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Contents Volume 6, Issue 2, October 2023

Contents..... 16 Research Article & 1 Review Article

Articles

Research Article: 16

Difficulties Encountered by Social Studies Graduate Students in the Thesis Research Preparation Process Article

Sibel ÇAĞIR & Şahin ORUÇ.....135-155

Integrating Philosophy with Children into the Social Studies Courses Research Article

Gül TUNCEL.....156-180

A Review of Postgraduate Studies on Home Literacy Environment Research Article

Aybala ÇAYIR181-194

Validation and Reliability Study of The Aggression Proneness Scale for Children Aged 60-72 Months Research Article

Serdal SEVEN, Seda ESKİDEMİR MERAL & Feyza UÇAR ÇABUK195-211

A Techno-Innovative Approach to Visual Communication Design in Geography Teaching: Canva Research Article

Erkan DÜNDAR & Leyla DÖNMEZ.....212-233

Examination of Foreign Students' Experiences in Social Studies Education from the Research Teacher's Perspective	Article
Veysi AKTAŞ	234-253
Reflective Practices of Pre-Service Teachers: Self-reflections on Micro Teaching	Research Article
Dursun AKSU, Musa ÇALIŞIR & Fatih Selim SELLÜM	254-274
Problem-Solving Strategies Employed by 8th Grade Students While Solving Multiple Choice Questions in the Republic of Turkey History of Revolution and Kemalism Course	Research Article
Hasan ASLAN	275-296
Investigation of the Teachers' Curriculum Adaptation Patterns	Research Article
Akın KARAKUYU	297-324
Investigation of Social Studies Teachers' Design and Production-Oriented Teaching Activities in In-class/Out-of-School Learning Environments	Research Article
Feyza KABALAY Abdullah GÖKDEMİR	325-345
The Effect of Recreational Flow Experience on Mental Well-Being in Fitness Participants	Research Article
Cihan AYHAN & Şeyda ALANOĞLU	346-360
Determining the Perceptions of Social Studies Teacher Candidates on the Subject of Political Geography by Word Association Test (WAT)	Research Article
İbrahim DEMİRBAŞ	361-384
Fighting with the Modern Plague: Temperance Movement, Degeneration and Education in Early Republican Türkiye	Research Article
Sena COŞĞUN KANDAL	385-417
Measurement and Evaluation in Turkish Language and Literature Teaching	Research Article
Ahmet KARADOĞAN	418-431
Middle School Eighth Grade Students' Perceptions of the Flag	Research Article
Döndü ÖZDEMİR	432-465
Content Analysis of Articles on the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge of Secondary School Science Teachers in Türkiye	Research Article
Fatih ŞEKER, Sina ŞAVLI & Hakan SERT	466-490
Review Article:1	
Neighborhood Councils as A Local Participation Practice: The Case of France	Review Article
Veli Ercan ÇETİNTÜRK & Vehbi Alpay GÜNAL	491-515

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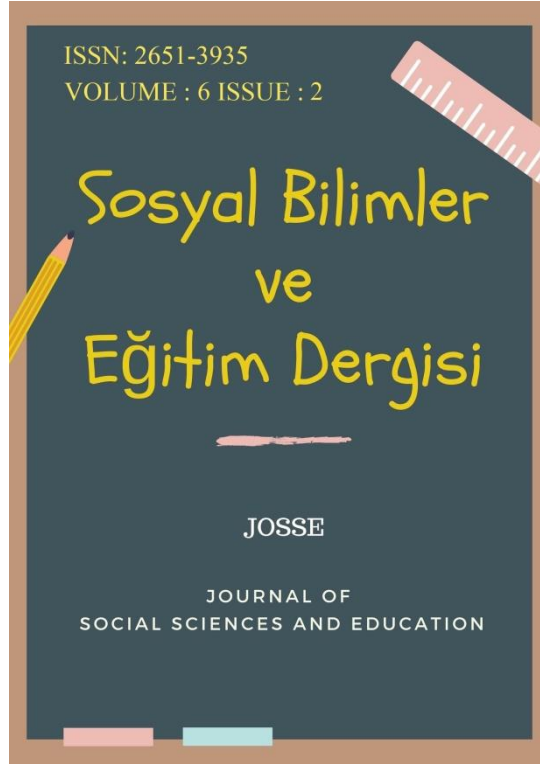
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Difficulties Encountered by Social Studies Graduate Students in the Thesis Preparation Process

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Difficulties Encountered by Social Studies Graduate Students in the Thesis Preparation Process

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Abstract

It is essential to identify the challenges encountered by graduate students who play a significant role in the continuity of higher education during the thesis preparation phase. If students do not cope with the difficulties encountered at this stage, their education may have to end. This study aimed to determine the problems and obstacles encountered by graduate students in the field of social studies education during their thesis work. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews with 17 students pursuing a graduate degree in social studies education. The data of the study, which is a qualitative research, were analyzed with descriptive analysis and the identified difficulties were thematized. Additionally, the participants were asked to assess the level of difficulty associated with these challenges. Based on the findings, students expressed that they encountered challenges, such as determining the topic of study, selecting appropriate methods and techniques, establishing effective collaboration with their supervisors, encountering conventional obstacles, accessing necessary resources for their theses, gathering information, following university-related procedures, and getting stuck in formal processes in the field study. Given these obstacles, it is imperative for academic institutions and relevant organizations to take preventive measures. It is also crucial to conduct research to offer solutions to these difficulties. Just as highlighting the issues encountered by graduate students sheds light on their difficulties, a similar investigation of the experiences of doctoral students during the thesis preparation process can provide a comprehensive understanding of the challenges within graduate education.

Keywords: Graduate, social studies, graduate students, difficulty, thesis

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Introduction

Today, the acquiring of knowledge and lifelong learning have become the fundamental elements of development. This change necessitates high-quality education. However, the concept of quality education has significantly evolved in recent years. In the past, holding a bachelor's degree was deemed sufficient for a well-educated person, but today this perspective has transformed. Presently, individuals require graduate education designed for their specific areas of expertise to be considered to have received quality education. Moreover, the pursuit of advanced knowledge is crucial to career advancement. Consequently, there has been a notable increase in the pursuit of both thesis and non-thesis graduate programs, reflecting the growing demand for such qualifications. The increasing number of applications for these programs underscores the escalating need for qualified education worldwide. Although graduate education offers significant benefits in terms of academic and career advancement for individuals, it also presents various challenges. These challenges involve administrative, program-related, advisor-related, economic, and family related issues depending on the nature of the specific academic pursuit (Arabacı & Akıllı, 2013).

Among the reasons why graduate education has gained significance and the interest in this field has highly increased these reasons can be listed: The fact that universities include research studies among their main functions, graduate programs provide qualified workforce needed at the development level and development of the country, individuals who have completed their graduate education are given priority in being recruited for business life, there is a need for teaching staff due to the increase in the number of universities in our country, and graduate programs offer these opportunities (Karakütük, 1999).

It is impossible to avoid change, which is making visible progress all over the world and affecting every part of our lives. For both individuals and organizations to adapt to the change process and shape their future, they should develop themselves in this continuity (Hesapçioğlu, 2010). For individuals to realize themselves and adapt to change, it can be said that they need to keep up with the changes in the perception of qualified education as well as the changes in every field. It is possible to say that once upon a time, being literate was considered qualified, and then it went through a process of gradually becoming a primary education graduate, followed by a secondary education graduate, and a higher education graduate. However, being a graduate of higher education today is not only a bachelor's degree

but also a graduate education. In this sense, today's change and continuity can be said to have reached a position where qualified education now includes postgraduate education.

Advanced education at the graduate level plays a pivotal role in the era of constant development and progress. Consequently, it is crucial to identify and address the challenges faced by the students during this phase. Minimizing these challenges is essential not only for collaboration between students and academic staff but also for the institution, taking into account administrative and program-related issues. Recognizing the vital role that educational institutions play in individual development, the problems encountered in these places cannot be ignored. Therefore, it is imperative for institutions, educators, and students to collaborate effectively to provide high-quality education that meets the demands of contemporary age and individual needs. In cooperation, it is very important for the realization of qualified and high-quality education to eliminate the problems experienced by students in graduate education, especially in the thesis preparation process.

Schools must innovate to provide high-quality and efficient education. Similarly, educational innovations are essential to adapting to current changes. This necessity for innovation has emerged due to changes in the scientific, social, technological, and environmental aspects of the current era of education. It can be stated that change is in the field of education, as in every field (Özdemir, 2013). Maintaining pace with progress and change is achievable through education. Therefore, highlighting the challenges faced by students in this field is crucial. In particular, when graduate education serves as a measure of development, it is essential for students at this level to encounter minimal difficulties and benefit from advancements implemented by educational institutions.

Education before starting a doctoral program is typically a master's degree that can be pursued with or without a thesis. These master's programs serve various purposes. The objective of the thesis-based Master's program is to equip individuals with the skills to access and interpret information through scientific research (Regulation on Graduate Education, Article 9). Conversely, non-thesis master's programs focus on acquiring essential professional knowledge and using existing knowledge in the application phase (Regulation on Graduate Education, Article 14). Examining the impact of education on a nation's development, graduate education plays a significant role, particularly in shaping the future of scientists, academics, and senior leaders crucial for a country's progress (Sevinç, 2001). Universities have the primary responsibility of training scientists, with this task taking place when individuals start graduate education programs following their undergraduate studies, regardless of their field of study (Kurnaz & Alev, 2009).

Academic staff and students are expected to collaborate effectively to accomplish graduate education objectives. The challenges faced by institutes in terms of infrastructure and operations, in line with the growing demand for graduate education, impact both students and academic staff (Çoruk, Çağatay & Öztürk, 2016). Affecting the functions of the institutes will also indirectly influence students. This may cause students to experience challenges in some formal processes or to encounter problems in procedures, especially during the thesis period. These problems may also have negative consequences for graduates. Since the importance of graduate education is recognized today, and its demand is at the highest level, determining the difficulties encountered by students is very important. Therefore, this study was deemed necessary.

It is crucial to determine the academic self-efficacy of graduate students, who play a significant role in the progression of higher education, the quality of their thesis preparation process, and the extent of challenges they encounter. When graduate students studying their theses struggle to overcome the challenges they encounter in the thesis preparation phase, this could result in the discontinuation of their education. It is imperative to explore the specific issues that these students encounter to raise awareness among relevant organizations and individuals. This awareness can help prevent these difficulties and attract the attention necessary to effectively address them. The importance of this study, which aims to map the difficulties experienced by master's degree students in social studies education during the thesis phase, emerges when it is considered that there are not many studies in the relevant field.

Problem Statement

What are the opinions of social studies graduate students about the difficulties they face in the thesis preparation process?

Sub Problems

1. Did you encounter any difficulties in determining your advisor? If yes, what were they?
2. Did you encounter any difficulties with the advisor? If yes, what were they?
3. Did you encounter any difficulties in determining the thesis topic? If yes, what were they?
4. Did you encounter any difficulties in determining the thesis method? If yes, what were they?

5. Did you encounter difficulties in the formal process of your thesis? What were the difficulties you encountered?
6. What were the other difficulties you encountered? Please explain them.
7. Please list these problems according to their degrees of difficulty.
8. Will you be able to complete your graduate education by producing a thesis?

Method

In this section of the study, "study model", "study group", "data collection tool", "data collection" and "data analysis" titles and explanations are given.

Model

In this study, "phenomenology design", which is a qualitative research method, was used. Phenomenology can be found in various forms in everyday life; it focuses on phenomena such as perceptions, experiences, concepts and events. Phenomenology design is carried out within the scope of the aim of "investigating in depth what individuals feel, what they think, perceptions, concepts and the ways and means of establishing relationships between them as a result of their experiences" (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). The basis of phenomenology is individual experience. In this way, it was ensured that the data were taken completely from the participants' own words and google forms without controlling their perceptions. From this point of view, the difficulties encountered by students at the thesis stage of their master's degree in social studies were identified in line with their experiences related to the process.

Qualitative research methods aim to define the content of documents, summarize keywords in the texts, explore the process and form of the content presented, and enhance the conceptualization of this content (Drisko & Maschi, 2015, p. 85). Data were collected through interviews and document analysis. The document analysis method involves examining written materials that contain information related to the phenomena and events under investigation (Çepni, 2010). This approach enables a comprehensive examination of documents produced within a specified timeframe or those from various time periods relevant to the research topic (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). Document analysis is a systematic evaluation of available written sources of data, and it involves a structured plan and schedule for examining relevant documents to draw conclusions aligned with these materials (Karasar, 2007).

Data Analysis

The data obtained in this study were analyzed using descriptive analysis method. Descriptive analysis is an analysis in which data are presented, defined, shown, explained and communicated as they are (Şentürk et al., 2023). The aim of descriptive analysis is to transform raw data into a format that readers can understand and use if they wish (Sönmez & Alacınar, 2013). The study not only addressed participants' issues, but also categorized the difficulty levels of these problems. The process of analyzing and predicting the opinions of master's students at the thesis stage regarding the problems experienced by them has gone through many stages in detail. While determining these stages, the relevant studies were utilized and organized into stages added by the researcher. These stages are, respectively, "(1) "examining the google form data"; "(2) eliminating the answer forms that are not suitable for evaluation"; "(3) re-examining and compiling the google form data"; "(4) coding the participants' answer sheets accepted for evaluation from P1 to P17"; "(5) ensuring validity and reliability"; "(6) calculating the frequencies of the codes obtained"; "(7) predicting the data"; "(8) reporting the study" (Armstrong et al, 2011; Corbin & Strauss, 2007). For the reliability of the data collection tool, Miles and Huberman's (1994) reliability formula; $Reliability = \left(\frac{Agreement}{Agreement + Disagreement} \right) \times 100$ was used and the average reliability between the coders was found to be 85% .

