought the opinions of teachers on vocabulary development, teachers stated that the development of vocabulary is necessary for school achievement due to the development of basic language skills such as reading, writing and speaking. This situation is similar to the results obtained from the findings of the current study. However, when the findings obtained from the observations and interviews were evaluated in the study, it was revealed that the teachers did not have adequate knowledge about the methods, techniques and strategies they used for improving vocabulary, and that therefore, they did not use the implementation steps required by the strategies appropriately. Yağcı, Katrancı, Erdoğan and Uygun (2012) concluded in their study that classroom teachers mostly learned the methods, techniques and strategies they used while teaching vocabulary through their own efforts, which reveals the reason for this situation. In their study, Berne and Blachowics (2008) similarly concluded that teachers did not have enough information about the methods, techniques and strategies they would use, and that therefore, they had no idea about which one was more effective, a fact that can be considered as one of the reasons for the results obtained in the present study.

In conclusion, when the observation and interview findings regarding the fourth grade Turkish lesson teaching process are evaluated, it can be seen that the teachers' ideas on vocabulary development mostly overlapped with their practices in the classroom environment. Although it was observed that teachers used various teaching strategies in the classroom environment aimed at improving vocabulary, it was determined that teachers could not fully carry out the implementation steps required by the strategies. It can be said that the reason for this is that teachers did not have adequate knowledge about the methods, techniques and strategies used for improving vocabulary. At the same time, it can be seen that due to reasons such as concerns about keeping up with the subjects in the curriculum and the insufficient duration of lessons, teachers carried out all of their practices related to vocabulary within the scope of the texts and text-related activities in the textbook. However, although the texts and activities in the textbooks were guides for the teachers, we cannot say that they were completely adequate for developing vocabulary, because although the teaching activities carried out only in line with the textbook formed the basis for developing vocabulary, it was impossible to include all the required words. For this reason, the necessity of teaching words that students encounter in good quality books that they have read, as well as teaching words not in the text through writing, listening and oral expression activities emerges as a result of the study.

Suggestions

In line with the results obtained in the study, the proposed suggestions for the development of vocabulary in fourth grade elementary students are as follows:

- Turkish lessons can be planned in such a way as to provide rich language experiences that students can participate in actively.
- For vocabulary to be developed in a planned way on a scientific basis, lists of words that need to be taught at each grade level can be determined and included in textbooks with examples of activities in which the determined words can be practiced.

- By informing teachers about the teaching methods, techniques and strategies for the development of vocabulary demonstrated by the research findings, these methods can be included in their practices in the teaching process.

Experimental studies in which the teaching-learning environment is observed, and which are aimed at revealing the effectiveness of the methods, techniques and strategies used for vocabulary development, can be conducted especially at elementary school level in Türkiye.

References

- Akyol, H. (1997). Kelime öğretimi, *Millî Eğitim*, (134), 46-47. [Vocabulary teaching]
- Akyol, H. (2001). Dil bilgisi ve imlâ. L. Küçükahmet (Ed.), *Konu alanı ders kitabı inceleme kılavuzu* (s.15-17). Ankara: Nobel. [Grammar and spelling][Subject area textbook review guide]
- Akyol, H. (2018). *Türkçe ilk okuma yazma öğretimi*. Ankara: Pegem A. [Turkish primary reading and writing teaching]
- Alenezi, H. (2014). *Vocabulary instruction practices of highly effective kindergarten teachers*. Doctor of Philosophy, Kuwait University.
- Baumann, J. F., Kame'enui, E. J., & Ash, G. E. (2003). Research on vocabulary instruction: Voltaire redux. In J. Flood, D. Lapp, J. R. Squire, & J. M. Jensen (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching the english language arts* (pp. 752-785). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Berne, J. I., & Blachowicz, C. L. Z. (2008). What reading teachers say about vocabulary instruction: Voices from the classroom. *The Reading Teacher*, 62(4), 314-323.
- Blachowicz, C. L. Z., & Fisher, P. (2010). *Teaching vocabulary in all classrooms* (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Butler S., Urrutia K., Buenger A., Gonzalez N., Hunt M., & Eisenhart C. (2010). *A review of the current research on vocabulary instruction*. Portsmouth, NH: National Reading Technical Assistance Center, RMC Research.
- Coyne, M. D., McCoach, D., Loftus, S., Zipoli, J., & Kapp, S. (2009). Direct vocabulary instruction in kindergarten: Teaching for breadth versus depth. *Elementary School Journal*, 110(1), 1-18.
- Çetinkaya, Ç. (2011). *İlköğretim 4. ve 5. sınıf öğrencilerinin kelime kullanım sıklıkları üzerine bir araştırma*. Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi. Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara. [A research on the frequency of word usage of primary school 4th and 5th grade students. Unpublished PhD Thesis]
- Demirel, Ö. (2002). *Türkçe ve sınıf öğretmenleri için Türkçe öğretimi. (3. Baskı)*. Ankara. [Turkish teaching for Turkish and classroom teachers (3rd edition)]
- Dilidüzgün, Ş. (2014). Türkçe öğretiminde sözcük öğretme yöntemlerinin yeterliliği. *Adıyaman Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 7(17), 233-258. <https://doi.org/10.14520/adyusbd.771>. [Adequacy of vocabulary teaching methods in Turkish teaching]
- Goodson, B., Wolf, A., Bell, S., Turner, H., & Finney, P. B. (2010). *The effectiveness of a program to accelerate vocabulary development in kindergarten (VOCAB)*: Kindergarten final evaluation report. NCEE 2010-4014. National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance.
- Göçer, A. (2009). Türkçe eğitiminde öğrencilerin söz varlığını geliştirme etkinlikleri ve sözlük kullanımı. (Sözlük Özel Sayısı), 4(4), 1025-1055. [Vocabulary development activities and dictionary use of students in Turkish education]
- Justice, L. M., Meier, J., & Walpole, S. (2005). Learning new words from story books: An efficacy study with at-risk kindergartners. *Language, Speech and Hearing Services in Schools*, 36(1), 17-32.
- Karadüz, A., & Yıldırım İ. (2011). Kelime hazinesinin geliştirilmesinde öğretmenlerin görüş ve uygulamaları. *Gaziantep Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 10(2), 961-984. [Opinions and practices of teachers in the development of vocabulary]

- Korkmaz, Z. (2003). *Türkiye Türkçesi grameri (şekil bilgisi)*. Ankara: Türk Dil Kurumu. [Türkiye Turkish grammar (shape information)]
- Lundmark, C. (2009). *A study of learning styles, teaching styles and vocabulary teaching strategies in Chinese primary school*. D-essay in English Didactics, Jie Fu Kristianstad University College, The School of Teacher Education, English IV.
- Maden A. (2020). İlkokul Türkçe ders kitaplarının söz varlığını zenginleştirme açısından incelenmesi. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler dergisi*, 19(76), 1631-1650. DOI:10.17755/esosder.711074. [Examination of primary school Turkish textbooks in terms of enriching the vocabulary]
- MEB. (2019). *Türkçe dersi öğretim programı (ilkokul ve ortaokul 1-8. sınıflar)*. Ankara. [Turkish lesson curriculum (primary and secondary school grades 1-8)]
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *An expanded sourcebook qualitative data analysis*. Thousand Oaks, California.
- Nagy, W. E., & Hiebert, E. H. (2011). Toward a theory of word selection. M. L. Kamil, P. D. Pearson, E. B. Moje, and P. P. Aflerbach (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research, Volume IV*. (pp. 388-404). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Stahl, S. A., & Nagy, W. E. (2006). *Teaching word meanings*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Tağa, T. (2018). *Yazma etkinlikleriyle bütünleştirilmiş kelime öğretiminin kelime öğrenme, hatırlama ve farkındalığına etkisi*. Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi. Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara. [The effect of vocabulary teaching integrated with writing activities on vocabulary learning, recall and awareness. Unpublished PhD Thesis]
- TDK (2019). *Türkçe sözlük*. Ankara: Türk Dil Kurumu. [Turkish dictionary]
- Uğur, F. (2014). *Türkçe öğretmenlerinin kelime öğretim yöntem ve tekniklerini kullanma düzeyleri üzerine bir araştırma (Afyonkarahisar ili örneği)*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi. Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Afyonkarahisar. [A study on the level of Turkish teachers' use of vocabulary teaching methods and techniques (Afyonkarahisar province example). Unpublished Master Thesis]
- Wright, T. S. (2011). *What classroom observations reveal about oral vocabulary instruction in kindergarten*. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Michigan. Retrieved from <https://www.proquest.com/pagepdf/873360189?accountid=16935>
- Yağcı, E., Katrancı, M., Erdoğan, Ö., & Uygun, M. (2012). Sınıf öğretmenlerinin kelime öğretiminde karşılaştıkları sorunlar ve kullandıkları yöntem-teknikler. *Uluslararası Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 2(4). [Problems faced by classroom teachers in teaching vocabulary and the methods-techniques they use]
- Yalçın, S. K. (2005). *İlköğretim 1. ve 5. sınıf ders kitaplarındaki söz varlığı unsurlarının eğitsel açıdan değerlendirilmesi*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi. Fırat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Elazığ. [Educational evaluation of vocabulary elements in primary school 1st and 5th grade textbooks. Unpublished Master Thesis]
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2018). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin. [Qualitative research methods in the social sciences]
- Yıldız, M. (2019). Kelime hazinesi ve anlama becerilerinin geliştirilmesi. H. Akyol ve A. Şahin (Ed.) *Türkçe öğretimi. Öğretmen adayları ve öğretmenler için* (s. 129-181) Ankara: PegemA. [Developing vocabulary and comprehension skills][Turkish teaching. For teacher candidates and teachers]
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and Methods*. (5th edition). Los Angeles: Sage.

Language Teaching and Educational Research

e-ISSN 2636-8102

Volume 6, Issue 1 | 2023

Does Primary Students' Writing Ergonomics Affect Their Handwriting Legibility?

Nurhan Aktaş

To cite this article:

Aktaş, N. (2023). Does primary students' writing ergonomics affect their handwriting legibility? *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 24-38. <https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1286665>

[View the journal website](#)



[Submit your article to LATER](#)



[Contact editor](#)



Copyright (c) 2023 *LATER* and the author(s). This is an open access article under CC BY-NC-ND license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>)

Research Article

Does primary students' writing ergonomics affect their handwriting legibility?

Nurhan Aktaş  ORCID

Assist. Prof. Dr., Selcuk University, Faculty of Education, Konya, TÜRKİYE

Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the effect of primary school students' writing ergonomics on their handwriting legibility. Data was collected with the convenience sampling method in this study, conducted with the survey model as one of the quantitative research methods. The study sample consisted of 450 primary school students studying in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th grades of public schools in the city centre of Konya, Türkiye. The "Writing Process Observation Form" was used to determine the preferences of the students for writing ergonomics. In order to determine the handwriting legibility of the students, they were given a dictation activity, upon which their writings were analysed according to the "Multidimensional Legibility Scale". The t-test and ANOVA were used for analysing the data collected in the present study, as a result of which the handwriting legibility of female students turned out to be better than that of male students, and besides that, a statistical significance was found in terms of the grade level variable. As a conclusion, first and fourth grade students appeared to write more legibly than third grade students, and the right-handed students were found to write more legibly than the left-handed ones. However, the writing ergonomics of the students (i.e., notebook/paper positions, pencil gripping styles and pencil gripping point) seemed to have no significant impact on the legibility of the writing.

Received
23 April 2023

Accepted
27 May 2023

Keywords

writing ergonomics
legibility
primary school students
survey model

Suggested APA citation: Aktaş, N. (2023). Does primary students' writing ergonomics affect their handwriting legibility? *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 24-38. <https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1286665>

Note(s)

¹This study is the revised version of the paper "Do students' ergonomics preferences affect writing legibility?" presented by the researcher as an oral presentation at the 9th International Eurasian Educational Research Congress (Online), on 22-25 June 2022, İzmir, Türkiye.

²The ethics committee approval was obtained from Selcuk University with a document number of E.164980 on 28/10/2021.

Author(s)' statements on ethics and conflict of interest

Ethics statement: I hereby declare that research/publication ethics and citing principles have been considered in all the stages of the study. I take full responsibility for the content of the paper in case of dispute.

Statement of interest: I have no conflict of interest to declare.

Author contribution disclosure: Single author

Funding: None

Acknowledgements: None

Introduction

Writing is one of the basic language skills aimed to be instilled in students in primary school. It can be defined as being able to process of transferring our feelings and thoughts in our minds to paper or writing them through a mental process with the help of shapes and symbols (Güneş, 2014; Mailand, 2009). The writing skill, which is achieved by teaching certain language rules in a planned time, is the last language skill acquired. The writing skill, which takes time and effort to acquire, is the skill that students have the most difficulty with (Çamurcu, 2011). The reason for such a challenge of writing is that it requires competent use of many skills concurrently, which indeed influence one another directly or indirectly, and can be considered and developed separately. As a matter of fact, during the class studies, such as copying from the board into the notebook, writing the answers in a book or a piece of paper while doing homework and writing stories (Barnett et al., 2018; Rosenblum & Gafni-Lachter, 2015), students need to incorporate these skills in the writing process.

In addition to writing the content correctly, punctuation marks, correct spelling of words, grammar, connection between paragraphs and text editing are also important in writing skills (Kellogg, 2008). Legibility, which is related to the stylistic features of the writing, is one of the issues that should be emphasized in terms of being easy to read. In the first years of primary school, more focus is placed on the legibility aspect of writing to enable the development of the shape and size of the letters. The quality of the text is also associated with legibility. As a matter of fact, the text is not legible prevents the reader from understanding the content correctly. Legibility means that one's gaze should not be locked on the writing due to form-related issues (Atasoy, 2018, p. 220). Legibility, which includes features such as the shape, size, inclination of letters, as well as spacing between letters and line tracking, is an essential element of the writing teaching process that needs to be developed along with written expression (Tok & Erdoğan, 2017). Apart from the six dimensions of legibility, factors such as slope, spacing, size, format, and line tracking are the very criteria considered in the evaluation of a legible text. In the assessment process, the fact that the letters are not written in accordance with the rules, positioned without paying attention to the line spacing, incomplete closure of the letter folds and inaccurate ups and downs can all be regarded as the factors affecting the legibility (Duran, 2009). The cases when students do not follow the rules mentioned, nor notice when they make a mistake without being checked by the teacher so that they can correct them, and when they are not given necessary feedback, may lead them to let their mistakes become a habit. Especially in the first grade of primary school, students are taught to write in accordance with the rules of writing, legibly and at an appropriate speed. For this reason, despite legibility being an important criterion in the development of writing skills (Akyol, 2011), it is indeed a critical issue that should be emphasized at every grade level. By the time children reach the age of 10, handwriting usually becomes an automatic, organized tool that will enable them to easily generate ideas (Julius et al., 2016). In order to achieve this, it is necessary that their writing is readable by others.

The relevant literature review has revealed that there are a number of studies conducted on the legibility of students' handwriting at the first grade (Aktaş & Bakkaloğlu, 2021; Gök & Baş, 2020; Okatan & Özer, 2020; Ulu, 2019) as well as those conducted with students at other grade levels (Fogel, Rosenblum & Barnett, 2022; Ghorbani et al., 2020; Schweltnus et al., 2012; Yıldız & Ateş, 2010). Besides being a factor affecting the writing skill, legibility in and of itself is also affected by some factors. It is believed that some behaviour described as the writing

ergonomics is highly likely to influence the legibility of writing. It is, therefore, necessary to teach ergonomics in the process of making students gain the necessary writing skills. The factors expressed as ergonomics of writing consist of some elements that can be listed as follows: the suitability of the writing desk and seat for the student, the surface of the writing desk, and the type of lines of the sheet of paper or notebook, paper quality, pens, posture, paper position, and pencil holding style (Taylor, 2006). In the writing process, the first attention to be paid should be on hand preference. The hand a student prefers to write with affects the pencil gripping style and notebook position. Most students write with their right hand, whereas left hand is less preferred. It is also known that approximately 10% of the population is left-handed when writing (Somers et al., 2015). Another factor that affects writing is the way of holding a pencil. The correct pencil gripping is important for the fine motor movements used to form letters in the writing process. With the generally accepted style for the ease of writing called the tripod grip (Akyol, 2011), the student grasps the pencil with the index and thumb fingers and supports it with the middle finger. The pencil grip point, in other words, the distance with the pencil is another aspect to be taken into account. The pencil gripping point should neither be too far, nor too close; 1.5-2 cm is considered sufficient (Başaran & Akyol, 2019). For left-handed students, this distance should be adjusted to see the pen tip. Another variable of the writing process is the paper/notebook position, which naturally changes according to hand preference. In this sense, right-handed students should hold the paper inclined to the right, while left-handed students should hold it slanted to the left. Research shows that teachers are models for students based on these elements in the process of teaching how to write, and that they are supposed to teach by motivating students (Graham et al., 2008; Yıldırım & Ateş, 2010).

In the relevant literature on writing ergonomics, there are studies conducted with a single grade level (Aksu & Can, 2018; Başaran & Akyol, 2019; Schweltnus, et al., 2012; Temur, 2011; Temur et al., 2011;), as well as those conducted with students at different grade levels (Yıldız et al., 2015). Some studies have examined the effect of some ergonomic factors (pencil gripping point, sitting posture, and paper position) on students' writing speed and errors (Temur et al., 2011; Temur et al., 2012), and some others (Dennis & Swinth, 2001; Schweltnus et al., 2012, 2013; Shah & Gladson, 2015) have focused on the effect of only the pencil gripping style on handwriting legibility and writing speed. The studies in which most of the ergonomic factors were discussed (Aksu & Can, 2018; Başaran & Akyol, 2019; Yıldız et al., 2015) descriptively analysed the preferences of the students for writing ergonomics. Such studies have mostly aimed to determine the extent of students' drawbacks in relation to a range of variables (pencil gripping, notebook position, sitting posture, etc.). As an example, Başaran and Akyol (2019) examined the extent to which primary school fourth grade students do movements that are not suitable for typing ergonomics during writing. In this the study, it was observed that the students made mistakes related to the pen grip. Generally speaking, studies in the literature that include ergonomic factors are intended to be descriptive. This study discusses the effect of ergonomic factors preferred while writing on legibility at all grade levels in primary school. From this standpoint, the aim of the present study is to examine the effect of primary school students' writing ergonomics (hand preference, pencil gripping style, pencil gripping point, paper/notebook position) on writing legibility. In line with this main purpose, the research questions are given below:

1. Does the students' handwriting legibility differ significantly by gender?

2. Does the students' handwriting legibility differ significantly by grade level?
3. Does the students' handwriting legibility differ significantly by hand preference?
4. Does the students' handwriting legibility differ significantly by notebook position?
5. Does the students' handwriting legibility differ significantly by pencil gripping style?
6. Does the students' handwriting legibility differ significantly by the pencil gripping point?

Methodology

Research design

This study examined the effect of primary school students' preferences for writing ergonomics (hand preference, pencil gripping position, pencil gripping point, paper/notebook position) on writing legibility, through the use of a survey, from among the quantitative research methods. Studies aiming to collect data in order to find out the determined characteristics of a specific group are called survey (Büyüköztürk et al., 2018). Survey studies generally focus on how the opinions and reactions of the study sample are distributed rather than the reasons of such opinions and reactions (Fraenkel et al., 2011).

Study sample

The study sample of this study consisted of 450 (1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th grade) primary school students studying in two different public schools in the city centre of Konya, by employing the convenience sampling method in order to reach the participants easily and quickly. With this sampling method, researchers choose an easy-to-reach and practical sample (Glesne, 2015). For this reason, the researcher tried to have access to a certain number of students (at least 80) at each grade level. Table 1 presents the data on the distribution of the study sample by grade levels and genders.

Table 1. Distribution of the study sample by grade level and gender

Grade \ Gender	Female		Male		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
1 st grade	64	50.8	62	49.2	126	28
2 nd grade	43	51.9	40	48.1	83	18.4
3 rd grade	57	47.9	62	52.1	119	26.4
4 th grade	57	46.8	65	53.2	122	27.1
Total	221	49.1	229	50.8	450	100

As shown in Table 1, the study sample comprised a total of 450 students from 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th grades at primary school. Approximately 51% of these students were male and 49% were female students.

Data collection tools

Multidimensional legibility scale

The scale used to evaluate the legibility of writing was developed by Yıldız and Ateş (2010). The scale consisted of three categories as “completely sufficient (3)”, “moderately sufficient (2)”

and “not sufficient (1)”. The criteria for legibility in the scale were set as slope, spacing, size, format and line tracking. In this direction, the students’ vertical basic writings were handled separately for each sub-dimension in the study. The lowest score that can be obtained from this scale is 5 and the highest score is 15. The writings of the students according to the total score they got from the scale; It is evaluated as legible (11.8-15), moderately legible (8.4-11.7) and not legible (5- 8.3).

Writing process observation form

The “Writing Process Observation Form” developed by Yıldız and Öztürk (2013) was used to determine the students’ preferences for the writing ergonomics. The reason why this data collection tool was preferred is that it has a useful structure that facilitates the determination of writing ergonomics such as holding a pencil, bodily posture and notebook positions. The form consists of two pages, the first of which present personal information and the student’s preferred postures and movements, hand preference, non-writing hand position, bodily posture and notebook position. The second page of the form consists of options related to pencil gripping style and pencil gripping point, and a blank space where the researcher can write about the observation process.

Dictation texts

The primary school students were given dictation exercises in order to determine the legibility of their handwriting and to observe their ergonomic preferences in the writing process. A different text was selected for each grade level and dictation was made under the guidance of the classroom teachers. The texts used in the study included: “*Parents Started School*” for the students in Grade 1, “*Little Penguin*” for those in Grades 2 and 3, and “*Joking Elephant*” for those in Grade 4. In order to evaluate the suitability of the texts for the grade levels, the opinions of the classroom teachers and academicians working in the field of Turkish teaching were consulted. As a result of the expert opinion, 3 of the 6 texts were found appropriate on the whole and one of them was found appropriate for two grade levels.

Data collection process

Data was collected from two different public schools in the city centre of Konya in the fall semester of the 2021/22 academic year. After the necessary permissions were obtained from the schools, the classroom teachers were interviewed and informed about the content of the study. The teachers were informed that they should not interfere with the students’ writing process. The researcher attended the classrooms with the classroom teacher. While the classroom teachers had the students do dictation, the researcher took photos of the students and recorded their ergonomic preferences in the writing process observation form. Following that, the dictation work of the students were collected and matched with the student observation forms. The application took approximately 1 lesson hour in each class.

Data analysis

The handwriting legibility of the students were analyzed according to the “Multidimensional Legibility Scale”. Legibility criteria were scored as 3-2-1 according to the presence of the text. Normality test was performed in order to examine the conformity of the

data to the normal distribution. The kurtosis and skewness values are used as an indicator of the normal distribution. Table 2 shows the normality values of the students' legibility scores:

Table 2. Normality values for handwriting legibility scores

Variables	n	Lowest	Highest	X	Sd	Skewness	Kurtosis
Legibility	450	1	3	2.18	.69	-.263	-.914

The fact that the skewness and kurtosis values are between +2 and -2 can be interpreted as a normal distribution of the data (George & Mallery, 2020, pp. 114-115.) Examination of Table 2 reveals that skewness and kurtosis values for legibility scores range between between -2 and +2 values. This shows that the data are in accordance with the normal distribution. The t-test was used to determine whether students' handwriting legibility changed according to gender and hand preference. In addition, the ANOVA test was conducted to determine whether the handwriting legibility changed according to grade level, notebook/paper position, pencil gripping style and pencil gripping point. The data were analysed using the SPSS 15.0 statistical package program. The level of significance in the questions related to the research was set to .05.

Findings

Based on the research questions, this section presents the descriptive findings related to the independent variables of grade level, gender, hand preference, notebook/paper position, pencil gripping position, and pencil gripping point, as well as ANOVA results of handwriting legibility. In the first sub-problem of the study, the t-test was conducted to determine whether the legibility of primary school students differed according to gender. The t-test results are given in Table 3.

Table 3. T-test results on the effect of gender on writing legibility

Legibility	N	X	Sd	t	df	p
Male	229	10.3	2.39	-3.49	448	.00*
Female	221	11.0	2.31			

*p<.05

As seen in Table 3, there is a statistical significance on the part of female students ($t(448) = -3.49$; $p = .00$), considering the handwriting legibility scores between female students and male students. Thus, it can be concluded that female students participating in the present study wrote more legibly than their male peers.

In the second sub-problem of the study focused on whether the handwriting legibility of primary school students differed according to the grade level. Table 4 shows the descriptive findings regarding the distribution of the students' handwriting legibility scores by grade level.

Table 4. The sample size, arithmetic mean and standard deviation values regarding the distribution of students' handwriting legibility scores by grade level

Grade Level	N	X	Sd
1 st Grade	126	11.1270	2.520
2 nd Grade	83	10.2892	2.303
3 rd Grade	119	10.0672	2.563
4 th Grade	122	11.1230	1.918
Total	450	10.6911	2.385

The handwriting legibility scores of the students as shown in Table 4 indicate that the 1st grade students had highest average score of 11.127, followed by 4th grade students (11.123), 2nd grade students (10.289) and 3rd grade students (10.067), respectively.

Table 5 shows the ANOVA results regarding the differentiation of the handwriting legibility scores of the students in this study according to the grade level.

Table 5. ANOVA results on the variation in students' handwriting legibility scores by grade level

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	p	Source of difference
Inter-groups	106.418	3	35.473			1-3
Intra-groups	2449.646	446	5.492	6.458	.000	4-3
Total	2556.064	449				

*p<.05

Examination of the values included Table 5, the students' handwriting legibility scores show a significant difference in terms of grade level ($F=6.458$; $p<0.05$). According to the Tukey's multiple comparison test, conducted to determine between which groups the difference occurred, the first grade students' handwriting legibility ($X=11.127$) is significantly better than that of the third graders ($X=10.067$). In addition, it appears that the legibility scores of the fourth grade students ($X=11.123$) are also significantly higher than those of the third grade students. It is clear that as the students' grade level changes, their handwriting legibility also changes. However, there is no regular increase or decrease depending on the grade level.

In the third sub-problem of the study, the t-test was conducted to determine whether the students' handwriting legibility differed significantly according to their hand preference. Table 6 below provides the relevant t-test results.

Table 6. The t-test results on the effect of students' hand preference on their handwriting legibility

Legibility	N	X	Sd	t	df	p
Right hand	404	10.77	2.35	2.28	448	.023*
Left hand	46	9.93	2.52			

*p<.05

Table 6 shows that there is a statistically significant difference ($t(448)=2.28$; $p=.02$) between right-handed students and left-handed students, indicating that right-handed students

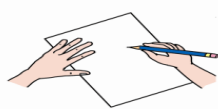
are more likely to have better legibility. It can also be seen that the students in the present study use their right hand for writing more than their left ones. It can be concluded that right-handed students write more legibly than left-handed students.

In the fourth sub-problem of the study focused on whether the writing legibility of primary school students differed according to the notebook/paper position. Table 7 demonstrates the descriptive findings regarding the distribution of the students' handwriting legibility score according to the notebook/paper position.

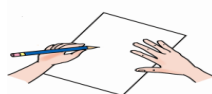
Table 7. The sample size, arithmetic mean and standard deviation values regarding the distribution of students' handwriting legibility scores by notebook/paper position

Notebook/paper positions	N	X	Sd
Position 1	146	10.9589	2.060
Position 2	5	10.6000	2.190
Position 3	290	10.5655	2.541
Position 4	9	10.4444	2.185
Total	450	10.6911	2.385

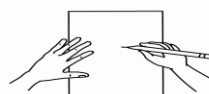
According to Table 7, although the notebook/paper positions that students prefer while writing differed, the average of the handwriting legibility score was very close to each other.



Position 1



Position 2



Position 3



Position 4

Table 8 shows the ANOVA results regarding the variation in the handwriting legibility scores of the students participating in this study according to the notebook/paper position.

Table 8. ANOVA results on the variation in students' handwriting legibility scores according to notebook/paper positions

Source of Variance	Sum of squares	sd	Mean squares	F	p
Inter-groups	15.634	3	5.211	.915	.434
Intra-groups	2540.431	446	5.696		
Total	2556.064	449			

As shown in Table 8, the notebook/paper positions that the students prefer while writing do not pose a significant difference ($F=.915$; $p>0.05$) in terms of handwriting legibility scores. It can be concluded that the change of the notebook/paper positions of the students while writing does not affect their handwriting legibility.

The fifth sub-problem of the study examined whether the handwriting legibility of primary school students showed a significant difference according to the way they were holding

the pencil. Table 9 below gives the data on the descriptive findings regarding the distribution of the students' handwriting legibility score according to the pencil gripping style.

Table 9. The sample size, arithmetic mean and standard deviation values regarding the distribution of students' handwriting legibility scores according to pencil gripping positions

Pencil holding positions	N	X	Sd
Position 1 *	130	10.7538	2.382
Position 2	135	10.4296	2.329
Position 3	38	10.3158	2.417
Position 4	29	11.1724	2.391
Position 5	73	10.7534	2.425
Position 6	10	12.1000	2.330
Position 7	35	10.9429	2.448
Total	450	10.6911	2.385

* Correct grip position

Table 9 provides the handwriting legibility scores of the students according to different pencil holding positions; and it is seen that their averages are close to each other.



Table 10 shows the ANOVA results regarding the variation of the handwriting legibility scores of the students participating in the research according to the pencil gripping positions.

Table 10. ANOVA results regarding the variation in students' handwriting legibility scores according to pencil gripping positions

Source of Variance	Sum of squares	sd	Mean squares	F	P
Inter-groups	44.164	6	7.361	1.298	.257
Intra-groups	2511.900	443	5.670		
Total	2556.064	449			

As is seen in Table 10, the pencil gripping positions preferred by the students while writing did not show a significant difference ($F=,1,298$; $p>0.05$) in terms of handwriting legibility scores. It can be asserted that the students' holding the pen correctly or incorrectly while writing does not affect the legibility of the writing, so no significant relationship exists between pencil holding/gripping position and handwriting legibility.

The sixth sub-problem of the study focused on whether the handwriting legibility of primary school students showed a significant difference according to the pencil gripping point. Table 11 presents the descriptive findings regarding the distribution of students' handwriting legibility scores according to the pencil gripping point.

Table 11. The sample size, arithmetic mean and standard deviation values regarding the distribution of students' handwriting legibility scores according to the pencil gripping point

Distance with the pencil	N	X	Sd
Appropriate distance	175	10.7943	2.464
Close distance	258	10.6550	2.302
Long distance	17	10.1765	2.855
Total	450	10.6911	2.385

Table 11 shows that more than half of the students (258) seem to be holding the pen close to the tip while writing. Although the pencil gripping point may be different, it is clear that the students' average scores for the handwriting legibility are close to each other. The given table also demonstrates that more than half of the students' average legibility scores are close to each other.



Proper distance



Close distance



Long distance

Table 12 gives the ANOVA results regarding the variation of the handwriting legibility scores of the students participating in the research according to the pencil gripping point.

Table 12. ANOVA results regarding the variation in students' handwriting legibility scores according to the pencil gripping point

Source of variance	Sum of squares	sd	Mean squares	F	p
Inter-groups	6.701	2	3.351	.587	.556
Intra-groups	2549.363	447	5.703		
Total	2556.064	449			

As shown in Table 12, the pencil gripping point while writing did not make a significant difference ($F=.587$; $p>0.05$) in terms of handwriting legibility scores. It can be suggested that the students' holding the pen at a long distance, close or appropriate distance while writing does not affect the legibility of the text.

Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

In the research, firstly, it was examined whether the handwriting legibility of writing differed by gender. In this framework, it was concluded that the handwriting legibility scores of female students were higher than those of male students. In other words, the female students' handwriting turned out to be more legible than that of male students. The relevant literature review has shown that there are studies (Aktaş & Bakkaloğlu, 2021; Cordeiro et al., 2018; Demiroğlu Memiş, 2018; Gök & Baş, 2020; Graham et al., 2001; Vlachos & Bonoti, 2006) supporting the research findings of the present study. Gök and Baş (2020) examined the handwriting legibility of primary school students, concluding that female students scored higher

than male students in many dimensions of legibility as well as in overall score. Similarly, Aktaş and Bakkaloğlu (2021) examined the handwriting legibility and writing errors of students who learned to read and write during the pandemic period and reported that female students were able to write more legibly than male students. However, research also shows that gender differences do not affect the legibility of writing (Ghorbani et al., 2020; Schweltnus et al., 2012; 2013). As an example, Ghorbani et al. (2020) examined the writings of primary school students in terms of legibility and speed, and as a result of the research, they concluded that the gender variable did not make a difference in handwriting legibility and writing speed, a result contrasting with that of the present study.

The second sub-problem of the study focused on whether the handwriting legibility changed according to the grade level. According to the results obtained, it appeared that the 1st grade students achieved the highest writing legibility score, while the 3rd grade students received the lowest score. As a result of the analysis conducted on revealing on which grade levels handwriting legibility made a difference, it was evident that the handwriting legibility of the first grade students was significantly better than that of the third graders. In addition, the legibility scores of the fourth grade students were also significantly higher than those of the third grade students, signifying that the students' handwriting legibility was likely to change in line with the grade level. However, there was no regular increase or decrease depending on the grade level. In this context, Graham et al., (1998) likewise concluded that the relationship between grade level and legibility was not linear. Tok and Erdoğan (2017) also examined the handwriting legibility of primary school students, stating that legibility did not improve according to the grade level. On the other hand, Kusdemir et al. (2018) reported that as the grade level increased, the handwriting legibility of the students decreased, and that the second grade students' handwriting proved more legible than that of the fourth grade students.

According to another result of the present study, the hand preference of the students affected their handwriting legibility, and 10% of the students participating in the study used their left hand and 90% used their right hand while writing. This ratio of hand preference is similar to other studies found in the relevant literature (Schweltnus et al., 2012; Somers et al., 2015). In the current study, the right-handed students proved to have developed a more legible handwriting than that by the left-handed students. This result of the study differs from what was reported by Özer and Bağcı (2018), who examined the handwriting legibility of the students from 2nd to 7th grade according to various variables, concluding that the handwriting legibility of the students did not differ significantly according to the hand used, but that the left-handed students' handwriting was more legible. In a study conducted by Graham et al. (1998), in which 900 students from first grade to ninth grade were examined in terms of writing legibility and writing speed, the authors stated that hand preference had no effect on handwriting legibility. This difference in the results of the research may be due to the fact that the writing skill is unique to each student in addition to the existence of differences in the study samples.

The fourth sub-problem of the research aimed to examine the impact of the students' notebook/paper positions on their handwriting legibility. In this study, more than half of the students seemed to hold the paper in a perpendicular position to their body, followed by the right-handed students who held it in the appropriate position. Similarly, Yıldız et al. (2015) examined the ergonomics preferences of primary school students, concluding that nearly half of them held the paper in an upright position and nearly half in a horizontal position to the right.

Temur et al., (2011) also reported similar results regarding paper holding positions in their study conducted with first-year primary school students.

According to the results, although the notebook/paper positions that the students preferred while writing differed, it was seen that the average score of their handwriting legibility was very close to one other with no statistically significant difference. In another study, Özer and Bağcı (2018) concluded that the legibility scores of the students changed according to the way they held the paper, and the students who held the paper inclined and horizontal had higher legibility scores compared to those holding the paper upright. This result differs from those of the present study.

The fifth sub-problem examined the effect of the students' pencil gripping positions on the legibility of writing. It appeared that the pencil holding positions preferred by the students while writing did not show a significant difference in terms of handwriting legibility scores. In other words, it can be asserted that students' holding the pen correctly or incorrectly while writing does not affect the legibility of the writing. The literature review points to a number of studies supporting the results of the present study (Dennis & Swinth, 2001; Donica, et al., 2018; Koziattek & Powell, 2003; Schweltnus et al. 2013; Shah & Gladson, 2015). Moreover, Donica, Massengill, and Gooden (2018) examined the relationship between first and second grade students' pencil gripping and handwriting legibility, reporting that the students' pencil holding styles did not have a significant effect on their legibility scores. Koziattek and Powell (2003) studied on the influence of pencil gripping styles on speed and legibility in children's cursive handwriting skills and concluded that pencil gripping styles did not have a significant effect on speed and legibility. Similarly, Dennis and Swinth (2001) reported that the way of holding the pencil did not have a significant effect on legibility in both short and long writing tasks.

Finally, the effect of the pencil gripping point on the legibility of the writing was examined in the study, and it turned out that more than half of the students were holding the pencil close to the tip while writing, followed by those students holding the pencil at the appropriate distance as the second majority group. Yıldız et al. (2015) stated that three-quarters of the students were in the habit of holding the pencil close to the tip. On the contrary, the study conducted by Temur et al., (2011) concluded that two-thirds of the students kept the pencil at an appropriate distance, while a few of them tended to hold the pencil close to the tip. The authors also reported that the average scores for the handwriting legibility of the students were close to each other, although the pencil gripping point was different. It was observed that the pencil gripping point while writing did not make a significant difference in terms of students' handwriting legibility scores. It can, therefore, be suggested that the students' holding the pencil at a long distance, at a close distance or at an appropriate distance while writing does not affect the handwriting legibility.

Generally speaking, the results of the study revealed that the writing ergonomics preferred by the students have no impact on their handwriting legibility. In this respect, it can be asserted that the preferred writing ergonomics do not make a significant difference regarding the quality of writing, a situation that necessitates reconsidering teaching ergonomic skills or their importance. Ergonomics should be deemed important not because they will contribute to the academic performance of students, but because they enable students to feel more comfortable and less tired in the writing process, and to not develop a negative posture. Thus, providing

students with the right ergonomic behaviours should continue to be on the agenda of teachers as a requirement of pedagogy.

In line with the results obtained, the following suggestions can be made to shed light on future studies: The effects of students' preferences for the writing ergonomics on different variables such as writing attitude, motivation or the effect on writing performance, as well as written expression skills can be further investigated. By conducting qualitative studies, more detailed information can be explored about the wrong ergonomics preferences of students. Future studies can be conducted in terms of the effects of correct and incorrect writing ergonomics on attention and concentration skills, and on the use of muscle strength in the writing process. Considering that preschool is the period of preparation for literacy, further research can be done on the writing ergonomics in preschool. In the relevant literature, many studies have been carried out in an effort to determine the current situation regarding the ergonomics preferences of students. In this connection, future studies may focus on the knowledge level of classroom teachers on writing ergonomics.

References

- Aktaş, N., & Bakkaloğlu, S. (2021). How well do first grade students, learning to read and write by distance education during the pandemic period, write? *International Journal of Modern Education Studies*, 5(2), 418-444 <http://dx.doi.org/10.51383/ijonmes.2021.140>
- Aksu, D., & Can, A. A. (2018). İlkokul 1. sınıf öğrencilerinin el tercihleri oturmuş ve defter pozisyonu ile kalem tutuşlarının belirlenmesi. *Sakarya University Journal of Education*, 8(1), 26-39.[Description of primary education 1st grade students' hand preference sitting and paper position pencil grasp]
- Akyol, H. (2011). *Türkçe ilk okuma ve yazma öğretimi*. PegemA Yayıncılık. [Turkish primary reading and writing teaching]
- Atasoy, A. (2018). İlk yazma öğretimi: Temel ve bitişik el yazısı. In Bilginer Onan & Mustafa Onur Kan (Eds). *İlk okuma yazma ve Türkçe öğretimi*. Nobel Yayıncılık. [Primary literacy and Turkish teaching]
- Barnett, A. L., Prunty, M., & Rosenblum, S. (2018). Development of the handwriting legibility scale (HLS): A preliminary examination of reliability and validity. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*, 72, 240-247. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ridd.2017.11.013>
- Başaran, M., & Akyol, H. (2019). Dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin kalem tutuşlarının ergonomik unsurlar açısından incelenmesi. *Okuma Yazma Eğitimi Araştırmaları*, 7(1), 1-14. [An investigation on fourth grade students' writing for ergonomic elements]
- Büyüköztürk, Ş., Çakmak, E. K., Akgün, Ö. E., Karadeniz, Ş. & Demirel, F. (2018). *Eğitimde bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri*. Pegem Yayıncılık. [Scientific research methods in education]
- Çamurcu, D. (2011). Yüksek öğrenime yeni başlayan Türkçe eğitimi bölümü öğrencilerinin yazma becerilerinin incelenmesi. *Türkiyat Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 29, 503-518. [Investigating the writing skills of freshman Turkish language teaching students]
- Demiroğlu Memiş, A. (2018). Examination of legibility and writing speeds of primary school students with respect to writing disposition and writing style. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 6(5), 1050-1059. <http://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2018.060526>
- Dennis, J. L., & Swinth, Y. (2001). Pencil grasp and children's handwriting legibility during different length writing tasks. *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 55, 171- 183.
- Duran, E. (2009). *Bitişik eğik yazı öğretimi çalışmalarının çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelenmesi* (Yayımlanmamış doktora tezi). Gazi Üniversitesi. [Examining the cursive writing teaching skills of first grade students in respect of several variables]

- Donica, D. K., Massengill, M., & Gooden, M. J. (2018). A quantitative study on the relationship between grasp and handwriting legibility: does grasp really matter? *Journal of Occupational Therapy, Schools, & Early Intervention, 11*(4), 411-425.
- Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2011). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. McGraw-Hill.
- Fogel, Y., Rosenblum, S., & Barnett, A. L. (2022). Handwriting legibility across different writing tasks in school-aged children. *Hong Kong Journal of Occupational Therapy, 35* (1), 44-51.
- George, D., & Mallery, P. (2020). *IBM SPSS statistics 26 step by step – a simple guide and referance*. Routledge.
- Ghorbani, S., Yadolahzadeh, A., Shakki, M., & Noohpisheh, Sh. (2020). Association between Second to Fourth Digit Ratio with Handwriting Quality and Speed among Elementary School Children. *Int J Pediatr; 8*(9),12053-12060. <https://doi.org/10.22038/ijp.2020.47498.3854>.
- Glesne, C. (2015). *Becoming Qualitative Researchers: An Introduction* (5.bs.). Pearson Education
- Gök, B., & Baş, Ö. (2020). İlkokul 1. sınıf öğrencilerinin dik temel yazılarının okunaklılığı üzerine bir inceleme. *Ana Dili Eğitimi Dergisi, 8*(2), 572-585. [Investigating the Legibility of Primary School 1st Grade Students' Manuscript Writing]
- Graham, S., Weintraub, N. & Berninger, V. (2001). which manuscript letters do primary grade children write legibly? *Journal of Educational Psychology, 93* (3), 488-497 <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.93.3.488>
- Graham, S., Weintraub, N., Berninger, V.W., & Schafer, W. (1998). Development of handwriting speed and legibility in grades 1-9. *The Journal of Educational Research, 92* (1), 42-51.
- Graham, S., Harris, K.R., & Mason, L. (2008). How do primary grade teachers teach handwriting? A national survey. *Reading and Writing, 21*, 49-69.
- Güneş, F. (2014). *Türkçe öğretimi yaklaşımlar ve modeller* (3. baskı). Pegem Akademi. [Turkish teaching approaches and models]
- Julius, M. S., Meir, R., Shechter-Nissim, Z., & Adi-Japha, E. (2016). Children's ability to learn a motor skill is related to handwriting and reading proficiency. *Learning and Individual Differences, 51*, 265-272. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.08.034>
- Kellogg, R. T. (2008). Training writing skills: A cognitive developmental perspective. *Journal of Writing Research, 1*(1), 1-26. <https://doi.org/0.17239/jowr-2008.1.01.1>
- Koziatsek, S. M., & Powell, N. J. (2003). Pencil grips, legibility, and speed of fourth-graders' writing in cursive. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 57*, 284-288.
- Kuşdemir, Y., Katrancı, M. & Arslan, F. (2018). Analysis of the primary school students' legibility. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences, 10*(3), 116-132.
- Mailand, R. B. (2009). Writing strategies in the primary grades (Unpublished Masters Thesis). Pacific Lutheran University, USA
- Okatan, Ö. & Arslan Özer, D. (2020). İlkokul birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin yazma becerilerinin betimlenmesi. *Ana Dili Eğitim Dergisi, 8*(3), 720-731. [Describing the Writing Skills of the First Grade Elementary School Students]
- Özer, D. A., & Bağcı, H. (2018). İlköğretim öğrencilerinin (2-7. Sınıf) yazı okunaklılığı. *Uluslararası Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi, 11*(1), 121-132. [Elementary school students' (2-7. Grade) handwriting]
- Rosenblum, S., & Gafni-Lachter, L. (2015). Handwriting proficiency screening questionnaire for children (HPSQ-C): development, reliability, and validity. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 69* (3). <http://dx.doi.org/10.5014/ajot.2015.014761>
- Schweltnus, H., Carnahan, H., Kushki, A., Polatajko, H., Missiuna, C., & Chau, T. (2012). Effect of Pencil Grasp on the Speed and Legibility of Handwriting in Children. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 66*(6) 718-726. <https://doi.org/10.5014/ajot.2012.004515>

- Schwellnus, H., Carnahan H., Kushki A, Polatajko H, Missiuna C., & Chau T. (2013). Writing forces associated with four pencil grasp patterns in grade 4 children. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 67*(2), 218–227. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5014/ajot.2013.005538>.
- Shah, L. J., & Gladson, B.L. (2015) The relationship of pencil grasp on college students' handwriting speed and legibility, *Journal of Occupational Therapy, Schools, & Early Intervention, 8*(2), 180-191, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19411243.2015.1040673>.
- Somers, M., Shields, L. S., Boks, M. P., Kahn, R. S., & Sommer, I. E. (2015). Cognitive benefits of right-handedness: A meta-analysis. *Neuroscience and Behavioral Reviews, 51*, 48–63. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2015.01.003>.
- Taylor, J. (2006). Developing handwriting skills. In Snowling, M.J., Stackhou-se, J.(Eds.) *A practitioner's handbook. Dyslexia. Speech and language* (2nd Edition), (229-252). Whurr Publishers.
- Temur, T. (2011). Yazı ve yazma becerisi. In Temur, T. (Edt). *İlk okuma ve yazma öğretimi 2. Baskı* (91-119). Pegem Akademi. [Primary reading and writing teaching]
- Temur, T., Aksoy, C. C., & Tabak, H. (2011). Kalem kavrama noktası, oturuş şekli ve kâğıt pozisyonu değişkenleri açısından ilköğretim birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin yazma hızları ve hatalarının değerlendirilmesi. *Millî Eğitim Dergisi, 41*(191), 24-37. [An evaluation of the first grade elementary students' writing speed and errors with regard to pencil gripping point, sitting posture and paper position]
- Temur, T., Aksoy, C., & Tabak, H. (2012). İlköğretim birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin kalem tutma biçimleri ve kavrama-sıkıştırma kuvvetlerinin yazma hızı ve hatalarına etkisi. *Eğitim ve Bilim, 37*(165), 307-319. [The impact of holding and gripping a pencil and compressive strength on writing speed and mistakes of first grade students]
- Tok, R., & Erdoğan, Ö. (2017). İlkokul 2. 3. ve 4. sınıf öğrencilerinin yazma becerilerinin incelenmesi. *Yüzüncü Yıl Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 14* (1), 1003-1024. [Investigating the primary school 2nd, 3rd and 4th grade students' skills of writing]
- Ulu, H. (2019). İlkokul birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin dik temel yazılarının okunaklılık ve yazma hataları açısından incelenmesi. *Uluslararası Alan Eğitimi Dergisi, 5*(2), 195-211, <https://doi.org/10.32570/ijofe.626430> [An analysis of manuscript handwriting of primary school first grade students in terms of readability and writing errors]
- Vlachos, F. & Bonoti, F. (2006). Explaining age and sex differences in children's handwriting: a neurobiological approach. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 3* (2), 113-123. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17405620500371455>
- Yıldırım, K., & Ateş, S. (2010). Sınıf öğretmenlerinin bitişik eğik yazı uygulamalarına ilişkin görüşleri. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 5*, 57-71. [Views of primary grade teachers' in regard to their instructional practices in handwriting]
- Yıldız, M., & Ateş, S. (2010). İlk okuma yazmayı farklı yöntemlerle öğrenen ilköğretim 3. sınıf öğrencilerinin yazılarının okunaklılık ve yazım hataları bakımından karşılaştırılması. *Türkiye Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi, 14*(1), 11-30. [Comparison of the writings of 3rd grade students who acquired first reading and writing in different ways, in respect to their legibility and writing errors]
- Yıldız, M., Açıkan, M., Berber, V., Bulut, S. & Zalımhán, R. (2015). İlkokul öğrencilerinin yazma sürecindeki ergonomik tercihleri: Kalem tutma, el tercihi, oturuş ve kâğıt pozisyonu. *Internatioanl Journal of Social Science, 40*, 61-71 [Ergonomic preferences of the primary students during writing: pencil grasp, hand preference, sitting and paper position]
- Yıldız, M., & Öztürk, S. (2013). Almanya'da ilköğretim (Gradschule) öğrenim gören Türk çocuklarının yazma becerileri üzerine bir inceleme: Stutt-gard örneği. *Zeitschrift für die Welt der Türken, 5*(2), 139-155. [An investigation on the writing skills of Turkish children studying at primary school (Grundschule) in Germany: Stutt-gard example]

Language Teaching and Educational Research

e-ISSN 2636-8102

Volume 6, Issue 1 | 2023

An Analysis of the Studies on the Effect of Language Transfer on Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language

Musa Kaya

To cite this article:

Kaya, M. (2023). An analysis of the studies on the effect of language transfer on teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 39-54. <https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1247884>

View the journal website



Submit your article to LATER



Contact editor



Copyright (c) 2023 LATER and the author(s). This is an open access article under CC BY-NC-ND license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>)

Research Article

An analysis of the studies on the effect of language transfer on teaching Turkish as a foreign language

Musa Kaya 

Assist. Prof. Dr., Bayburt University, Faculty of Education, Bayburt, TÜRKİYE

Abstract

The present research, meticulously constructed to scrutinize the studies related to language transfer in teaching Turkish as a foreign language from various perspectives, employed a qualitative research methodology. Data were gathered utilizing a document analysis technique, and the interpretation of the gathered data was conducted employing a descriptive analytical approach. The studies conducted on the effect of language transfer on teaching Turkish as a foreign language (TTAFL) were examined in terms of type, year, learning fields, language level, distribution by country, and how the transfer is discussed. It was found that 61.8% (f=81) of the scientific studies on the transfer in TTAFL are articles, 30.5% (f=40) are master's theses, 6.1% (f=8) are doctoral theses, and 1.5% (f=2) are academic papers. The first study on this subject was observed to have been conducted in 1998, the maximum number of studies (f=25) was carried out in 2019, and there has been a significant increase in interest in the subject since 2007. The maximum number of studies by nationality (f=29) was carried out on Syrians, followed by Afghani, Palestinian, Kazakh, Iraqi, and Bosnian students. 95 studies focused on the learning of writing, 35 on speaking, 18 on reading, 11 on listening, and seven on grammar. Six articles, two master's theses and a doctoral thesis, a total of nine studies, in which the language transfer was presented under different headings, were identified; and there was no classification in 122 studies.

Received
5 February 2023

Accepted
14 May 2023

Keywords

Teaching Turkish as a
foreign language
Transfer
Scientific studies

Suggested APA citation: Kaya, M. (2023). An analysis of the studies on the effect of language transfer on teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 39-54. <https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1247884>

Note(s) from the author(s)

None

Author(s)' statements on ethics and conflict of interest

Ethics statement: I hereby declare that research/publication ethics and citing principles have been considered in all the stages of the study. I take full responsibility for the content of the paper in case of dispute.

Statement of interest: I have no conflict of interest to declare.

Author contribution disclosure: Single author

Funding: None

Acknowledgements: None

Introduction

Language is a social interaction tool that permanently affects people in many ways, and the effectiveness of the acquisition and learning process of language depends on many variables. Language provides one of the strongest ties among societies and their environments, while also allowing specific collaboration and effectively-developed social establishments. The development of these organizations, which form the basis of an enduring culture, as well as transfer of this culture to the next generation, can only be achieved through language. Language can, therefore, be considered to be a fundamental aspect of all forms of human development.

The complexity and sophistication of language have increased in parallel with the development and growing prosperity of cultures and civilizations. This means that traces of geography, society and culture accumulated over thousands of years can be seen in a local language and its products. Individuals naturally adopt all kinds of cultural norms and value systems that have been formed over a long period of history, and then distinguish themselves from other societies by improving their native language (Melanlıoğlu, 2010). Thus, language provides a sense of belonging to a society and enables human communities with different languages to create a diversity of cultures and civilizations (Göçer, 2012; Kaplan, 2001).

In their interactions and conflicts with each other, human communities have developed a variety of different methods for communication (Crowley & Heyer, 2015; Erdoğan, 1999; Gönenç, 1993). As the most efficient and simplest means of communication, language has enabled societies speaking different languages to communicate through a common foreign language (Richards & Schimdt, 2014). In addition, the means of communication, which have diversified through technological improvements, have allowed human communities to come closer to each other on a level that was previously unattainable. This cooperation and rivalry can be seen in many areas, from education to trade, health care, and tourism. Moreover, immigrants and refugees have found themselves in communities that often speak a completely different language than they do, and this has created the need to learn a foreign language (Kaya, 2022). Thus, for many, learning one or more foreign languages has become a necessity rather than a choice.

Language, shaped over millennia by factors such as human reproduction, imagination, geographic and cultural influences, is acquired by native speakers through a natural process. For many foreigners, however, a new language can only be learned over a long period of time, often involving intensive study. This is partly because a person who has grown up in a completely different society may know the rules of a foreign language and the meaning of words, but proximity and distance to the culture of the target language is often an important factor in learning success (Rogers, 1994). Moreover, since one cannot be completely alienated and isolated from one's own culture and native language, it is difficult for the acquisition of the target language not to be influenced by the native language. This means that the foreign language speaker usually approaches the target language with the rules and logic of the native language (Biçer, 2017; Brogan & Son, 2015).

The effects of one's culture and native language on foreign language learning vary from person to person and from society to society (Bai & Qin, 2018; Çiftçi & Demirci, 2019). In some cases, foreign language learners, even if they speak a different language, may learn the target language more quickly due to geographical and cultural affinities, communicate more easily

with society, and make the required linguistic and cultural transfer to the learned language without undue difficulty. Usually, however, the multiplicity of language structures and the cultural differences between the target language and the culture of origin cause difficulties for foreign language learners (Swan, 1997). The term 'transfer' can be used to refer to the influences of culture and native language on target language learning, and this term can be applied to both positive and negative influences. Positive transfer facilitates foreign language learning, while negative transfer complicates this process and causes the learner to expend excessive time and effort (Bardovi-Harlig & Sprouse, 2018; Derakhshan & Karimi, 2015; Towell & Hawkins, 1994). While the differences in alphabet, syntax, and language structures between the learner's native language and Turkish can lead to negative transfer and learning difficulties, similarities between Turkish words, alphabet, and syntax may well facilitate the process of learning Turkish.

The idea that language transfer has a psychological basis that causes quantitative and qualitative increases was proposed in the 18th century (Chen, 2020), and there are many studies on this topic, especially on the acquisition of English (Ahmed, 2007; Camilleri, 2004; Hashemian, 2012; Hui, Ariffin & Ma'rof, 2018; Lakkis & Malak, 2000; Sabbah, 2015; Wang, 2009; Winer, 1989; Van Vu, 2017; Zhao, 2019; Zheng, 2018). The fact that English is an official language in many countries outside of England and is one of the most widely learned languages worldwide has led to a quantitative and qualitative increase in studies and a comprehensive treatment of the language transfer of different nations and communities from their cultures and languages to English language learning.

It can be seen that with the spread of teaching Turkish as a foreign language (TTAFL) in many countries, the number of studies on this topic has also increased (Çiftçi & Demirci, 2018; Göçer, Tabak & Coşkun, 2012). Unfortunately, however, there is a lack of adequate discussion on the topic of language transfer in TTAFL. It is extremely difficult to distinguish the concept of transfer from the concept of culture in TTAFL, as can be seen from the large number and variety of studies conducted on this topic (Bölükbaş & Keskin, 2010; Demir & Açıık, 2011; Caner, Direkçi & Kurt, 2019; İşcan, 2017; Polat & Dilidüzgün, 2015), although some of these studies discuss the impact of culture on the success of TTAFL (Boylu, 2014; Yiğit & Arslan, 2014). Although it is obvious that this kind of studies is necessary when it comes to the link between language and culture, such studies are few. Usually, the studies are limited to the culture and native languages of Turkish language learners, the foreign languages they know, and how cultural features influence Turkish language learning.

It is noted that studies on the subject of language transfer are generally presented alongside studies in which writing errors have been identified in the context of teaching Turkish as a foreign language. However, the topic of transfer was not comprehensively discussed in these studies (Abukan & Tandilava, 2021; Arslan & Klicic, 2015; Barcın, 2022; Başar & Coşgun, 2015; Bölükbaş, 2011; Demiriz & Okur, 2019; Emek, 2021; Maden, Dincel & Maden, 2015). It can be seen that the issue of language transfer is mentioned in the studies of grammar, reading, speaking, and listening, and students' errors are discussed (Göktaş & Karataş, 2022; Kurt, 2017; Sonkaya, 2019; Yılmaz & Şeref, 2015).

The errors of foreign language learners are extremely useful in determining the effect of language transfer from the native language to the target language. This study addresses the issue of transfer in the studies of TTAFL students, and it is hoped that this study will contribute

to the field, raise awareness of the issue of language transfer, and help in addressing the problems and errors of Turkish foreign language learners.

The aim of the study is to identify the existing trends in the studies conducted on transfer in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. In accordance with the aim of the research, the studies on transfer were examined based on the following questions that consider the type, year, country, target group, distribution among language levels and learning areas, and format:

1. How are the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL distributed by type?
2. How are the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL distributed by year?
3. How are the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL distributed by country and target group?
4. How are the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL distributed by language level?
5. How are the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL distributed by learning area?
6. How do the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL break down by format?

Methodology

Research model

This study was conducted using a qualitative research approach, with data collection through the document analysis method. Document analysis enables the researcher to collect relevant data, while studying written documents helps to identify the facts and events related to the topic (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2016). This method was used because it requires a systematic analysis of printed and electronic resources in accordance with established criteria and objectives, in this case, the identification and analysis of studies on transfer in TTAFL. These studies identify and evaluate the errors made by learners of Turkish as a foreign language in different learning domains. This means that studies that contained only a general assessment and did not include a student group were excluded from the study. Similarly, studies that gave examples of the impact of the student's knowledge of other languages in learning Turkish as a foreign language but did not directly address the issue of language transfer from the target language(s) were not included in the study.

Data collection and analysis

Research data on language transfer in teaching Turkish as a foreign language were collected from the National Thesis Center of the Council of Higher Education of Türkiye (URL 1), Google Scholar (URL 2), and DergiPark (URL 3). The searches were conducted using the search terms "teaching Turkish as a foreign language, positive and negative transfer, problems in teaching Turkish as a foreign language, the effect of mother tongue on foreign/second language learning". The studies on the research area were compiled and classified into three groups: Doctoral theses, Master's theses, and other scientific studies. Then, the data were analyzed and evaluated to determine the extent to which they were appropriate for the purpose of the study. The studies dealing with language transfer in teaching Turkish as a foreign language were grouped as dissertations, master's theses, articles, and scientific papers. The studies in which the countries, language levels or language areas were not specified were also examined and listed among the results. The reason for this is that the studies on language transfer within the established criteria are the basis of the study.