Data Collection Tool

In this study, a semi-structured interview form developed by the researchers was used. First, a draft interview form was created. In the process of creating the draft interview form, draft items were determined by reviewing the literature. The determined questions were examined by field experts in terms of content and form, and in line with the results of the examination, some questions were removed from the interview form, and some questions were reorganized in terms of wording and the final form of the interview form was created. The interview form consists of 8 open-ended questions. The interview form consists of 8 open-ended questions. In this study, data were collected online via google form. The data collection process was carried out by sending the forms to the students who voluntarily participated in the research, who are in the thesis stage of their master's degree in social sciences, and receiving their answers. The purpose and importance of the research were explained to the students, who were at the thesis stage of their master's degree in social sciences, and the necessary information about the use of Google form was provided. The data

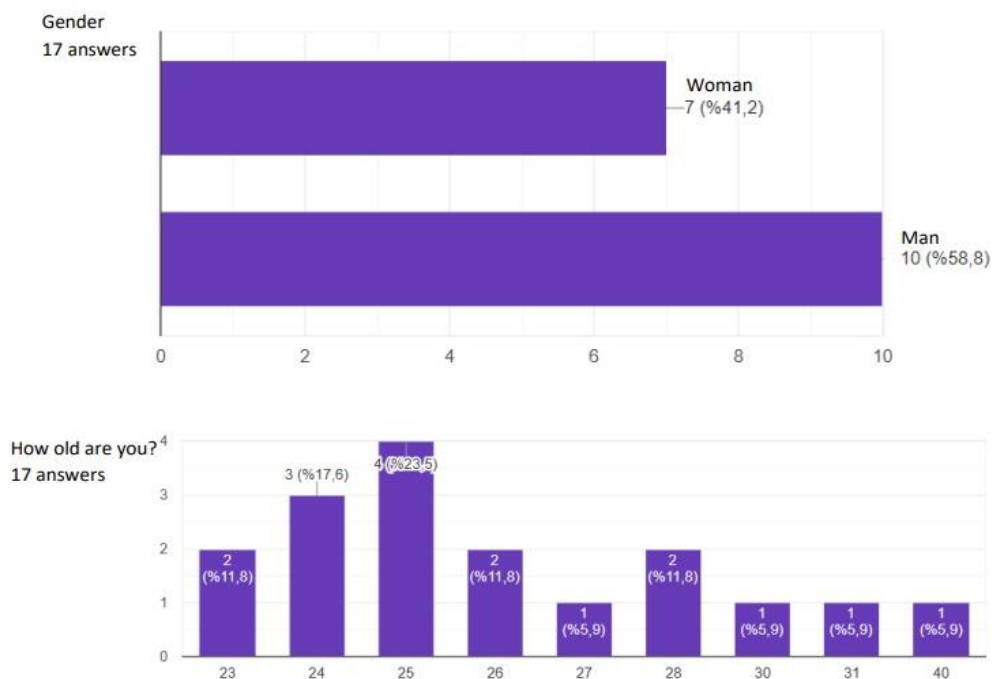
were collected with the participation of 20 students who were doing their master's degree at a state university in Istanbul in 2022, but 17 of them were found appropriate to be evaluated within the scope of the research. 3 students were not included in the scope of the research because their answers were not available in the forms. Görüşme sırasında araştırmannın veri toplama sürecini olumsuz etkileyebilecek durumlardan kaçınılmıştır.

Study Group

The study group comprised 17 graduate students in Istanbul province, who were selected by a convenience sampling method in the 2018-2022 academic year on the basis of volunteerism. The sampling method of the research is purposive sampling. It is a probabilistic and non-random sampling approach. It enables in-depth research by selecting information-rich cases depending on the purpose of the study. The researcher tries to understand natural and social events or phenomena in the context of selected situations and to discover and explain the relationships between them (Büyüköztürk et al., 2013). Subsequently, all participants were interviewed face-to-face and informed about the study, then, the interview questionnaire was distributed electronically through email using Google Forms, and participants submitted their responses via this online form.

Table 1

Gender and Age Information of the Participants



As shown in Table 1, the study participants were 10 male and 7 female students, making a total of 17. The distribution of the ages among them was as follows: four students were 25, three students were 24, and two students each were 23, 26, and 28 years old. Moreover, 1 student each in the 27, 30, 31, and 40 age groups.

Ethical Committee Approval

Approval was obtained from Yıldız Technical University Social Sciences and Humanities Research Ethics Committee on 15.12.2022 with meeting number 2022/12.

Findings

In this section, the responses to the research questions are organized in accordance with their order, tabulating, and presenting the answers. To support the data, the opinions of the participants were included, using codes such as P1, P2, P3, ..., P61, where “P” stands for “Participant.”

Quotations from the documents were included to support the researchers’ comments and convey the viewpoints of the study group.

Table 1

Did You Encounter Any Difficulty in Determining Your Advisor? If Yes, What Were They?

Yes/No	Difficulties encountered	<i>f</i>	Total
Yes	Too full quotas	3	10
	Not being assigned according to the advisor selection form	10	
	Not being assigned to the desired advisor	10	
	Not being assigned a suitable advisor for the topic of study	8	
	Uncertainty of advisor assignment criteria	6	
No	-	7	7

Table 1 presents an analysis of the challenges encountered by students when selecting their academic counselor in terms of themes, focusing on the types of challenges. The findings indicated that students encountered several obstacles, including the quotas being too full, not being assigned according to the advisor selection form, not being assigned to the desired advisor, not being assigned an advisor suitable for the topic of study, and uncertainty of the criteria for assigning an advisor. According to Table 1, most difficulties experienced by

the students at the stage of determining the counsellor are not assigned according to the counsellor selection form and not being assigned the desired advisor. Notably, seven participants reported no difficulties in this regard. Some of these views are presented below:

P3. *“Yes, I have. As too many students were on the advisors and their quotas were too full, we could not work with the counsellors we wished as a class. We were directed to the lecturers who had quotas.”*

P6. *“I encountered challenges while selecting my advisor. Professor I desired to work with a full number of students. Some of his students were almost in the completion phase of their thesis, while others had not even begun and were considering dropping out. This situation made me wait for some students to graduate or be dismissed from their academic lives before I secured the desired advisor. Unfortunately, there were no individuals within the faculty or institute who had comprehensive information about these issues.”*

P7. *“In the selection of the advisor, the counsellor was assigned according to the topic, it was suitable for me by chance, but then there were those who had problems from my friends whose topic changed.”*

P9. *“I could not select the advisor whom I desired.”*

P11. *“The most important issue is the failure to assign advisors according to the advisor selection forms given to the students. Although students are requested to rank their preferred advisors, the assignment process does not consider these rankings. The applied distribution criterion in the assignment process, is not explained to the student.”*

P15. *“I was assigned to the counseling of another advisor, not the one I wanted to work with, and when I submitted my request for change, which was my legal right, to the advisor, he almost did not accept it.”*

P16. *“I did not have any problems during the advisor selection phase, because the one I wanted and selected in my preferences became my advisor.”*

Table 2

Did You Encounter Any Difficulties with the Advisor? If Yes, What Were They?

Yes/No	Difficulties encountered	f	Total
Yes	Advisor’s being busy/not allocating time	11	12
	Communication issues	7	
	Thesis topic selection	5	
	Lack of guidance (Conventionalism)	7	

	Insufficient expertise in the thesis topic	4	
No	-	5	5

Table 2 focuses on the issues faced by students due to their advisors and the types of problems encountered. Among the students, 12 mentioned experiencing problems, while 5 reported having no issues related to their advisors. Once the students shared the challenges they encountered, themes emerged, including the advisor being busy or lacking time allocation, communication issues, thesis topic selection, lack of guidance (conventionalism), and insufficient expertise in the thesis topic. According to the table, 11 of the 12 students who encountered difficulties pointed out that their advisors being busy and not allocating time constituted the most prevalent challenge. Some of the students' statements regarding the difficulties they encountered with their advisors are provided below.

P6. "Busyness, uncertainty about the thesis topic, indifference of the advisor and communication problems."

P11. "I had a advisor assigned out of my preference. We did not obtain a connection. I couldn't communicate, a advisor I couldn't reach."

P9. "My advisor determined my thesis topic and, although I was not interested in this topic, I came to the end of the thesis. But it was not a pleasant process for me."

P15. "During the course period, I was assigned to a counsellor whose course I did not take, so I felt unfamiliar."

Table 3

Did You Encounter Any Difficulties in Determining The Thesis Topic? If Yes, What Were They?

Yes/No	Difficulties encountered	f	Total
Yes	Inability to find interesting topics that have not already been studied	8	9
	Selecting a topic from the advisor's field of study	4	
	Lack of knowledge in the field/literature	7	
	Methodological knowledge's affecting the choice of topic	2	
	Being a non-major student	2	
No	Determination the topic with the advisor's guidance	8	8

In Table 3, whether the students had problems determining the thesis topic and what kind of problems they encountered were thematized. According to this, 9 of the students stated that they had difficulties in different topics while determining the thesis topic. The difficulties experienced were given in the themes of not having a good command of the field/literature, selecting a topic from the advisor's field of study, methodological knowledge affecting topic selection, and being a non-major student, with the greatest difficulty being the inability to find an interesting topic that has not been studied. Below are some of the problems encountered in determining the thesis topic and some of the statements of students who did not experience any difficulties.

P1. *"The biggest problem I had while determining the thesis topic was the fact that I did my graduate education out-of-the field. It took me a lot of time to choose a thesis topic with an interdisciplinary approach between my professor's field and my own field."*

P2. *"Economical issues. These problems prevented me from selecting topics that might not allow me to access places that demand research."*

P3. *"Yes, in fact, the biggest problem is that no matter who we choose as a advisor, we are expected to choose a topic within their fields of study, and we even receive feedback such as 'You should study this topic.'"*

P4. *"Without the guidance of my supervisor, I would have had difficulty finding my thesis. I had difficulty in choosing a topic myself because I did not have enough knowledge in the field and literature during the topic determination process."*

P5. *"Yes. I hesitate to find interesting topics."*

P6. *"Yes. We had trouble finding enough resources for the first topic we chose, so we had to change the topic."*

P7. *"Yes, I had some problems. First, I had a problem determining the topic; unfortunately, I was drowned in the options. The second problem was that I was undecided about qualitative and quantitative studies, which affected my choice of topic."*

P8. *"The topics to be studied were selected. The necessity to search for very specific aspects of the topics."*

P9. *"While determining the thesis topic, I had a common opinion with my supervisor and we did not have any problems."*

P10. *"I did not have any problems. I just wanted to choose an important topic. We determined my topic in consultation with my teacher."*

P11. “There were no problems with the selection of the topic or the decision process. However, I had to limit the topic to certain areas thinking that the jury’s view on the topic could be different.”

Table 4

Did You Encounter Any Difficulties in Determining The Thesis Method? If Yes, What Were They?

Yes/No	Difficulties encountered	f	Total
Yes	Lack of knowledge about methods	7	9
	Struggles with quantitative methods	3	
	Inability to choose an appropriate method for the thesis topic	4	
	Inability to select an appropriate study group	2	
No	Choosing an appropriate method for the topic	8	8

Table 4 presents an analysis of the challenges faced by the students when determining the method for their theses. The findings revealed that students encountered difficulties in determining the thesis method. The issues identified included lack of knowledge about methods, struggles with quantitative methods, inability to choose an appropriate method for the thesis topic, and inability to select an appropriate study group. The primary source of these problems appears to be students’ unfamiliarity with the various methods. Conversely, students who successfully chose the methods attributed this to the adaptation between the methods and their research topics. Stating that the topic of the study affected the method, one student stated that he did not have problems with it. Some students’ opinions are quoted below:

P1. “Frankly speaking, I could not decide for a long time which qualitative or quantitative studies would be more useful for my thesis. It was a difficult process for me.”

P2. “I did not have any problems in determining the method, since my field is history, I used the historical method.”

P3. “I had difficulties because we were not fully informed about the thesis method during the course period. It is still not completely clear.”

P4. “Following the determination of the topic, the application was made in accordance with the method, and no problem was experienced.”

P5. “When I want to conduct action research, the issue of getting permission from a school and conducting the study without interruption makes me think.”

P6. “I was conducting a scientific study for the first time, so I did not know which method to use and how to use it. I could not distinguish between these methods. My advisor’s guidance on this topic is incomplete. The process was difficult for me, alone.”

P7. “I was undecided in choosing the method. I had problems such as if it would be suitable for the topic I chose or if it would serve the purpose.”

P8. “This is the most important challenge for me. Although there is a standard template for my thesis, I struggled to specify the methodology. I am not sure about which method to use for my thesis topic.”

P9. “I had problems in determining the group I would study. Other than that, I had no problems with the method.”

Table 5

Did You Encounter Any Difficulties in The Formal Process of Your Thesis? If Yes, What Were They?

Yes/No	Difficulties encountered	<i>f</i>	Total
Yes	Problems originating from the Institute	8	10
	Conventional procedures	8	
	Ethical committee approval	7	
	Being in a different city	5	
	Late announcement of the academic calendar	4	
	Approval of practice schools	3	
No	Being at the beginning of this process	4	7
	Failure to initiate formal processes	3	

Table 5 displays the challenges faced by students in the formal thesis processes, detailing the nature of these difficulties. Of the participants, ten encountered issues in official procedures derived from institute-related problems, conventional protocols, ethical committee approvals, being in a different city, delayed academic calendar announcements, and approvals from practice schools. Four students, whose formal processes had recently started, reported no problems, while three others noted that they did not experience any problems due to the incomplete start of the formal procedures despite being in the thesis process. Below are quotations from the student statements.

P1. “When it comes to obtaining research permissions, both the academic institute and various governmental institutions create some obstacles. Even in this digital age, dealing

with bureaucratic processes and extensive paperwork unfortunately undermine the progress of many researches.”

P2. “Since I am at the beginning of the process, no problems appear at the moment.”

P3. “I was able to obtain the approvals of the Ministry of National Education and the ethical committee on my second attempt. It is difficult to gather the documents required of the ethics committee, especially for students who continue their graduate education in another city. There was a challenging procedure, such as uploading the documents required for the ethical committee application on a CD, and submitting them by hand. Later, when I switched to the online application, the requirement of uploading the documents on a CD was removed, and then I was able to apply more easily.”

P4. “Yes, they announce the deadline for the submission of the thesis very late, for example, they announce the date when students who want to do the thesis defense in the spring semester of 2022 should make the first submission of the thesis a month earlier, although this is something that should be clear when the spring academic calendar is determined.”

P5. “I have not started the formal procedures yet.”

P6. “There are some forms requested by the Institute and there were problems because they did not update those forms.”

P7. “Although there was still time before the thesis deadline, the appointments were all full. We had to start the process via e-mail.”

P8. “My thesis was uploaded 5-6 months after I submitted my thesis proposal to the school’s own student information system. In this respect, the information-processing process is extremely slow. Apart from that, there was no other problem.”