The descriptive analysis approach was used for data analysis. This approach includes the data collected after the interviews, observations, and document analysis, which are organised according to the given themes and presented to the readers. The approach, in which the results are discussed and evaluated, consists of four stages (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2016).

Data analysis of the study was performed as described below:

1. Forming a framework for descriptive analysis: in this phase, a framework is formed from the collected data, the conceptual framework, and the research questions, and the themes under which the data will be arranged and presented are determined. The format of how the collected data is arranged and presented depends on the research questions.
2. Processing the data based on the thematic framework: the collected data are read and arranged according to the previously found framework. The data are rearranged in light of the given framework and research objectives, and the appropriate and necessary data are processed while inappropriate data are discarded. Accordingly, the contents that were not suitable for the determined research questions in the field of teaching Turkish as a foreign language were excluded from the study, while the suitable data were analyzed.
3. Defining the results: The ordered data will be defined and direct quotes will be included when deemed appropriate. Accordingly, the collected data are organized according to the themes of the research questions and presented in tabular form. The analyzed studies in this study were presented in figures by type, year, language level, learning area, and type of transfer.
4. Discussion of the findings: the defined results are related, explained and made sense of the findings collected after examining the studies on language transfer in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2016). The researcher discussed the collected findings in accordance with the aim of the research.

Validity and reliability

Validity and reliability, which are among the most important criteria in scientific research, are also very important in qualitative studies. For this reason, the three fields were reviewed by an expert and their accuracy and adequacy were checked to ensure that the data were not miscategorized or lost.

Limitations of the research

In this study, the scientific studies on transfer in teaching Turkish as a foreign language were examined. In this regard, all the studies are accessible as full text, with no limitations in terms of country, year, level, learning area or group, from the field of concrete data and those of individuals learning Turkish as a foreign language in the areas of listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar. The effects of mother tongue or knowledge of other languages on Turkish were discussed and analyzed.

Findings

The results of the studies addressing direct and indirect transfer in TTAFL are presented in the following tables.

*Findings of the question “How are the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL distributed by type?”***Table 1.** The distribution of the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL by types

Type of study	<i>f</i>	%
Articles	81	61.8
Master’s theses	40	30.5
Doctoral theses	8	6.1
Academic papers	2	1.5
Total	131	100

As shown in Table 1, 61.8% ($f=81$) of the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL are articles; 30.5% ($f=40$) are master’s theses; 6.1% ($f=8$) are doctoral theses and 1.5% ($f=2$) are academic papers. The vast majority of studies are articles and, as you can see, few are papers.

*Findings of the question “How are the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL distributed by year?”***Table 2.** The distribution of the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL by years

Year	Article	Master’s thesis	Doctoral thesis	Paper	Total
1998	-	1	-	-	1
2007	-	1	-	-	1
2008	-	-	-	1	1
2009	3	-	-	-	3
2010	1	-	-	-	1
2011	1	-	-	-	1
2012	1	-	-	-	1
2013	4	1	-	-	5
2014	4	-	1	-	5
2015	11	1	1	-	13
2016	4	3	-	-	7
2017	8	6	1	-	15
2018	9	5	1	-	15
2019	11	14	-	-	25
2020	5	5	2	-	12
2021	11	3	1	-	15
2022	8	-	1	1	10

As can be seen in Table 2, there were 1 master’s thesis in 2007; 1 paper in 2008; 3 articles in 2009; 1 article for each in 2010, 2011, and 2012; 5 scientific studies as 4 articles, and 1 master’s thesis in 2013; 5 scientific studies as 4 articles, and 1 doctoral thesis in 2014; 13 scientific studies as 11 articles, 1 master’s thesis and 1 doctoral thesis in 2015; 7 scientific studies as 4 articles, and 3 master’s theses in 2016; 15 scientific studies as 8 articles, 6 master’s theses and 1 doctoral thesis in 2017; 15 scientific studies as 9 articles, 5 master’s theses and 1

doctoral thesis in 2018; 25 scientific studies as 11 articles and 14 master's theses in 2019; 12 scientific studies as 5 articles, 5 master's theses and 2 doctoral theses in 2020; 15 scientific studies as 11 articles, 3 master's theses and 1 doctoral thesis in 2021; 10 scientific studies as 8 articles, 1 doctoral thesis and 1 paper in 2022 were determined according to Table 2.

Findings of the question "How are the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL distributed by country and target group?"

Table 3. Distribution of the scientific studies on the transfer in TTAFL by country and target group

Country	Article	Master's thesis	Doctoral thesis	Total
Syria	21	7	1	29
Afghanistan	14	1	0	15
Palestine	9	2	0	11
Kazakhstan	10	1	0	11
Iraq	7	3	1	11
Bosnia-Herzegovina	6	4	1	11
Egypt	5	4	0	9
Jordan	7	2	0	9
Turkmenistan	6	2	1	9
Tunisia	6	2	0	8
Iran	5	3	0	8
Yemen	5	2	0	7
Albania	4	2	1	7
Nigeria	6	0	0	6
Algeria	4	2	0	6
Sudan	5	1	0	6
Russia	4	1	1	6
Somali, Georgia, Morocco	3	2	0	5
Kenya	3	1	0	4
Pakistan, Germany, the USA, Kyrgyzstan, Mauritania, Azerbaijan	4	0	0	4
Saudi Arabia, Mongolia	2	2	0	4
North Macedonia	3	0	1	4
Lebanon, South Korea	3	1	0	4
Uzbekistan	1	1	1	3
South Africa, Bangladesh, India, Tanzania, Greece, Cameroon, Serbia, Guinea	2	1	0	3
Mali, Libya	3	0	0	3
Uganda	1	2	0	3
Spain, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Poland, Romania, the Netherlands, Tajikistan, Kosovo, Ghana, Burundi, Belarus, Bulgaria, Rwanda, Niger	2	0	0	2
Lithuania, Indonesia, Ethiopia, China, Rep. of the Congo, Malaysia	1	1	0	2

Vanuatu	0	2	0	2
Bolivia, Chad, Comoros, The Gambia, Moldova, Togo, Montenegro, Mozambique, Djibouti, Czechia, Benin, Burkina Faso, Italy, Hungary, Guinea Bissau, Croatia, Burma, Austria, Turkic republics (unspecified)	1	0	0	1
Korea, Gagauzia	0	0	1	1
Sierra Leone, Thailand, Senegal, Colombia, Eritrea, Venezuela, DRC, Liberia, Ukraine, Oman, the UAE, Sri Lanka	0	1	0	1
Unspecified	11	13	0	24+2 (2 paper)

Table 3 shows that Syria has the largest share of the distribution of scientific studies on transfer in TTAFL by country, with 29 studies (21 articles, 7 master's theses, and 1 doctoral thesis). It is followed by Afghanistan with 15 studies (14 articles and 1 master's thesis), Palestine with 11 studies (9 articles and 2 master's theses), Kazakhstan with 11 studies (10 articles and 1 master's thesis), Iraq with 11 studies (7 articles, 3 master's theses and 1 doctoral thesis), Bosnia and Herzegovina with 11 studies (6 articles, 4 master's theses and 1 doctoral thesis), Egypt with 9 studies (5 articles and 4 master's theses), Jordan with 9 studies (7 articles and 2 master's theses); Turkmenistan with 9 studies as 6 articles, 2 master's theses, and 1 doctoral thesis; Tunisia with 8 studies as 6 articles and 2 master's theses; Iran with 8 studies as 5 articles and 3 master's theses; Yemen with 7 studies as 5 articles and 2 master's theses; Albania with 7 studies as 4 articles, 2 master's theses, and 1 doctoral thesis; Nigeria with 6 articles; Algeria with 6 studies as 4 articles and 2 master's theses; Sudan with 6 studies as 5 articles and 1 master's thesis; Russia with 6 studies as 4 articles, 1 master's thesis, and 1 doctoral thesis; Somalia, Georgia, and Morocco with 5 studies as 3 articles and 2 master's theses; Kenya with 4 studies as 3 articles and 1 master's thesis; Pakistan, Germany, the United States, Kyrgyzstan, Mauritania, and Azerbaijan with 4 articles; Saudi Arabia and Mongolia with 4 studies as 2 articles and 2 master's theses; North Macedonia with 4 studies as 3 articles and 1 doctoral thesis; Lebanon and South Korea with 4 studies as 3 articles and 1 master's thesis; Uzbekistan with 3 studies as 1 article, 1 master's thesis, and 1 doctoral thesis; South Africa, Bangladesh, India, Tanzania, Greece, Cameroon, Serbia, and Guinea with 3 studies as 2 articles and 1 master's thesis; Mali and Libya with 3 articles; Uganda with 3 studies as 1 article and 2 master's theses; Spain, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Poland, Romania, the Netherlands, Tajikistan, Kosovo, Ghana, Burundi, Belarus, Bulgaria, Rwanda, and Niger with 2 studies as 1 article and 1 master's thesis; Lithuania, Indonesia, Ethiopia, China, Rep. of the Congo and Malaysia with 2 studies as 1 article and 1 master's thesis; Vanuatu with 2 master's theses; Bolivia, Chad, Comoros, Gambia, Moldova, Togo, Montenegro, Mozambique, Djibouti, Czechia, Benin, Burkina Faso, Italy, Hungary, Guinea Bissau, Croatia, Burma, Austria, and Turkish Republics (not specified) with 1 article; Korea and Gagauzia with 1 PhD thesis; Sierra Leone, Thailand, Senegal, Colombia, Eritrea, Venezuela, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Liberia, Ukraine, Oman, the UAE, and Sri Lanka with 1 master's thesis.

Findings of the question “How are the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL distributed by language level?”

Table 4. Distribution of the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL by language levels

Type of study	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2	Academic Turkish	Unspecified level
Articles	11	17	21	21	7	3	1	28
Master’s theses	12	15	17	19	10	4	-	6
Doctoral theses	3	3	3	2	2	1	-	3
Academic paper	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Total	27	35	41	42	19	8	1	38

According to Table 4, there were 27 studies (11 articles, 12 master's theses, 3 doctoral theses, and 1 paper) at A1 level; 35 studies (17 articles, 15 master's theses, and 3 doctoral theses) at A2 level; 41 studies (21 articles, 17 master's theses, and 3 doctoral theses) at B1 level; 42 studies (21 articles, 19 master's theses, and 2 doctoral theses) at B2 level; 19 studies in the form of 7 articles, 10 master's theses and 2 doctoral theses at C1 level; 8 studies in the form of 3 articles, 4 master's theses and 1 doctoral thesis at C2 level; 1 article at Turkish academic level; 38 studies in the form of 28 articles, 6 master's theses, 3 doctoral theses and 1 paper where the level was not indicated.

Findings of the question “How are the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL distributed by learning area?”

Table 5. The distribution of the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL by learning area

Type of study	Writing	Speaking	Reading	Listening	Grammar
Articles	56	17	12	8	-
Master’s theses	33	6	5	3	6
Doctoral theses	6	1	-	-	1
Academic paper	-	1	1	-	-
Total	95	25	18	11	7

Table 5 shows the distribution of scientific studies on transfer in TTAFL by language domain as follows: 95 studies (56 articles, 33 master's theses, and 6 doctoral dissertations) in writing; 25 studies (17 articles, 6 master's theses, 1 doctoral dissertations, and 1 paper in speaking; 18 studies (12 articles, 5 master's theses, and 1 paper in reading; 11 studies (8 articles and 3 master's theses) in listening; 7 studies (6 master's theses and 1 doctoral dissertations) in grammar.

Findings of the question “How do the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL break down by format?”

Table 6. The distribution of the scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL by format

Type of study	Studies that transfer were presented under headings	Studies that transfer were handled indirectly
---------------	---	---

Articles	6	75
Master's theses	2	38
Doctoral theses	1	7
Academic paper	-	2
Total	9	122

9 studies were identified in the form of 6 articles, 2 master's theses, and 1 doctoral dissertation in which language transfer was presented in headings in the scientific studies on the transfer of TTAFL. 122 studies did not classify language transfer (see Table 6).

Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

It has been noted that there is no comparable study addressing language transfer in TTAFL and the studies directly addressing the issue of language transfer in TTAFL are quite limited (Biçer, 2017). It should be emphasized that the topic of language transfer, which is one of the fundamentals of foreign language teaching, has not been treated as a separate study. It is known that people tend to transfer some elements such as words, pronunciation, alphabet, sentence structure and morphology from their native language to the target language in foreign language teaching. If we examine the foreign literature, we find that the effects of native/second language on foreign language teaching, as well as positive and negative transfer, have been extensively studied and explained with concrete events in many studies (Beisenbayeva, 2020; Major, 2008; Puig-Mayenco, González Alonso & Rothman, 2020; Zahang, 2018).

As the diversity and number of studies in the field of TTAFL have increased recently, it is clear that it will take some time to comprehensively address the issues in major languages such as English. Therefore, a study such as this one evaluates the studies that have been conducted and identifies the needs. This would mean that any gaps in the field would provide guidelines for future studies. Günaydın (2021) stated that there are no criteria for evaluating and classifying spelling errors in a study that examines studies on writing mistakes in TTAFL. Dealing with this type of omission and/or distinction is important for scientific studies to move forward through systematic accumulation.

Upon completion of the investigation, it was determined that the topic of language transfer was addressed in a total of 131 studies within TTAFL. The data collected indicate a strong awareness of the topic. When analyzing the distribution of studies by genre, it is noted that articles are the most common, while essays/papers are the least common. It is suggested that the relative scarcity of essays is related to the tendency to expand these studies and turn them into articles, reflecting the desire of researchers to study the topic in a more comprehensive manner. The numerical superiority of articles over other genres can be attributed both to the large number of researchers working in this genre and to the fact that, unlike the production of dissertations, their production is not restricted to a limited number of researchers. A look at postgraduate studies shows that the number of master's theses exceeds that of doctoral theses. This discrepancy can probably be explained by the quantitative differences between researchers working in this field. The quantitative results related to master's and doctoral theses are similar to the studies of Maden (2021) and Maden & Önal

(2021), which focused on postgraduate studies. When examining the numerical distribution of studies categorized by genre, we can see a similarity with the results of the study by Özer and Turhan (2020).

Although there is no consistent upward trend, it can be seen that language transfer studies in TTAFL are increasing in quantity. This is related to both the increasing specialization within the field and the growing number and diversity of foreign students studying Turkish. However, despite the relatively late start, the lack of studies on this topic more than a decade after the first study suggests a significant gap in experience in the field. The distribution and escalation of studies over time is similar to the findings reported by Maden and Önal (2021) and Türkben (2018).

It is important to highlight that participants from geographically close or Muslim countries predominate in studies examining data from 100 different countries or communities. The fact that thousands of students from different geographic regions and numerous countries are the subjects of such studies underscores the diversity and scope of TTAFL's target population. In particular, the inclusion of post-war Syrian refugees residing in Türkiye in the educational process has led to an increase in studies dealing with Syrians. Another important point is the significant number of studies ($f=26$) that were conducted without country or nationality information. Although these studies did not aim to directly identify language transfer, the omission of details such as participants' native language, country, or nationality, which are critical to research, may lead to underutilization of these studies. The data in this study mirror the findings of Can (2023) on the distribution of groups involved in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. While in this study the studies on Arabic students are in the first place, it was found that a certain group in the form of various foreign students is not in the second place. It could be hypothesized that the prevalence of studies targeting Arabic speakers or those of Arabic origin is related to the influx of Syrian refugees to Türkiye due to migration trends. This relationship could also be related to the increased interest of Arabs in Türkiye and its popular television series in recent years, which has led to an increase in efforts to learn the Turkish language for various motives, including education, tourism, and trade.

It could be argued that the studies show an even distribution across the different language levels. The process of error detection and the subsequent provision of appropriate feedback are particularly important for learners who are in the beginning and autonomous stages of language acquisition. This is primarily because language levels A and B for individuals learning a foreign language are characterized by intensive language transfer of new rules and knowledge. There is no question that it is equally important for language acquisition to encourage students to be as actively engaged as possible during these stages through hands-on activities. Moreover, it could be concluded that the number of learners has a direct impact on the amount of research done at these levels. The tendency of students to pursue individual study after successfully completing levels A and B without having to take further language courses, and the fact that many institutions - especially universities - require B2 level as a prerequisite for application or admission, has a strong effect on the number of learners in level C courses. This phenomenon in turn affects the distribution of studies among the different levels. The fact that there are 38 studies that do not specify a language level shows the importance of paying close attention to method in scientific research. This is because for the studies that were conducted without specifying a level, the questions of what criteria are used

to evaluate and study them, how and why these studies will be used, cannot be answered. The data obtained from this research is similar to the results of the study conducted by Özdemir and Eroğlu (2022), especially in terms of the distribution of studies in the field of TTAFL stratified by language proficiency levels.

The large number of studies in the area of writing, compared to other areas of learning, can be attributed primarily to the fact that a student's errors are easily identified in this context. A review of the foreign literature shows that the emphasis has been on language transfer in the area of writing. Listening comprehension, on the other hand, has received less attention and no separate study has been conducted because transfers are more difficult to identify compared to other learning areas and can be expressed through other skills. The data of this study are consistent with the findings of Demir and Özdemir's (2017) study, especially regarding the frequent focus on writing skills. Küçük and Kaya's (2018) study, which examined the keywords used in research on teaching Turkish to foreigners, also found that writing skills is a recurring theme. The studies of Can (2023) and Şentürk and Yazar (2021) also emphasize that after reading skill, writing skill is the most intensively studied area.

Considering the fact that the main objective of the studies on teaching Turkish as a foreign language examined in this study is to identify students' errors or the difficulties they face in acquiring Turkish, categorising language transfers into different headings was not considered useful. However, looking at the total number of studies referring to language transfer, it cannot be said that the topic of language transfer has been adequately and comprehensively addressed. Considering its relatively new status, no study has been discovered that addresses the topic of language transfer in the teaching of Turkish as a foreign language, nor has any research been used that focuses on this topic.

It is expected that with the spread and promotion of teaching Turkish as a foreign language, research on language transfer will experience a multifaceted growth. It is also expected that prospective studies in this area will be extensively analysed and evaluated.

Identifying the errors and problems in teaching a foreign language is as important as recognising the core of these problems and working to solve them. Accordingly, there is a real need to address the issue of language transfer in TTAFL.

It can be seen that the Turkish language is learned by thousands of people in a large area, considering the countries and communities involved. Studies should be conducted considering this diversity to find out what kinds of mistakes are committed by which group and what kinds of language transfer are common due to mistakes made by these communities in learning Turkish.

Data such as country, nationality, and language level of the participants should definitely be provided in the studies.

The scientific studies on language transfer in TTAFL should be examined in terms of different variables such as the use of concepts, identification and grouping of errors, method, language level of participants, nationality, and countries, and their positive and negative aspects should be discussed.

References

- Abukan, M., & Tandilava, L. (2021). An Investigation of written expressions of A2 level Turcology department students in Georgia learning Turkish as a foreign language in terms of punctuation, spelling and language. *Türkiye Education Journal*, 6(2), 544-560. DOI: 11..11111/ted.xx
- Ahmed, M. (2007). Negative and positive transfer in learning English sentence patterns by Iraqi university students of English. *Journal Of Education And Science*, 14(24), 1-8.
- Arslan, M., & Klicic, E. (2015). Problems in development of writing skills in Turkish foreign language education: the case of Bosnia and Herzegovina. *Kırkkale University Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(2), 169-182.
- Bai, L., & Qin, J. (2018). A study of negative language transfer in college students' writing from cultural perspective. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(3), 306-313. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0803.05>
- Barcın, S. (2022). Evaluation of written works of Kyrgyz B2 level students studying Turkish. *RumeliDE Journal of Language and Literature Studies*, (Ö11), 138-144. <https://doi.org/10.29000/rumelide.1146537>
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Sprouse, R. A. (2018). Negative versus positive transfer. *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English language teaching*, 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0084>
- Başar, U., & Coşgun, G. (2015). False equivalent: an important problem in teaching Turkey's Turkish to Iranian as foreign language. *International Journal of Education Sciences*, (4), 497-512.
- Beisenbayeva, L. (2020). Using the mother tongue in foreign-language learning: secondary school students in Kazakhstan. *International Journal of Instruction*, 13(3), 605-616. <https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2020.13341a>
- Biçer, N. (2017). The effect of mother tongue in teaching Turkish as foreign language. *Electronic Turkish Studies*, 12(14), 41-58. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7827/TurkishStudies.11704>
- Brogan, F. D., & Son, J. (2015). Native language transfer in target language usage: An exploratory case study. *Voices*, 3(1), 47-62.
- Boylu, E. (2014). On the relation of language to culture and its effect on teaching Turkish in Persia. *Karamanoglu Mehmetbey University Journal of Social and Economic Research*, (4), 19-28.
- Bölükbaş, F., & Keskin, F. (2010). The function of texts in transferring of culture in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *Turkish Studies*, 5(4), 221-235.
- Bölükbaş, F. (2011). An evaluation of Arab students' Turkish writing skills. *Electronic Turkish Studies*, 6(3). 1357-1367.
- Camilleri, G. (2004). Negative transfer in Maltese students' writing in English. *Journal of Maltese Education Research*, 2(1), 3-12.
- Can, U. (2023). Analysis of postgraduate theses on the problems encountered in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *IBAD Journal of Social Sciences*, 14, 263-290 . DOI: 10.21733/ibad.1246197
- Caner, M., Direkçi, B., & Kurt, B. (2019). Opinions of pre-service teachers on culture transfer in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *Journal of Language Education and Research*, 5(2), 76-92.
- Chen, C. (2020). A study on positive transfer of native language and second language teaching methods. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 10(3), 306-312. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1003.06>
- Crowley, D., & Heyer, P. (2015). *Communication in history: Technology, culture, society*. Routledge.
- Çiftçi, Ö., & Demirci, R. (2018). A bibliography on teaching Turkish as a second language. *Electronic Turkish Studies*, 13(28), 265-339. DOI: 10.7827/TurkishStudies.13725
- Çiftçi, Ö., & Demirci, R. (2019). The role of false equivalent words in teaching Turkish as a foreign language to arabic speaking students as mother tongue. *Bilecik Şeyh Edebali University Journal of Social Sciences Institute* 4(2), 628-644. <https://doi.org/10.33905/bseusbed.629714>
- Demir, A., & Açıık, F. (2011). The points to be taken into consideration in text in teaching Turkish as a foreign language by referring to intercultural approach. *Journal of Turkology Research*, 30, 51-72.

- Demir, K., & Özdemir, A. (2017). Analysis of the scientific works in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *Electronic Turkish Studies, 12*(14), 105-120. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7827/TurkishStudies.11713>
- Demiriz, H. N., & Okur, A. (2019). An examination of teaching writing in Turkish teaching based on foreign students at advanced level. *Journal of Mother Tongue Education, 7*(2), 436-449.
- Derakhshan, A., & Karimi, E. (2015). The interference of first language and second language acquisition. *Theory and Practice in language studies, 5*(10), 12-21. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tppls.0510.19>
- Emek, M. (2021). The evaluation of b1-b2 level written expressions of Algerian Turcology department students learning Turkish as a foreign language using error analysis approach. *RumeliDE Journal of Language and Literature Studies, 24*, 77-92. <https://doi.org/10.29000/rumelide.990097>
- Erdoğan, İ. (1999). A qualitative evaluation of dominant communication modes in ancient ages and first empires. *Culture and Communication, 2*(2), 15-47.
- Göçer, A. (2012). Dil-kültür ilişkisi ve etkileşimi üzerine. [On the language-culture relationship and interaction] *Türk Dili, [Turkish Language] 729*(1), 50-57.
- Göçer, A., Tabak, A. G. G., & Coşkun, A. (2012). A bibliography of teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *Journal of Turkology Research, 3*(2), 73-126.
- Göktaş, B., & Karataş, F. (2022). Teaching Turkish as a foreign language in Sudan. *International Journal of Turkish Teaching as a Foreign Language 5*(1), 26-54.
- Gönenç, Ö. (1993). İletişimin tarihi. [History of communication] *İstanbul Üniversitesi İletişim Fakültesi Dergisi [Istanbul University Faculty of Communication Journal], 18*(1), 57-72.
- Günaydın, H. R. (2021). *Errors in written texts of learners of Turkish as a foreign language: A systematic review*. [Unpublished master's thesis], Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal University.
- Hashemian, M. (2012). Cross-cultural differences and pragmatic transfer in English and Persian refusals. *Journal Of Social Sciences And Humanities Of Shiraz University 4* (3), 1-22.
- Hui, H. M., Ariffin, A., & Ma'rof, A. M. (2018). An analysis of lexical negative transfer in English writing of malay students. *AJELP: Asian Journal of English Language and Pedagogy, 6*(5), 56-64. <https://doi.org/10.37134/ajelp.vol6.5.2018>
- İşcan, A. (2017). Utilising from movies as a mean of cultural transmission in Turkish language teaching as a foreign language. *Journal of Ataturk University Institute of Turkic Studies. 58*(1), 437-452.
- Kaplan, M. (2001). *Kültür ve dil*. [Culture and language] Dergâh Publishing.
- Kaya, M. (2022). Miswriting in the teaching of Turkish as a foreign language: The Tunisian case. *Educational Policy Analysis And Strategic Research, 17* (4). 45-63. DOI: 10.29329/epasr.2022.478.2
- Kurt, B. (2017). Analysis of Turkic students verbal expression studies in Turkey Turkish language by “speaking skill assessment scale”. *Journal of History Culture and Art Research, 6*(2), 358-384. <https://doi.org/10.7596/taksad.v6i2.682>
- Küçük, S., & Kaya, E. (2018). Content analysis of the Keyw ords in the dissertations on teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *Journal of History Culture and Art Research, 7*(5), 442-456. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.7596/taksad.v7i5.18>
- Lakkis, K., & Malak, M. A. (2000). Understanding the transfer of prepositions: Arabic to English. *In forum. 38* (3).
- Maden, S. (2021). Analysis of postgraduate theses related to textbooks on teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *Social Sciences: Theory and Practice, 5*(1) , 90-102. <https://doi.org/10.48066/kusob.876092>
- Maden, S., Dincel, Ö., & Maden, A. (2015). Writing anxieties of people who learn Turkish as a foreign language. *International Journal of Turkish Literature Culture Education (TEKE), 4*(2), 748-769.

- Maden, S., & Önal, A. (2021). Research tendencies of postgraduate theses related to teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *International Journal of Education Science and Technolog*, 7(1), 42-56. <https://doi.org/10.47714/uebt.878270>
- Major, R. C. (2008). Transfer in second language phonology. *Phonology and second language acquisition*, 36, 63-94.
- Melanlioğlu, D. (2010). Turkish language curriculum in terms of culture transfer. *Education and Science*, 33(150), 64-73.
- Özdemir, S., & Eroğlu, E. (2022). Descriptive analysis of text adaptation studies in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. *International Journal of Turkish Literature Culture Education (TEKE)*, 11(4) , 1613-1631.
- Polat, Ö. S., & Dilidüzgün, Ş. (2015). The cultural function of poetry activities in Turkish as a foreign language. *Turkish Studies (Elektronik)*, 10(7), 815-834.
- Puig-Mayenco, E., González Alonso, J., & Rothman, J. (2020). A systematic review of transfer studies in third language acquisition. *Second Language Research*, 36(1), 31-64. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0267658318809147>
- Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (2014). *Language and communication*. Routledge.
- Rogers, E. M. (1994). *History of communication study*. Free Press.
- Sabbah, S. (2015). Negative transfer: Arabic language interference to learning English. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Special Issue on Translation*, (4), 269-288.
- Swan, M. (1997). *The influence of the mother tongue on second language vocabulary acquisition and use*. (ed. Schmitt and McCarthy). Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy, CUP, (156–180). Cambridge University Press.
- Sonkaya, Z. Z. (2019). A linguistic perspective of translation errors of Turkish learners as a foreign language. *MANAS Journal of Social Studies*, 8(3), 2280-2293. <https://doi.org/10.33206/mjss.515082>
- Şayak, H., Karataş, K., & Yılmaz, E. (2023). Examining the studies on foreign students in Turkey: A content analysis [Türkiye’de yabancı uyruklu öğrenciler üzerine yapılan araştırmaların incelenmesi: Bir içerik analizi] *Electronic Journal of Education Sciences*, [Elektronik Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi], 12(23), 47-63. DOI:10.55605/ejedus.1205162
- Şentürk, C., & Yazar, İ. (2021). Postgraduate studies analysis on Turkish teaching. *International Journal of New Trends in Arts, Sports & Science Education (IJTASE)*, 10(4), 258-276
- Towell, R., & Hawkins, R. D. (1994). *Approaches to second language acquisition*. Multilingual Matters.
- Turhan T., S. & Özer, H. (2020). A study on scientific research published on the subject of teaching Turkish to foreigners. *MSKU Journal of Education*, 7(2) , 81-98. DOI: 10.21666/muefd.748610
- Wang, X. (2009). Exploring the negative transfer on English learning. *Asian Social Science*, 5(7), 138-143.
- Winer, L. (1989). *Variation and transfer in English creole—standard English language learning. in the dynamic interlanguage* (pp. 155-173). Springer.
- Van Vu, D. (2017). An empirical study on negative transfer in Vietnamese tertiary EFL learners’ English writing. *Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes*, 661-668. Doi: 10.22190/JTESAP1704661V
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2016). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri*. [Qualitative research methods in the social sciences] Seçkin Publishing.
- Yılmaz, İ., & Şeref, İ. (2015). Using poetry in developing Arabian students’ pronunciation skills while reading. *International Journal of Turkish Literature Culture Education (TEKE)*, 4(3), 1213-1228.
- Yiğit, M., & Arslan, M. (2014). Teaching Turkish as a foreign language in the context of cultural interaction: the sample of Albania. *Journal of Language and Literature Education*, 2(10), 1-13.
- Zhang, H. (2018). *Second language acquisition of Mandarin Chinese tones: Beyond first-language transfer*. Brill.

Zhao, Y. (2019). Negative transfer of mother tongue in English. *Creative Education, 10*(05), 940-946.
DOI: 10.4236/ce.2019.105070.

Zheng, T. (2018). Influence of negative transfer of mother tongue on Chinese English learners' pronunciation. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 8*(11), 1478-1484.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0811.12>.

URL 1: YÖK Thesis center (2022). <https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/giris.jsp>

URL 2: <https://scholar.google.com/schhp?hl=tr>

URL 3: <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/>

Language Teaching and Educational Research

e-ISSN 2636-8102

Volume 6, Issue 1 | 2023

Prospective Teachers' Metaphorical Perceptions of "School, Teacher, Principal and Superintendent"

Erkan Göktaş

To cite this article:

Göktaş, E. (2023). Prospective teachers' metaphorical perceptions of "school, teacher, principal and superintendent". *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 55-70. <https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1229254>

[View the journal website](#)



[Submit your article to LATER](#)



[Contact editor](#)



Copyright (c) 2023 LATER and the author(s). This is an open access article under CC BY-NC-ND license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>)

Research Article

Prospective teachers' metaphorical perceptions of "school, teacher, principal and superintendent"

Erkan Göktaş  ORCID

Assistant Professor, Educational Administration Department, Faculty of Education, Selcuk University, TÜRKİYE

Abstract

Research on prospective teachers' perceptions and descriptions of the essential education concepts helps to determine their educational viewpoint before starting the profession. In this study, it is aimed to reveal and analyse the metaphorical perceptions of prospective teachers about the concepts of school, teacher, principal, and superintendent. The study is planned in a basic qualitative research design. Participants of the study were 95 students attending to Selcuk University in the 2021-2022 academic year. Participants were recruited by using convenience sampling. Data were collected by using an open-ended questionnaire form and were analysed by content analysis technique. A total of 358 metaphors related to the concepts of school, teacher, principal, and superintendent were produced by teacher candidates. Of these, 91 were related to schools, 103 to teachers, 89 to principals and 75 to superintendents. Findings showed that the metaphors reflect both positive and negative perceptions about the concepts. Prospective teachers often used positive metaphors for the concept of school, teacher, and principal. However, it was noted that the metaphors reflecting negative connotations for the concept of superintendent were relatively more.

Received
4 January 2023

Accepted
23 March 2023

Keywords
school
teacher
principal
superintendent

Suggested APA citation: Göktaş, E. (2023). Prospective teachers' metaphorical perceptions of "school, teacher, principal and superintendent". *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 55-70. <https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1229254>

Note(s) from the author(s)

The ethics committee approval was obtained from Selcuk University with a document number of E.298137 on 03/06/2022.

Author(s)' statements on ethics and conflict of interest

Ethics statement: I hereby declare that research/publication ethics and citing principles have been considered in all the stages of the study. I take full responsibility for the content of the paper in case of dispute.

Statement of interest: I have no conflict of interest to declare.

Funding: None

Acknowledgements: None

Introduction

School, teacher, principal and superintendent are essential components of educational processes. Preferring the teaching profession requires constant interaction with these components. Pre-service teachers will also become teachers, principals or inspectors in time after completion of their education. At this point, one of the important data that will disclose the view of prospective teachers about the profession is the meanings they attach to these concepts. Metaphors can be used to reveal the concepts of school, teacher, principal and superintendent in the minds of teacher candidates.

In Turkish, the word “metaphor” is being used in the sense of analogy. The origin of metaphor, which is a Greek word, is based on the words "meta", which means beyond, and "pherein", which means to carry. It is used as an association or a symbol related to a particular concept (Nalçacı & Bektaş, 2012; Özdemir, 2012; Öztürk, 2007). Metaphor, originally means "to carry it beyond", serves as a carrier tool in bringing a certain concept closer to human mind. In other words, metaphors can be used to convey the meaning to be explained. Because the concepts possess broad meanings there is a need to make analogy or use metaphors to express the perception. Metaphors make it simple to understand what is meant by using the concepts.

The first pioneering study of metaphors was carried out by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) and then the cognitive metaphor theory emerged. According to this theory, metaphors are expressed as mental structures that shape people's thoughts about the world and reality. Cognitive theory asserts that individuals try to make sense of the world by making connections between the complex phenomena they encounter and the concrete concepts they experience. In the context of education, metaphors play an important role in conceptualizing and reflecting the nature of teaching and learning. In this respect, metaphors are increasingly used to make connections between personal beliefs and educational theories (Leavy, McSorley & Bote, 2007). Metaphors reveal the true knowledge, and in the process, individuals tend to express truths and facts, either consciously or unconsciously, by forming patterns with their experiences (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

Humans grasp abstract concepts and perform abstract reasoning by using metaphors (Lakoff, 1993). Within this process metaphors act as a basic mechanism. It is the human mind that uses metaphors to accomplish the reasoning. The need to use metaphors is, in a sense, characteristic of this mechanism. The mechanism necessary for a certain concept to be carried from the mind of one person to the mind of another and to find meaning is established through concepts. Thus, a concept is reflected in different minds through metaphors. In this respect, the meanings of the concepts of school, teacher, principal, and superintendent in the minds of the prospective teachers are reflected in the reader's mind through metaphors. On the other hand, metaphors are also considered an important narrative element because they help to understand a concept more clearly and contribute to the emergence of creativity (Lakoff & Johnson, 2005; Tubin, 2005). Pre-service teachers can more easily express their perception related to the concepts through metaphors and exhibit their creativity via analogies.

In the literature, there are various studies examining the means teacher candidates attach to educational concepts through metaphors. Bodycott, Walker and Chi Kin (2001), searched prospective teachers' views on school administrators through a qualitative study by means of dichotomies. Dichotomous thinking was developed by Derrida (1998), and have been used to express the Eurocentric system of thought and the problems it faces. Results of the study

disclosed the dichotomies of democracy against authority, rigidity against flexibility, hindrance against participation, and indifference against motivation. Inbar (1996), in a study categorised schooling metaphors provided by teachers, students and school principals. It was found that the educators primarily saw themselves positively with an educative role, while the students perceived them as controlling and evaluation-oriented. Johnson (2001), analysed the metaphors came out from prospective teachers in form of pictures depicting their initial teaching experiences. The results showed that visual metaphor was a feasible choice to literal written descriptions. Thomson (2016), in a mixed method study, investigated the specific types of prospective teachers' learning and teaching beliefs through the use of metaphorical images. There were two main type of schooling that is teaching and learning belief. Student-centred and teacher-centred. In student-centred approach teachers are motivated intrinsically for teaching and their schooling beliefs described as constructivist. Teachers-centred approach sees teachers as the starters of instruction and students as receivers of teaching. De Laurentiis Brandão (2021), investigated prospective teachers' first experiences of teaching English as a foreign language via metaphors in a narrative study. The pre-service teachers' metaphors abridged the impressions and the executions of their teaching experiences. The metaphors helped them sharing experiences and shaping the formation of professional identity.

In Türkiye, there are wide-ranging studies focused on the perceptions of prospective teachers about various concepts related to education were examined through metaphors. These concepts include school, principal, teacher, and superintendent as well. Several metaphorical studies have been carried out including positive or negative perceptions, approaches, understandings and attitudes related to the concepts of Turkish education system, school administration, education, teacher, student, school administrator, principal, superintendent and school (Altun & Apaydın, 2013; Çobanoğlu & Gökalp, 2015; Demir, 2018; Dilekçi, Limon, & Nartgün, 2021; Duran, 2022; Gültekin, 2013; Nalçacı & Bektaş, 2012; Neyişçi & Özdiyar, 2019; Örucü, 2014; Saban, 2004a, 2004b; Toremén & Dos, 2009; Yalçın & Erginer, 2012). In this study, however, the concepts of "school, teacher, principal and superintendent" are examined all together. The examination of these concepts together will contribute to explore and evaluate the perceptions of teacher candidates, especially in terms of educational administration.

The purpose of this qualitative study was to reveal and analyse the perceptions of pre-service teachers about the concepts of "school, teacher, principal and superintendent" through metaphors. The results to be obtained from this, will reveal how these basic concepts of education been understood by prospective teachers. The analyses will show how the school, which is one of the basic concepts of education, is displayed in the minds of the prospective teachers. It will also give teachers, principals, and superintendents the opportunity to observe their images in different minds. Thus, positive thoughts can be reinforced, while negative ones can be expected to be corrected. The results will also contribute to the teaching staff of educational faculties interacting with teacher candidates. It will be possible to compare the results with the results in similar studies to determine the similarities and differences and to evaluate the change in the perceptions. Prospective teachers' perceptions before the profession may change after being a teacher. Hereby, it's needed to compare the perceptions. As a result of the comparisons it will be possible to contribute to the data flow to update the school, principal, superintendent and teacher training system and educational policies. Beyond all, understanding pre-service teachers' initial

beliefs and teaching motivations can also provide a deeper insight into their attitudes towards students and teaching (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003).

Methodology

Model of the research

In this study, the findings obtained by designing the basic qualitative research design and performing inductive and comparative data analyses were presented by dividing them into themes (Merriam, 2013). The basic qualitative research design is the most widely preferred pattern in educational research. It is carried out in the form of collecting and analysing data with methods such as observation, interview or document analysis and gathering the findings reached through the analyses around themes and categories (Merriam, 2013; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). Metaphors obtained from teacher candidates are systematically presented by dividing them into specific themes.

Participants

Participants of the study were students attending to Selcuk University Faculty of Education in the 2021-2022 academic year. Totally, 95 students were reached by convenience sampling method from a group of 160 students. Convenience sampling method was preferred because of the low cost, being a group of participants familiar to the researcher, and bringing speed and practicality to the research (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). Because of being teacher candidates, the participants were expected to reveal their perception of school, teacher, principal, and superintendent via data collection form. As a result of voluntary participation, the answers of teacher candidates who responded appropriately were considered.

Table 1. Demographic data of participants

Department	Number of Participants		
	Female	Male	Total
Primary School Mathematics Teacher Education	32	12	44
Turkish Language Teaching	19	17	36
Elementary School Teacher Education	11	4	15
Total	62	33	95

Table 1 shows demographic information of the participants. Out of 95 participants, 62 of them are female and 33 of them are male prospective teachers. The findings obtained from the participants were examined and a systematic elimination was applied in terms of compliance with metaphorical themes. Accordingly, forms containing answers that do not express a clear metaphor and are not clearly understood are considered invalid. As a result of this elimination, the answers given by a total of 95 participants, 44 from the primary school mathematics teaching department, 36 from the Turkish language teaching department and 15 from the elementary school teacher education department, were deemed appropriate for examination and analysis.

Data collection tool

The study is based on determining the perceptions of teacher candidates about the concepts of school, teacher, principal, and superintendent by using metaphors. For this purpose, a questionnaire form with open-ended expressions developed by the researcher. In this form, the

teacher candidates asked to fill in the blanks in form of "A school is like because....", "A teacher is like because....", "A principal is like because...." and "A superintendent is like because...." according to their own views. Participants were asked to briefly base their analogies on a causation. In the analyses of the analogies, foundation of a metaphor is also important. Because metaphors alone may not be meaningful. Therefore, the why questions make it easier to determine the perception and understanding in the minds of participants who use similar metaphors. In addition, the reasons of participants using similar, or the same metaphor may differ (Glucksberg, 1998). In this study, the metaphors used by the participants were examined and interpreted together with their reasons. The reasons are expressed in the second part of the open-ended sentences.

Data analysis

Determination and arrangement of codes and themes were carried out with the content analysis technique. Content analysis is a technique that is used when in-depth analysis is needed (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). The collected data were analysed in the following order: (1) Extracting and coding, (2) Finding themes, (3) Checking validity and reliability (4) Making interpretation (Akbaba Altun & Apaydın, 2013).

Extracting and coding: After elimination of the forms containing weak or invalid expressions, the remaining valid metaphors of the appropriate structure were rearranged in an alphabetical order. The raw data were reviewed separately for the second time. Participants are encoded with the section right next to the metaphor statement in question and the sequence number in the data group. For instance, the participant in the 5th place alphabetically from the Mathematics Teacher Education department is coded as "M5", from Turkish Language Teaching department as "T5" and from Elementary School Teacher Education department as "S5".

Finding themes: In this step, the metaphors were examined in terms of the common characteristics of the concepts examined. The metaphors were considered how to express the perception of school, teacher, principal, and superintendent. Then, the identified metaphors were associated in terms of meaning. Lastly, themes were created accordingly. For example, the metaphors of gardens, fields, farmers, farms, veterinarians, and bees are collected under the theme of agriculture and livestock.

Checking validity and reliability: In order to ensure validity and reliability in qualitative research, the collected data should be reported in detail, and it should be explained how the results obtained were achieved (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). For this purpose, the process of collecting and analyzing data in the research is explained in detail. During data collection there was no attempt to affect the participants. The validity level was tried to be increased by including statements of the participants. On the other hand, the level of similarity of the results reached with the results of different studies on the same subject was also used as a criterion to measure validity (Çobanoğlu & Gökalp, 2015). The results are similar to the results of different studies. In order to increase the reliability, invalid participant forms were eliminated. The opinions of experts in the field were asked to determine under which themes the metaphors should be collected. In line with the opinions of experts, some corrections have been made again. Then, interrater reliability was calculated in the formula [Reliability = (number of agreements) / (number of agreements + number of disagreements) *100] suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). The interrater reliabilities were 89%, 85%, 90% and 87% for the concepts of "school",

“teacher”, “principal”, and “superintendent” respectively. For qualitative studies, if the value obtained from the consensus formula is 70% or more, then the result is sufficiently reliable (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Based on this fact, it has been decided that these results were sufficiently reliable.

Making interpretation: At this stage, the metaphors were interpreted by considering the themes and repetition. The most recurring metaphors and themes were examined. The perceptions expressed by the metaphors that stand out in themes are tried to be explained by quoting the statements of the participants. The results obtained were interpreted by comparing them with the results of similar studies in the literature as well.

Findings

A total of 358 metaphors related to the concepts of school, teacher, principal, and superintendent were produced by teacher candidates. Of these, 91 related to schools, 103 to teachers, 89 to principals and 75 to superintendents. The metaphors are divided into various themes considering the relationships between them and shown in tables. The answers given by the teacher candidates and those deemed appropriate for the analysis were gathered under certain themes, considering their proximity in terms of meaning. The themes obtained from the analysis of the data are agriculture and livestock, system, slavery, freedom, production, knowledge, tools, transportation, shelter, nutrition, structure, health, life, and charisma. The number of times a particular metaphor is repeated is numerically expressed in adjacent parentheses. Metaphors that fit more than one theme are placed under the respective themes. Demographic data, themes and metaphors are demonstrated in tables.

Metaphors and themes related to the concept of school are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Metaphors and themes related to school

Theme	Frequency (f)	Metaphor
Agriculture and livestock	15	Farm, hive, soil(5), flower, apple tree, flower garden(2), garden, plant, flowerpot(2)
System	2	Electrical circuit, human body
Slavery	6	Prison(2), cage, caste system, obligation, forced destination
Freedom	5	Forest, playground, national park, blank paper, sea
Production	7	Factory(4), notebook, carpenter's workshop, painting workshop
Knowledge	5	Book, bookcase, table, encyclopedia, knowledge base
Tools	8	Mirror, wrench, compass, lamp, table, alarm clock, notebook, book
Transportation	2	Ship, plane
Shelter	23	House(14), family(2), nest(6), protector
Nutrition	3	Kitchen, restaurant, table
Structure	10	Building(5), institution(4), unfinished construction
Health	1	Hospital
Life	4	Prepare to life, water, water in desert, season
Total	91	

In Table 2, it is seen that the metaphorical perceptions of the teacher candidates about school are mostly related to the concepts in the themes of shelter, agriculture and livestock and structure. As making analogies about the concept of school, the participants mostly used the metaphors of house, nest, building, soil, institution, factory, garden, flowerpot, family, and prison. Except the prison metaphor, rest of the metaphors contain more positive perceptions and similar meanings. The participants generally have a positive perception about school. For instance, M26 said, "*A school is like a playground for me because whether I fall or get up, it is a place that adds something to me and allows me to learn life by having fun.*" and emphasized that school is a place for both having fun and learning. Another participant T5 said, "*A school is like a home for me because, if we think of classrooms as our private rooms, the school is our home.*" Participant S9 said, "*A school is like family for me because I can find everything I need.*" and expressed the need for school. In addition to these, there are also a small number of participants who express the concept of school with negative metaphors. T3 said, "*A school is like a cage for me because school is a place that we enter at the very beginning of our lives, without our own will, as if we were crammed into a cage.*" and likened schools to a place that restricts life and prevents freedom.

Metaphors and themes related to the concept of teacher are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Metaphors and themes related to teacher

Theme	Frequency (f)	Metaphor
Agriculture and livestock	16	Farmer (4), worker bee, flower branch, flower bud, gardener (6), bee, fruit tree, tree root
Family	12	Mother (5), father, parent (6)
Slavery	2	Curtains, horse goggles
Freedom	7	Sun (2), wind, water, river (3)
Production	7	Bricklayer, worker, carpenter (2), painter, machine, operator
Knowledge	4	Book (2), encyclopedia, knowledge base
Tools	8	Cable, black pen, pen (2), candle, key, compass, lantern
Transportation	3	Cabin attendant, captain (2)
Shelter	7	Candle, light (3), feet of the table, friend, companion
Nutrition	2	Cook, chef
Structure	2	Column of the building, iron
Health	2	Development, veins
Life	10	Water, sun (2), shadow, wind, river (3), cat, turtle
Charisma	21	Guide (5), leader (2), expert, jewel, chance, respected person, important person, manager, warrior, lion, light (3), sun (2), difference
Total	103	

As seen in Table 3, metaphorical perceptions of the prospective teachers about teacher are mostly related to the concepts in the theme of charisma, agriculture and livestock and family. While making analogies about the concept of teacher, the participants mostly used the metaphors of parent, gardener, guide, mother, farmer, light, river, leader, sun, pen, book, captain, and

carpenter. These metaphors often contain positive connotation and similar meanings. However, the metaphors of curtains and horse goggles show that the concept of teacher has a negative perception and meaning for some teacher candidates. The participants have a mostly positive perception about the concept of the teacher. For example, M7 said, "*A teacher is like a flower branch for me because the branches carrying water to the flower is like the teacher carrying knowledge to the student.*" and drew attention to the important position of the teacher in the process of learning of a student. Another participant, T12, said, "*A teacher is like a mother to me because we learn a lot from our teacher as we learned from our mother when we were little.*" and emphasized the teacher's contribution to personality formation. Participant S4 said, "*A teacher is like a captain to me because the captain guides us on our journey.*" In addition to these, there are also a small number of participants who express the concept of teacher with negative metaphors. T27 says, "*A teacher is like horse glasses for me because it looks at things from a single point of view and tries to impose what it sees on the students.*" and claims that teacher is the representative of limited perspective and understanding.

Metaphors and themes related to the concept of principal are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Metaphors and themes related to principal

Theme	Frequency (f)	Metaphor
Agriculture and livestock	10	Farm owner, flower root, flower stem, greenhouse owner, landowner (2), fertilizer, queen bee, garden owner, shepherd
Family	8	Father (5), householder, grandmother, grandparents
Slavery	11	Guard (2), watchman, executioner, order, law, orders and prohibitions, rule, park attendant, attendant, coldness
Freedom	1	Flying balloon
Production	5	Farm owner, workshop owner, school owner, greenhouse owner, garden owner
Knowledge	7	Brain (6), preface
Tools	7	Key, anvil, typewriter, button, microphone, razor, red pen
Transportation	5	Captain (2), pilot, road control, locomotive
Shelter	2	Door, armchair
Nutrition	2	Food chef, kitchen manager
Structure	3	Castle, door
Health	2	Expert, rule
Life	5	Combat, responsibility, suit, torpedoed status, supervision
Charisma	21	Team coach, team captain, lion (4), wrestler, conductor, coach (2), chef (2), muse, leader (3), king (2), president, roster, judge
Total	89	

Table 4 shows metaphorical perceptions of the teacher candidates about principals which are mostly related to the concepts in the themes of charisma, slavery and agriculture and

livestock. As making analogies about the concept of principal, the participants mostly used the metaphors of brain, father, lion, leader, chief, team coach, king, captain, landowner, and guard. Except the guard, watchmen, and executioner rest of the metaphors express close and positive meanings. Most of the participants used positive analogies for the concept of principal. However, the metaphors of guard and executioner show that the concept of principal has a negative connotation and meaning for some teacher candidates. The participants have a mostly positive perception of the concept of principal. For instance, M17 said, "*A principal is like a brain to me because just as the brain controls the body, the principal controls the school.*" and emphasized the vital importance of the principal. Another participant, T32, said, "*A principal is like a father to me because, like a father who protects, watches over and manages the family, the principal also manages the school.*" Participant S13 said, "*A principal is like a leader to me because the principal solves all problems.*" and emphasized the principal's leadership qualities. In addition to these, there are also a small number of participants who express the concept of principal with negative metaphors. Of these, T8 says, "*A principal is like an anvil to me because just as iron is shaped on an anvil, the school is shaped by the principal.*" and expresses the principal with a quality that forcibly shapes the school.

Metaphors and themes related to the concept of superintendent are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Metaphors and themes related to superintendent

Theme	Frequency (f)	Metaphor
Agriculture and livestock	7	Veterinarian, agricultural engineer (2), gardener, flower caregiver, queen bee, garden owner
Family	5	Father, grandma, guest (2), unwanted relative
System	4	Immune system, judgement, insurance, black box
Slavery	19	Pressure, horror (4), security camera (5), constabulary (2), hidden person, detective, feared person, police, order, lock, monster
Freedom	2	Statue of liberty, water
Production	4	Manufacturer, notebook, carpenter workshop, painting workshop
Knowledge	5	Television, brain (2), researcher, observer
Tools	7	Stove, ruler, lock, mirror, scale, XR device, blue pen
Transportation	2	Ship owner, black box
Shelter	1	Landlord
Nutrition	2	Gourmet, restaurant owner
Health	4	Doctor (3), immune system
Life	9	Friend, theatre audience, suit, torpedoed status, arrogant boss, still object, electric bill, formality, fire drill
Charisma	4	Minister, general manager, chief painter, eagle
Total	75	

In Table 5, it's seen that metaphorical perceptions of the participants about superintendent are mostly related to the concepts in the theme of slavery, life, agriculture and livestock, and tools. As making analogies about the concept of superintendent, the participants mostly used the concepts of security camera, fear, doctor, police officer, brain, guest, and agricultural engineer.

There are more negative connotations of the superintendent concept. The analogies of security cameras, fear and police are close to each other, but point to negative connotations and meanings. The analogies of doctor, brain, guest, and agricultural engineer contain relatively more positive connotation and meanings. It is seen that prospective teachers have both positive and negative perceptions about the concept of superintendent, but the negative ones obviously draw attention. As a matter of fact, M13 said, "*A superintendent is like a gardener for me because the superintendent controls the school like a gardener maintenance and controls a garden.*" and saw the superintendent as a symbol of positive work such as maintenance, review, and improvement. Another participant, T37, said: "*A superintendent is like a guest to me because, just as the house is arranged when the guest comes, the school is reviewed when the superintendent comes.*" Participant S6 said, "*A superintendent is like the person I am feared because when the superintendent comes to school, everyone is nervous.*" and expressed the uneasiness that the concept of superintendent evokes.

Discussion

In this study, it is aimed to reveal and analyse the perceptions of teacher candidates about the concepts of school, teacher, principal, and superintendent through metaphors. The findings showed that teacher candidates generally use metaphors that reflect positive connotations of school, teacher, and principal. However, it was noted that the metaphors reflecting negative connotations for the concept of superintendent are relatively more.

To make an analogy about the concept of school, the concepts of home, nest, building, soil, institution, factory, garden, flowerpot, family, and prison were used the most. Of these, the ones other than the prison analogy contain similar meanings. These concepts constitute a set of meanings that express tillage, animal feeding, farming, production, shelter, solidarity, love, strength, support, help, home, belonging, shelter, protection, strength, durability. However, the concepts of prison, cage, caste, and alarm clock also show that school has a negative meaning for some teacher candidates. Most prospective teachers expressed the concept of school with positive analogies. The images identified by these expressions show that the school is perceived as a phenomenon that is as vital to prospective teachers as agriculture and livestock, that takes place in everyday life like tools, that glorifies human beings like knowledge and freedom. It is seen that similar findings have been reached in other studies examining metaphorical perceptions of prospective teachers about the concept of school. Accordingly, Nalçacı and Bektaş (2012) have reached themes that contain negative meanings such as authority, negation, race, and formative among the metaphors of teacher candidates about school. In another study, the school was likened to a place that shapes the individual, causes behavior change, and transfers unnecessary information (Örücü, 2014). Neyişçi and Özdiyar (2019) found that teacher candidates mostly see school as a positive concept that supports psycho-social development and enlightens the individual by providing features such as responsibility and division of labor in the natural flow of life. They explored that relatively few of them perceived school as a negative concept with its features that restrict freedom, have an element of political pressure, and threaten physical security. Özdemir and Orhan (2019) listed the metaphors created by the teacher candidates regarding the concept of school as living space, life preparation environment, life itself, production center, team, tools and limiting environment. Prospective teachers generally depicted the school with positive metaphors. Kara and Bozbayındır (2019), on the other hand, found that the metaphors related to the concept of school obtained from teacher candidates

contained positive expressions in the form of a whole, an environment of love and trust, a place of production, a part of life and a place of knowledge and acquisition that contained elements of different structures. Dilekçi et al. (2021) stated that teacher candidates make analogies for the concept of school, a source of knowledge, a part of life, a place of change, development and maturation, a place that gives confidence and happiness, an inclusive place, a restrictive place, a place that shapes, a guiding and guiding place, an indispensable place, a complex place, a place of socialization and a place that has lost its purpose. The findings of this study and its predecessors are that metaphorical perceptions about the concept of school are generally in a positive direction. However, a small number of metaphors that express negative perceptions are also seen. Although the participants whose opinions were taken changed over time, metaphors expressing the perceptions are similar. This means there is not a kind of change that would cause significant differences in the perception of the teacher candidates.

Prospective teachers mostly used the concepts of parent, gardener, guide, mother, farmer, light, river, leader, sun, pen, book, captain, and carpenter to make an analogy about teacher. These concepts constitute a set of meanings that express tillage, animal feeding, farming, production, shelter, solidarity, love, solidity, support, help, home, belonging, family, protection, guidance, enlightenment, continuity, solidity, and endurance. However, the concepts of curtains and horse goggles show that for some teacher candidates, the teacher has a negative meaning that is obstructive and restrictive. Most prospective teachers expressed the concept of teacher with positive analogies. The images determined by these expressions show that the teacher is perceived as a phenomenon that is as vital to prospective teachers as agriculture and livestock, that takes place in daily life like tools, that glorifies people like knowledge, guidance, and leadership. It is seen that similar results have been reached in different studies in which metaphorical perceptions of the concept of teacher were sought. Saban (2004b) has found that teacher candidates use expressions such as the source and transmitter of knowledge, educating and shaping students, supporting the individual development of students and guiding students in the learning process for the concept of teacher. Arslan and Karataş (2015) reported the concept themes of teacher candidates in the pedagogical formation certificate program in the form of parents, pioneers, altruism, and knowledge dissemination. Duru (2015) stated that teacher candidates use metaphors such as cultural transmitter, behavioral engineer, former, person who presents information and guide for the concept of teacher. In various research conducted to investigate the metaphors used for the concept of teacher, themes such as researcher, artist, practitioner, former, guide, altruist, source of knowledge and volunteer have been identified (Ekici, Baş, & Kızılkaya, 2017; Ryan & Bourke, 2018). Among the meanings attributed to the concept of teacher, there are both positive and negative analogies such as knowledge source or fear source (Egüz & Öntaş, 2018). Neyişçi and Özdiyar (2019) determined that teacher candidates mostly use positive expressions for the concept of teacher in the form of sacrifice, meeting the knowledge and emotion needs of the student, competence in the field, guiding in accessing knowledge and encouraging to establish healthy human relations. In addition, a relatively small number of teacher candidates used negative expressions such as limiting interests and abilities, being closed to self-improvement and not being fair for the concept of teacher. Özevin and Kaya (2020) determined that teacher candidates use the metaphors of trainer, instructor, and guide for the concept of teacher. In addition to these, it has been seen that metaphorical perceptions reflecting the feelings of warmth, closeness, and freedom such as family, mother, father, parent,

house with stove, sugar, heart, angel, rainbow, and sky are often used. Dilekçi et al. (2021) found that metaphors were used in the themes of guidance, knowledge source and transference, source of love and trust, source of authority, role modeling, shaper, altruistic and development source for the teacher concept of teacher candidates. When the previous research and the findings of this research are compared, it is seen that both positive and negative metaphors are used for the concept of teacher. But positive metaphorical connotations were used more. It is highly likely that teacher perceptions of teacher candidates will change after starting the profession. The main reason for the negative perceptions may be the traces left by the previous education and training experiences of the candidates.