P9. “Specially, in cases where approval is required, the relevant authorities may be indifferent or slow to act.”

P10. “Yes, I did. I had a hard time getting the paperwork together.”

Table 6

What Were the Other Difficulties You Encountered? Please Explain Them

Yes/No	Difficulties encountered	f	Total
Evet	Not being in the same city with the university	5	6
	Economic problems	3	
	Lack of volunteerism of practice schools	3	

	Family-related difficulties	1	
Hayır	I did not encounter any difficulties other than the questions posed	11	11

Table 6 presents whether the students faced additional challenges beyond those directed by the researchers and what these problems were. As shown in table, six students reported encountering other difficulties and described their nature. Specifically, five students experienced challenges related to not residing in the same city as the university, three students encountered economic obstacles, and three students faced issues related to lack of volunteer opportunities in practice schools. In contrast, 11 students did not report any problems beyond the questions posed.

Table 7

Please List these Problems according to their Degrees of Difficulty

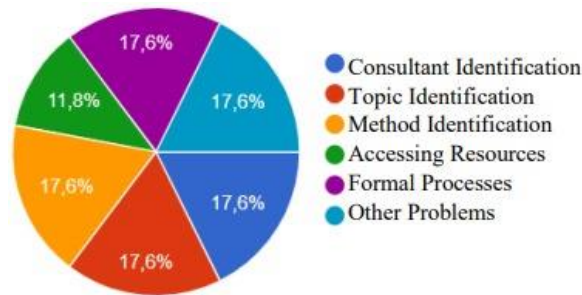


Table 7 shows the degree of difficulty experienced by students according to their ratio. Accordingly, the students ranked the difficulties as determining the advisor, determining the topic, determining the method, accessing resources, formal processes, and other problems.

Table 8

Do You be able to Complete Your Graduate Education by Producing Your Thesis?

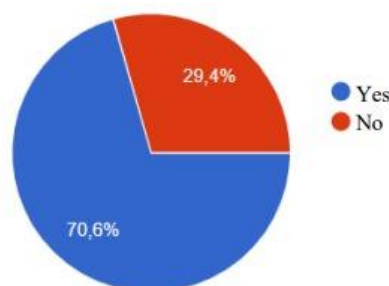


Table 8 presents students' opinions on whether they could complete their graduate education, that is, their theses, despite these difficulties. According to this, 70.6% (12 students) of the participants thought that they could complete their graduate program, while 29.4% (five students) thought that they could not.

Discussion and Results

Based on the research findings, it was evident that in the process of preparing their theses, students typically encountered challenges related to their research topic, the selection of an advisor, their interactions with him/her, the methodology for their thesis, accessing necessary resources, dealing with formal procedures, and a range of specific issues. Interestingly, students who reported having no difficulties were often individuals who had not yet decided on a research topic despite having completed their coursework. In this case, it is thought that students who state that they have no problems will encounter similar problems when they reach the thesis stage.

It has been determined that not being assigned to the desired advisor can lead to various issues including miscommunication, difficulties in working cohesively, selection of a suitable thesis topic within the advisor's field of expertise, advisors' busyness, and inadequate guidance. As a result, students often encounter challenges, such as facing full quotas, not being assigned their preferred advisor as per their selection form, not securing their desired advisor, failing to find an advisor suitable for their research topic, and experiencing uncertainty regarding the advisor assignment criteria. In the context of graduate education, academic counseling plays a crucial role since advisors are responsible for shaping the future of scientists. During this educational journey, students expected their advisors to convey their wisdom and provide guidance, thereby helping them navigate the correct path. The primary objective of student-centered academic counseling is to enhance the productivity and quality of this process (Köser & Mercanlioğlu, 2010).

Bakioğlu and Gürdal (2011) assert that academic advising has not only sustained its significance but has also seen an increase since its inception in the United States. Particularly, it has been pointed out that among the responsibilities assigned to faculty members, the most challenging and intricate is offering academic guidance for theses. Consequently, it can be argued that any complications arising during the selection of an advisor by both faculty members and students can further complicate the process for all parties involved. Hence, the

issues encountered in the stage of determining a thesis advisor represent a significant challenge for students.

In addition to the challenges encountered in selecting or determining an advisor, students also face difficulties with their own advisors. These challenges include advisors being busy and not allocating enough time, communication issues, struggles in determining the thesis topic, lack of proper guidance (owing to conventional practices), and advisors not having a strong command of the thesis topic. Throughout this process, it was identified that the primary issue faced by students was that their advisors were too busy to spare time for them. Similarly, Arabacı and Akıllı (2013) discovered that the major problems students face with their advisors during graduate education are related to communication and guidance issues. As stated in Arabacı and Akıllı's 2013 research, it is expected that advisors who are responsible for guiding students during their thesis phase will offer assistance and support to students in this process. In our country, academic staff typically fulfill this expectation to a significant degree. Effective communication between students and supervisors is vital during this stage. Nonetheless, although this communication and the expected support from the advisor are crucial, some conflicts may occasionally emerge in this context. These conflicts might be due to the differences in opinion between the advisor and the student, potentially deriving from the student's behavior or the advisor's approach.

Observations indicated that the students encountered challenges when selecting their thesis topics. Difficulties in choosing a thesis topic were found to be associated with several factors, including a lack of knowledge of the field/literature, the need to choose a topic in the advisor's field of expertise, the impact of methodological knowledge on topic selection, and being a non-major student. This situation suggests that although the students have reached the thesis stage, the concern that they will have problems due to the method has an effect on determining the thesis topic. In addition, it can be said that students are in a vicious circle in choosing or determining the subject due to reasons such as not being able to master the literature review. In general, it can be stated that students have problems in topic selection for different reasons.

Another important issue was the challenges encountered in the process of determining the thesis method. Accordingly, it was revealed that the challenges were derived from factors such as their lack of knowledge of different methods, their inability to select the appropriate method for their thesis topic, their difficulties with quantitative methods, and their challenges in determining a suitable study group. In fact, the students had the most problems due to a lack of knowledge of their methodology. On the other hand, students who stated that they did

not have difficulty with methodology had no difficulty in this regard because they were able to determine methods suitable for their study topics. The fact that the topic of the thesis directly required some methods ensured that they did not have difficulties with methodology. However, it is notable that the difficulties experienced by students who have started the thesis stage in terms of methods lack knowledge about the methods and have difficulty in quantitative methods.

In this research, focusing on students in the thesis phase, it became evident that despite having completed their coursework, they encountered challenges due to their limited understanding of research methods and insufficient familiarity with the literature and academic field, which caused problems in their thesis preparation process.

The study revealed that 10 of 17 participants encountered challenges in formal procedures. Those who reported no issues were either in the first stage of the process or had not yet initiated formal procedures. This finding underscores the obstacles posed by formal processes to students. These challenges include institute-related difficulties, conventional procedures, ethical committee approvals, issues related to being in a different city, delayed announcements of academic calendars, and approval for practical training locations. Evidently, these challenges are primarily related to institutional problems.

In the section titled “Other Difficulties, if Any,” which was not structured by the research data collection tool, it was revealed that the students encountered various obstacles. These include issues related to obtaining research approval in secondary schools, economic challenges, and difficulties stemming from a lack of family support. Arabacı and Akıllı’s 2013 study similarly identified that graduate students faced similar issues, such as administrative, program-related, advisor-related, economic, and family related challenges, contingent upon the focus of the study.

The study found that the most difficult problems faced by students included determining their advisors, selecting a topic and method, accessing resources, dealing with formal processes, and other related problems. Additionally, among the 17 participants in the study, five students expressed doubts about their ability to complete their graduate education and successfully conducted the thesis writing process due to these difficulties. This underscores the importance of addressing these challenges to prevent potential student dropouts. Considering the issues revealed by this research, it is essential to conduct research aimed at reducing and minimizing the challenges faced by graduate students.

Recommendations

- Based on these challenges, academics, universities, and other relevant institutions can conduct studies to minimize these obstacles. It is also important to conduct studies that offer solutions to these difficulties. The population and sample groups of this study can be expanded and analyzed based on universities and provinces.
- Similar to the challenges faced by master-degree students, the experiences of doctoral students during the thesis preparation process can also be explored. Research can be conducted to reveal both similarities and distinctions in the challenges experienced by master's and doctoral students during their graduate journeys.
- To enhance the effectiveness of graduate education, it is suggested to establish improved coordination between educational institutions and their affiliated departments, while also ensuring that essential information is readily available within the student information system. To prevent these challenges, applications can be created to connect individuals pursuing academic studies with field experts on a digital platform.

Ethical Committee Approval

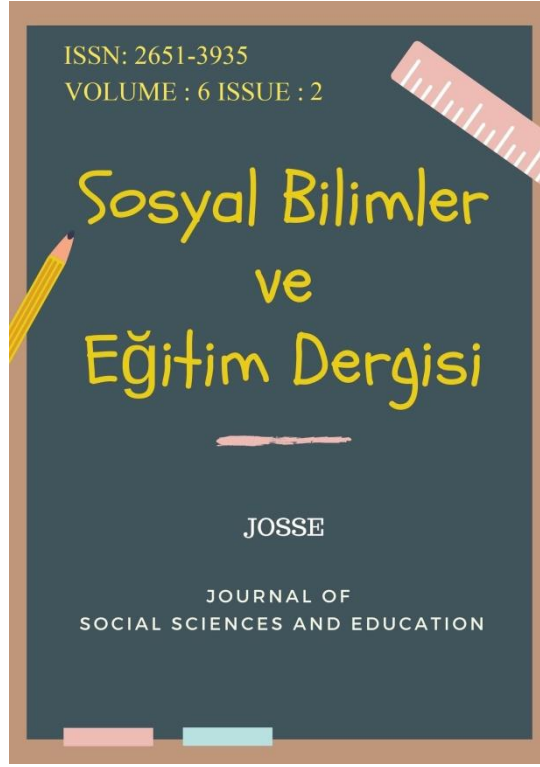
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Integrating Philosophy with Children into the Social Studies Courses

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Integrating Philosophy with Children into the Social Studies Courses

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Abstract

Philosophy with children aims to teach children to think for themselves and make informed choices. The objective here is to develop children's reasoning skills by enabling them to reflect on thinking while discussing concepts that are important to them. This study examines the act of philosophical thinking, the importance of children doing philosophy, and the implementation of philosophy in schools, especially its integration into the Social Studies course. This study also explains the benefits of philosophy with children for students and teachers and the facilitating effect of these benefits on the realisation of the objectives of the Social Studies course through sample applications. While some case studies were discussed with the students and sections of philosophical questioning were presented, a few of them were merely given as case studies. Thus, we believe that integrating children and philosophy with the Social Studies course will be effective in terms of the learning outcomes that students need.

Keywords: Social studies, philosophy with children, integration

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Introduction

Many of us have taken philosophy courses during high school education. However, we have mostly been engaged in the history of philosophy rather than learning how to think philosophically. However, doing philosophy does not consist of memorizing the history of philosophy. What enables the creation of the history of philosophy lies in the potential of human beings to think philosophically, and this potential is one of the important qualities that distinguish human beings from other living beings. If human beings really see themselves as different from other living beings, they are obliged to demonstrate/prove this. As Socrates said, "an unexamined life is not worth living". Therefore, one of the primary goals for proving the privilege of being human should be to learn to think philosophically. Since, as a thinking and reasoning entity, human beings distinguish themselves from other living beings, and these qualities develop some potentials specific to human beings (such as creating artifacts, discovering the order of nature, reflecting on the meaning of life, making conscious choices, making right/wrong judgements about human behaviour). Therefore, in order to display these unique potentials, human beings must make an effort to realize the activity of thinking and reasoning that underlies them. Otherwise, these qualities that he considers himself privileged will cease to be part of him and he will become an ordinary creature. Undoubtedly, the way to realize these potentials begins with learning and applying thinking and reasoning. For this, the phenomenon of education, in which human beings have made material and spiritual investments since the beginning of their existence, comes to the fore. In other words, learning to think can only be realized through education.

Learning to think and reason, or in other words, learning to think philosophically, should begin in the early years of life. Preschool, primary and secondary school education levels are important stages for learning philosophical thinking. This is because thinking styles become habitual after a certain repetition and a way of thinking becomes mechanical for humans. In other words, after a certain period of time, thinking philosophically or not thinking philosophically turns into a self-operating mechanism. The aim of this study is to integrate philosophy with children into school lessons in order to encourage children to think philosophically. It is thought that the middle school Social Studies course provides a favourable environment for philosophical thinking due to its comprehensive content. Therefore, the problem of this research is "how do we integrate philosophy with children into the social studies course?". In this direction, the research will firstly talk about the act of

thinking and philosophical thinking, emphasise what philosophy is and its importance for children, present ways of integrating philosophical thinking with the achievements, skills and values of the social studies course, and try to illuminate these ways with sample activities.

Thinking and The Philosophical Act of Thinking

Thinking, as a condition of human existence, is an act of the mind that is naturally inherent in human beings. However, as mentioned, this is only a possibility. The realisation of this possibility comes to the agenda by acquiring a skill that is learned, taught and developed. "The condition for human beings to live humanely and to be in a humane world is primarily to learn to think correctly and to be able to think correctly" (İyi, 2018). Correct thinking, on the other hand, is an action that requires a certain effort and is acquired through learning beyond what is innate (İyi, 2018; İyi, 2003). As Aristotle states, thinking is the most basic quality that makes human beings human. Therefore, in terms of self-realisation, human beings should be careful about thinking and reach their best state as much as possible. In other words, human beings should give importance to developing quality rather than quantity in thinking. This can only be possible by learning the right ways of thinking and thinking about thinking. The main way that leads people to think correctly is possible through philosophical thinking education (Gündoğdu, 2009). Through philosophical thinking education, human beings can gain the ability to think in a connected and correct way and reach a sound and reliable mind structure. Thus, he/she can recognise the distinction between knowledge and non-knowledge, avoid losing himself/herself in the endless sea of imagination, and succeed in remaining objective in his/her behaviour. Through education in both philosophical and ethical thinking, it is possible for human beings to realize their existence as thinkers, creators and ethical beings rather than merely being intelligent beings. In short, it is possible to say that the necessary condition for human beings to realize their existence as human beings is the act of philosophical thinking (İyi, 2018). Before presenting ways to fulfil this necessary condition, it is important to dwell on the nature and quality of philosophical thinking.