When making an analogy about the concept of principal, prospective teachers mostly used the metaphors of brain, father, lion, leader, chief, team coach, king, captain, landowner, and guardian. Except for the guardian analogy, the rest contain similar meanings. These concepts constitute a set of meanings that express impressiveness, robustness, support, protection, leadership, management, leading, guidance, tillage, animal nutrition and farming. However, the concept of guard, unlike these, also shows that for some teacher candidates, the principal carries a negative meaning of a prohibitive nature. Most prospective teachers expressed the concept of principal with positive analogies. The images identified by these expressions show that the principal is perceived as a guiding element such as leadership and impressiveness for prospective teachers, as vital as agriculture and livestock, taking part in daily life like tools, glorifying people such as protection, support, and robustness. It is seen that similar results have been reached in different studies. In the findings of Çobanoğlu and Gökalp (2015), the most important analogies of father, mother, lion, leader, and power related to the concept of principal of teacher candidates reflect positive perceptions, while the analogies of authority and harshness reflect negative perceptions. Özdemir and Orhan (2019) explored the most used metaphors related to the concept of principal and school administrator of prospective teachers who received pedagogical formation training as leader, main element, supporting element, protective and responsible element, respectively. It was found that the principals were perceived as an actor protecting and motivating the school stakeholders in line with the determined goals. They are also responsible for managerial functions of the schools. They foster effective teaching and learning in schools as well. It was concluded that the school administrator was generally perceived positively.

As for the superintendent, prospective teachers mostly used the metaphors of security camera, fear, police officer, doctor, brain, guest, and agricultural engineer to make analogies. Security cameras, fear and police analogies indicate that the concept of superintendent creates uneasiness, pressure, and anxiety in the minds of teacher candidates. The analogies of doctor, brain and agricultural engineer are reflections of relatively more positive connotations. The guest analogy refers to the temporary and short-term inclusion of the superintendent in educational processes. The concepts of security camera, fear and police constitute a set of meanings that express control, restriction, monitoring, supervision, and pressure. The brain analogy means control and central management. The doctor and the agricultural engineer evoke a specialization and professionalism. These analogies show that the concept of superintendent is perceived negatively as well as positively in the form of management and expertise. The images described by these expressions show that the superintendent is perceived as a phenomenon needed by human being, such as expertise and management skills. It's reflected in prospective teachers' mind such as life, agriculture and livestock and tools. It expresses slavery and limitation for

prospective teachers. It is seen that similar results have been reached in different studies examining metaphorical perceptions about the concept of superintendent. Demirtaş and Kahveci (2015) stated that the perceptions of the superintendent in the minds of teacher candidates are generally negative. It was concluded that the metaphors expressed by the participants were mostly collected in the theme of authority. In addition, the metaphors of grower, punitive, evaluator, observer, open seeker, raid, and investigator were also used to express the superintendent. It is noteworthy that most of these metaphors are of a negative nature. Ekinci et al. (2017) explored that teacher candidates expressed more negative aspects related to the concept of superintendents. Şahin and Sabancı (2018) found that positive perceptions of superintendents were emphasized a little more strongly than negative perceptions. The positive ones are encouraging corrective behaviors and creativity by doing objective evaluations. Negative perceptions often evoke anxiety, fear, and violence.

Some of the metaphors used for superintendents and principals appear to fit into Bolman and Deal's (1991) structuralist leadership framework. In particular, metaphors such as factory, prison, guardian, security camera and police officer are appropriate to this leadership. These metaphors reflect the importance of the hierarchical structure in the school and show that inspectors and principals are perceived as a source of legal and coercive power. Abundance of the metaphors in theme of slavery shows that, inspectors and principals are generally perceived as having the characteristics of providing security and control. As a result, their human relations and cultural characteristics are less prominent.

Inbar (1996) categorised schooling metaphors provided by teachers, students and school principals. The results showed that about half of students perceived their teachers as 'super controller' like policeman, big boss, and judge. However, only about ten percent of the educators agreed on this view. In addition, the self-assessment of more than half of the educators was positive. They saw themselves as listeners, supporters and protectors, in contrast to the students' answers to the same questions. It was found that educators primarily viewed themselves in a positive light and played a caring role, while students perceived educators as controlling and evaluating. These results coincide some of the metaphorical perceptions of the current study. Abundant number of metaphors under the theme of slavery such as guardian, police officer, detective, judge, boss, king, security camera, and hidden person are in line with this result.

On the other hand, it is also seen that some of the metaphors produced in this study have dichotomous properties (Bodycott et al., 2001). For example, metaphors such as mother and father, farm owner and farmer, queen bee and worker bee, garden owner and gardener are dichotomous. This result shows that some prospective teachers think in a dichotomous way.

Studies examining ideas about education show that prospective teachers' schemas for these concepts are based on previous educational behaviors (Woolfolk Hoy & Murphy, 2001; Thomson, 2016). The mental schemas of the prospective teachers within the scope of this study regarding the concepts of school, teacher, principal and inspector are based on their previous educational experiences. The schools they attend throughout their education life, the teachers they are trained by, the principals and the superintendents they have seen also affect the meanings they attach to these concepts. Negative metaphors point to the existence of negative behaviors. Positive metaphors also show that there are positive experiences. In fact, metaphorical expressions help teacher candidates sharing experiences and shaping the formation of professional identity (de Laurentiis Brandão, 2021).

Conclusion

The results obtained in this research express a synthesis of the perceptions of teacher candidates towards the concepts of school, teacher, principal, and superintendent that they have experienced throughout their entire educational lives. It has been observed that some of these perceptions, especially those related to the superintendent, express negative qualities. Their common features have become evident in the form of slavery, oppression, authority, restriction, and blunting. Accordingly, it can be considered that the overly centralized structure of our education system has a role on this result. Providing democratic environments, planning education in accordance with the interests and needs of students, flexibility of curriculum with interdisciplinary understanding and the needs of disadvantaged groups in education is essential. Thus, the impressions of teacher candidates starting from their previous educational background until the end of higher education can be turned into a positive manner. The experiences of the teacher, school, principal, and superintendent they witness can positively change the perceptions in their minds.

Suggestions

Considering the results of the study, it may be useful to consider the following suggestions:

- Superintendents can be presented with more data on how they are perceived by principals, teachers and students.
- School principals can be provided with more data on how they are perceived by teachers and students.
- Teachers can be presented with more data on how they are perceived by students.
- Both the practical and theoretical parts can be emphasized during the professional teacher education.
- Metaphors can be used as a pedagogical tool in teacher education courses. Specifically, starting dialogues on school, teacher, principal and superintendent to detect and correct misunderstandings.

References

- Akbaba Altun, S., & Apaydın, Ç. (2013). Metaphorical perception on the concept of “education” of prospective girls and men teachers. *Educational Administration: Theory and Practice, 19*(3), 329-354.
- Bodycott, P., Walker, A., & Chi Kin, J. L. (2001). More than heroes and villains: pre-service teacher beliefs about principals. *Educational Research, 43*(1), 15-31.
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1991). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice and leadership* (4th ed.). Jossey-Bass.
- Çobanoğlu, N., & Gökalp, S. (2015). Metaphoric perceptions of teacher candidates for school managers. *Mustafa Kemal University Journal of Social Sciences Institute, 12*(31), 279-295.
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Sykes, G. (2003). Wanted: A national teacher supply policy for education: The right way to meet the “Highly Qualified Teacher” challenge. *Education Policy Analysis Archives, 11*, 233-238.
- de Laurentiis Brandão, A. C. (2021). First experiences of teaching EFL in metaphors. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 97*, 103214. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2020.103214>

- Demir, Y. (2018). A meta-summary of the research on metaphors regarding Turkish EFL teachers' roles. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies, 9*(2), 65-76.
- Demirtaş, Z., & Kahveci, G. (2015). Teacher candidates' metaphoric perception of concepts related to supervision, supervisor and supervised. *Journal of Education and Humanities: Theory and Practice, 6*(11), 23-58.
- Derrida, J. (1998). *Of grammatology*. Maryland: The John Hopkins University Press.
- Dilekçi, Ü., Limon, İ., & Sezgin Nartgün, Ş. (2021). Prospective teachers' metaphoric perceptions of "student, teacher and school". *Kastamonu Education Journal, 29*(2), 403-417.
- Duran, A. (2022). Examination of metaphors used by prospective teachers regarding the concept of the teacher. *E-International Journal of Pedandragogy (e-ijpa) 2*(1), 1-16.
- Ekici, G., Baş, M., & Kızılkaya, O. (2017). Determination of the perceptions of teacher candidates about the concept of "teaching profession": A metaphor analysis study. *International Journal of Eurasia Social Sciences, 8*(28), 288-313.
- Ekinci, A., İş, E., Balcı, S., & Oral, S. (2017). Metaphoric perceptions of teacher candidates related to instructional supervisors. *The Journal of Academic Social Science, 5*(57), 642-658.
- Glucksberg, S. (1998). Understanding metaphors. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 7*(2), 39-43.
- Gültekin, M. (2013). The metaphors that primary education teacher candidates use regarding curriculum. *Education and Science, 38*(169), 126-141.
- Inbar, D. (1996). The free educational prison: Metaphors and images. *Educational Research, 38*, 77-92.
- Johnson, G. C. (2001). Accounting for pre-service teachers' use of visual metaphors in narratives. *Teacher Development, 5*(1), 119-140.
- Kara, M., & Bozbayındır, F. (2019). Candidate teachers' perceptions of school concept: A metaphor study. *Anatolian Turk Education Journal, 1*(1), 18-34.
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lakoff, G. (1993). The contemporary theory of metaphor. In *Metaphor and Thought*. UC Berkeley. Retrieved August 18, 2022 from <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/4nv3j5j9>
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (2005). *Metaforlar: Hayat, anlam ve dil* (Çev. G. Y. Demir). İstanbul: Paradigma. [Metaphors We Live By]
- Merriam, T. (2013). *Qualitative research. A guide to design and implementation* (3rd Ed.). Jossey-Bass.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks.
- Nalçacı, A., & Bektaş, F. (2012). Teacher candidates' perceptions regarding the concept of school. *Ahi Evran University Journal of Kırşehir Education Faculty, 13*(1), 239-258.
- Neyişçi, N., & Özdiyar, Ö. (2019). Metaphorical perceptions of prospective teachers about concepts of school, teacher and student. *Erzincan University Journal of Education Faculty, 21*(2), 50-67.
- Örücü, D. (2014). Pre-service teachers' metaphors towards school, school administrators and Turkish education system *Educational Administration: Theory and Practice, 20*(3), 327-358.
- Özdemir, T. Y., & Erol, Y. C. (2015). The perceptions of prospective teachers having pedagogic formation education about the notions of school, teaching and student. *Celal Bayar University Journal of Social Sciences, 13*(4), 215-244.
- Özdemir, T. Y., & Orhan, M. (2019). Metaphorical perceptions of teachers towards school, school manager and student's parents. *Journal of Theoretical Educational Science, 12*(2), 701-726.
- Özevin, B., & Kaya, A. (2020). Prospective preschool teachers' metaphors about the concept of teacher. *Erzincan University Journal of Education Faculty, 22*(3), 691-707.
- Öztürk, Ç. (2007). Metaphor status about the concept of 'geography' of prospective social science, science and classroom teachers. *Ahi Evran University Journal of Kırşehir Education Faculty, 8*(2), 55-69.

- Saban, A. (2004a). Prospective classroom teachers' metaphorical images of selves and comparing them to those they have of their elementary and cooperating teachers. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 24, 617-635.
- Saban, A. (2004b). Entry level prospective classroom teachers' metaphors about the concept of "teacher". *The Journal of Turkish Educational Sciences*, 2(2), 131-155.
- Şahin, A., & Sabancı, A. (2018). Perceptions of teacher candidates attending pedagogical formation courses regarding the educational inspectors: A metaphorical study. *E-International Journal of Educational Research*, 9(1), 83-101.
- Thomson, M. M. (2016). Metaphorical images of schooling: Beliefs about teaching and learning among prospective teachers from the United States displaying different motivational profiles. *Educational Psychology*, 36(3), 502-525.
- Toremen, F., & Dos, I. (2009). The metaphoric perceptions of primary school teachers on the concept of inspection. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, 9(4), 1999-2012.
- Tubin, D. (2005). Fantasy, vision, and metaphor—three tracks to teachers' minds. *The Qualitative Report*, 10(3), 543-560.
- Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Murphy, P. K. (2001). Teaching educational psychology to the implicit mind. In R. Sternberg & B. Torff (Eds.), *Understanding and teaching the implicit mind* (pp. 145-185). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2011). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri* (8. Basım). Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık. [Qualitative Research Methods in Social Sciences]

Language Teaching and Educational Research

e-ISSN 2636-8102

Volume 6, Issue 1 | 2023

The Relationship Between Preschool Teachers' Perceptions of Parental Approach and Levels of Emotional Labor

Münevver Şehitoğlu
Mehmet Koçyiğit

To cite this article:

Şehitoğlu, M., & Koçyiğit, M. (2023). The relationship between preschool teachers' perceptions of parental approach and levels of emotional labor. *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 71-91. <https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1207215>

[View the journal website](#)



[Submit your article to LATER](#)



[Contact editor](#)



Copyright (c) 2023 LATER and the author(s). This is an open access article under CC BY-NC-ND license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>)

Research Article

The relationship between preschool teachers' perceptions of parental approach and levels of emotional labor*

Münevver Şehitoğlu** ✉ ORCID

PhD Student, Educational Science, Zurich University, Switzerland

Mehmet Koçyiğit ✉ ORCID

Associate Professor, Faculty of Education, Afyon Kocatepe University, Turkey

Abstract

In this study, preschool teachers' perceptions of parental approach, their emotional labor levels, and the relationship between them were examined regarding various variables. 220 preschool teachers working in public and private preschool institutions in the 2020-2021 academic year participated in this research. The Emotional Labor Scale and Parental Approach Scale were applied to preschool teachers. It was found that there is a positive, moderate significant relationship between the parental approach perceptions of preschool teachers and their emotional labor levels. Preschool teachers scored highest from the factor of "natural emotions" related to emotional labor, and the lowest in the dimension of "superficial role playing". According to the answers given by the preschool teachers regarding their perceptions of parental approach, the highest mean was in the dimension of "positive and informative approach", and the lowest was in the dimension of "negative and critical approach".

Received
19 November 2022

Accepted
06 March 2023

Keywords

Emotional labor
Parental approach
Preschool teachers

Suggested APA citation: Şehitoğlu, M., & Koçyiğit, M. (2023). The relationship between preschool teachers' perceptions of parental approach and levels of emotional labor. *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 71-91.
<https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1207215>

*This article is derived and compiled from the master's thesis completed by the first author under the supervision of the second author.

** Corresponding author

Author(s)' statements on ethics and conflict of interest

Ethics statement: We hereby declare that research/publication ethics and citing principles have been considered in all the stages of the study. Approval that there is no ethical inconvenience in the study was obtained from Afyon Kocatepe University Social and Human Sciences Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee, with the decision dated 27.10.2020 and numbered 2020/185.

Statement of interest: We have no conflict of interest to declare.

Author contribution disclosure: Both/All authors contributed equally to this study.

Funding: None

Acknowledgements: None

Introduction

Emotions are one of the most important factors affecting communication with people. The way people reflect on each other's emotions and interact through emotions significantly affects their behavior. Emotions affect people's decisions thanks to their emotional experiences (Goleman, 2020); hence, emotions are decisive in forming behaviors. The behaviors that institutions expect from their employees include not only physical elements, but also the emotions that will be reflected on the customer. Emotional labor, which is revealed by these behavior patterns and emotional displays expected from employees, have become a value that can be bought and sold in the labor market, just like physical and informational labor. One of the places where emotions are intensely experienced is educational institutions. Especially as a result of teacher and student interaction, two-way intense emotional relation is experienced. In addition to emotional labor, the need for teachers to cooperate with parents gains importance for students to feel safe at school, to achieve academic development and social-emotional harmony with their peers. In this context, when the literature is examined, the concepts of "emotional labor" as a concept that deals with the change experienced by people in the organization due to their internal emotional states, and "parental approaches" that reveal teachers' thoughts towards parents come to the fore (Basım & Beğenirbaş, 2012; Hatipoğlu & Kavas, 2016).

Emotional labor

Emotional labor was defined by Hochschild for the first time as "the effort of employees who are in one-to-one contact with customers due to their job, to display their emotional reactions to the organization and to display acceptable behavior according to demand or to create emotional displays that are compatible with organizational goals" (Hochschild, 1979, p. 561). In order to behave as expected, employees consciously or unconsciously regulate their own expressions by using various emotion management methods (Grandey, 2000). Hochschild (1983, 2006), in his book "The Managed Heart", represents the most fundamental criticism of this as the commodification of emotions and their economic pricing. At the same time, it is one of the behavioral results of emotional labor that employees are asked to behave politely during service by showing a friendly and smiling approach to individuals who exhibit negative behavior (Neckel, 2013). Considering the effects of emotional states on the performance of the institution and employees, it is necessary for managers to know how they will affect the emotional reactions of employees (Humphrey et al., 2008). Hochschild (1979) mostly conducted research on the emotions of flight attendants and drew attention to the importance of emotions in the workplace, daily life, and family. Morris and Feldman (1997) suggested in their study that emotional labor can be conceptualized in different dimensions which are: "a) the frequency of emotional display, (b) attention to the necessary display rules, (c) the various emotions that must be exhibited, and (d) the emotional dissonance that arises as a result of the obligation to express organizationally desired emotions that are not really felt" (Morris & Feldman, 1997, p. 987). Grandey (2000) included the concept of emotion regulation in the content of emotional labor (Grandey, 2000). These emotional regulations are deep behavior and superficial behavior. Emotional labor consists of three dimensions: superficial acting, deep acting and natural emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983).

Hochschild (1983) argues that individuals working in the service sector develop emotion rules that determine the emotions they should feel. Emotions that require the ability to act

without showing one's real feelings in business life are a form of behavior that also forms the basis of the level of acting. In this case, in the superficial role-playing dimension, it is also possible that the employee could feel worrisome and control this behavior in addition to showing his emotions differently from what he has (Lin, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Neckel, 2013; Pugliesi, 1999).

Deep acting is an innate behavior that requires learning how one truly feels. It is a state of harmony showing that employees are willing to dedicate themselves to their work and exhibit expected emotional behaviors (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1979).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) argued that individuals behave in a third way towards the institutions they work for, that is, they perform emotional labor through spontaneous and sincere emotion. In this case, the expression of naturally felt emotions has been characterized as an effective form of emotional labor and a naturally felt behavior (Diefendorff et al., 2008).

Individual factors affecting emotional labor are expressed as gender, expressing emotions, emotional intelligence, self-monitoring and affect. Organizational factors that affect emotional labor are autonomy and social support (Hochschild, 1983). The concept of autonomy according to Sacks and Eisenstein means "self-directed" (Sacks & Eisenstein, 1976, p.6). It can be said that autonomy, is seen as a term used for the relative independence of the individual to his emotional and cultural behaviors (Wrana, 2008, p. 38). Bailey (1996) suggested that when interpersonal relations are positive and supportive, employees in the service sector can help themselves on behalf of the organization by finding more comfortable solutions in applying methods of dealing with job stress and customers (Grandey, 2000, p. 107).

Teaching profession can be expressed as a constantly renewed and developing profession. In relation to this, it can be said that teachers not only train students but also contribute to the development of society in every aspect (Ayvaz Tuncel, 2011, p. 29). For this reason, teachers also have responsibilities towards the school administration and parents, apart from being in intense interaction with the children in the classroom environment in order to display their emotions sincerely. The different emotional states experienced by teachers in their institutions and the management system in the school can be daunting and therefore cause teachers to experience tense and stressful emotions (Frenzel, Götz, & Pekrun, 2008; Kesel, 2015). For this reason, the teaching profession is affected by emotional labor due to the fact that it is intertwined with people and intense emotional states.

Family and parent

Sacher (2008, p. 27) defines the family as "human communities based on marriage, kinship, adoption, guardianship or emotional attachment, who are responsible for and support each other". "Parent" is defined as "a person who protects a child, takes care of his affairs and is responsible for all his behaviors" (TDK, 2021). As can be seen from the descriptions, children always depend on someone for attention and care in the first years of life, therefore, providing a safe and suitable environment is among the most important duties of families and parents.

As a result of the "entering school" phase through pre-school education, new rules such as teachers and schools begin for children and families (Fölling-Albers & Heinzl, 2007, p. 309). For a healthy education process, these three elements, consisting of school-family-child, allow a strong bond to be formed if they work in coordination with each other. The school's establishing good relations with families is considered important for the success of the school. An

environment of trust is created between parents and the school, which increases the student's in-school motivation. It is important for the teacher to cooperate with the family as well as the family has the right to obtain information about the education opportunities of the child by cooperating with the teacher (Vural, 2004, pp. 37-39). The school-parent unions are established as the unit that plays the most effective role in establishing and maintaining deep-rooted and solid connections between the school and the family (Şehitoğlu & Koçyiğit, 2020).

It can be inferred from the related literature that an important part of the communication between the school and the family occurs through a parent-teacher cooperation, which is important for the success and motivation of the parents and their children at school (Epstein, Galindo, & Sheldon, 2011; Fölling-Albers & Heinzl, 2007; Konca & Dikmenli, 2021; Neuenschwander, Lanfranchi, & Ermert, 2008). In addition, Textor (1998) stated that for the education-teaching partnership between parents and teachers to function properly, the stakeholders should have an open relationship, consultation and interview quality, the parents should be included in the cooperation and decision processes, and the pre-school centers should be integrated with the society (Textor, 1998). Parents and teachers are the most important stakeholders in the educational life of children. For this reason, the elements of the quality and minimum norms of cooperation between parents and teachers are the habit of family participation, the systematic transfer of information between parents and teachers, the consideration of parents' suggestions, the organization of qualified home visits, the provision of collaborative activities, and the involvement of the parent-child relationship. (Fantuzzo, McWayne, Perry, & Childs, 2004; Fröhlich-Gildhoff, 2013; Pang, 2010). Communication resources such as parent meetings, written information (social media, e-mail, information letters, etc.) and face-to-face individual interviews are used especially in parent and teacher interaction processes (Genç, 2005; Koç Akran & Kocaman, 2018; Yıldırım & Dönmez, 2008; Yılmaz & Öznacar, 2016). In this direction, parents will be given tasks in school activities in order to realize parent-teacher cooperation and create healthy social interaction and this will help teachers reduce their emotional stress. Giving feedback to teachers about the happy feelings of children at home results in positive evaluations as well (Neuenschwander et al., 2008).

Since parents and teachers play an active role in the education process, introducing the understanding of the relationship between school and family, structuring education and training taking into account the family dimension, and strengthening the communication bonds between family and school are seen as important developing factors (Erdoğan, 2000; Şehitoğlu & Koçyiğit, 2020). In particular, teachers' awareness of the importance of cooperation for children's happiness and success is one of the factors that improve relationships. Among the factors that hinder parent-teacher relations are the negative background of families' own school life, families' economic problems, disciplinary information for families, demanding economic contributions and warnings in this direction, parents' lack of time for school, teachers' negative attitudes, and families' low education levels (Orman, 2012; Özgan & Aydın, 2010; Vural, 2004; Yılmaz & Öznacar, 2016).

Emotional labor is also a compulsive behavioral situation and therefore directly affects work and family life. For this reason, teachers' emotional labor in business life and interaction with families are important because of their potential to influence each other (Aydın, 2004; Edwards & Rotbhard, 2000 as cited in Cheung & Tang, 2009). In this direction, positive attitudes and cooperative behaviors of parents towards teachers should have a very high effect on teachers'

emotional states. This case also increases the expectations for teachers to include emotional labor in their work thus resulting with emotional labor and parent attitudes becoming important in the field of education, especially preschool education as it is important for preschool teachers to be in cooperation and solidarity with parents to learn the characteristics of children and support their development and determining the emotional labor levels of preschool teachers is important in terms of managing their fluctuating moods in that process.

Purpose of the research

The aim of this study is to determine the emotional labor levels and parental approach perceptions of preschool teachers. In addition, it is aimed to determine whether there is a significant difference between these levels and the demographic characteristics of the participants, such as gender, age, years of service, institution type, education level, marital status, position in the job, and to examine the relationship between preschool teachers' emotional labor and perceptions of parental approach. In this context, answers to the following questions were sought.

Research Questions

RQ1: What are the levels of emotional labor and perceptions of parental approach of preschool teachers and are there any significant differences in these in terms of gender, age, years of service, education level, marital status, position on duty, and type of institution?

RQ2: What kind of a relationship is there between preschool teachers' emotional labor levels and perceptions of parental approach?

Methodology

This is a quantitative, descriptive correlational study. In correlational studies, it is possible to examine the relationship between two or more variables without intervening in any way (Büyüköztürk, 2019). In the study, the data were collected by applying the Emotional Labor Scale and the Parental Approach Scale to preschool teachers and any possible relationship between these two variables were sought without intervention.

Participants

The study group of the research consists of pre-school teachers working in 30 state and 15 private pre-school education institutions affiliated to the Ministry of National Education within the borders of Afyonkarahisar city center in the 2020-2021 academic year. Cluster sampling method was used in the study. In the cluster sampling method, the population is divided into parts and several parts or groups are randomly selected. Separating groups into clusters facilitates the construction of lists (Bursal, 2017). According to this, the teachers are divided into clusters according to the institutions they work. 140 preschool teachers working at public schools and 80 teachers working at private schools participated in the research. A total of 299 scales were distributed and analyses were made with 220 returned scales.

Data collection

Emotional Labor Scale developed by Diefendorff et al. (2008) and adapted to Turkish by Basım and Beğenirbaş (2012), and Parental Approaches Scale (Hatipoğlu & Kavas, 2016) were used to collect the data. The first scale includes superficial role playing (6 items), deep acting (4

items), natural emotions (3 items) sub-dimensions. The scale consists of 13 items and is prepared in a 5-point Likert type. It is scored in the range of “1= Never, 5= Always” (Basım & Begenirbaş, 2012). The “Parental Approach Scale” consists of two dimensions: positive and informative approach (11 items) and negative and criticizing approach (10 items). There are a total of 21 items in the 5-point Likert-type scale. Scoring is done between “1= never and 5= always” (Hatipoğlu & Kavas, 2016). There are no reverse items in the scales.

Data analysis

In the analysis of the data, first of all, the validity and reliability analyzes of the scales were made, then the normality of the distribution of the data for each variable and the overall total and each sub-dimension of the scales was examined. While testing normality, it was taken into account that the kurtosis and skewness values should be between +1.5 and -1.5 (George & Mallery, 2010). According to the results of the analysis, it was concluded that the data did not show normal distribution according to the kurtosis and skewness values of the total score means obtained from the scales. Accordingly, Mann Whitney U, Kruskal Wallis and Spearman Brown correlation tests were used in data analysis. All tests applied were based on .05 significance level. The value obtained according to the fit indices that emerged as a result of the confirmatory factor analysis of the emotional labor scale showed that the model had a normal fit [RMSEA = 0.073, NFI = 0.935, CFI = 0.963, GFI = 0.923, AGFI = 0.877, CMIN/DF = 2.176]. and the Cronbach alpha general reliability of the 13-item scale was found to be .85. The fit indices obtained as a result of the confirmatory factor analysis of the parental approaches scale were found to be [RMSEA = 0.079, NFI = 0.876, CFI = 0.924, GFI = 0.869, AGFI = 0.825] also showing a normal fit and the Cronbach alpha general reliability of the 18-item scale was found to be .70. The results show that the scales used are valid and reliable.

Findings

The research findings are listed and interpreted in this part taking into account the research questions.

Findings regarding RQ1

Emotional labor levels of preschool teachers

The answers obtained from the emotional labor scale and its dimensions regarding the emotional labor levels of preschool teachers are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Mean, mean error and standard deviation values of the emotional labor scale and its factors

Scales	Mean	Mean Error	SS
Superficial Role Playing	3.12	.081	1.214
Deep Acting	4.28	.067	.994
Natural Emotions	4.58	.044	.665
Total	3.12	.081	1.212

According to Table 1, it is seen that the "natural emotions" dimension has the highest mean (4.58) and "superficial role playing" dimension has the lowest (3.12). Accordingly, it can be interpreted that preschool teachers generally have a tendency to 'natural emotions'. When

the standard deviation values are examined, it can be said that the scores of the 'natural emotions' dimension are more homogeneous than the other dimensions. Mean taken from the Emotional Labor Scale in general was calculated as 3.12 out of 5.

Parental approach perceptions of preschool teachers

Mean, mean error and standard deviation values received from the parental approach scale and its factors are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Mean, mean error and standard deviation values of the parental approach scale and its factors

Scales	Mean	Mean Error	SS
Positive and Informative Approach	4.47	.036	.543
Deep Acting	1.37	.046	.690
Total	3.18	.041	.357

According to Table 2, the answers obtained from the scale and dimensions of parental approach perceptions of preschool teachers are given. It can be seen that the "positive and informative approach" dimension has the highest mean (4.47). The lowest mean is 1.37 of "negative and critical" dimension. When the standard deviation values are examined, it can be said that the scores of the 'positive and informative approach' dimension are more homogeneous than the other dimensions. The mean score taken from the Parent Approach Scale was calculated as 3.18 out of 5.

Emotional labor and age

Kruskal-Wallis H Results between the age variable and emotional labor behaviors are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Age and emotional labor Kruskal-Wallis H

Emotional Labor	Age	N	Mean Rank	sd	Chi-Square	p
Superficial Role Playing	20-30 years	66	99.54		13,174	.001*
	31-40 years	105	103.93	2		
	41-50 years	49	139.35			

According to Table 3, a statistically significant difference was found in the emotional labor levels of preschool teachers in the "Superficial role playing" sub-dimension ($\chi^2= 13,174$, $p<.05$). No significant difference was found in the "deep acting" and "natural emotions" sub-dimensions ($p>.05$).

As a result of the pairwise comparisons made in order to determine the direction of the differentiation between the groups, in the sub-dimension of "superficial role playing", between the teachers aged 20-30 and teachers aged 41-50 in favor of 41-50 years, between the teachers aged 31-40 and teachers aged 41-50. significant differences were found in favor of 41-50 ($p=.003$).

Emotional labor and education status

It was found out that the emotional labor levels of preschool teachers did not show a significant difference in total and sub-dimensions according to the variable of educational status ($p>.05$).

Emotional labor and year of service

Emotional labor levels of preschool teachers by year of service variable Kruskal Wallis Test results are given in Table 4.

Table 4. Emotional labor by year of service Kruskal-Wallis H

Emotional Labor	Year of Service	N	Mean Rank	sd	Chi-Square	p
Deep Acting	1-5 years	34	82.31	4	16.136	.003*
	6-10 years	56	108.90			
	11-15 years	90	117.34			
	16-20 years	28	137.41			
	21 years and above	12	83.71			
	31-40 years	105	107.50			
	41-50 years	49	105.56			

Table 4 shows that, a significant difference was found in the “deep acting” sub-dimension ($\chi^2= 16.136, p<.05$) of the emotional labor levels of preschool teachers according to the variable of years of service. No significant difference was found in the sub-dimensions of " Superficial role playing" and "natural emotions" ($p>.05$).

As a result of the pairwise comparisons made with the Mann Whitney U test to determine between which groups the difference is, in the "deep acting" sub-dimension, between the preschool teachers who served for 1-5 years and the teachers who served for 11-15 years in favor of the teachers who served for 11-15 years ($p= .004$), significant differences were found between teachers serving 16-20 years and teachers serving 1-5 years in favor of teachers serving 16-20 years ($p=.015$). Accordingly, it can be interpreted that the group means with 11 to 20 years of service are significantly higher in the dimension of “deep acting”.

Emotional labor and marital status

Preschool teachers' emotional labor levels did not show a significant difference according to the marital status variable ($p>.05$).

Emotional labor and position on duty

The emotional labor levels of preschool teachers did not show a significant difference in according to the variable of position on duty ($p>.05$).

Emotional labor and types of institutions

The differences in the levels of emotional labor behaviors according to the types of institutions are given in Table 5.

Table 5. Emotional labor according to the types of institutions Mann Whitney U

Emotional Labor	Institution Type	N	Mean Rank	Tot.Rank	Z	U	p
Superficial Role Playing	Public	140	99.79	13970.50	-3.306	4100.50	.001*
	Private	80	129.24	10339.50			
Deep Acting	Public	140	103.61	14505.00	-2.213	4635.00	.057
	Private	80	122.56	9805.00			
Natural Emotions	Public	140	110.00	15400.00	-.175	.5530.00	.861
	Private	80	111.38	8910.00			

According to Table 5, a statistically significant difference was found in the " Superficial role playing" sub-dimension (U=4100.50, p=0.001, p<.05). It was concluded that the difference in the mean scores of preschool teachers between the two groups (\bar{X} =129.24) was in favor of the teachers working in special education institutions. No significant difference was found in the "deep acting" and "natural emotions" sub-dimensions.

Parental approach and gender

Table 6. Perceptions of parental approach according to gender Mann-Whitney U

Parent Approach	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Tot.Rank	Z	U	p
Positive and Informative Approach	Male	4	40.50	162.00	-2.236	152.00	.025*
	Woman	216	111.80	24148.00			
Negative and Critical Approach	Male	4	188.88	755.50	-2.663	118.50	.008*
	Woman	216	109.05	23554.50			

According to Table 6, a statistically significant difference was found in the "positive and informative approach" sub-dimension (p=.025, p<.05) and the "negative and critical approach" sub-dimensions (p=.008, p<.05). In the "positive and informative approach" sub-dimension, female teachers' (\bar{X} =111.80, r=-0.15) parent approach perception levels are higher than male teachers. In the "negative and critical approach" sub-dimension, it was concluded that male teachers' (\bar{X} =188.88, r=0.18) parental approach perception levels were higher than female teachers.

Parental approach and age

Parental approach levels of preschool teachers did not show a significant difference according to the age variable (p>.05).

Parental approach and year of service

Preschool teachers' perceptions of parental approach according to the year of service variable are given in Table 7.

Table 7. Perceptions of parental approach according to the year of service Kruskal-Wallis H

Parental Approaches	Year of Service	N	Mean Rank	sd	Chi-Square	p
Positive and Informative Approach	1-5 years	34	98.93			
	6-10 years	56	106.92	4	10,854	.028*
	11-15 years	90	108.99			
	16-20 years	28	144.96			
	21 years and above	12	90.92			
Negative and Critical Approach	1-5 years	34	104.78			
	6-10 years	56	110.40	4	18,418	.001*
	11-15 years	90	113.53			
	16-20 years	28	82.71			
	21 years and above	12	169.25			

According to Table 7, preschool teachers' perception levels of parental approach are in the “positive and informative approach” sub-dimension ($\chi^2=10.854$, $p=.028$) and in the “negative and critical approach” sub-dimension ($\chi^2=18.418$) according to the variable of years of service a significant difference was found ($p=.001$).

As a result of pairwise comparisons, in the sub-dimension of "positive and informative approach", a significant difference was found between teachers with 16-20 years of service and teachers with 1-5 years, 6-10 years and 11-15 years of service, in favor of teachers with 16-20 years of service. In the sub-dimension of “negative and criticizing approach”, significant differences were found between teachers who served for 21 years or more and teachers who served 16-20 years in favor of teachers who had 21 years or more ($p<.05$). Accordingly, it can be interpreted that the group means with 16-20 years of service in the dimension of "positive and informative approach" and the group means with a "negative and critical approach" service year of 21 years and above are significantly higher.

Parental approach and educational status

Preschool teachers' perceptions of parental approach Mann Whitney U test regarding the variable of educational status are given in Table 8.

Table 8. Perceptions of parental approach Mann Whitney U test regarding educational status

Parental Approach	Education status	N	Mean Rank	Tot.Rank	Z	U	p
Positive and Informative Approach	Associate degree	44	127.68	5618.00			
	Undergraduate/Graduate	176	106.20	18692.00	-2.017	3116	.054
Negative and Critical Approach	Associate degree	44	77.15	3394.50			
	Undergraduate/Graduate	176	118.84	20915.50	-4,075	2404.5	.000*

According to Table 8, a significant difference was found in the "negative and critical approach" sub-dimension ($p=.000$) according to the variable of educational status in the parental approach perception levels of the preschool teachers.

Parental approach and marital status

Mann-Whitney U test results regarding preschool teachers' perceptions of parental approach according to marital status variable is given in Table 9.

Table 9. Mann-Whitney U test between perceptions of parental approach and marital status

Parental Approach	Marital status	N	Mean Rank	Tot.Rank	Z	U	p
Positive and Informative Approach	married	167	108.12	6254.50	-.993	4027.50	.321
	single	53	118.01	18055.50			
Negative and Critical Approach	married	167	116.89	19520.00	-2.831	3359.00	.046*
	single	53	90.38	4790.00			

According to Table 9, a statistically significant difference was found in the “negative and criticizing approach” sub-dimension ($U=3359.00$, $p=0.046$, $p<.05$). In the sub-dimension of "negative and criticizing approach", married teachers' parental approach perception level mean rank ($\bar{X}=116.89$) is higher than that of single teachers.

Parental approach and position on duty

It was found that the parent approach levels of preschool teachers did not show a significant difference in total and sub-dimensions according to the variable of position on duty ($p>.05$).

Parental approach and type of institution

Mann-Whitney U test results regarding the preschool teachers' perceptions of parental approach according to type of institution variable are given in Table 10.

Table 10. Perceptions of parental approach according to type of institution Mann-Whitney U

Parental Approach	Institution Type	N	Mean Rank	Tot.Rank	Z	U	p
Positive and Informative Approach	State	140	102.76	14386.50	-2,403	4516.50	.016*
	Special	80	124.04	9923.50			
Negative and Critical Approach	State	140	120.35	16849.00	-3.254	4221.00	.001*
	Special	80	93.26	7461.00			

According to Table 10, in the "positive and informative approach" sub-dimension ($p=0.016$, $p<.05$) and in the "negative and critical approach" sub-dimension ($p=0.001$, $p<.05$) statistically significant differences were detected. In the "positive and informative approach" sub-dimension, the mean rank of parental approach perception level of teachers working in private

institutions ($\bar{X}=124.04$) is higher than teachers working in public institutions. In the sub-dimension of "negative and criticizing approach", the parent approach perception level of the teachers working in the state institution was found to be higher ($\bar{X}=120.35$) compared to the teachers working in the private institutions.

Findings regarding RQ2

Correlation between preschool teachers' perceptions of parental approach and emotional labor levels was tested and the result is given in Table 11.

Table 11. Spearman correlation test between preschool teachers' perceptions of parental approach and emotional labor levels

	Superficial Role Playing	Deep Acting	Natural Emotions	Positive and Informative Approach	Negative and Critical Approach	Emotional Labor	Parental Approaches
Superficial Role Playing	-						
Deep Acting	.468**	-					
Natural Emotions	-.218**	.302**	-				
Positive and Informative Approach	.439**	.423**	.139**	-			
Negative and Critical Approach	-.185**	.401**	-.275**	-.469**	-		
Emotional Labor	.896**	.752**	.118	.507**	-.321**	-	
Parental Approaches	.440**	.235**	-.024	.755**	.275	.417**	-

According to Table 11, it is seen that there is a positive and moderately significant relationship ($r=.417$; $p<.01$) between parental approaches and emotional labor. Superficial role playing sub-dimension show a moderately significant positive relationship with deep acting ($r=.468$; $p<.01$), positive and informative approach ($r=.439$; $p<.01$) and parent approaches in general ($r=.440$; $p<.01$), and a highly significant positive relationship with emotional labor ($r=.896$; $p<.01$). There was a low and significant negative correlation between the superficial role playing sub-dimension and natural feelings ($r=-.218$; $p<.01$) and negative and criticizing approach sub-dimension ($r=-.185$; $p<.01$). Deep acting sub-dimension with natural feelings ($r=.302$; $p<.01$), positive informative approach ($r=.423$; $p<.01$), and negative and critical approach ($r=.401$; $p<.05$) was found to have a moderately significant positive correlation. A highly significant positive correlation was found between emotional labor and deep acting ($r=.752$; $p<.01$), and a low-level significant positive correlation was found between parental approaches and deep acting ($r=.235$; $p<.01$). A low-level significant positive correlation was found between the natural emotions sub-dimension and the positive and informative approach sub-dimension ($r=.139$; $p<.01$). A moderately significant negative correlation was found between the positive and informative approach and the negative and critical approach ($r=-.469$; $p<.01$) sub-dimensions. There was a

moderate positive correlation between positive and informative approach and overall emotional labor ($r=.507$; $p<.01$), and a highly significant positive correlation between parental approach ($r=.755$; $p<.01$).

Discussion

The findings showed the highest mean in the distribution of emotional labor levels of preschool teachers was in the dimension of natural emotions. This dimension was followed by deep acting and superficial role playing dimensions, respectively. According to the answers given by the teachers regarding the emotional labor levels, the general mean was 3.12 out of 5.0. These research results show parallelism with some studies in the literature (Cingöz, 2018; Karasu, 2019; Yılmaz Daban, 2018). The mentioned studies and the results of this study concluded that it was meaningful for teachers to exhibit natural emotional behaviors in the process of interacting with children in the classroom.

In the present study, the findings showed that the emotional labor levels of preschool teachers did not show a significant difference according to the gender variable. There are studies in the literature showing different results. While there are studies reporting that no significant difference was found in terms of the gender variable (Koçak & Gürsoy, 2017; Polatkan, 2016), however it is also possible to see some studies reporting that there is significant difference (Ceylan, 2017; Çiçekoğlu & Taşlıyan, 2019). When this research and the results of the mentioned studies are evaluated regarding gender variable, it is difficult to generalize whether gender affects teachers' emotional labor levels.

As a result of this research, while the emotional labor levels of preschool teachers did not differ in the sub-dimension of natural emotions and deep acting, the teachers aged 41-50 years had more emotional labor than the teachers aged 20-30 and 31-40 in the sub-dimension of superficial role playing behavior. There are studies that have found that there is no significant difference regarding the age variable (Koçak & Gürsoy, 2017; Önal, 2019). Although there are different results for the age variable, it can be said that the level of emotional labor increases as the teachers' ages increase.

In the present study, while there was no significant difference in the superficial role-playing and natural emotions sub-dimension of preschool teachers' emotional labor levels according to the variable of years of service, in the deep role-playing sub-dimension, the teachers who served for 11-15 years and 16-20 years were compared to the teachers who served for 1-5 years. It has been found that they have a higher emotional labor tendency than their counterparts. While there are studies reporting that no significant difference was found regarding the variable of years of service (Ceylan, 2017; Önal, 2019), it is also possible to see studies that found a difference (Akbaş & Bostancı 2019; Philipp, 2010). From this point of view, it can be stated that behaviors, such as the need for teachers to play a role deeply and their desire to achieve their educational goals in general, become more challenging with the increase in years of service.

In the present study, it was found that the emotional labor levels of preschool teachers did not show a significant difference in the general and sub-dimensions of the scale, according to the variable of educational status, marital status and position on duty. There are also studies in the literature claiming that there are no significant differences regarding the variable of educational status (Bıyık, 2014; Doğan, 2019; Polatkan, 2016). In this context, it can be

interpreted that educational status does not have an effect on emotional labor levels. Regarding the marital status variable, different results were reported in the literature (Caner, 2019; Cingöz, 2018; Kaçamak, 2019). The reasons for these different results may be the responsibilities of teachers in marital life. It can be interpreted as special situations experienced by spouses and children due to their responsibilities and obligations. In such a situation, teachers may show emotional labor and poor tolerance in their classroom behaviors. In this study, it can be said that the marital status of preschool teachers does not affect their emotional labor levels.

While there were no significant differences in the dimensions of natural emotions and deep acting, a significant difference was found in the dimension of superficial role playing, according to the institution type variable. In the study, it was determined that preschool teachers working in private education institutions exhibited more emotional labor behaviors than preschool teachers working in public institutions. In terms of the institution type variable, the results of this research overlap with the literature (Tomruk Ünal, 2020). In his study, Kaçamak (2019) determined that the emotional labor behaviors of teachers working in public schools were lower than those working in private schools. From this point of view, given that the management strategies being different in private institutions, the school mission having various task loads, the teachers' anxiety of being fired, and the individual differences in the interaction processes with the parents may cause the teachers to play more roles and feel themselves under pressure.

According to the answers given by the preschool teachers regarding their perceptions of parental approach, the highest mean was of positive and informative approach dimension which is 4.47 out of 5.0, and the lowest mean was 1.37 in negative and criticizing approach dimension. Hatipoğlu and Kavas (2016) found in their research that primary school teachers mostly perceive a "positive and informative approach." Ergin and Çayak (2019), in their study, determined that the highest mean of the parents for students studying at various levels is in the dimension of professional expectations from the teacher. When the literature is examined, it has been revealed that teacher-parent cooperation is not at the desired level (Albez & Ada, 2017), and the results that there are positive perceptions among the stakeholders regarding the teacher-parent approach levels affect teacher-parent cooperation in general (Atakan, 2010; Ateş & Yıldız, 2019; Berger, 1991; Koç, 2018).

In the present study, according to the gender variable, female teachers' parental approach perceptions were higher than male teachers in the positive and informative dimension. Regarding negative and criticizing approaches, male teachers' parental approach perceptions differed from female teachers' perceptions. Han (2019) found that female teachers' perceptions of parental approach were more positive, which may arise because female preschool teachers may integrate the "mother" role in teaching. Apart from this, given that male preschool teachers feeling obliged to prove themselves and encountering prejudice from parents can also be considered effective in this result.

In the study, it was found that preschool teachers' perceptions of the parental approach did not show a significant difference according to age and position variables. These findings regarding position suggest that permanent and paid preschool teachers perceive parental approach similarly.

In the present study, significant differences were found in the sub-dimensions of positive and informative approach and negative and criticizing approach according to the variable of years of service. It has been revealed that preschool teachers serving 16-20 years exhibit more

positive and informative approach perceptions than preschool teachers serving 1-5 years, 6-10 years and 11-15 years. Pre-school teachers serving for 21 years or more perceive more negative and criticizing behaviors than pre-school teachers serving 16-20 years. In the literature there are results that are consistent (Kıldan, 2011) and there are also results where teachers who are close to retirement have negative relationships with parents (Koç, 2018). As the years of service of preschool teachers increase, their perceptions of parental approach also change, which means that the perceptions of preschool teachers who have been serving for 21 years and over change at a negative level, causing their patience to decrease.

In this study, while there was no difference in the positive and informative approach sub-dimension according to the variable of educational status, a significant difference was found in the negative and criticizing approach sub-dimension. It was revealed that preschool teachers with undergraduate and graduate education perceive more negative and criticizing behaviors than teachers with associate degrees. According to this result, it can be said that negative behaviors may occur due to the high goals and expectations for teachers who receive undergraduate and graduate education. Han (2019) reported in his study that the educational status of teachers did not cause a significant difference.

In this study, there was no difference in the positive and informative approach sub-dimension according to the marital status variable, while a significant difference was found in the negative and criticizing approach sub-dimension. It has been revealed that married preschool teachers perceive more negative and criticizing behaviors than single preschool teachers. Yağbasan and Imik (2006) concluded that the negative and distressing issues experienced by educators in the school environment affect intra-family communication ties. It can be said that the different responsibilities of the marriage life of the teachers and the effort aimed at family peace are relatively higher than the single teachers.

In the present research, significant differences were found in the sub-dimensions of "positive and informative approach" and "negative and critical approach" according to the institution type variable. Preschool teachers working in private education institutions exhibited more "positive and informative approach" perceptions more than preschool teachers working in public institutions. In the dimension of "negative and critical approach," it was concluded that preschool teachers working in public institutions exhibit "negative and critical approach" perceptions more than preschool teachers working in private education institutions. There are studies in the literature that support these results or show different results. It is possible to see studies reporting that there is no significant difference in the perception of parental approaches regarding the type of institution variable (Han, 2019), as well as studies reporting that there is (Tomruk Ünal, 2020). In this research, it can be said that preschool teachers working in private institutions have higher levels of positive approach perceptions because they are aware of their relations with parents, showing more closeness upon the request of the institution, and are aware of the need to provide information and feedback in line with the demands of the parents. When it comes to the correlation between parental approach perceptions and emotional labor levels, a negative and low-level significant correlation was found between the "superficial role playing" and "natural emotions" sub-dimensions of the emotional labor scale and "negative and critical approach" sub-dimension of the parental approach perceptions scale. From this point of view, it can be said that as preschool teachers' level of acting and their willingness to display natural emotions increase, negative and criticizing behaviors by parents decrease.

It was concluded that there is a statistically positive, moderately significant relationship between parental approach perceptions and emotional labor total scores. In the study of Özdoğru (2021), the problems encountered in the teacher-parent relationship caused the teachers to experience negative moods in the education-teaching process, and the results of the study by Tomruk Ünal (2020) showed that they exhibited emotional labor behaviors in the teacher-parent communication process. It can be said that in this study, a result that overlaps with the results of the studies in the literature has emerged (Aslan, 2016; Cerev & Coşkun, 2020; Epstein & Hollifield, 1996).

Conclusion

In this study examining the emotional labor levels and parental approach perceptions of preschool teachers, the highest mean in the distribution of emotional labor levels of preschool teachers was found in the dimension of natural emotions. This dimension is followed by deep acting and superficial role playing dimensions, respectively. The general mean was determined as 3.12 out of 5.0. It was found that the highest mean was of positive and informative approach dimension which is 4.47 out of 5.0, and the lowest mean was 1.37 of negative and criticizing approach dimension. As a result of the research, it was found that the emotional labor levels of preschool teachers did not show a significant difference according to the gender variable. While the emotional labor levels of preschool teachers did not differ in the sub-dimension of natural emotions and deep acting, in the sub-dimension of superficial role playing, teachers aged 41-50 had more emotional labor than teachers aged 20-30 and 31-40. According to the variable of years of service in the research, while there was no significant difference in the superficial role-playing and natural feelings sub-dimensions, in the deep-acting sub-dimension, the teachers who served for 11-15 years and 16-20 years were compared to the teachers who served for 1-5 years. It has been determined that they have a higher emotional labor tendency than their counterparts. In the study, it was concluded that the emotional labor levels of preschool teachers did not show a significant difference, according to the variable of educational status, marital status and position on duty. While there was no significant difference in the dimensions of natural feelings and deep acting, a significant difference was found in the dimension of superficial role playing according to institution type variable. It has been revealed that preschool teachers serving 16-20 years perceive more positive and informative approach behaviors than preschool teachers serving 1-5 years, 6-10 years and 11-15 years. It has been found that pre-school teachers serving for 21 years or more perceive more negative and criticizing behaviors than pre-school teachers serving 16-20 years. In the study, while there was no difference in the positive and informative approach sub-dimensions according to the variable of educational status, a significant difference was found in the negative and criticizing approach sub-dimension. It has been revealed that preschool teachers with undergraduate and graduate education perceive more negative and criticizing behaviors than teachers with associate degree. There was no difference in the positive and informative approach sub-dimension according to the marital status variable, while a significant difference was found in the negative and criticizing approach sub-dimension. It has been revealed that married preschool teachers perceive more negative and criticizing behavior than single preschool teachers. In the research, a significant difference was found in the sub-dimensions of "positive and informative approach" and "negative and critical approach" according to the institution type variable. It has been determined that preschool teachers working in private education institutions perceive more "positive and informative approach"

behaviors than preschool teachers working in public institutions. In the dimension of "negative and critical approach", it was seen that preschool teachers working in public institutions perceive more "negative and critical approach" behaviors compared to preschool teachers working in private education institutions. A negative and low-level significant relationship was found between the "superficial role playing" and "natural emotions" sub-dimensions of the emotional labor scale and the "negative and critical approach" sub-dimension of the parent approach perceptions scale. It was concluded that there is a statistically positive, moderately significant relationship between parental approach perceptions and emotional labor total scores.

Implications

Some suggestions can be made in line with the findings and results obtained in this research. This study includes preschool teachers working in Afyonkarahisar. Further studies can be conducted with larger and more homogeneous sample groups. In this study, the findings showed that teachers tend to have emotional labor as their age increases. To ensure that parent-teacher relations can function in a healthy way, in-service trainings such as emotion management training, can be given to teachers. The reasons for male preschool teachers' high perceptions of negative parent approaches can be investigated in depth, and studies can be conducted to support teachers' emotional efforts by emphasizing the significance and dignity of preschool education and professional equality before the school starts. The negative parental approach perceptions of preschool teachers with undergraduate and graduate education were higher than those of preschool teachers with associate degree education. In this context, the preschool education program in faculties can be examined and re-evaluated. Studies can be conducted to enable teachers working in pre-school state institutions to express themselves and examine parent-teacher problems in detail.

References

- Akbaş, A., Bostancı, A. B., (2019). Öğretmenlerin örgütsel politika algıları ile duygusal emek düzeyleri arasındaki ilişki. [The relationship between teachers' perceptions of organizational policy and emotional labor levels.] *Uşak University Journal of Educational Research*, 5(3), 44-63.
- Albez, C., & Ada, S. (2017). Okul - aile ortaklığı: güçlükler, beklentiler, gereksinimler, öneriler [School-parent partnership: problems, expectations, requirements, suggestions]. *AJELI-Anatolian Journal of Educational Leadership and Instruction*, 5(2), 1 - 18.
- Ashforth, B., & Humphrey, R. (1993). Emotional labor in service roles: The influence of identity. *Academy of Management Review*, 18(1), 88 - 115.
- Aslan, D. (2016). Primary school teachers' perception on parental involvement: A qualitative case study. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 5(2), 131 - 147.
- Atakan, H. (2010). *Okulöncesi eğitiminde aile katılımı çalışmalarının öğretmen ve ebeveyn görüşlerine göre değerlendirilmesi* [Participation of family studies in pre-school education according to ideas of teachers and parents]. (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Çanakkale.
- Ateş, A., & Yıldız, K. (2019). The impact of parents' meetings on students' academic success. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Research*, 5(3), 319 - 340.
- Aydın, Ş. (2004). Organizational stress management. *Dokuz Eylül University Journal of Graduate School of Social Sciences*, 6(3), 49-74.
- Ayvaz Tuncel, Z. (2011). *Bir meslek olarak öğretmenlik. [Teaching as a profession]*. In R. Kıncal (Ed.), *Eğitim bilimine giriş [Introduction to educational science]*. Grafiker Yayınları.

- Basım, N., & Beğenirbaş, M. (2012). Çalışma yaşamında duygusal emek: Bir ölçek uyarlama çalışması [Emotional labor in work life: A study of scale adaptation]. *Journal of Management and Economics*, 19(1), 77-90.
- Berger, E. (1991). Parent involvement: yesterday and today. *The Elementary School Journal*, 91(3), 209-219.
- Bıyık, Y. (2014). Duygusal emek ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ilişkisi: Bir araştırma. [The relationship between emotional labor and organizational citizenship behavior: A research]. *Gazi University Journal of Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences*, 16(3), 159 -180.
- Bursal, M. (2017). *SPSS ile temel veri analizi*, Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Büyüköztürk, S. (2019). *Sosyal bilimler için veri analizi el kitabı [Handbook of data analysis for social sciences]* (26th Ed.). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Caner, S. (2019). Duygusal emek ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı arasındaki ilişkiye yönelik bir araştırma [A research on the relationship between emotional labor and organizational citizenship behavior]. (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Pamukkale University, Denizli.
- Cheung, F. Y. L., & Tang, C. S. K. (2009). Quality of work life as a mediator between emotional labor and work family interference. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 24(3), 245-255.
- Cerev, G., & Coşkun, S. (2020). Özel okul öğretmenlerinin çalışma sorunları üzerine nitel bir araştırma: Elazığ ili örneği [A qualitative research on worklife based problems of private school teachers: The case of Elazığ province]. *Fırat Üniversitesi Harput Araştırmaları Dergisi (FÜHAD)*, 7(13), 125 - 142.
- Ceylan, A. K. (2017). Öğretmenlerin duygusal emeklerinin sosyo-demografik değişkenler yönünden özellikleri: Batman ili araştırması [Emotional labor of teachers in terms of socio-demographic characteristics: a survey in Batman province]. *Batman University Journal of Life Sciences*, 7(2), 122 - 132.
- Cingöz, E. (2018). *Öğretmenlerin duygusal emek davranışları ile tükenmişlikleri arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi* [Investigating the relationship between teachers' emotional labour behaviour and their burnout]. (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Eskisehir Osmangazi University, Eskisehir.
- Çiçeklioğlu, H., & Taşlıyan, m. (2019). The effect of emotional labour levels of teachers on citizenship behaviour. *Business & Management Studies: An International Journal*, 7(5), 3000-3026. <https://doi.org/10.15295/bmij.v7i5.1313>
- Diefendorff, J., Richard, E., & Yang, J. (2008). Linking emotion regulation strategies to affective events and negative emotions at work. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73(3), 498 - 508.
- Doğan, M. (2019). Öğretmenlerin duygusal emek ve örgütsel yabancılaşma davranışlarının incelenmesi. [Investigation of teachers' emotional labor and organizational alienation behaviors]. (Unpublished Master 's Thesis). Ege University, Izmir.
- Epstein, J. L., & Hollifield, J. H. (1996). Title I and school-family-community partnerships: Using research to realize the potential. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 1(3), 263-278.
- Epstein, J., Galindo, C., & Sheldon, S. (2011). Levels of leadership: effects of district and school leaders on the quality of school programs of family and community involvement. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 47(3), 462 - 495.
- Erdoğan, I. (2000). *Okul yönetimi ve öğretim liderliği [School Administration and Instructional Leadership]*. İstanbul: Sistem Yayıncılık.
- Ergin, D., & Çayak, S. (2019). Veli beklentileri ölçeği'nin geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması [Validity and reliability study of the parent expectations scale]. *Balkan & Near Eastern Journal of Social Sciences (BNEJSS)*, 5(2), 46.
- Fölling-Albers, M., & Heinzl, F. (2007). *Familie und Bildungsinstitutionen [family and educational institutions]*. In J. Ecarius, *Handbuch Familie [Handbuch Familie]* (pp. 300 - 320). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag.