Since the subjects of philosophy are very comprehensive, that is, everything that exists can be the subject of philosophy, it is necessary to start with philosophical questions when talking about the nature of philosophical thinking. What is a philosophical question? What is the structure of philosophical questions? Questions such as these facilitate the identification of the distinctive features of the act of philosophical thinking. Philosophical questions, when considered as a question, reveal an achievement even if a clear answer cannot be reached. Because each philosophical question opens a certain dimension. Thanks to these questions,

people turn their eyes in a new direction beyond everyday life and open new horizons for themselves; like the person in Plato's cave, they wonder the truth behind the reflections (Uygur, 2013). Philosophical questions turn towards the meaning of concepts and try to understand the concept with the question root "what is". In other words, questions with "what" are an endeavour to understand, and in this direction, we should note that answers are important as well as questions (Dinçer, 2012), since justification is an indispensable act when answering philosophical questions. Because an idea without adequate grounding/justification is neither accepted by others (Çotuksöken, 2013) nor satisfies the respondent. The opposite situation invites dogmatic thinking, which is the opposite of philosophical thinking. In other words, philosophical thinking reveals the activity of human understanding through questions and answers. In this way, man goes beyond the ordinary, tries to understand what is seen and what is behind what is seen, turns towards the source of existence with his questions, and necessarily grounds his answers.

Philosophical thinking is a reflexive act of thinking. In other words, a person does not just think about something, he/she thinks by returning to his/her thoughts about that thing or to his/her own mind again and again. Therefore, philosophical thinking is realized by starting philosophical analyses and learning reflexive thinking, which reveals the distinctive feature of philosophical thinking (Başara, 2008). The birth point of philosophy was realized when human beings, as a subject, turned towards themselves and their own minds (Çotuksöken, 2013). Thinking about thinking, man turned towards himself as a subject and started to think in the context of meaning and thus united various acts of thinking under the act of philosophical thinking. It is possible to list this combination as the basic qualities of philosophical thinking (Çotuksöken, 2006, cited in Gülenç, 2006, 71):

Table 1

Basic Characteristics of Philosophical Thinking

Asking questions	Evaluating
Keeping questioning always active; continuous questioning	Understanding
Focussing on the object of thinking	Making sense
Discussing the controversy	Conceptualisation
Criticising	Making judgements
Justifying criticism	Opening its judgement to discussion and criticism
Identifying similarities and differences in justification	Being creative

In sum, "through philosophical thinking, man turns towards himself, others, his sociality, culturality and historicity and tries to understand these structures in all their functioning" (Gülenç, 2006, 63).

Can Children Do Philosophy?

With Socrates' contribution, man learned to question methodologically and to analyze universal themes such as truth, justice, beauty, and goodness. With Socrates' ironic questioning, knowledge is not transmitted by the adult as the knower, but rather discovered by the learner himself. In other words, Socrates did not teach philosophy, he taught how to philosophise. Because instead of spreading a theory, his own theory, he tried to spread the method of learning to think/reflect (Daniel & Auriac, 2011). Therefore, it is possible to see that the answer to the question "can children philosophise", which is still being discussed, is hidden in Socrates' philosophy.

Doing philosophy and criticising/evaluating systems of thought in the history of philosophy are two different things. The two basic motives for doing philosophy are curiosity and scepticism. Both of these motives are found in children. Children are naturally curious about everything that happens around them. They even ask questions that even adults do not ask. Asking questions brings scepticism, in other words, questioning. Most children ask questions such as; Who created the world? Why is it wrong to lie? Where do people go when they die? They have asked questions similar to the questions that have been widely discussed in the history of philosophy. However, not encouraging children to ask questions during the development process or directing them to more concrete goals creates an obstacle for them to be interested in these questions or their answers.

Similarly, McCall (2017) states that abstract ideas and ambiguous topics are mostly excluded from their education programmes because it is not thought that young children can neither think in abstract terms nor engage in logical reasoning about philosophical concepts; therefore, children who have no experience in abstract thinking fail when they are tested on this skill. However, children of all ages have the potential to do philosophy. Existing research provides ample evidence of young children's philosophical abilities (Lipman & Gazzard, 1988; Trickey & Topping, 2004 ; García-Moriyón, Rebollo, & Colom, 2005; Collins, 2005; Lyle, 2008).

The Importance of Philosophy for Children

Many teachers appear to expose students to a monologue-style approach rather than dialogic discussion (Caughlan, Juzwik, Borsheim-Black, Kelly, & Fine, 2013; Reznitskaya, 2012; Waring, 2014). Such a monological approach mainly encourages the recall of knowledge and other low-level cognitive activities rather than facilitating the development of thinking skills. Research shows the positive effects of philosophical discussion in the classroom on students' language development. For example, the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (2009) claims that helping students learn to philosophise can facilitate their mastery of language and speech. Cebas and Moriyon reviewed more than 50 empirical studies on philosophy in schools and found that philosophising with students helps them acquire language proficiency in reading, writing, speaking and listening (Lam, 2019). Haynes (2000) argues that students' confidence increases when they are encouraged to question and deconstruct texts in depth and to use clearer definitions and present clear arguments during discussion. Research also suggests that teaching strategies routinely used in philosophical discussions (such as questioning, exploring, imagining, collaborating) help to create an environment that fosters creative thinking (Edgar et al., 2008).

Indeed, for centuries philosophy has been seen as an intellectual activity focussing on both the complex cognitive skills associated with critical thinking and the more holistic characteristics associated with creative thinking. Philosophy is still viewed as a subject that involves cultivating a critical mind and acting as a strong defense against any doctrinaire passions. (UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, 2007). However, as many years of experience in philosophy for children have shown, philosophy develops creative and imaginative thinking that encourages students to think outside the box (Lam, 2013).

There is also evidence that integrating philosophy with children can have a positive impact on the achievement of all students, regardless of gender and ability (Haynes, 2008). On the other hand, philosophy in schools/philosophy with children offers opportunities to meet the professional development needs of teachers in terms of developing teachers' effective questioning techniques (Mak, 2010). Another important element is that philosophy with children programmes can play a key role in building a democratic society by nurturing the critical abilities and dispositions that students need to participate in democratic life. This contribution is particularly important for local governments as it involves striving for a democratisation process that requires the participation of a critical citizenry (Lam, 2019).

Philosophy with Children and Its Implementation in Schools

Philosophy for children aims to teach children to think for themselves and make wise choices. The aim is to develop children's reasoning skills by enabling them to reflect on thinking while discussing concepts that are important to them. The philosophy for children programme assumes that even 6-7 year olds are capable of critical and reflective thinking. Children's novels/stories/fairy tales serve as a starting point for discussion in the programme, which covers a long period of time from six to sixteen years of age. The class acts as a community of enquiry, learning to solve problems through their reasoning powers. In general, the philosophical thinking process begins when the teachers of the philosophy with children programme share a short story, picture, poem, object or other stimulus with their students. The children are given a certain amount of time to think about their own questions related to the stimulus presented to them. Short discussions then turn into comprehensive discussions (Trickey & Topping, 2004).

Given that it can be incorporated into already-existing standard curriculum (Goering & Whittaker, 2007) and requires very little in the way of implementation expenditures, philosophy with children has a high administrative and financial viability (Topping & Trickey, 2007). Though many schools provide philosophy with children programs as extracurricular or supplemental activities (Hand & Winstanley, 2008), such activities are uncommon in Turkish schools and are mostly offered in private schools.

Integrating Philosophy with Children into The Social Studies Course

Countries all over the world aim to raise young people as members of society. The countries see the task of socialising future generations in line with the orientations of the nation-state as very important, and centralised countries such as Turkey, in particular, place the responsibility on schools to fulfil this task. In general, social studies education offers a curriculum with the basic aim of preparing students for society.

Social Studies was first introduced as a stand-alone subject in the United States at the beginning of the 20th century and has gradually become established as a vehicle for citizenship education in the United States and many other countries that have followed. With changing emphases over time, Social Studies Education has been influenced by four main traditions. The first, social studies as citizenship transmission, focuses on students' learning outcomes of the knowledge, values and skills assumed to be necessary for sustaining a sustainable cultural life, including understanding and promoting a nation's history, traditions

and place in the world. Secondly, the tradition of social studies as social studies reflects the "new social studies movement", which is built from the knowledge compiled by the social science disciplines. This tradition emphasises the research methods used by the disciplines of social studies and aims to educate citizens with discipline-based knowledge, understanding and skills and the ability to think logically. The third tradition, social studies as reflective enquiry, is based on the idea of active citizens participating in social, political and economic decision-making and being effective in shaping their own lives. It is also influenced by the new social studies movement and focuses on developing critical and reflective thinking and decision-making skills in students. Knowledge is gained and utilised when students investigate and reflect on a range of social problems or issues (Hawe et al., 2010). Later, a fourth tradition was advocated based on the work of Marsh (1987), Hill (1994) and Gilbert (1996). This tradition is based on critical citizenship education. It aims to educate citizens for social and ethical development by raising students' personal consciousness and therefore takes the name social studies as individual, social. In this tradition, which includes value analysis and explanation as well as critical and reflective thinking skills, students deal with the problems they face in the process of holistic development of the individual and the learning outcomes of a positive self-concept. They are encouraged to question their social and cultural situation and to consider their personal beliefs and values. Thus, they can break free from the shackles of unrecognised dependencies such as social background, gender or class (Milligan & Beals, 2004; Hill, 1994).

It is widely acknowledged that the goal of social studies education is to generate "good citizens" or to raise people who are rational, accountable and able to assume their position as citizens in a democratic society (Hawe et al., 2010). Undoubtedly, each society's perception or expectation of "good citizen" may be different from each other. Religious, political, cultural, economic and similar contexts of societies have an important place in the construction of citizen identity. Therefore, how the concept of "good citizen" will be shaped varies from one society to another. However, achieving democracy is among the social goals of many countries. In this case, the expectation of "good citizen" has a structure that intersects with the characteristics of democratic citizens.

One of the main aims of Social Studies teaching is to teach the knowledge, processes and dispositions necessary for students to become active and engaged citizens in a democratic society. Westheimer and Kahne (2004) state that there are three visions of citizenship education. These are: the personal responsible citizen who is a law-abiding, honest,

responsible and law-abiding member of society with good character; the participatory citizen who actively participates in community institutions and the social life of society at the local, regional or national level; and the justice-oriented citizen who shares the vision of the participatory citizen, both reacting to social problems, addressing and criticising issues related to injustice, and participating in collaborative work related to the life and problems of society. An analysis of the specific aims of the Turkish Social Studies curriculum, the basic skills to be acquired, the targeted basic values and the achievements at each grade level reveals that the above-mentioned visions of citizenship overlap in many aspects. In fact, we can say that the kind of citizen that the Turkish Social Studies curriculum seeks to raise is someone who possesses abilities like critical thinking, decision-making, problem-solving, and social participation; who has learned values like justice, peace, sensitivity, and responsibility; who is aware of their physical and emotional characteristics, interests, desires, and abilities as free individuals; who believes in the significance of social participation; and who is aware of their physical and emotional characteristics, interests, desires, and abilities as individuals. Therefore, Philosophy with Children offers important contributions to raise individuals with these qualities. In this direction, an integration approach was presented for the question "How can Philosophy with Children be integrated into the Social Studies course?". Below, the areas where philosophy with children practices can be carried out for the learning areas and outcomes of the Social Studies course are listed.

Table 2

Learning Areas and Philosophy Areas

Learning area	Learning outcomes	Philosophy area
Individual and society	All learning outcomes	Philosophy of the self, social philosophy, political philosophy
Culture and heritage	All learning outcomes	Philosophy of history and time, philosophy of religion, philosophy of art
People, places and environments	All learning outcomes	Moral philosophy, philosophy of the environment
Science, technology and society	All learning outcomes	Philosophy of technology, moral philosophy
Production, distribution and consumption	All learning outcomes	Philosophy of the self, philosophy of culture, philosophy of environment
Active citizenship	All learning outcomes	Social philosophy, political philosophy, moral philosophy
Global connections	All learning outcomes	Philosophy of culture, philosophy of man, philosophy of the self

A review of the Social Studies curriculum and Table 2 shows that philosophy with children can be implemented in all learning areas of the Social Studies course.

It is possible to list the areas of philosophy with children that can be applied in the dimension of the basic skills that students should acquire in the Social Studies curriculum as follows.

Table 3

Basic Skills and Areas of Philosophy

Basic Skills	Areas of Philosophy
Critical thinking	All fields of philosophy
Environmental literacy	Philosophy of the environment
Empathy	Philosophy of man, philosophy of the self
Communication	Philosophy of communication
Recognising stereotypes and prejudice	Philosophy of culture, philosophy of man, philosophy of religion
Using evidence	All fields of philosophy
Problem solving	All fields of philosophy
Social inclusion	All fields of philosophy
Perceiving change and continuity	Philosophy of history
Decision making	All fields of philosophy
Political literacy	Philosophy of politics
Using Turkish correctly, well and effectively	All fields of philosophy

The areas of philosophy with children applicable with respect to the core values aimed to be acquired by students in the Social Studies curriculum are listed in the table below.

Table 4

Core Values and Areas of Philosophy

Core Values	Areas of Philosophy
Justice	Political philosophy, moral philosophy, social philosophy
Peace	Social philosophy, philosophy of the man
Sensitivity	Moral philosophy, philosophy of the self
Solidarity	Moral philosophy, political philosophy
Aesthetics	Philosophy of art
Giving importance to family unity	Social philosophy, Philosophy of the culture
Benevolence	Moral philosophy
Scientificity	Philosophy of science
Equality	Political philosophy, social philosophy
Freedom	Political philosophy, moral philosophy
Love	Moral philosophy, philosophy of the self
Respect	Moral philosophy, philosophy of the self
Responsibility	Moral philosophy, philosophy of the self
Honesty	Moral philosophy, philosophy of the self

It is thought that it is important to give a few examples of activities that we can benefit from the field of Philosophy with Children in order to realize the learning outcomes, skills and values in the Social Studies curriculum in order to concretize the subject and give direction to the practices. For example, the philosophy of the self is concerned with how one distinguishes oneself from others, how self-awareness provides insight into the nature of the self, how one constructs one's individual identity over time, and what kind of self-understanding is required for rational or free agency (Gertler, 2021). The learning area of the Social Studies course, especially the individual and society and global connections, provides an opportunity to do philosophy practices with children in the dimension of philosophy of the self, and at the same time, it can provide opportunities to realize the achievements of the course more effectively. It is possible to plan an activity in this area as follows:

Activity 1. Who am I? (Tuncel, 2021)

Area of Philosophy: Philosophy of the self

Social Studies Learning Area: Individual and Society

Basic skills: Critical thinking, communication, perception of change and continuity, correct, beautiful and effective use of Turkish

Core values: Respect, Love, Freedom

Case Study

One evening I was sitting alone with my mother at home. My mother said, "Ozgur, come on son, bring the albums and let's remember the old days together. I took the albums from the cupboard and sat next to my mother. I was very interested in the pictures of my mother and father as children. It's a very strange thing to think that my mother and father were children. Was my mother who was a child and my mother who is with me now the same person? Then I looked at my photos. There were many photos of me from when I was a baby until I was 13 years old. First pictures of me crawling, then walking, running, jumping. I realized that at first I was a baby who couldn't speak, then I said the names of objects, and now I think and speak in a different way. So, was there a part of me that remained the same since I was a baby? What did I want to express when I say "me", the crawling me or the thinking me? Who am I? Am I my body or my mind? Am I memories?

Am I emotions? Am I likes or dislikes? Or am I a perfectly functioning machine?

Philosophical Questioning

- Do such questions come to your mind when you look at your childhood pictures like Özgür? What do you mean when you say "I"?
- How do you answer when you ask who am I?
- Are we memories?
- Are we the ones we like or dislike?
- Are we emotions?
- Are we thoughts?
- What distinguishes us from another living being or a robot?
- Would we still be us if we lost a part of ourselves? Or would we still be us if we grew up, for example, if our hair grew longer, our height grew taller, our age grew older? Would something remain unchanged in us as we change? What makes us who we are?
- Are you still the same you even though you are constantly changing over time? If you are the same person, what makes it so?

Sections from Philosophical Questioning

Trainer: Do such questions come to your mind when you look at your childhood pictures like Özgür? What do you mean when you say I? How do you answer when you ask who am I?

Utku: Maybe all our memories together make up who we are. So we have a lot of memories. I remember that I know how to ride a bicycle. I can solve a math problem thanks to what I remember. I remember the time of a train or a friend's birthday. Memories help me discover what I like and dislike. For example, I remember that I like the taste of chocolate.

Demir: But how do we remember our memories? For example, I remember how I met my best friend, because I feel happy when I remember her. I mean, don't our emotions help us remember something?

Ela: So when I ask who I am, do my emotions determine who I am? I mean, I feel happy when I do sports, but someone else wants to cry. It's the same thing but it feels different.

Irmak: This is what you mean, isn't it? Our emotions make us happy, smiling, harmonious, calm or angry, unhappy people.

Talha: I think our likes and dislikes separate us from each other. I mean, I love playing soccer, so when I ask who I am, I say I'm a sports fan.

Duru: But we like a lot of things. We don't like a lot of things either. Are we going to make a definition for each of them? There are many things like I like sports, I like dancing, I like chocolate, I like music. I think these are not enough to say who I am.

Irmak: Maybe my thoughts make me who I am. Just like we don't feel the same when we do the same thing. Can the same be true for thoughts? We have different thoughts about everything. This separates us from others.

Talha: But many of our things are similar. It's like a toy robot set up. We do the same things every day. The way our bodies work is the same. To school in the morning, home or work in the evening. So everyone is like a robot with batteries. When the battery runs out, it goes back home.

Trainer: So can robots think like us?

Talha: Maybe they can.

Demir: No, he cannot think. He is like a computer, he only does what he is commanded to do.

Irmak: It's like a living thing, but it's not really alive. If it falls on the ground, nothing hurts. His feelings don't get hurt. We need to be able to think for our feelings to be hurt. Otherwise, how do we know when something bad is being said?

Aynur: But our feelings change, don't they? Do we change when our feelings change?

Demir: Yes, I think it changes. When we look at your old pictures, we already see that we have changed. But a robot doesn't change. It is how you program it.

Aynur: We have been changing since we were born, but at the same time it's like we are the same person. I mean, when Aynur is mentioned, people think of certain things about me.

Philosophy of the environment examines our relationship as human beings to nature or our natural environment, our understanding of nature and our conception of its value. It explores through philosophy how and to what extent humans are a part of nature and how

they coexist with it. Philosophy of the environment , which encompasses all the basic disciplines of philosophy, questions how we know and understand nature in the epistemological dimension, how different epistemologies reveal different aspects of the natural world, deals with examples that can be taken to give meaning and value to nature in the aesthetic dimension, and examines the moral aspects of human behavior towards living things and systems in the ethical dimension (Mathew, 2014). The learning areas of the Social Studies course, especially the learning areas of people, places and environments and production, distribution and consumption, seem to be very suitable for realizing the learning outcomes based on philosophy of the environment . The following activity can provide students with an opportunity to both realize the outcomes of the Social Studies course and to engage in philosophy of the environment .

Activity 2. Natural Cycle

Area of philosophy: Philosophy of the environment

Social Studies area: People Places and Environments, Production Distribution and Consumption

Case Study

Mr. Cemal, Hasan's father, got up early in the morning and went out to water the land he had planted in the garden. Mr. Cemal used to grow a variety of vegetables and then sell them in the market to make a living for the family. Just as he was about to start watering, he saw that there was no trace of the seeds he had planted, the soil was riddled with holes. Mr. Cemal immediately ran home. "Hasan, my son, wake up now! We have to go to the city and look for a cure at the pharmacy." Hasan got up in a panic. "What happened, father, what is this excitement?" he said. His father explained that the mice had eaten all the seeds and riddled the garden with holes and added, "We have to go and buy medicine right now, we have to take care of the mice." "What kind of medicine, dad, are you going to poison them?" Hasan asked in fear. Mr. Cemal replied, "What else can I do, otherwise we will starve." Father and son went into town together and bought a poisonous medicine for rats from the pharmacy. When they returned home, Mr. Cemal placed the poison all over the garden. Within a few days there were no more rats. Mr. Cemal was enjoying his days, when one morning

Hasan's mother went out into the garden to prepare breakfast. Then a frightened scream echoed. Hasan and his father heard the scream and ran into the garden. Hasan's mother was standing at the table and couldn't take her eyes off the snake on the table. Cemal Bey was wondering how to get the snake when Hasan shouted, "Dad, there are two snakes in the chicken coop and I see one next to the lamb." Unable to understand what was happening, Cemal Bey immediately called the Directorate of Agriculture and explained the situation.

Philosophical Questioning

- Was killing rats harmful? If harmful, who or what did it harm?
- What does it mean to do something harmful? How can you distinguish harmful things from non-harmful things?
- Was there any way for Mr. Cemal to save his crops without harming the mice? How?
- Is it more important that Mr. Cemal was harmed or that the mice were harmed? Why?
- What did killing the rats result in? Why?
- Is everything connected in the natural environment? How?
- What happens when we destroy a living thing in nature?
- What do you understand by natural balance or ecosystem?
- What can be done to maintain this balance in nature?

Moral philosophy can be defined as the analysis of human actions in terms of good/bad or morally right/morally wrong. The German philosopher Kant characterized moral philosophy as thinking about the question "What should I do?" (Bartneck et al., 2021). More or less every subject of the Social Studies course is related to the question "what should I do?" of the individual in society. In particular, learning areas such as the individual and society, people, places and environments, active citizenship and global connections can be directly presented to students through moral philosophy practices. As can be seen in the activity example presented below, moral philosophy applications can provide a facilitating effect for topics that include concepts such as social solidarity, benevolence, and responsibility, which are among the cornerstones of the Social Studies course.

Activity 3. Why Do We Help Someone? (Tuncel, 2021; İcen, 2022)

Area of philosophy: Moral philosophy

Social Studies Area: Individual and Society

Basic skills: Critical thinking, communication, empathy, using Turkish correctly, well and effectively

Core values: Cooperation, solidarity, responsibility

Case Study

On my way to school today I saw an old man walking slowly with a bag in one hand and a walking stick in the other. Suddenly he tripped and fell to the ground. When I first saw him, I thought he could get up on his own. Then I said to myself, "What if he can't get up?" I said to myself and ran to him. I said, "Let me help him, uncle," and grabbed his arm and helped him get up. I bent down to pick up his bag that had fallen on the ground. I said to myself, "How heavy it was. He was already walking with difficulty. Carrying this bag was making it even more difficult. I offered to carry his bag. He said yes. He lived near the school. My friends gathered in front of the school and were chatting. They called me to join them and I said I was coming to take the uncle home. After we passed by, I overheard their conversation. One of them said, "That Aegean thinks he is an angel of goodness. Another said, "Why is he going to help his father, grandfather or uncle? Another said, "I wonder what his purpose is, is he going to give him money? By this time we had arrived at the uncle's house, he thanked me and went in the door. So I went back to school, but I started thinking about what my friends had said, what did they mean? Why do we choose to help someone? Do we have to be close to someone to help them?

Philosophical Questioning

- Why does Ege help the old man?
- What do his friends think when they see Ege helping the old man?
- Why do you think you should help a person?
- How would you act if you saw someone on the road who needed help?
- What kind of behavior is it to help? Is it good or bad?

- For what reasons does one person help another person?
- What are the purposes of helping behavior?

Sections from Philosophical Questioning

Trainer: Is it right to help an old man who falls down on the road? Why?

Utku: Of course it is right. If we help him, they will help us one day when we need it.

Duru: So if we are sure that one day we won't need help, then we won't need to help?

Demir: When you put it like that, it sounds a bit manipulative. Well, when we do good, we feel happy and peaceful. What do you think about that?

Irmak: It's nice to feel happy, of course, but sometimes we can put ourselves in a difficult situation when we help.

Demir: How do you mean?

Irmak: For example, if a very close friend of ours needs money for something important. We can give him the last money in our pocket and meet his need. But when we can't do some of the things we want to do with that money, we may not be very happy.

Talha: That sounds about right. But what if I say that if we help, we will do good deeds. Of course you will say again that it is manipulative. Because I'm still getting something in return, right?

Irmak: What would you say if I said that doing good is a human duty?

Utku: Yes, our teacher said this in Social Studies class about human rights. He said it was a human duty to defend human rights. In other words, it doesn't matter if our rights are violated, it is our duty to defend the rights of others. In the same way, I think that just as it is our duty as human beings to defend human rights, it is also our duty as human beings to help those who need help.

Talha: So it's not something that someone else tells us to do, it's something we have to do? I mean, there is no condition, there is no gain for us, such as benefit, such as being happy.

Irmak: I think so, if it brings us a gain in some way, it is not right. It is right when we do it because it is our duty, that is, when we do it without any gain.

Iron: For example, if we stop at a red light to avoid getting a ticket, this is not right, but if we stop because we have to stop, this is right. Because then, when there is no camera and nobody sees us, we can run a red light because we don't want to get a ticket.

Duru: I mean, goodness is not about calculating profit and loss, right? In Ege's case, the old uncle has nothing to do with him. Ege has no interest or expectation from the man. He doesn't say that if I help, maybe the man will give me money or candy or chocolate.

Talha: Or he doesn't think that I will do good deeds. I mean, at that moment he just thinks that the man needs help.

As a branch of applied philosophy, social philosophy investigates questions regarding the origins, significance, and structure of society. Focusing on the relationship between the individual and society, social philosophy deals with issues such as democracy and human rights, gender, global justice, the consequences of globalization, the consequences of globalization, relations with modern technology, ecological problems by focusing on the social contexts of all the moral, cultural, legal and political problems it examines (Canatan, 2020), and examines questions about the foundations of social institutions, social behaviors and interpretations of society in terms of ethical values rather than empirical relations (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2022). Philosophy of art, on the other hand, is a field of philosophy that investigates issues such as the process and purpose of the creation of a work of art. Philosophy of art analyzes both the conceptual structure and function of art from a philosophical point of view and deals with the existence, message and function of the work of art from different philosophical perspectives (Uludağ, 1993). In the Social Studies course, learning areas such as the individual and society, production, distribution and consumption, and the values that should be acquired can be covered in the context of both social philosophy and philosophy of art. In the activity presented below, values and skills are given with the outcomes that are thought to be directly related.

Activity 4. Philosophy Through Children's Literature

Area of philosophy: Social philosophy, philosophy of art

Social Studies Area: Individual and Society, Production, Distribution and Consumption

Social Studies Outcomes: SS.5.1.3. As an individual who is aware of his/her rights, acts in accordance with the duties and responsibilities required by the roles he/she takes in the groups he/she participates in; SS.5.5.4. Analyzes the production, distribution and consumption network of products to meet basic needs; SB.5.5.5. Develops new ideas based on production, distribution and consumption by cooperating; SS.6.1.4. Participates in activities that support social cooperation and solidarity in the formation of social unity.

Basic skills: Critical thinking, communication, problem solving, using Turkish correctly, beautifully and effectively

Core values: Cooperation, solidarity, responsibility, justice, aesthetics.

Summary of the Story (Frederick: Leo Lionni)

This story is about a family of field mice preparing for winter. As winter approaches, the whole family is hard at work stocking up on food for the winter, while Frederick, a member of the family, sits in a corner and daydreams. When asked why he is not working, he replies that he is actually working, collecting sunlight for the cold and dark winter days. Another day he collects colors, another day words... The others continue to work. Winter comes and the snow comes. One day the mice run out of food, which was initially plentiful and enough to keep them happy. Will it be Frederick's gleaning that will keep them warm and alive? Frederick uses the art of poetry to help the days pass.

Philosophical Questioning

- What makes a society a society?
- Try to think about the society/communities you are part of. How do you know they are societies/communities?
- Do you think the goals of the individual or the goals of the community come first? Why?
- Which actions can be considered work? Why?
- Do you think Frederick is working?
- What makes a type of work important?
- If the mice had not run out of food, would Frederick have any use value? Why?

- If Frederick were a famous poet, would his work count? Or would his poetry be more valuable?
- Do people need poetry? Why?
- Is it important for people to have arts such as painting, poetry and music? Why?
- Does Frederick deserve to eat some of the food even though he did not collect it? Is this fair? Why is this fair?