- Fantuzzo, J., McWayne, C., Perry, M., & Childs, S. (2004). Multiple dimensions of family involvement and their relations to behavioral and learning competencies for urban, low-income children. *School Psychology Review, 33*(4), 467-480.
- Fröhlich-Gildhoff, K. (2013). The cooperation of educational professionals and parents in the field of early childhood education, care and upbringing. *German Institute for International Educational Research (DIPF)*, 11 - 25.
- Frenzel, A. C., Götz, T., & Pekrun, R. (2008). Ursachen und Wirkungen von Lehreremotionen: Ein Modell zur reziproken Beeinflussung von Lehrkräften und Klassenmerkmalen. *Lehrerexpertise-Analyse und Bedeutung unterrichtlichen Handelns*, 187-209.
- Genç, S. (2005). İlköğretim 1. kademedeki okul - aile işbirliği ile ilgili öğretmen ve veli görüşleri. [The views of teachers and parents on the school-family cooperation in the 1st level of primary education]. *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi, 3*(2), 227 - 243.
- George, D., & Mallery, P. (2010). SPSS for Windows step by step. A simple study guide and reference (10. Ed). GEN, Boston, MA: Pearson Education.
- Goleman, D. (2020). *Duygusal zekâ [Emotional intelligence]*. Istanbul: Varlık Yayınları.
- Grandey, A. (2000). Emotion regulation in the workplace: A new way to conceptualize emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology* 5(1), 95 - 110.
- Han, M. (2019). İstanbul örnekleminde ilkökul öğretmenlerinin performansında veli, öğrenci ve meslektaşlarının etkileri [The effects of parents, students and colleagues on the performance of primary school teachers in Istanbul sample.] (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Istanbul Aydın University, Istanbul.
- Hatipoğlu, A., & Kavas, E. (2016). Veli yaklaşımlarının öğretmen performansına etkisi [The effects of parents approach on teacher performance]. *Journal of the Human & Social Science Researches, 5*(4), 1012 - 1034.
- Hochschild, A. (1979). Emotion work, feeling rules, and social structure. *Journal of Sociology, 85*(3), 551-575.
- Hochschild, A. (1983). Comment on Kemper's "Social Constructionist and Positivist Approaches to the Sociology of Emotions". *American Journal of Sociology, 89*(2), 432-434.
- Hochschild, A. R. (2006). *Das gekaufte Herz Die Kommerzialisierung der Gefühle [The bought heart The commercialization of feelings]*. Frankfurt: Campus Verlag.
- Humphrey, R., Pollack, J., & Hawver, T. (2008). Leading with emotional labor. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 23*(2), 151 - 168.
- Kıldan, A. O. (2011). Öğretmen - çocuk ilişkilerinin çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelenmesi [Examination of teacher-child relationships in terms of various variables]. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Buca Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, (30)*, 103-120.
- Kaçamak, N. (2019). *Devlet ve özel okul öğretmenlerinin algıladıkları örgütsel destek düzeylerinin duygusal emeklerini yordamalarının incelenmesi* [Investigation of the predictions of the perceived organizational support levels of state and private school teachers on their emotional effort]. (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Yıldız Technical University Institute of Social Sciences, Istanbul.
- Karasu, A. (2019). *Ortaokul öğretmenlerinin duygusal emek davranışları ile tükenmişlik arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi (Erzurum ili örneği)* [The investigation of the relations between emotional labor behaviors and organizational burnout levels of secondary school teachers]. (Published Master's Thesis). Atatürk University Institute of Educational Sciences, Erzurum.
- Kesel, U. (2015). *Burnout bei Lehrerinnen und Lehrern 45+ Eine kritische Auseinandersetzung mit Ursachen und Präventionsangeboten*. Universität Passau (PhD thesis). Passau Universitaet, Philosophische Fakultät, Passau.

- Koç Akran, S., & Kocaman, İ. (2018). Öğretmenlerin ve velilerin okul öncesi eğitim kurumlarındaki veli toplantılarına ilişkin algıları [Perception of the teachers and parents regarding parents' meetings in the pre-school education institution]. *International Journal of Education Science and Technology, 4*(2), 97-100.
- Koç, M. (2018). Veli görüşlerine göre veli öğretmen ilişkisi ölçeğinin geliştirilmesi ve veli öğretmen ilişkisinin incelenmesi. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi, 47*(218), 55-76.
- Koçak, G., & Gürsoy, G. (2017). Duygusal emek ve tükenmişlik ilişkisi. *HAK-İŞ Uluslararası Emek ve Toplum Dergisi, 7*(17), 161-181.
- Konca, A. S., & Dikmenli, Y. (2021). Okul öncesi öğretmenlerin iş doyumu ve veli yaklaşımları arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi. *Kırşehir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 22*(3), 2005-2035.
- Lin, S. (2000). A study of the development of emotional labor loading scale. *Sun Yat-Sen Management Review, 8*(3), 427-447.
- Morris, J., & Feldman, D. (1997). Managing emotions in the workplace. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 9*(3), 257-274.
- Neckel, S. (2013). *Das gekaufte Herz. Zur Kommerzialisierung der Gefühle. [The bought heart. For the commercialization of feelings.]* In K. Senge, & R. Schützeichel, Hauptwerke der Emotionssoziologie. [Main works of the sociology of emotions] (pp. 168-175). Wiesbaden: Springer VS.
- Neuenschwander, M., Lanfranchi, A., & Ermert, C. (2008). Tension between school and family. *Federal Coordination Commission for Family Issues, (EKFF)*.
- Orman, M. (2012). *Velilerin sosyo ekonomik durumu, sınıf veli toplantılarına katılımı ve öğrencilerin başarısı: Tahir Merzeci İlköğretim Okulu örneği* [Socio economic status of parents, their participation in class parental meetings and success of students: Tahir Merzeci Primary School sample.] (Unpublished Master's Thesis), Dokuz Eylül University, Izmir.
- Önal, G. (2019). *Öğretmenlerin duygusal emek düzeyleri ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları arasındaki ilişki* [The relationship correlation between emotional labor levels of teachers and organizational citizenship behavior levels] (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Marmara University, Istanbul Sabahattin Zaim University, Istanbul.
- Özdoğru, M. (2021). İlkokullarda öğretmen-veli ilişkisinde yaşanan sorunlara ilişkin öğretmen görüşleri. *Uluslararası Temel Eğitim Çalışmaları Dergisi, 2*(1), 68-76.
- Özgan, H., & Aydın, Z. (2010). Okul-aile işbirliğine ilişkin yönetici, öğretmen ve veli görüşleri. *9. Ulusal sınıf öğretmenliği eğitimi sempozyumu, 20*(22), 802-811.
- Pang, Y. (2010). Facilitating family involvement in early intervention to preschool transition. *The School Community Journal, 20*(2), 183 - 198.
- Philipp, A. (2010). *Emotionsregulation im Unterricht und Deren Relevanz für das Befinden und Die Arbeitsfähigkeit von Lehrkräften In Abhängigkeit von Der Dauer Im Schuldienst.* (Unpublished PhD thesis). Albert-Ludwigs Universität, Freiburg.
- Polatkan, N. (2016). *Ortaokul öğretmenlerinin duygusal emek davranışları ile iş doyumları arasındaki ilişki* [The relationship between the secondary school teachers' emotional labor and their job satisfaction] (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Adnan Menderes University, Aydın.
- Pugliesi, K. (1999). The consequences of emotional labor: Effects of work stress, job satisfaction, and well-being. *Motivation and Emotion, 23*(2), 125-154.
- Sacher, W., (2008). *Elternarbeit Gestaltungsmöglichkeiten und Grundlagen für alle Schularten. [parental work design options and basics for all types of school]*. Bad Heilbrunn: Publisher Julius Klinkhardt.
- Sacks, S., & Eisenstein, H. (1976). Feminism and psychological autonomy: A study in decision-making. *Institute of Education Sciences, 57*(8), 419 - 423.

- Şehitoğlu, M., & Koçyiğit, M. (2020). Parent teacher associations in Turkey and Switzerland: A comparative study. *International Journal of Management Academy, 3*(3), 632-653.
- Textor, M. R. (1998). International perspectives on quality child care. *Early Childhood Education Journal 25*, 167-171.
- Tomruk Ünal, N. (2020). *Özel okul öğretmenlerinin duygusal emek süreçlerine ilişkin görüşlerinin incelenmesi* [Analysis of private school teachers opinions about emotional labor processes]. (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Karabuk University, Karabuk.
- TDK. (2021). Retrieved from sozluk.gov.tr.
- Vural, B. (2004). *Aile - okul birlikteliği [Family - school collaboration]*. Istanbul: Hayat Yayıncılık.
- Wrana, D. (2008). Autonomie und Struktur in Selbstlernprozessen. Gesellschaftliche, lerntheoretische und empirische Relationierungen [Autonomy and structure in self-learning processes. Social, learning theoretical and empirical relations]. *DIPF Leibniz Institute for Research and Information in Education Information Center (IZ) Education, 31* -101.
- Yağbasan, M., & İmik , N. (2006). Öğretmenlerin aile içi iletişimi (Malatya ili örneği). *Fırat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 16*(2), 227 - 245.
- Yıldırım, M. & Dönmez, B. (2008). Okul-aile işbirliğine ilişkin bir araştırma (İstiklal İlköğretim Okulu örneği) [A study on the cooperation between the school and parents (İstiklal Primary School Sample)]. *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences, 7*(23), 98 - 115.
- Yılmaz Daban, B. (2018). *Ortaokul öğretmenlerinin duygusal emek ile tükenmişlik düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi* [The analysis of the relationship between secondary school teachers' emotional labor and burnout levels.] (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Recep Tayyip Erdogan University, Rize.
- Yılmaz, E., & Öznacar, B. (2016). *Veli, ebeveyn - anne baba ve okul [Parent, parent - parents and school]*. In E. Yılmaz, A. Ünal, M. Caliskan, & S. Sulak, Eğitim Bilimlerinden Yansımalar [Reflections from Educational Sciences] (pp. 59 - 70). Konya: Çizgi Kitabevi.

Language Teaching and Educational Research

e-ISSN 2636-8102

Volume 6, Issue 1 | 2023

How Teacher Leaders Think About Parents: A Mixed Methods Approach

Özgür Bolat

To cite this article:

Bolat, Ö. (2023). How teacher leaders think about parents: A mixed methods approach. *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 92-109.
<https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1300281>

[View the journal website](#)



[Submit your article to LATER](#)



[Contact editor](#)



Copyright (c) 2023 LATER and the author(s). This is an open access article under CC BY-NC-ND license
(<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>)

Research Article

How teacher leaders think about parents: A mixed methods approach

Özgür Bolat 

Assist. Prof. Dr., Fırat International University, Faculty of Educational Sciences, Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus

Abstract

The present study firstly explores teacher mental images and understandings of the concepts of 'parent' through metaphor analysis and secondly examines how teacher leaders differ in terms of perceptions about parents. The primary objective of this study is to uncover teacher leaders' implicit attitudes about 'parents' in order to contribute to parental involvement initiatives undertaken by teacher. The study adopts a mixed-design methodology. Teacher leaders were identified through Teacher Leadership Behavior Scale and the metaphors were evaluated using a content analysis method. The research was conducted with 89 teachers. The study presents several significant findings. Metaphor analysis revealed teachers perceive parents in different seven distinction roles, which imply positive, neutral and negative attitude: partner / nurturer (positive), supporter (positive), observer (neutral), student (neutral), mirror (neutral), inspector (negative), Machiavellist (negative) and antagonist (negative). These roles indicate three types of parental involvement, ranging from 'active participation' (positive) to 'passive participation' (neutral), and to 'adversarial participation' (negative). Statistical analysis revealed that teacher leaders, high scorers as identified by teacher leadership behavior scale, have a more positive attitude towards parents than low scorers. Overall, these findings can be utilized by teacher leaders, educational leaders and researchers working in similar domains, providing valuable insights into teachers' view of parents and contributing to the enhancement of parental involvement practices.

Received
22 May 2023

Accepted
19 June 2023

Keywords
teacher leadership
parent
parental involvement
metaphor analysis

Suggested APA citation: Bolat, Ö. (2023). How teacher leaders think about parents: A mixed methods approach. *Language Teaching and Educational Research (LATER)*, 6(1), 92-109. <https://doi.org/10.35207/later.1300281>

Note(s)

The ethics committee approval was obtained from Süleyman Demirel University with a document number of E87432956-050.99-502059 on 25/05/2023.

Author(s)' statements on ethics and conflict of interest

Ethics statement: I hereby declare that research/publication ethics and citing principles have been considered in all the stages of the study. I take full responsibility for the content of the paper in case of dispute.

Statement of interest: I have no conflict of interest to declare. / I declare that I do not have a financial and/or business interests in a company that may be affected by the research reported in this paper.

Author contribution disclosure: Single author

Funding: None

Acknowledgements: None

Introduction

'Parental involvement' is a multidimensional concept (Grolnick & Pomerantz, 2022). Although there are different conceptualizations of parental involvement, the definition proposed by Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994) is widely accepted. They define parental involvement as "the family's dedication of resources to the child's academic life in terms of time, money, and energy." Similarly, a more recent definition of parental involvement, according to Castro et al. (2015) is "the active participation of parents in all aspects of their children's social, emotional, and academic development". Parents are involved in their children's education in different ways. Barger et al. (2019) distinguish between two broad forms of parental involvement: the school front and the home front. School-based involvement comprises parents' direct contact with the school in the form of participation or governance. Home-based involvement takes place at home and/or outside the school.

Several studies have shown that parental involvement contributes positively to student outcomes, such as cognitive, social and emotional development. For instance, Veas et al. (2019) found a positive relationship between parental involvement and academic achievement. Similarly, El Nokali et al. (2010) found a positive relationship between parental involvement and children's engagement, school adjustment, and motivation. In his most recent literature review, Fiskerstrand (2022) found that many of the parent involvement indicators were positively related to the children's mathematical achievement, performance, and skills. In a meta-analysis conducted by Jeynes (2005), a high correlation was also found between parental involvement and academic achievement. In more recent meta-analysis conducted by Castro et al. (2015), a similar result was found: as parental involvement increases, academic achievement increases.

Parental involvement not only affects school achievement, but also emotional and social development of children. For instance, according to a longitudinal study by Hill et al. (2004), as parental involvement increases, behavior problem decreases. The significance of parental involvement has gained even more prominence in the wake of the Covid-19 pandemic. Yu et al. (2022) found that high parental involvement during the Covid-19 pandemic contributed positively to children's learning. The most authoritative work on parental involvement was carried out by Wilder (2014). It was a meta-analysis of six previous meta-analysis studies. The result indicated that the relationship between parental involvement and academic achievement was positive. Overall, the evidence suggests that there is strong support for parental involvement in terms of almost all child outcomes. Therefore, 'parental involvement' needs to be supported and enabled by educational leaders and teachers for student improvement.

Parental involvement is a quality of effective schools (Fullan, 1985). School leaders play a pivotal role in involving parents in their children's education (Barr & Saltmarsh, 2014; Giles 2006). Parents feel welcome and feel like a family within the school community when the school leaders create a supportive atmosphere (Heinrichs, 2018). Yulianti et al. (2019) found that there is a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership by principals and parental involvement because the more principals support teachers' effort to promote parental development and the more teachers involved parents (Epstein, 1987). Recent research has demonstrated that teachers involved parents more often when they were supported by a principal who has transformational leadership (Jung & Sheldon, 2020).

School leaders are not the only that promotes parental involvement. Teachers play a significant role in promoting parental involvement as well (Yulianti et al., 2019). Teacher

invitations have been identified as powerful motivators for parents to be involved (Murray et al., 2015). In their second study, Yulianti et al., (2022) compared the impact of transformational leadership and teacher invitation and found that teacher invitation for parental involvement had an effect on parental involvement while transformational leadership did not have an effect. This finding shows that while transformational leadership is important, teacher leadership could be more important in promoting parental involvement.

Teacher leadership has recently started to attract increasing attention in the academic world (Martínez & Tadeu, 2018). However, there is no complete consensus regarding the definition of teacher leadership (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). In a review study on teacher leadership conducted by Nguyen et al. (2020), seventeen different definitions of teacher leadership were found. York-Barr and Duke (2004) define teacher leadership as “the process by which teachers, individually or collectively, influence stakeholders of the school to improve the educational process with the aim of increasing student success”. Wenner and Campbell (2017), who conducted influential research on teacher leadership in recent years, define teacher leadership as “teachers taking on leadership responsibilities outside of the classroom while fulfilling their classroom responsibilities”.

Teacher leadership has different dimensions. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) measure teacher leadership in seven dimensions: "self-awareness," "leading change," "communication," "diversity," "instructional competency and leadership," "continuous development," and "self-regulation." Wang and Xia (2020) measure teacher leadership in their scale in four dimensions: (a) leading instruction and professional development; (b) characteristics of teacher leadership; (c) participating in decisions concerning the school; and (d) diversity and continuous development. The Teacher Leadership Culture Scale developed by Demir (2014) has three sub-dimensions: "professional collaboration," "administrator support," and "supportive work environment". The scales developed by Beycioğlu and Aslan (2010) have three dimensions: "institutional development", "professional development," and "collaboration with colleagues". As observed, various studies reflect an array of dimensions for teacher leadership. Although there are common themes, unfortunately parental involvement is not explored as part of teacher leadership. Parental involvement needs to be examined within the context of teacher leadership.

In his research, Bolat (2013) discovered that teachers lead at three different levels and labelled these three dimensions as (i) self-leadership, (ii) micro-level leadership, and (iii) macro-level leadership. Teachers with a self-leadership approach feel responsible for their professional development, the development of their students and parents. Leadership starts when the teacher starts believing in himself/herself, having self-confidence and learning from others (Can, 2009). Teachers with a micro-level leadership approach have tried to lead their colleagues they are close with. Teachers with a macro-level leadership approach have tried to lead the entire school. Drawing from this early research, Bolat (2023) developed a teacher leadership behavior scale and four factors emerged. Self-leadership was divided into ‘classroom leadership’ and ‘parental leadership.’ This research indicates some teachers see parental involvement as part of their professional identity and are involved in parental involvement practices as part of their leadership practice. He turned three-factor teacher leadership model into a four-factor model, making a ‘parental leadership’ as a distinct teacher leadership category.

Teacher leadership is one of the important drivers for parental involvement. However, two perspectives affect teachers’ decision to exercise leadership for parental improvement.

Epstein and Becker (1982) have found that some teachers have negative attitudes towards parental involvement and some teachers have positive attitudes. In other words, some teachers see a lot of advantages and some see potential problems in parental involvement (Becker & Epstein, 1982). Bryan and Henry (2012) underlined the importance of exploring school members' beliefs regarding the parents. Henderson et al. (2007) further suggested that holding positive beliefs about family engagement is a starting place to working effectively with parents. Assumptions about parents build the foundation of what will destroy or create an essential parent/teacher relationship (Basarabai, 2013). Therefore, it is important to identify if teachers' beliefs are helpful or harmful in developing relationships with parents and families (Pushor & Amendt, 2018)

The present research explores in detail how these two perspectives affect teachers in general and teacher leadership behavior in particular since teachers who have a negative attitude towards parents are less likely to communicate with parents and encourage parental involvement. Therefore, it is important to explore teachers' attitudes about parental development. One way to measure attitudes is through direct measurement methods, but people do not often have direct access to their attitudes (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Therefore, metaphor analysis is a valid method to explore the implicit attitudes of teachers towards parents.

The word metaphor means "employing a word or a concept in a novel way that differs from its conventional meaning" (TDK, 2015). The word 'metaphor' derives from the Greek word "Metapherein". Meta means 'change' and pherein means 'bearing' (Levine, 2005). Therefore, metaphors alter mental patterns by converting established ideas into fresh perceptions. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) emphasize in their book "Metaphors We Live By" that the process of human thought and conceptual systems are structured by metaphors. In other words, metaphors are not just tools, but mechanisms that shape thought structures and attitudes (Landau et al., 2018). In other words, they are thoughts itself. Metaphors are often used to convey subtext (Thibodeau et al., 2019). For instance, when we ask, "where is the relationship going?", we convey our assumption that we are in a relationship that we expect to go forward. Metaphors are also used to express difficult-to-define feelings powerfully (Ortony & Fainsilber, 1987). For example, instead of saying "I'm tired," we might say, "I feel like I've been run over by a truck," or for a motionless person, we might say, "he/she is like the dead." There are even some metaphors without which it would be difficult to convey an idea because these metaphors have captured the essence of certain concepts (Cornelissen, 2005). For example, by naming the factors hindering women's career development as the "glass ceiling," researchers have emphasized that these factors are unseen and hidden (Cotter et al., 2001). Moreover, metaphors are effective tools both in the production of new knowledge and in the transmission of information in different fields (Schoemaker, 2020). Thanks to metaphors, researchers can look at familiar concepts with completely new eyes (Huebner, 1984). Metaphors are also effective in creating new theoretical frameworks by establishing relationships between two concepts (Tsoukas, 1991). Through metaphors, researchers make concepts more understandable (Ritchey, 2018). Because of its ability to uncover implicit association between concepts (Tsoukas, 1991) as well as describe people's perceptions of a certain phenomenon, metaphor analysis has been increasingly employed as an analytical tool in educational science research (Hacifazlıoğlu et al., 2011).

There are several studies that used a metaphor analysis approach in educational science. The concepts of 'technology leadership' (Karadeniz et al., 2011), 'teacher' (Aslan, 2013; Pektas &

Kıldan, 2009), 'student' (Saban, 2009), 'school' (Saban, 2008a), 'school manager' (Zembat et al., 2015), 'knowledge' (Saban, 2008b), 'internet' (Saban, 2010), and 'education' (Altun & Apaydin, 2013) have been analyzed using a metaphor analysis approach. There is one study that explores teachers' perception about 'parent' (Çakmak et al., 2014). However, there is no study that explores teacher leaders' perception of 'parents' through metaphors. Discovering the thoughts of teacher leaders regarding the concepts of 'parent' through a metaphor analysis method can give important insights about the attitudes teachers have towards parents. In the present research, teachers' metaphors in general and teacher leaders' metaphors in particular in relation to the concept of 'parent' is explored. The findings can be utilized by educational leaders, teachers and researchers providing valuable insights into teacher leaders' perspectives and contributing to the enhancement of parental involvement practices.

Research questions

The present study aims firstly (i) to explore teachers' attitudes toward parents in general and teacher leaders' attitudes toward parents in particular through metaphor analysis and secondly (ii) to examine how teacher leaders differ in terms of perceptions about 'parents' than other teachers. Our research questions are as follows:

1. What are the metaphors that teachers have regarding the concept of "parent" in general?
2. Under which conceptual categories can the identified metaphors be grouped in terms of common characteristics?
3. How do teacher leaders think differently about parents than teachers who do not exercise leadership?

Methodology

In line with the purpose of the study, a mixed methods approach has been adopted for the study. A phenomenology methodology has been adopted for the first qualitative part. Phenomenology focuses on exploring the depth of human experiences as perceived by the individuals themselves (Creswell & Poth, 2016). Although teachers generally have knowledge about the concepts of "parents," this approach was chosen because it enables the exploration of teachers' unconscious and implicit understanding about parents. For the analysis of qualitative data, a metaphor analysis approach was used. The metaphors are often reflective of individuals' implicit beliefs and attitudes which may not easily captured by more traditional research methods (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Therefore, in educational research, metaphors are frequently used to describe people's perceptions (Hacıfazlıoğlu et al., 2011). For the quantitative part of the study, a survey methodology was adopted. Teacher leadership behavior scale (Bolat, 2023) was used to collect quantitative data. The use of scale offers a systematic and standardized approach to data collection (DeVellis & Thorpe, 2021). This approach provided a quantitative measure to what extent teachers exercise leadership in their schools and thus allowed for transforming the phenomena of leadership into a standardized format that is understandable and analyzable (Streiner et al., 2015). Participants filled out the scale and received a leadership score based on the scale. An Anova test was applied to compare three groups of teachers who have different perceptions about 'parents'. Such a quantitative approach was necessary since it would not be

possible to determine whether the difference of perceptions among groups were statistically significant without such a statistical analysis.

Study group

Data were collected from 112 teachers who work as teachers at public schools in the city of Bartın, Turkey during the 2022-2023 academic year. A convenience sampling method has been chosen. This sampling method brings speed and practicality to the research (Etikan et al., 2016) and provides easy access to the population (Fraenkel et al., 2011). Data were collected from participants in Bartın because of easy and convenient access. 23 participants were excluded from data analysis since their forms were incomplete, or contained meaningless sentences. Data analysis was performed on 89 participants. Participants were from diverse backgrounds in terms of gender, teaching experience and age. The number and percentage distributions of the demographic characteristics of the participants are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Number and percentage distributions of the demographics of the participants

Category		Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	71	83,5
	Male	14	16,5
	Total	85	100
Age	25-34	29	34,1
	35-44	37	43,5
	45-65	19	22,4
	Total	85	100
Experience	1-10 years	29	34,9
	11 – 20 years	27	32,5
	21+ years	27	32,5
	Total	83	100

Note: Four participants did not provide demographics data

Out of the 89 participants, 71 (83.5%) are female, and 14 (16.5%) are male. 29 (34.1%) individuals are in the ‘25-34’ age range, 37 (43.5%) individuals are in the ‘34-44’ age range, and 19 (22.4%) individuals are in the ‘45-65’ age range. Finally, upon examining the experience of the participants, it is seen that the number of those with ‘1-10 years’ of experience is 29 (34.9%), the number of those with ‘11-20 years’ of experience is 27 (32.5%), and the number of those with ‘21 years and above’ of experience is 27 (32.5%).

Data collection instruments

Two data collection instruments were used for the purpose of the study. Firstly, for the quantitative data, participants filled out Teacher Leadership Behavior Scale developed by Bolat (2023). The scale has been shown to have high validity and reliability (Bolat, 2023). The purpose of the scale was to identify teacher leaders. The scale is a five-point Likert type scale, ranging from ‘(1) never’ to ‘(5) ‘always’. The scale consists of 17 items that measure teacher leadership behavior in four dimensions. These dimensions are classroom leadership (4 items), parental leadership (3 items), micro-level leadership (5 items) and macro-level leadership (5 items). The

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scale are 0.77 for the classroom leadership dimension, 0.87 for the parental leadership dimension, 0.87 for the micro-level leadership dimension, and 0.88 for the macro-level leadership dimension. The overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the scale is 0.89.

Secondly, for the qualitative data a single-item question form was prepared, which included the sentence: "A parent.....is like, because.....". All participants were asked (i) to generate a metaphor that best describes 'parents' and (ii) to explain their metaphor in order to provide deeper context and understanding, by filling out the blanks. Before the application of the question form, a pilot study was carried out with two teachers. The purpose of the metaphor was to explore parents' implicit thought patterns about 'parents'.

Data collection and analysis

Data for the study were collected through an online platform (SurveyMonkey) for the purpose of the study. A link was created and sent to the educational authorities in the city of Bartın and the link was forwarded to teachers. Metaphors generated by teachers were coded by two researchers independently in order to ensure the reliability of the findings, drawing from the principles of grounded theory, where patterns, themes, and categories emerge from the data itself rather than pre-conceived hypotheses (Charmaz, 2014). A content analysis technique was employed to analyze the data (Schreier, 2012), using open coding strategy (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Each participant was given a code name such as P1 and P15 and metaphor was given a category label. Subsequently, the metaphors were grouped based on similarities in their thematic content (Vaismoradi et al., 2016). Through a process of constant comparison, themes were identified and refined. Discrepancies between the two researchers in the coding process were resolved through discussion until a consensus was reached. After the first coding, seven general categories emerged from the data. These seven categories were further coded in terms of their similarity. Three overarching categories emerged from the second round of coding process. The validity and reliability were established by providing a comprehensive description of the data collection and analysis processes as well as direct quotes from the qualitative data (Merriam, 2009) through what Lincoln and Guba (1985) call 'member checking'. The metaphors were presented to two participants, and the interpretation of the researcher was confirmed (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2016).

Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS Statistics 26. The first step involved conducting a frequency analysis to determine the number and percentage distribution of participants' personal information. Subsequently, normality tests and reliability analyses were applied to ascertain the suitability of the data for parametric tests. The analysis yielded Skewness and Kurtosis values of -0.441 and -0.632, respectively. Furthermore, the scale's Cronbach's alpha coefficient was found to be 0.89. Based on these results, it was concluded that the data adhere to a normal distribution and that the measurement tool is highly reliable. Having met the precondition, the Anova test was applied to test the research hypotheses, and the findings of this study have been reported in the findings section.

Findings

This section firstly presents the findings and detailed analysis of the metaphors generated by teachers to characterize their conceptualization of 'parents'. Secondly, it presents the results

derived from statistical analysis. The interpretation of these findings is interpreted in the context of the research questions that guided this study. Teachers generated a total of 89 metaphors in relation to the concept of ‘parent’. Metaphors generated by teachers are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Metaphors generated by teachers in relation to the concept of ‘parent’

Category	Sub-Categories	Metaphors
Active Participants	Parent as Partner / Nurturer	A Business Partner (2), Companions (1), A Travel Companion (2), A Safe Haven (1), Salt (1), Soil (1), A Flower Pot (1), A Pot (1), A Collaborator (2), A Mother (1), The Four Legs of the Table (1), A Root (1), Your Teammate at Home (1), A Communication Tool (1), The Third Leg of a Three-Legged Table (1), A Puzzle (1), A Sculptor (1)
	Parent as Supporter	A Substitute Player (1), Supporter (2), A Support Stick (1), A Window (1), Sunlight (1), A Vehicle (1), A Staple (1), An Assistant (1), Our Professional Reflection (1), The Wire of a Kite (1), A Helper (1), A Coach (1)
	Parent as Observer	A Rooted Tree (1), An Audience (1), A Spectator (1), An Observer (1), A Listener (1)
Passive Participants	Parent as Student	The Seeker in a Game of Hot and Cold (1), Boomerang (1), A Follower (1), A Balance Scale (1), Clay (1), Passenger (1), A Home (1), A Student (1), A Car (1), A Flexible Rubber (1), Wind (1), Train Carriage (1)
	Parent as Mirror	A Mirror (8), A Home (1), A Book (1), A Foundation (1)
Adversarial Participants	Parent as Inspector	A Lion (1), A Journalist (1), The Hidden Hand (1), An Inspector (1), The Mother-in-law (1),
	Parent as Machiavellist	Wind (1), Rain (1), A Huge Variety (1), A Blessing (1), A Mushroom (1), A Cave (1), A Dark Well (1),
	Parent as Antagonist	A Piranha (1), An Ostrich (1), A Garbage Disposal (1), Trouble (2), A Balloon (1), Compliant (1), A Child (1), Salt (1), Ignorant (1), A Stop (1), A Blind (1),

Following a comprehensive first analysis in relation to teachers’ perception of parents, seven distinct parental perceptions/roles were identified: (i) parent as partner / nurturer, (ii) parent as supporter, (iii) parent as observer, (iv) parent as student, (v) parent as mirror, (vi) parent as inspector, (vii) parent as (viii) machiavellist and (ix) parent as antagonist. In the second comprehensive analysis, these categories were further grouped into three overarching parental roles and were expressed on a continuum ranging from ‘active participation’ to ‘passive participation’, and to ‘adversarial participation’ (see Table 3).