Discussion and Results

The goal of philosophy with children is to reclaim education for kids, create a forum for their ideas and questions, and make it possible for them to take an active role in their own education. Children learn better when they collaborate on ideas, share their ideas and views with others, and let others explore and occasionally challenge those ideas and beliefs (Garside, 2013). Philosophizing with children from an early age brings with it an open-mindedness that accommodates different views and opinions in their later years. A society that lacks critical citizenship can always be threatened if it cannot properly comprehend and evaluate policies and practices that require public deliberation and decision-making. Philosophy with children, which allows for open-mindedness as an epistemic virtue, is an important way to develop democratic citizenship at an early age (Ndofirepi, 2012). In particular, the inclusion of philosophy with children in the school curriculum is thought to contribute highly to improving the quality of education.

It is possible to mention countries where efforts to comprehensively introduce philosophy with children in the field of education have shown positive results. There are more than 25 states where philosophy with children is included in the school curriculum. One of these provinces is Ontario (Canada), which hypothesizes that teaching philosophy with children will bring a range of benefits not only to children, but also to teachers, the economy and society. Among these benefits are the learning outcomes of critical thinking, reasoning and good judgment skills, learning to approach written texts and arguments formulated by themselves or others in a more questioning way. In addition, through philosophy practices with children, students' logical thinking, analysis and summarization skills are developed. On the other hand, employers realize that through philosophy with children, young employees

become more open-minded, able to solve problems, offer alternative solutions and do not find it difficult to adapt to new technologies (Gruioniu, 2013).

Consequently, for philosophy with children to have a formative impact and thus significantly influence both the way individuals think and the character of their interests, it needs to be part of regular education throughout the school years. Since philosophy with children aims to help children think autonomously, critically and logically, it is also of great value for the promotion of democracy. In short, when philosophy with children is incorporated into school curricula, especially in the curricula of comprehensive courses such as Social Studies, it is thought that important qualitative steps will be taken in the dimension of the goals of education and training. In this regard, it is recommended that both program development studies and applications be carried out at each grade level and the effectiveness of the results examined.

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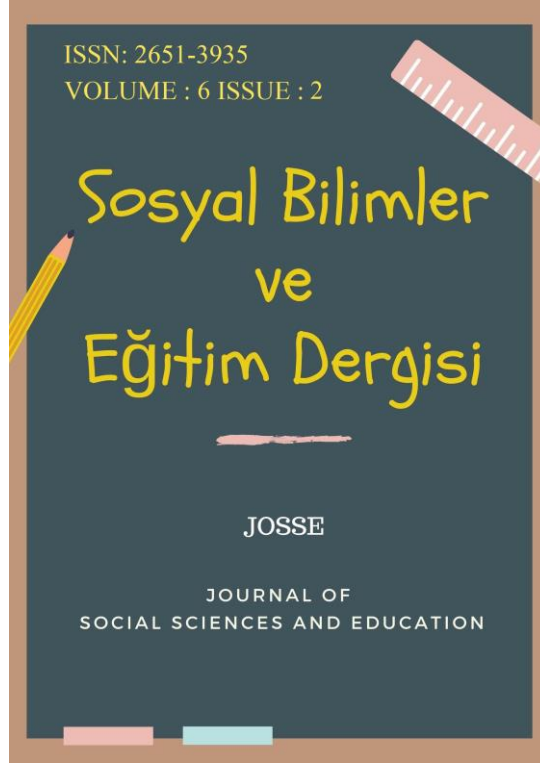
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A Review of Postgraduate Studies on Home Literacy Environment

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A Review of Postgraduate Studies on Home Literacy Environment

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Abstract

The environment in which children grow up, the experiences they have here, the literacy support and the variety of resources they have in their home environment affect children's spontaneous literacy skills processes. The aim of this study is to examine graduate theses on home literacy environment according to years, universities, types, supervisor titles, languages, research models, population and samples. Eight graduate theses registered in the national thesis center of YÖK on the subject were identified and constituted the subject of the study. Document analysis technique, one of the qualitative research methods, was used to analyze the theses. The data were analyzed by content analysis method. As a result of the analysis, it was determined that the first study on home literacy environments at the graduate level was conducted in 2013, 62.5% of the supervisors were faculty members, students and families were taken together as the population and sample in 50% of the studies, quantitative research model was used in 62.5% of the studies, 87.5% of the studies were conducted in Turkish, the most studies were conducted at Hacettepe University, six studies were at master's level, two studies were at doctoral level, and the studies were conducted on different subjects. It was concluded that the postgraduate studies on literacy environments contributed to the studies on literacy environments in Turkey. Based on the results obtained, suggestions for graduate studies on literacy environments for researchers and other stakeholders who want to work in the field are included.

Keywords: Home literacy environment, graduate thesis, review

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Introduction

Human beings are social beings who affect and are affected by the environment in which they live. Human beings start to learn both verbal and written language skills from the moment they are born. Home environments are the first environments where children acquire literacy-related knowledge and skills. Because the first opportunities that families offer to their children to develop literacy skills and the first experiences of children in this regard begin in the home environment. These first opportunities and experiences form the basis of early literacy skills.

Early literacy skills support the child's language skills and cognitive development and affect their academic success in the following years. Differences in children's prior knowledge and skills related to literacy are the basis of the fact that some children are successful in reading skills while others are unsuccessful in primary school. Early literacy skills consist of some components. These components can be classified as writing and print awareness, phonological awareness, alphabet and letter knowledge, vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension. (Cuningham & Zibulsky, 2011).

In the development of children's early literacy skills, it is important for family members to read interactive books with their children, prepare shopping lists together, teach and repeat rhyming songs (Foy & Mann, 2003). Children's communication with family members in daily life develops their language skills. Therefore, the family has a critical role in the development of children's early literacy and language skills (Korth & Marshall, 2009).

The term home literacy environment is used to describe children's literacy-related interactions, resources, and attitudes at home (Hamilton, Hayiou-Thomas, Hulme, & Snowling, 2016). Gonzales et al. (2011) define the home literacy environment as both the social environment, including the responsibilities of the family, and the physical environment, including the materials and facilities available to the child.

Home literacy environment is defined by many researchers in different aspects (Zucker & Grant, 2007). Examining the home literacy environment in terms of many dimensions rather than a single dimension is very important for researchers to reveal the contribution of each dimension to children's spontaneous literacy skills (Weigel, Martin, & Bennett, 2005). The assessment of the home literacy environment enables the determination of which aspects of the home environment are important in supporting emergent literacy skills.

Families' views and knowledge about literacy affect literacy practices in the home environment. Families' literacy-related behaviors are revealed by the environment they provide for their children (Zucker & Grant, 2007).

Burgess, Hecht, and Lonigan (2002) emphasized the importance of the socioeconomic structure and education level of the family in home literacy environments. Socioeconomic level plays a decisive role in the development of children's natural literacy skills by affecting the quality of the home literacy environment (Akyüz & Doğan, 2017). While the socioeconomic level of families provides the opportunity to create a quality learning environment for children's development, it also shapes children's literacy skills.

Shared book reading, which is one of the literacy activities that families do with their children, enables children to understand the relationship between written language and spoken language (Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2011).

Studies show that children of parents who model literacy behaviors to their children have higher alphabet knowledge, knowledge of writing concepts and interest in reading (Akyüz, 2016; Altun, 2013).

Studies on the home literacy environment show that the socio-economic level of the family, the family's views on literacy, reading activities with the child, the family's literacy habits and the home environment affect children's literacy skills (Akyüz & Doğan, 2017).

For this reason, in this study, it was aimed to examine the postgraduate theses on home literacy environment according to years, universities, types, supervisor titles, languages in which they were written, research models, population and samples. Studies examining postgraduate studies help researchers to determine the topics and orientations of their studies. In the researches conducted, no study similar to the subject of this article was found. It is thought that this study will contribute to the literature, guide researchers in their studies, and therefore the study is important. It is thought that this study is important because it will contribute to the literature and guide researchers in their studies. In this direction, the importance of this study is understood when it is considered that early literacy skills form the basis and support for children's literacy activities.

Method

In this section; information about the research design, population and sample, data collection and analysis are given.

Research Design

In this study, by using the document review technique, one of the qualitative research methods, postgraduate theses on home literacy environment in Turkey were classified and their subject contents were presented. Qualitative research methods use qualitative data collection techniques such as observation, interview and document analysis. In qualitative research, perceptions and events are handled in a realistic and holistic manner in their natural environment, enabling understanding and interpretation of the whole events (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008).

Document analysis is a scientific research method that can be defined as collecting, reviewing, questioning and analyzing various documents as the primary source of research data (Sak, Şahin Sak, Öneren Şendil, & Nas, 2021). Document analysis allows researchers to have more control over the source materials and plays an important role in terms of the reliability of the research. According to Merriam (2009), document analysis can be done in four main stages: (1) finding appropriate documents, (2) checking the authenticity of the documents, (3) establishing a systematic coding and cataloging procedure, and (4) conducting data analysis (content analysis).

Population and Sample

The population of the study consisted of postgraduate studies on home literacy environments, which included permitted master's and doctoral theses conducted in the relevant institutes and departments of universities in the database of the Higher Education Institution. Since all of the theses were open to access, no sample was selected from among them.

Data Collection and Analysis

As a result of the search made by typing "Home literacy environments" into the database search engine at the National Thesis Center of the Council of Higher Education <https://tez.yok.gov.tr/> on 25.08.2023, 8 postgraduate theses, 6 master's theses and 2 doctoral theses, were examined within the scope of the research topic. The postgraduate studies examined in the research are given in Table 1 in order from present to past.

Table 1

Information on the Examined Postgraduate Studies

Author Name Surname	Year	Name of Thesis	Type of Thesis
Gülşah Gürevin	2023	Examining the relationship between working memory, natural language and home early literacy environment with narrative skills of children from different socioeconomic backgrounds	Master's Degree
Çağla Duran	2022	Examining the relationship between children's self-regulation skills and home early literacy environment and reading together	Master's Degree
Ela Sümeyye Seçim	2022	The relationship between home literacy environment and parental reading beliefs and children's reading motivation	PhD
Nursel Şahin	2022	Evaluating primary school students' attitudes towards reading and writing in the context of home literacy environment: A mixed method study	Master's Degree
Tuğçe Kesim Çelik	2022	Investigating children's home early literacy environment and mothers' self-efficacy	Master's Degree
Emine Songül Vural	2021	Family involvement interactive book reading program for 5-6 year old children's early the effect on literacy skills and home early literacy environment	Master's Degree
Elif Akyüz	2016	Development of preschool children's emergent literacy skills and its relationship with home literacy environment	PhD
Dilek Altun	2013	An investigation of the relationship between preschoolers' reading attitudes and home literacy environment	Master's Degree

The data obtained were analyzed and interpreted by content analysis. According to Karasar (2011), the content analysis technique is used in qualitative research and is a scanning made with the aim of determining certain features of a certain text, book, document by digitizing it. In content analysis, it is possible to code the data, categorize them, find themes, organize, describe and interpret the data according to these categories and themes (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). The distribution of the theses according to years, universities, institutes, departments, names of science branches, type of thesis, supervisor titles, languages in which they were written, subjects, the way their aims were expressed, research models, universe and sample of theses, and data collection tools were examined. The distribution of the grouped information was presented and interpreted in tables and graphs.

Ethics Committee Authorization Certificate

This article is in the category of articles that do not require ethics committee permission since no data were obtained from any living creature in any way during the research process.

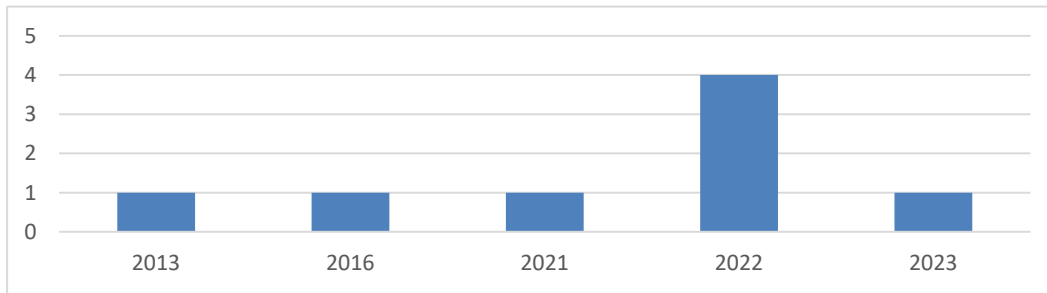
Findings

In this part of the study, findings and interpretations obtained from the analysis of postgraduate studies on home literacy environment are presented. The data obtained from 8 permitted theses registered in the YÖK Thesis Center system were transformed into tables and interpreted, and the tables were supported with figures.

The distribution of the theses analyzed in the study according to years is given in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Distribution of Theses by Years

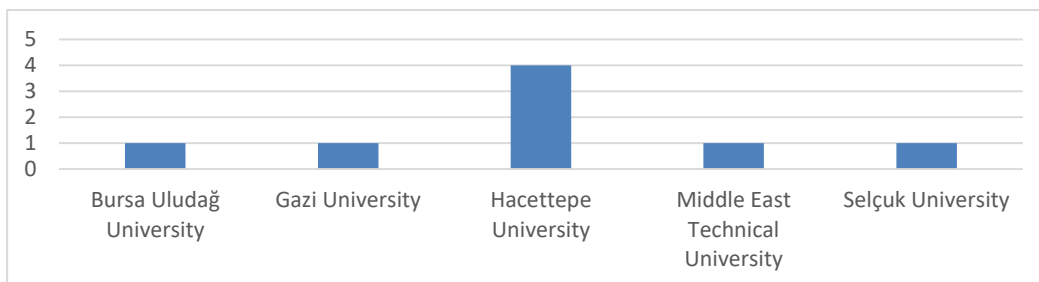


When Figure 1 is examined, it is seen that the first postgraduate study on home literacy environment was conducted in 2013; one study was conducted in 2013, 2016, 2021 and 2023; and four studies were conducted in 2022.