Table 3. Grouping of metaphor categories into three overarching parental roles

Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Sub-Categories	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Active Participants	33	37,08	Parent as Partner / Nurturer	20	23,60
			Parent as Supporter	12	13,48

Passive Participants	29	32,58	Parent as Observer	5	5,62
			Parent as Student	13	14,61
			Parent as Mirror	12	12,36
Adversarial Participants	27	30,34	Parent as Inspector	5	5,62
			Parent as Machiavellist	10	11,24
			Parent as Antagonist	12	13,48
Total	89	100		89	100

Active participation

This category includes the roles of 'Parent as Partner/Nurturer' and 'Parent as Supporter'. Teachers in these two groups (f33, %37,08) have a very positive view towards parents and they work with parents collaboratively for effective student outcomes.

Parents as partner / nurturer

Teachers who have a conception of parents as partner/nurturer (f20, %23,60) perceive parents as their team members. They see them as actively participating in their children's education. They contribute to the educational process, by working in collaboration with teachers. Teachers and these parents share a common vision for children. Furthermore, parents in this group are seen as nurturing the child like nurturing a plant. They create a supportive environment and offer assistance to promote their child's development. They also provide support in terms of extending learning beyond school. Here are some direct quotations from parents in this category: "A parent is like salt, because salt is an indispensable ingredient." (P49), "A parent is like the third leg of a three-legged table, because education is only achieved when the legs stand together." (P62), "A parent is like your teammate at home, because they support education at home." (P58), "A parent is like a puzzle, because you cannot have a whole without the missing piece." (P63) and "A parent is like a flower pot, because the soil has a significant role in the growth of a flower." (P53).

Parent as supporter

This role (f12, %13,48) represents parents who, while allowing teachers to lead the educational process, provide essential support and encouragement to teachers in times of need. While they grant teachers to lead the educational process, they back teachers' efforts. They are perceived as allies in the educational journey of their child. These parents stand behind teachers' endeavors and are viewed as dependable and reliable sources of support. More importantly this support is not just limited to their child but also extends to the teacher. Here are some direct quotations from parents in this category: "A parent is like a substitute player, because they should be involved in the educational process only when necessary." (P78), "A parent is like a support stick, because even when there is a plant in good soil, the plant will not stand upright without support." (P80), "A parent is like an assistant, because they're your supporter." (P86) and "A parent is like the wire of your kite, because they're your biggest supporter." (P88).

Overall, this 'active participation' category reflects the positive impacts of parents who provide support, motivation and encouragement to teachers. They view parents as active contributors to children's education and they appreciate their collaboration and support.

Passive participation

This group consists of the roles of 'Parent as Observer', 'Parent as Student', and 'Parent as Mirror'. Teachers perceive the parents in this broad category playing a less active, neutral role but still engaged in the educational process. Their participation involves observation and reflection, which leads to the development of their children indirectly. Teachers, who are aware of this dynamic, try to engage parents in the learning process.

Parents as observer

Parents in the “Parents as observer” category (f5, %5,62) are depicted as passive spectators in their child's education. They observe children's development from a distance. They entrust the education of their children with the teacher and involve in the educational process when needed. These parents, while maintaining an interest in their child's schooling, often entrust the educational process mainly to the teachers. They assume a more secondary role, offering support when necessary or when explicitly invited by the teachers. Here are some direct quotations from parents in this category: “A parent is like an audience member, because they are curious about the qualities and personality of the hero who will be in their child's life.” (P41), “A parent is like a spectator, because most of the time they observe.” (P42), and “A parent is like an observer, because they observe their child grow” (P43).

Parent as student

Parents in this category (f13, %14,61) are often seen as learners themselves in the educational process. Teachers believe that these parents need guidance and education as much as their children. Teachers believe that these parents are open to suggestions and feedback from teachers. These parents are believed to follow the lead of the teachers and rely on them for guidance. Teachers feel the responsibility to educate parents as well for effective student outcome. Teachers believe they can maintain a learning-oriented relationship with these parents. Here are some direct quotations from parents in this category: “A parent is like clay, because they also need to be molded alongside their child.” (P70), “A parent is like a passenger, because they need to be shown the right way.” (P71), and “A parent is like a car, because they start moving when you press on the gas pedal.” (P74).

Parent as mirror

Teachers in this category (f12, %12,36) perceive parents as reflecting their attitudes and behaviors onto their children. Similarly, they are often seen as reflections of their children. Parents serve as mirrors that shape their children's attitudes towards education, and similarly children's behaviors and attitudes can also be reflections of their parents' attitudes. Teachers are aware of this interaction, that is, parental modeling in learning processes, and often work with both groups. Teachers are aware that parental development reflects positively on their children and parents are strong models for their children. Here are some direct quotations from parents in this category: “A parent is like a mirror, because any child is a reflection of their parents.” (P32), “A parent is like a mirror, because we can see all of their reflections on their children.” (P33), and “A parent is like a book, because it is where the first behaviors and information are read correctly or incorrectly.” (P37).

This category, consisting of the roles of 'Parent as Observer', 'Parent as Student', and 'Parent as Mirror', refers to parents who take a less active but engaged role in children's education. Despite seeming passive or neutral, this style of involvement can lead to positive educational outcomes if it is managed and led effectively by teachers.

Adversarial participation

The roles of 'Parents as Inspector', 'Parent as Machiavellist' and 'Parent as Antagonist' fall under this category. They present serious challenges to teachers. Let alone helping teachers, parents in these group are sometimes believed to hinder teachers' effort to make a difference. These parents are perceived as potential obstacles to teachers' effort to improve educational progress. The 'Antagonist' parents not only lack support for teachers but actively or passively hinder their efforts. They exhibit a lack of trust in teachers' abilities to make a change and are seen as adversarial forces in the educational context. In some cases, teachers view them even as enemies.

Parents as Machiavellist

The 'Machiavellist' parents as perceived by teachers are unpredictable and often prioritize their own interests or their own children's interest over the collective goals of the teacher. Teachers believe that these parents support them when their needs are met and undermines their efforts when their needs are not met. In other words, they can be an effective support or an obstacle depending on whether their interests are served. Some teachers believe that most parents in this category think their child is only child in the universe, which often creates resentment in teachers. That is why these parents were labeled as Machiavellist after the Italian diplomat, author and philosopher Niccolò Machiavelli, who is known for his self-interest. Here are some direct quotations from parents in this category: "A parent is like the wind, because it is unpredictable and you cannot tell where the wind will blow from." (P20), "A parent is like rain, because while it's nice to watch from a distance, you will get wet as you get closer." (P21), "A parent is like a mushroom, because sometimes they're healthy, and sometimes they're poisonous." (P24), and "A parent is like a cat, because cats can scratch you, but they also let you love them." (P27).

Parents as inspector

This category (f5, %5,62) reflects teachers' perception of parents as critical overseers of their behavior. Parents in this 'the inspector role' take on an active, inquisitive stance. Teachers perceive these parents as vigilant monitors of their actions. Teachers feel under scrutiny and the pressure to perform their roles effectively. Most teachers in this group think parents are ready to criticize them when they make a mistake. They do not feel safe in the present of these parents. This attitude of judgment and criticism leads to an adversarial relationship between the teacher and parent. Here are some direct quotations from parents in this category: "A parent is like a journalist, because they question every detail." (P16), "A parent is like the hidden hand, because they observe everyone from afar and up close." (P17), and "A parent is like an inspector, because they inspect everything" (P18).

Parent as antagonist

This category, "Parents as Antagonists," (f12, %13,48) represents the most challenging group from the perspective of teachers. Parents into this category are perceived as overtly antagonistic, being as obstacles to teachers' efforts towards achieving effective educational outcomes. In most cases, they are seen as enemies, who try to seriously undermine teachers or 'enemies' who actively work against teachers' achievement. They are often perceived as distrustful of teachers, questioning their competencies. This leads to rivalry, tension and conflict. Here are some direct quotations from parents in this category: "A parent is like a piranha, because they are predatory." (P2), "A parent is like a garbage disposal unit, because they grind everything that they are given and throw away the pieces." (P4), and "A parent is often trouble, because they expect everything from the teacher and they act like the teacher has a magic wand that can fix anything." (P5).

Parents in this category, consisting the roles of 'Parents as Inspector', 'Parent as Machiavellist', and 'Parent as Antagonist', is perceived as the most challenging group by the teacher since they act as obstacles to teachers' efforts. They may act in a self-serving manner, critically scrutinize teacher actions and act as enemies in some cases.

In sum, teachers have three different views about 'parents' ranging from positive (active participation), to negative (adversarial participation), and to neutral (passive participation).

The second purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of teachers' leadership behaviors on their attitudes towards their students' parents. To serve this purpose, a hypothesis for the study has been formulated:

H1: Teachers who have positive attitudes towards students' parents have higher levels of leadership behavior, as measured by Teacher Leadership Behaviour Scale (Bolat, 2023) than teachers who have negative attitudes.

In the study, the difference in viewpoints towards parents between teachers who exercise leadership to a great extent (high scorers on the teacher leadership behavior scale) and teachers who exercise leadership to a less extent (low scorers on the teacher leadership behavior scale) was tested. Accordingly, the levels of leadership behavior among parents with positive (active participation), negative (adversarial participation), and neutral (passive participation) attitudes towards their students were compared. The results of the analysis are given in Table 4.

Table 4. Analysis results regarding the relationship between teachers' levels of leadership behavior and their attitudes towards parents

Dimension	Attitude	F	Mean	Std.S	F	P	Anova
Teacher Leadership Behavior	(1) Negative	27	3.76	0.55	3.440	0.03	2 > 1
	(2) Positive	34	4.13	0.51			
	(3) Neutral	28	3.91	0.61			

Upon examining the analysis results presented in Table 4, it was found that teachers who have a positive view of parents exhibit higher levels of leadership behavior than teachers who have a negative view ($p < 0.05$). Accordingly, the research hypothesis H1: "Teachers who have positive attitudes towards students' parents have higher levels of leadership behavior than

teachers who have negative attitudes" has been accepted. However, no statistically significant findings were detected between other groups.

Discussion and Conclusion

These categories of parental involvement exhibit the complexity and diversity of the parent-teacher relationship. It shows that parents can take on many roles, from active supporters and nurturing partners to passive observers and antagonists. An understanding of these perceptions of teachers offers an important insight into how to design effective parental engagement and teacher-partner collaboration. This categorization provides an insightful framework for making sense of teachers' perceptions of parental roles in education. Important lessons can be learnt about how to promote effective parental involvement and strengthen teacher-parent collaboration by investigating the opportunities and obstacles present in each category.

The present study achieved two things. Firstly, it explored teachers' perception of 'parents' through a metaphor analysis approach and secondly compared whether teacher leaders differ from other teachers in terms of their perception of 'parents.' The main aim of the research was to contribute to parent involvement activities that teachers and teacher leaders could implement by (i) discovering their implicit attitudes and (ii) demonstrating that there is a strong link between teacher leadership and parental involvement. The findings from the current study provide important insights into teachers' perception of parents and the connection between teacher leadership behavior and their attitudes towards parents.

The study identifies seven distinct teacher perceptions regarding the roles of parents. These perceptions of roles were labelled as 'Parent as Partner/Nurturers', 'Parent as Supporters', 'Parent as Observers', 'Parent as Students', 'Parent as Mirrors', 'Parent as Inspectors', 'Parent as Machiavellists', and 'Parent as Antagonists'. These seven roles imply a continuum from 'active participation' to 'passive participation', and to 'adversarial participation' in terms of parental involvement.

'Active participation' category includes the roles of 'Parent as Partner/Nurturer' and 'Parent as Supporter'. These parents are perceived as collaborators, providing motivation and encouragement, and contribute actively to their children's learning (Epstein, 2001). This is consistent with the idea of parental involvement as a joint effort between teachers and parents aimed at improving student outcomes (Jeynes, 2011).

Passive Participants, including 'Parent as Observer', 'Parent as Student', and 'Parent as Mirror', are less active but still are engaged in the educational process. This neutral parental involvement, although seeming disengaged or indifferent, has been argued in prior studies as potentially beneficial when properly managed by teachers (Pushor, 2017). This passive involvement is in fact a form of engagement and can be positively leveraged (Cairney & Munsie, 1995). Teachers could devise strategies to engage parents who are less active but still interested in their children's education (Dor & Rucker-Naidu, 2012).

The third category, Adversarial Participants, including 'Parents as Inspector', 'Parent as Machiavellist', and 'Parent as Antagonist', are perceived as challenges to teachers. These teachers had a negative attitude towards these roles. Having a negative belief about parental involvement could be harmful in developing relationships with parents and families (Pushor & Amendt, 2018). Teachers with this view needs to examine their beliefs. Research has found that when

teachers look inward to examine their dispositions towards parents, there was a significant shift in their disposition (Pushor, 2011). When teachers have a negative attitude towards parents, parents will also have a negative attitude. This adversarial parental belief will in turn impact teacher morale, efficacy, and school environment. Understanding these adversarial roles and finding ways to address them is essential to foster a better educational environment (Pushor, 2013). In sum, teacher perceive parents in different roles and these roles reflect their attitudes towards them. These attitudes influence how they approach parents and how they involve them in educational processes.

The study also explored the interaction between teacher leadership behavior and teachers' perception of parents. The findings support the hypothesis of the study, showing that teachers with higher degrees of leadership behavior have more positive attitudes toward parents than those with neutral or negative attitudes. Teachers who see parents as 'partners/nurturers' or 'supporters' frequently exhibit high levels of leadership behavior, which has a favorable effect on their interactions with parents. On the other hand, there was no statistically significant relationship between teacher leadership behavior levels and the category of 'passive participation.' Although teachers could see these parents as disinterested or indifferent, this neutral parental participation could be turned into an active participation model if they are well managed. For instance, one way to do is through teacher invitations to parental involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). There was no statistically significant relationship between teacher leadership behavior levels and the category of 'adversarial participation'. Teachers need to look inward to change their perceptions of parents for effective parental involvement.

This study has some limitations. Firstly, it focused on teachers from the city of Bartın. It is necessary to do additional research including parents from various types of school. Secondly, the sample exhibited an inequitable distribution of gender. Females were oversampled while males were undersampled. This convenience sampling strategy offers potential limitations since it is very likely to negatively impact the generalizability and validity of the results. Future studies need to include more males in their research. Future research also needs to explore the strategies teachers use to manage different forms of parental involvement and how these strategies are related to teachers' leadership behaviors.

Suggestions

Recommendations for future studies can be made. Teacher leaders as opposed to teachers who have low leadership scores have a more positive attitude towards parents. Further research should delve deeper into the factors influencing these interactions, especially which one is the cause and which one is the effect. Parental involvement may be significantly influenced by cultural norms and values, socioeconomic level, and community norms (Flowers, 2015). Therefore, future studies should try to include these various situations and investigate how they affect teacher leadership behavior. Further research is needed to understand why some teachers see parents as adversarial.

In light of these findings, several informed recommendations can be put forth to enhance the involvement of parents in the educational process. It is crucial for school leaders to actively facilitate and support teachers in engaging with parents. The study highlights the significance of teachers' attitudes towards parents, as negative attitudes can hinder their ability to effectively exercise leadership in involving parents. Therefore, it is imperative for school leaders to

proactively investigate and address teachers' perceptions, aiming to transform any negative attitudes into positive ones. This initial step is vital in developing and implementing effective strategies for parental involvement, ultimately fostering a collaborative and supportive educational environment.

Secondly, universally, there is a lack of professional preparation for teachers to involve parents in education (Morton, 2017; Saltmarsh et al., 2015) teachers need to be trained in terms of how to involve parents. Early research has shown that that teachers change could change their mindset thorough different interventions (Pushor, 2015). Professional development can play an important role in preparing teachers to effectively engage with parents (Warren et al., 2016). Therefore, school leaders need to design effective professional development programme that empower teachers with the tools so that they can involve more parents and encourage meaningful partnerships with parents.

Thirdly, teachers cannot exercise leadership for parental involvement when they have negative attitudes towards parents. Therefore, it is crucial that teachers engage in self-reflection and self-analysis in order to understand the origins of their mindset. They need to critically evaluate their own approaches towards parents and identify and address any biases that may affect their relationship with parents negatively. This reflective process enables teachers to develop a more positive and strong partnerships with parents in the educational journey of their children.

References

- Altun, S. A., Apaydın, Ç. (2013). Kız ve erkek öğretmen adaylarının “eğitim” kavramına ilişkin metaforik algıları. [Metaphorical perceptions of female and male teacher candidates on the concept of "education"]. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi Dergisi*, 19(3), 329-354.
- Aslan, S. (2013). Birleştirilmiş sınıflarda görev yapan öğretmenlerin “öğretmen” kavramı ile ilgili algılarının metaforik incelenmesi [Metaphorical analysis of the perceptions of teachers working in inclusive classrooms regarding the concept of "teacher"]. *Turkish Studies-International Periodical for The Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, 8(6), 43-59. ISSN:1308-2140.
- Auerbach, S. (2012). “Conceptualizing leadership for authentic partnerships.” In *School Leadership for Authentic Family and Community Partnership: Research Perspectives for Transforming Practice*, edited by S. Auerbach, 29–51. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Barger, M. M., Kim, E. M., Kuncel, N. R., & Pomerantz, E. M. (2019). The relation between parents' involvement in children's schooling and children's adjustment: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 145(9), 855.
- Barr, S., and S. Saltmarsh, (2014). “It All Comes down to the Leadership”: The Role of the School Principal in Fostering Parent-school Engagement.” *Educational Management Administration & Leadership* 42(4): 491–505.
- Basaraba, A. (2013). Beyond the classroom walls. *Portals of Promise: Transforming Beliefs and Practices Through a Curriculum of Parents*, 93-101.
- Becker, H. J., & Epstein, J. L. (1982). Parent involvement: A survey of teacher practices. *The Elementary School Journal*, 83(2), 85-102.
- Beycioglu, K., & Aslan, B. (2010). Teacher leadership scale: A validity and reliability study. *Elementary Education Online*, 9(2).
- Bolat, O. (2023). Öğretmen liderliği davranış ölçeği: Güvenilirlik ve geçerlilik çalışması [Teacher Leadership Behaviour Scale: Validity and Reliability]. *Dokuz Eylülü Buca Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*. (Yayın aşamasında)
- Bolat, O. (2013). *A non-positional teacher leadership approach to school improvement: an action research study in Turkey*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Cambridge
- Bryan, J., & Henry, L. (2012). A model for building school–family–community partnerships: Principles and process. *Journal of Counseling & development*, 90(4), 408-420.

- Çakmak, Ö. Ç., Neslitürk, S., & Hayriye, A. S. A. R. (2014). Okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin “Veli” kavramına ilişkin metaforik algıları [Metaphorical perceptions of preschool teachers regarding the concept of "parent"]. *Adıyaman Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, (18), 679-712.
- Can, N. (2009). Öğretmenlerin sınıfta ve okulda liderlik davranışları [Teachers' leadership behaviors in the classroom and school]. *Gaziantep University Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(2).
- Castro, M., Expósito-Casas, E., López-Martín, E., Lizasoain, L., Navarro-Asencio, E., & Gaviria, J. L. (2015). Parental involvement on student academic achievement: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, 14, 33-46.
- Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing grounded theory*. Sage.
- Cornelissen, J. P. (2005). Beyond compare: Metaphor in organization theory. *Academy of Management Review*, 30(4), 751-764.
- Cotter, D. A., Hermsen, J. M., Ovadia, S., & Vanneman, R. (2001). The glass ceiling effect. *Social Forces*, 80(2), 655-681.
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2016). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage Publications.
- Demir, K. (2014). Öğretmen liderliği kültürü ölçeği: Geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması [Scale of Teacher Leadership Culture: Validity and reliability study]. *İlköğretim Online*, 13(2).
- DeVellis, R. F., & Thorpe, C. T. (2021). *Scale development: Theory and applications*. Sage Publications.
- Dor, A., & Rucker-Naidu, T. B. (2012). Teachers' attitudes toward parents' involvement in school: comparing teachers in the USA and Israel. *Issues in Educational Research*, 22(3), 246-262.
- El Nokali, N. E., Bachman, H. J., & Votruba-Drzal, E. (2010). Parent involvement and children's academic and social development in elementary school. *Child Development*, 81, 988-1005.
- Epstein, J. L. (1987). Parent involvement: What research says to administrators. *Education and Urban Society*, 19(2), 119-136.
- Epstein, J. L., & Becker, H. J. (1982). Teachers' reported practices of parent involvement: Problems and possibilities. *The Elementary School Journal*, 83(2), 103-113.
- Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5(1), 1-4.
- Fiskerstrand, A. (2022). Literature review—Parent involvement and mathematic outcome. *Educational Research Review*, 100458.
- Flowers, T. M. (2015). *Examining the relationship between parental involvement and mobile technology use* (Doctoral dissertation, Walden University).
- Fraenkel, J., Hyun, H., & Wallen, N. (2011). *How To Design and Evaluate Research in Education*. McGraw-Hill Education.
- Fullan, M. (1985). Change processes and strategies at the local level. *The Elementary School Journal*, 85(3), 391-421.
- Giles, C. (2006). Transformational leadership in challenging urban elementary schools: A role for parental involvement? *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 5(3), 257-282.
- Grolnick, W. S., & Pomerantz, E. M. (2022). Should parents be involved in their children's schooling?. *Theory Into Practice*, 61(3), 325-335.
- Grolnick, W. S., & Slowiaczek, M. L. (1994). Parents' involvement in children's schooling: A multidimensional conceptualization and motivational model. *Child Development*, 65(1), 237-252.
- Hacıfazlıoğlu, Ö., Karadeniz, Ş., & Dalgıç, G. (2011). Okul yöneticilerinin teknoloji liderliğine ilişkin algıları: metafor analizi örneği [Perceptions of School Administrators on Technology Leadership: An Example of Metaphor Analysis]. *Eğitim Bilimleri Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 1(1), 97-121.
- Heinrichs, J. (2018). “School leadership based in a philosophy and pedagogy of parent engagement.” *School Leadership and Management* 38(2): 187-201.
- Henderson, A., Mapp, K., Johnson, V., & Davies, D. (2007). *Beyond the Bake Sale: The Essential Guide to Family-School Partnerships*. The New Press.
- Hill, N. E., Castellino, D. R., Lansford, J. E., Nowlin, P., Dodge, K. A., Bates, J. E., & Pettit, G. S. (2004). Parent academic involvement as related to school behavior, achievement, and aspirations: Demographic variations across adolescence. *Child Development*, 75(5), 1491-1509.
- Hoover-Dempsey, K. V., & Sandler, H. M. (1997). Why do parents become involved in their children's education?. *Review of educational research*, 67(1), 3-42.

- Huebner, D. (1984). The search for religious metaphors in the language of education. *Phenomenology and Pedagogy*, 2(2), 112.
- Jeynes, W. (2010). *Parental involvement and academic success*. Routledge.
- Jeynes, W. H. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relation of parental involvement to urban elementary school student academic achievement. *Urban Education*, 40(3), 237-269.
- Jung, S. B., & Sheldon, S. (2020). Connecting dimensions of school leadership for partnerships with school and teacher practices of family engagement. *School Community Journal*, 30(1), 9-32.
- Katzenmeyer, M. & Moller, G. (2009). *Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers Develop as Leaders*. Corwin Press.
- Küpers, W. (2005). Phenomenology of embodied implicit and narrative knowing. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 9(6), 114-133.
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. University of Chicago Press.
- Landau, M. J., Meier, B. P., & Keefer, L. A. (2018). A metaphor-enriched social cognition. *Psychological Bulletin*, 144(6), 561.
- Levine, P. M. (2005). Metaphors and images of classrooms. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 41(4), 172-175.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Newberry Park.
- Martínez, M. Á. Á., & Tadeu, P. M. (2018). Teacher leadership: A bibliometric study. *Journal of Educational Change*, 19(4), 425-449.
- Morton, N. (2017). "Harvard Professor's Quest: Persuade Every Teacher to Build Stronger Ties with Families." The Seattle Times. Education Lab, May 12. <https://www.seattletimes.com/education-lab/harvard-professors-quest-persuade-every-teacher-to-build-stronger-ties-with-families/>
- Murray, E., McFarland-Piazza, L., & Harrison, L. J. (2015). Changing patterns of parent-teacher communication and parent involvement from preschool to school. *Early Child Development and Care*, 185(7), 1031-1052.
- Nguyen, D., Harris, A., & Ng, D. (2020). A review of the empirical research on teacher leadership (2003–2017) Evidence, patterns and implications. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 58(1), 60-80.
- Ortony, A., & Fainsilber, L. (1987). The role of metaphors in descriptions of emotions. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 2(2), 97-115.
- Pektaş, M., & Kildan, A. O. (2009). Farklı branşlardaki öğretmen adaylarının "Öğretmen" kavramı ile ilgili geliştirdikleri metaforların karşılaştırılması [Comparison of Metaphors Developed by Teacher Candidates from Different Disciplines Regarding the Concept of "Teacher"]. *Erzincan Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 11(2), 270-288.
- Pushor, D., & Amendt, T. (2018). Leading an examination of beliefs and assumptions about parents. *School Leadership & Management*, 38(2), 202-221.
- Ritchev, T. (2018). General morphological analysis as a basic scientific modelling method. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 126, 81-91.
- Saban, A. (2008a). Okula ilişkin metaforlar [Metaphors regarding school]. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi*, 55, 459-496.
- Saban, A. (2008b). İlköğretim I. kademe öğretmen ve öğrencilerinin bilgi kavramına ilişkin sahip oldukları zihinsel imgeler [Mental Images of Primary School Teachers and Students Regarding the Concept of "Knowledge"]. *İlköğretim Online* 7(2), ss. 421–455.
- Saban, A. (2009). Öğretmen adaylarının öğrenci kavramına ilişkin sahip oldukları zihinsel imgeler. [Mental Images of Teacher Candidates Regarding the Concept of "Student"]. *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, Bahar 2009, 7(2), 281-326.
- Saban, A. (2010). Computer teacher candidates' metaphors about the internet. *Education*, 131(1).
- Şahin, D., Tüzel, E. (2014). İlköğretim birinci kademe öğrencilerinin okul yöneticilerine ilişkin metaforları [Metaphors of Primary School Students Regarding School Administrators]. *Adıyaman Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 2014(17).
- Saltmarsh, S., Barr, J., & Chapman, A. (2015). Preparing for parents: How Australian teacher education is addressing the question of parent-school engagement. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 35(1), 69-84.
- Schoemaker, P. J. (2020). How historical analysis can enrich scenario planning. *Futures & Foresight Science*, 2(3-4), e35.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of Qualitative Research Techniques*. Sage Publications.
- Streiner, D. L., Norman, G. R., & Cairney, J. (2015). *Health measurement scales: a practical guide to their development and use*. Oxford University Press, USA.

- TDK. (2015). Retrieved from: <http://www.tdk.gov.tr>
- Thibodeau, P. H., Matlock, T., & Flusberg, S. J. (2019). The role of metaphor in communication and thought. *Language and Linguistic Compass, 13*(5), e12327.
- Tsoukas, H. (1991). The missing link: A transformational view of metaphors in organizational science. *Academy of Management Review, 16*(3), 566-585.
- Vaismoradi, M., Jones, J., Turunen, H., & Snelgrove, S. (2016). Theme development in qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice, 6*(5).
- Veas, A., Castejón, J. L., Miñano, P., & Gilar-Corbí, R. (2019). Relationship between parent involvement and academic achievement through metacognitive strategies: A multiple multilevel mediation analysis. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 89*(2), 393-411.
- Wang, M., & Xia, J. (2022). A scale for measuring teacher leadership in early childhood education in China: Development and validation. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 50*(4), 649-671.
- Warren, M. R., Hong, S., Rubin, C. L., & Sychitkokhong, P. U. (2009). Beyond the bake sale: A community-based relational approach to parent engagement in schools. *Teachers College Record, 111*(9), 2209-2254.
- Wenner, J. A., & Campbell, T. (2017). The theoretical and empirical basis of teacher leadership: A review of the literature. *Review of Educational Research, 87*(1), 134-171.
- Wilder, S. (2014). Effects of parental involvement on academic achievement: a meta-synthesis. *Educational Review, 66*(3), 377-397.
- York-Barr, J., & Duke, K. (2004). What do we know about teacher leadership? Findings from two decades of scholarship. *Review of Educational Research, 74*(3), 255-316.
- Yu, X., Chen, Y., Yang, C., Yang, X., Chen, X., & Dang, X. (2022). How does parental involvement matter for children's academic achievement during school closure in primary school?. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 92*(4), 1621-1637.
- Yulianti, K., Denessen, E., Droop, M., & Veerman, G. J. (2022). School efforts to promote parental involvement: the contributions of school leaders and teachers. *Educational Studies, 48*(1), 98-113.
- Yulianti, K., E. Denessen, M. Droop, and G. Veerman, (2019). "Transformational leadership for parental involvement: how teachers perceive school leadership practices to promote parental involvement in children's education." *Leadership and Policy in Schools, 20*(2), 277-292.
- Zembat, R., Tunçeli, H. İ., Akşin, E. (2015). Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının " okul yöneticisi" kavramına ilişkin algılarına yönelik metafor çalışması [Metaphorical Study on the Perceptions of Pre-school Teacher Candidates Regarding the Concept of "School Administrator"]. *Hacettepe University Faculty of Health Sciences Journal, Volume 1*.