The distribution of the theses analyzed in the study according to the university where they were conducted is given in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Distribution of Theses According to Universities

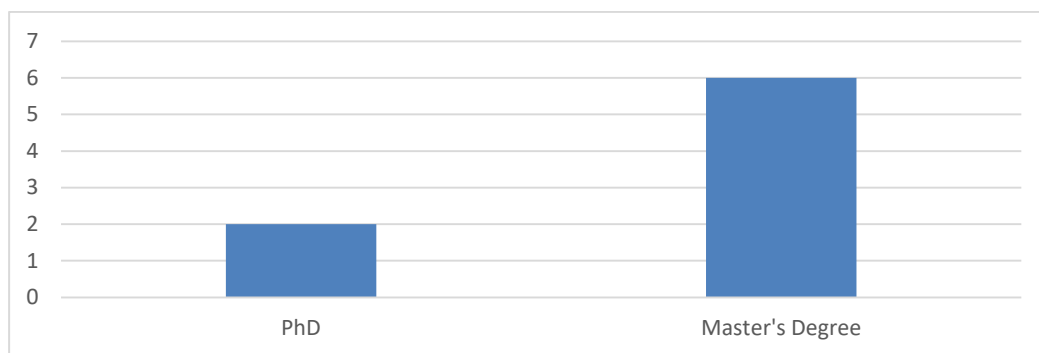


When Figure 2 is examined, it is seen that postgraduate studies on home literacy environment were conducted in five different universities; the highest number of studies was conducted in Hacettepe University with four theses, and one thesis was written in each of the other four universities.

The distribution of the theses analyzed in the study by type is given in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Distribution of Theses According to Thesis Type

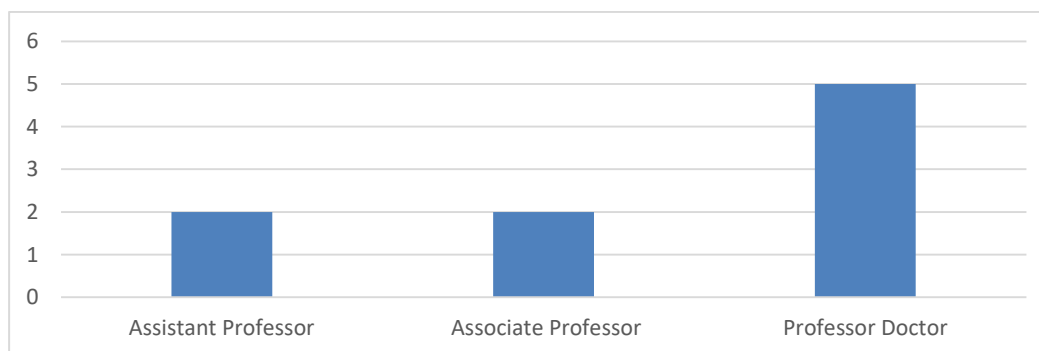


When Figure 3 is examined, it is seen that 6 of the postgraduate studies on home literacy environment are at master's level and 2 of them are at doctoral level.

The distribution of the theses examined in the study according to the title of thesis advisors is given in Figure 4.

Figure 4

Distribution of the theses according to the Title of Thesis Advisors

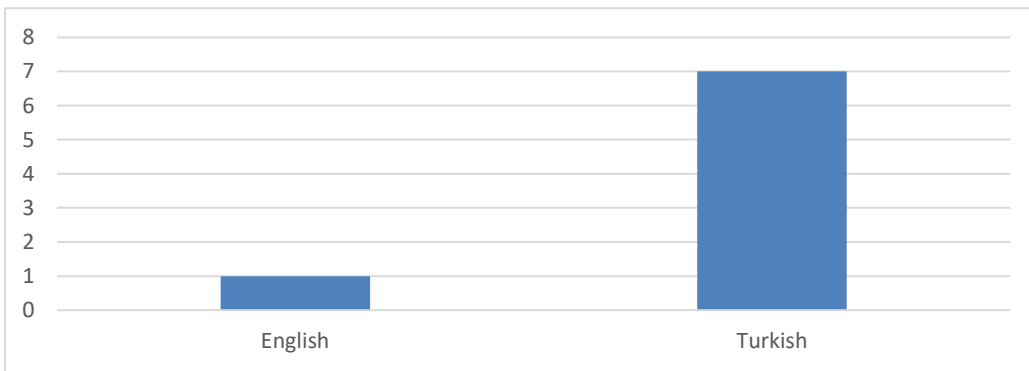


When Figure 4 is examined, it is seen that in 8 postgraduate studies on home literacy environment, professors advised five theses, associate professors advised two theses, and advisors with the title of assistant professor advised two theses each. It was determined that one study was conducted with a double advisor.

The distribution of the theses analyzed in the study according to the languages in which they were written is given in Figure 5.

Figure 5

Distribution of Theses According to the Languages in which They were Written

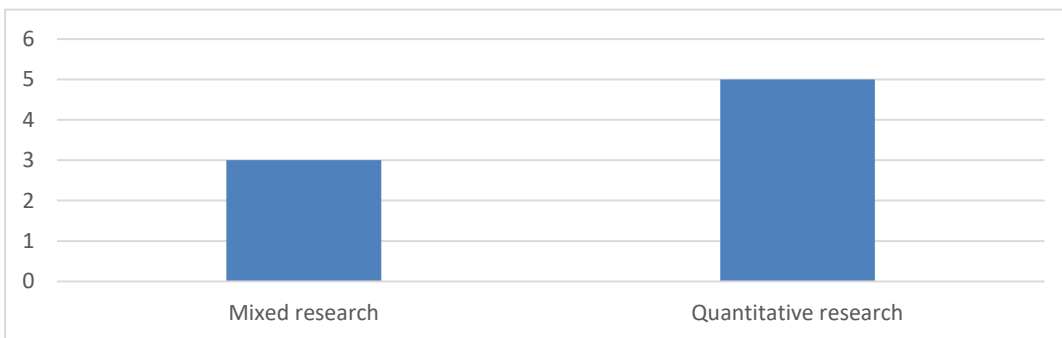


When Figure 5 is examined, it is seen that 7 of the postgraduate studies on home literacy environment were written in Turkish and 1 in English.

The distribution of the theses analyzed in the study according to research models is given in Figure 6.

Figure 6

Distribution of Theses according to Research Models

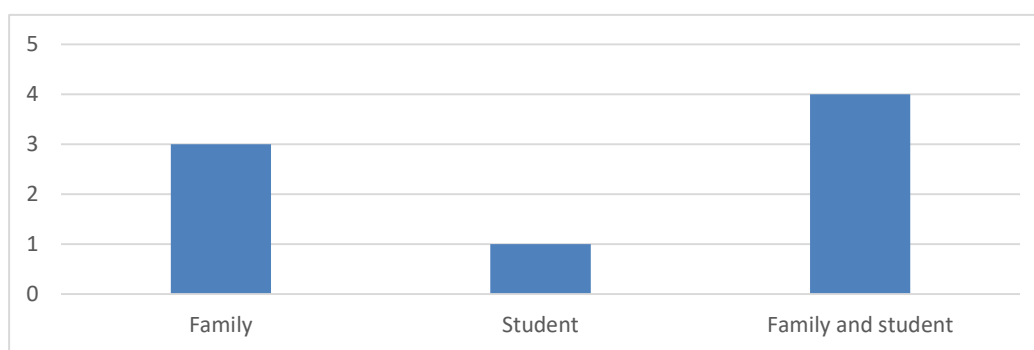


When Figure 6 is examined, it is seen that quantitative research method was used in 5 of the 8 postgraduate studies on home literacy environment and mixed research method was used in 3 of them.

The distribution of the theses analyzed in the study according to the population and sample is given in Figure 7.

Figure 7

Distribution of Theses according to Population and Sample



When Figure 7 is examined, it is seen that in 8 postgraduate studies on home literacy environment, students were identified as the population and sample in 1 study, families in 3 studies, and families and students together in 4 studies.

Discussion and Results

In studies on home literacy, it was observed that families' efforts to teach their children letter names, letter sounds, letter and word writing and word reading were examined in family teaching or shared writing (Aram & Biron, 2004; Aram & Levin, 2011).

In studies conducted by Akyüz (2016), Altun (2013) and Nergis (2008), it was stated that children of families who model literacy behaviors to their children are more successful in alphabet knowledge, knowledge of writing concepts and interest in reading.

In this section, in order to give direction to the new researches that need to be done on the subject in order to develop and support children's literacy skills, 8 postgraduate theses were examined in this study by typing "home literacy environments" into the database search engine at YÖK <https://tez.yok.gov.tr/>. The results of the study, which examined the

postgraduate theses on home literacy environments according to years, universities, types, supervisor titles, languages, research models, population and samples, are given.

When the results of the postgraduate studies on home literacy environment were examined according to the years; it was concluded that four of the studies on the subject were conducted in 2013, 2016, 2021 and 2023, and four of them were conducted in 2022.

When analyzed according to universities, it is seen that postgraduate studies on home literacy environment were conducted in five different universities; the most studies were conducted in Hacettepe University with four theses, and one thesis was written in the other four universities.

When examined according to the type, it is seen that 6 of the postgraduate studies on home literacy environment are at the master's level and 2 of them are at the doctoral level.

Considering that the knowledge and skills that preschool children have about literacy affect their future reading success (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Early Child Care Research Network (NICHD, 2005)), it was determined that the start date of the postgraduate studies was late and there were few studies on the subject.

When examined according to advisor titles, it is seen that in 8 postgraduate studies on home literacy environment, professors advised five theses, associate professors advised two theses, and advisors with the title of doctoral faculty member advised two theses each. It was determined that one study was conducted with a double advisor. Graduate academic studies are conducted with advisors consisting of faculty members. The titles of faculty members in universities in Turkey are professor, associate professor, assistant professor, doctoral faculty member (Resmî Gazete, 2018)

When analyzed according to the language of thesis writing, it was determined that 7 of the postgraduate studies on home literacy environment were written in Turkish and 1 in English. The target audience of the academic studies on home literacy environment is academicians, teachers, students and families. The fact that all but one of the theses were written in Turkish is considered positive considering the general situation of the audience that will benefit from the results (Orhan, 2022).

It was seen that quantitative research method was used in 5 of the 8 postgraduate studies on home literacy environment and mixed research method was used in 3 of them.

In 8 postgraduate studies on home literacy environment, it was determined that students were determined as the population and sample in 1 study, families in 3 studies, and families and students together in 4 studies. The importance of research models in graduate

studies (Karasar, 2020) is known in terms of reliability and validity. Considering the population and samples preferred in the studies, it is evaluated that the research models are appropriate.

It is thought that there is a need for cross-sectional and longitudinal research evaluating the relationship between children's home literacy environment and home literacy environment in Turkey and indicating which dimensions of home literacy environment support children's development.

Studies can be conducted on family attitudes and behaviors on issues such as creating a home literacy environment and family shared reading hours.

Studies can be conducted on the effect of socio-economic status on both the quality and materials of the home literacy environment and on the development of children's spontaneous literacy skills.

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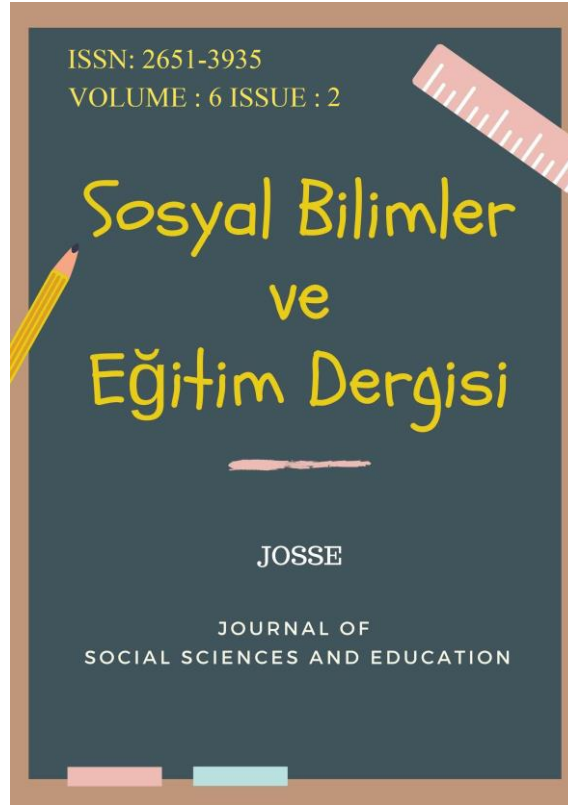
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**Validation and Reliability Study of The Aggression Proneness Scale for
Children Aged 60-72 Months**

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Validation and Reliability Study of The Aggression Proneness Scale for Children Aged 60-72 Months

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Abstract

This study aims to conduct the validity and reliability analysis of the “Aggression Tendency Scale” developed by Cassidy et al. (1996), in children aged 60-72 months. The study group of the research consists of 221 children aged 60-72 months who attend pre-school educational institutions in Antalya's city center and have different sociodemographic characteristics. In the analysis of the data; exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, content validity, test-retest reliability, and internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) have been calculated. Opinions have been obtained from 12 experts to determine content validity. Based on expert opinions and suggestions, it has been decided to retain 6 items in the scale. Confirmatory factor analysis has been conducted with the data obtained from the applications performed with the scale that achieved content validity. As a result of the analyses performed, it has been determined that the 6-item structure of the scale generally complies with the collected data. The internal consistency coefficient of the scale has been found to be 0.772. Additionally, the correlation coefficient was found to be 0.782 as a result of the test-retest reliability analysis of the scale. These results have shown that the Aggression Tendency Scale is a valid and reliable tool in evaluating the aggression tendencies of children aged 60-72 months.

Keywords: Pre-school period, aggression tendency, validity, reliability

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Introduction

The early childhood period is a significant time when rapid progress is seen in the child's physical, cognitive, and language development, as well as social-emotional development, forming the foundation for later years (Ersan, 2017). Theorists such as Piaget, Erikson, and Freud, who are accepted in the field of development, emphasize the importance of childhood in acquiring many behaviors. Referred to as "one of the most critical periods of life" most of the child's personality development is completed in the early childhood period (Akcan and Ergün, 2017). In this period, children who need adult support grow rapidly and begin to interact socially, starting from their immediate environment. Environmental factors may affect a child's development positively or adversely due to negative environmental conditions. Studies exist showing that the probability of being at risk in later years is high for children who do not acquire a certain level of social skills at a young age (Parker and Asher, 1987). Therefore, it is considered important for children to have adequate positive social behaviors during their early years (Yeşilyaprak, 2004)."

"Social competence" is expressed as the adequacy of children's relationships with the people in their environment. It has been defined by Goldfried and D'Zurilla (1969) as "an individual's ability and effectiveness to respond appropriately to various problem situations that will comfort him" (Seven, 2010). In other words, it can also be explained as behaviors that enable an individual's functional participation and adaptation in social life. Children who have problems in social-emotional development struggle to establish healthy relationships with their families, teachers, and peers. They have difficulty controlling and regulating their emotions, and they cannot control interpersonal relationships. It is stated that children with good social competence also have good peer relationships, and this supports their academic success (Asher and Taylor, 1981). Furthermore, it has been determined that social competence, which is not sufficiently developed at a young age, affects the subsequent years and negatively impacts social-emotional development (Loeber, 1985)."

Aggression, one of the negative social behaviors, is defined as intentionally inflicting verbal, physical, or psychological harm on another person or object, and it encompasses detailed and complex behaviors (Monks et al., 2011). In another definition, aggression is "any form of behavior that aims to physically or psychologically injure someone" (Berkowitz, 1993).

In recent years, studies have increasingly focused on the types of aggression (Liu, 2004; Wang et al., 2015), and it is generally observed to be divided into physical and relational aggression. Physical aggression includes actions such as hitting and kicking that cause physical harm to others, while relational aggression includes actions and threats that cause psychological harm, such as belittling, excluding from a group, or mocking (Crick et al., 1997). Relational aggression is also considered to be a form of indirect and social aggression (Herrenkohl et al., 2009).

From a developmental perspective, aggression that emerges in the first years of life significantly increases until the age of 3 and then shows a gradual decline towards the age of 5 (Crick and Rose, 2000). In early childhood, aggression is generally regarded as a sign of growth and is not taken seriously by adults (Reebye, 2005). However, in later years, the use of physical force during adolescence becomes a concern for parents (Joussement et al., 2008). Yet, this negative behavior, which is considered normal in childhood, carries a significant risk for the child's future if exhibited excessively at an early age. Children who show aggressive behavior from early childhood tend to continue exhibiting aggressive behavior in later years (Bay-Hinitz, 2001).

Studies have found that aggression is associated with academic failure (Stipek and Miles, 2008), a propensity to commit crimes (Pingault et al., 2013), and social behavior problems (Coie and Dodge, 1998; Daff et al., 2014; Hay et al., 2010; Ersan, 2022; Huitsing and Monks, 2018; Landy and Menda, 2001; Turney and McLanahan, 2015).

A child's propensity to exhibit aggressive behavior can be influenced by various factors such as parental attitudes, spousal relationships, and exposure to violent content in films and videos. These negative variables can cause the child to display aggressive behavior, adversely affecting their relationships with peers and others (Taylor et al., 2007). Therefore, imparting social competence skills to children during the preschool years can reduce the risk of negative social behaviors like aggression in later years, and support their adaptation to society (Pekdoğan and Kanak, 2019).

In the related field literature, different scales are found to measure the concept of aggression. The "Aggression Orientation Scale" developed by Kaynak et al. (2016) for children aged 36-72 months consists of four sub-dimensions. These sub-dimensions are "physical aggression towards others," "relational aggression towards others," "self-directed aggression," and "object-directed aggression," and it includes a total of 27 items. Another scale used is the "Ladd-Profilet Child Behavior Scale," developed by Ladd and Profilet (1996)

and adapted into Turkish by Gülay (2008). This scale, with "aggressive behavior" as one of its sub-dimensions, is often preferred in peer relationship studies due to the characteristics measured by its other five sub-dimensions (Gülay Ogelman, 2013; Kadan, 2010). The "Aggression Scale Parent Form for Children," which was developed to measure the intensity, frequency, prevalence, and variety of aggressive behaviors, was validated by Ercan et al. (2016). The scale consists of 33 items and five sub-dimensions. The Preschool Social Behavior Scale, developed by Crick et al. (1997) and adapted into Turkish by Karakuş (2008), aims to determine preschool children's social behaviors from a teacher's evaluation perspective. The five-point Likert-type scale consists of four sub-dimensions: physical aggression (e.g., "This child kicks or hits others."), relational aggression (e.g., "This child tells others not to play with peers or be friends with them."), positive social behavior (e.g., "This child helps peers."), and depressive feelings (e.g., "This child does not have much fun.") (Karakuş, 2008). In a study conducted by Ersan in 2017, confirmatory factor analysis was performed for the physical and relational aggression sub-dimensions of the Preschool Social Behavior Scale-Teacher Form.

The early childhood period is a critical time that can form the basis for aggressive behavior (Keenan, 2001). In this context, it is important to introduce a measurement tool applied to children aged 60-72 months into the field of early childhood education in our country. Additionally, it is considered important to evaluate children's tendencies towards aggressive behavior with this measurement tool and to provide necessary support to both educators and children based on these evaluations. With these points in mind, the study aims to conduct a validity and reliability study of the Aggression Tendency Scale, developed by Cassidy et al. (1996), for children aged 60-72 months.

Method

Model

This study, conducted to perform the validity and reliability of the Aggression Tendency Scale in children aged 60-72 months, has been implemented with a psychometric, cross-sectional, and descriptive design. There has been no clear consensus on the sample size for testing the psychometric properties of the scales. However, to ensure a more robust structure of the scale factor and to generalize the results obtained, it is recommended to reach as large a sample as possible (Carpenter, 2018).

Sample and Population

The sample of the study consists of 221 children aged 60-72 months. It is stated that there should be a minimum of five and a maximum of ten individuals for each item in factor analyses (Reio and Shuck, 2015; Watkins, 2018). Considering the sample reached and the number of items, the sample appears to be sufficient. The study group consists of 116 girls and 105 boys. The children in the study group are on average 68 months old. The youngest child is 60 months old, and the oldest child is 72 months old.

Data Collection Tools

The data collection tool consists of two parts. The first part includes the "Personal Information Form" and the second part contains the "Aggression Tendency Scale."

Personal Information Form: This is a form developed by the researcher that includes demographic variables such as the child's age, gender, number of siblings, and birth order.

Aggression Tendency Scale: It was developed by Cassidy et al. (1996) to measure the mental representations that children in middle childhood develop in response to specific situations. The scale includes positive, neutral, and hostile mental representations.

The scale consists of six stories, three related to strangers and three related to familiar peers. For these stories, three structured options are provided: one positive, one hostile, and one neutral. Two of the stories are narrated with a male peer, two with a female peer, and two are ambiguous. Stories related to familiar peers take place in school, while stories related to stranger peers occur in public places. For each story, children's positive-prosocial peer intention, negative-hostile peer intention, and neutral peer intention are determined. For example, you are walking in the shopping mall, and you dropped your paper money. When you turn back to find it, you see a stranger picking up the money. What do you think about the person who picked up the money?

- a. They picked it up to take it for themselves.
- b. They picked it up to give it back to you.
- c. They did not know that the money was yours. One of these options is asked to be chosen.

Collection of Data

Before starting the data collection process, necessary permissions and an ethics committee report were obtained, and then data collection tools were applied to the children of parents who accepted the study. Ethic approval has been obtained from the Osmaniye Korkut Ata University Social Sciences Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee with the decision numbered 2023/8/4 on 02.08.2023. The children were asked if they wanted to participate in the study, and the data collection tool was applied if they volunteered.

For test-retest studies, a minimum sample size of 30 is recommended to accurately estimate reliability (Tavşancıl, 2019). At this stage, children who accepted the application of the scale twice participated in the application. The scale was administered to the children face-to-face with a two-week interval. At this stage, to maintain anonymity and match the first and second applications, numbers were given to the forms as they were filled out. To prevent scoring bias, the order of the scale items was ideally changed (Polit, 2014). The application of the data collection tool for each child took approximately 8-10 minutes.

Data Analysis

IBM SPSS Statistics Version 26 (IBM Inc., Armonk, NY, USA) and AMOS 24 (Scientific Software International, Skokie, IL, USA) were chosen for the analysis of the data. Descriptive statistics (number, age percentage, mean, standard deviation), correlations (Pearson product-moment correlation), and psychometric tests (content validity ratio, item-total correlation, Kaiser Meyer Olkin [KMO] adequacy measure, and Bartlett's test of sphericity, Exploratory Factor Analysis [EFA] and Confirmatory Factor Analysis [CFA], internal consistency coefficient, composite reliability coefficient (CR), extracted average variance value (AVE)) were used in the analysis. Before the CFA, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient and Bartlett's test of sphericity were conducted to evaluate the sample adequacy and the suitability of the relationship between variables for factor analysis. The following fit indices were used to test model fit in this study (χ^2 = chi-square, χ^2/df = chi-square/degrees of freedom, GF= goodness of fit index, AGFI= adjusted goodness of fit index, CFI= comparative fit index, RMSEA= root mean square error of approximation, RMR= root mean square residual). The internal consistency of the scale was analyzed by calculating the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. The test-retest method was used to assess the temporal stability of the scale, and the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) was calculated.

Ethics Committee Approval

Ethical approval has been obtained from the Osmaniye Korkut Ata University Social Sciences Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee with the decision numbered 2023/8/4 on 02.08.2023.

Findings

In this study, it was aimed at conducting a validity and reliability study of the "Aggression Tendency Scale" developed by Cassidy et al. (1996) for children aged 60-72 months, opinions were obtained from twelve experts for content validity. The prepared form has been evaluated by 12 experts, outside the research team, who work in the field of child development and have experience in scale validity and reliability. Content validity was assessed using the Lawshe technique. The content validity index has been calculated as 0.87.

Item analysis was performed to reveal the discriminative power and quality of the scale items. In the aggression scale, the corrected item-total correlation coefficients are $r > .30$ for the item total in the 6-item scale (Table 1).

The aggression scale item analysis and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) factor loads are shown in Table 1. For structural validity, initially, EFA (principal component analysis/varimax rotation) was conducted in scale development studies. In the 6-item scale, the item factor load is above 0.40 for all items. The KMO value in the scale is 0.825, and the result of the sphericity test is Approx Chi-Square= 291.108 (df = 15, $p < 0.001$). It has been determined that the aggression scale items are gathered under a single factor, and the item factor loads range between 0.435 and 0.715. The total explained variance value of the single-factor structure with a scale item eigenvalue coefficient over 1 is 46.91% (Table 1).

Table 1

Item Analysis and EFA Factor Loads of The Aggression Tendency Scale

Scale Items	M (SD)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient When Item is Removed	Factor Loading	Explained Variance
I-1	1,73 (0,76)	,477	,749	,539	46,91
I-2	2,16 (0,67)	,530	,735	,625	
I-3	1,85 (0,75)	,603	,715	,697	
I-4	1,81 (0,62)	,377	,769	,435	
I-5	2,16 (0,71)	,504	,741	,588	

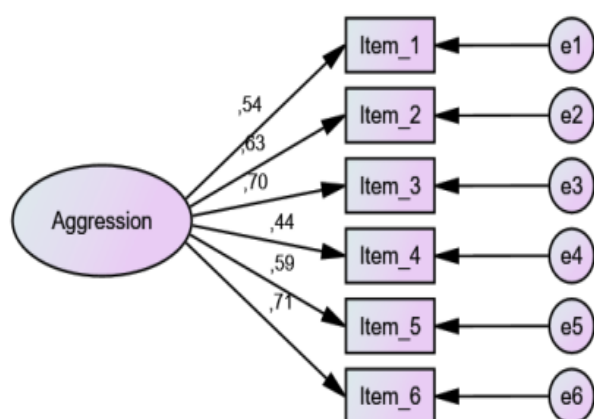
I-6	1,91 (0,79)	,609	,712	,715
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M=Ortalama SD=Standart Sapma

A DFA (Discriminant Function Analysis) has been applied to evaluate the single-factor structure of the scale consisting of 6 items. The scale model is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Scale model



The goodness-of-fit values obtained for the model are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Aggression Tendency Scale DFA Test Results and Model Fit Indices

Criterion	χ^2/sd	RMR	GFI	AGFI	NFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Good Fit	≤ 2	$\leq ,05$	$\geq ,95$	$\geq ,95$	$\geq ,95$	$\geq ,95$	$\geq ,95$	$\geq ,95$	$\leq ,05$
Acceptable	≤ 5	$\leq ,08$	$\geq ,90$	$\geq ,90$	$\geq ,90$	$\geq ,90$	$\geq ,90$	$\geq ,90$	$\leq ,08$
Model Fit Index	1,43	,017	,982	,959	,959	,989	,982	,989	,039

When Table 2 is examined, it can be seen that the obtained goodness-of-fit index values are at a good fit level.

For this study, the reliability level of the scale has been evaluated with the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. In the study, the Cronbach's Alpha value of the scale is 0.772. Additionally, in the study, the composite reliability coefficient (CR) is 0.776, and the extracted average variance value (AVE) is 0.607 (Table 3).

Table 3

Aggression Tendency Scale Cronbach Alpha Value

	Cronbach Alpha	Min-Max	M (SD)	Skewness	Kurtosis	CR	AVE
Scale overall	0,772	1-3	1,49 (0,49)	,227	-,978	0,776	0,607

The stability of the scale has been evaluated using the test-retest method, and ICCs (Intraclass Correlation Coefficients) have been calculated. The average measurement ICC of the aggression tendency scale is 0.782, with a 95% confidence interval (CI) ranging from 0.722 to 0.815 ($F = 23.320$, $p < 0.001$). In the correlation analysis between the scale scores of the two measurements, a statistically significant and positive relationship has been determined ($p < 0.01$).

Discussion and Results

In the research, the validity and reliability study of the Aggression Tendency Scale, developed by Cassidy et al. (1996) and adapted to Turkish by Seven (2010), has been conducted on children aged 60-72 months. Content validity has been realized with the opinions taken from 12 experts, using the technique proposed by Lawshe (Lawshe, 1975). Within the context of 12 experts, the content validity index according to Lawshe's technique is ≥ 0.56 (Wilson et al., 2012). The study has shown that the content validity index of the items is at a sufficiently high level.

Within the scope of item analysis, the corrected item-total correlation values are $r \geq 0.30$ (Büyüköztürk et al., 2018; Karaman, 2023). In light of these results, it can be seen that the items are homogeneous and related to each other (Tavşancıl, 2019).

In the initial stage, the result of the EFA (Exploratory Factor Analysis) shows a KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) value of 0.825. In the literature, a KMO value over 0.80 indicates an excellent level (Marofi et al., 2020). Also, a KMO value over 0.80 shows that the sample is sufficient (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2018; Karaman, 2023). Another point to consider during the EFA stages is the explained variance value. In the literature, it is reported to be suitable if this value is between 0.40 and 0.60 (Çokluk et al., 2014). For this study, the total explained variance value of the single-factor structure is 46.91%. Additionally, the skewness and kurtosis values of the aggression scale are showing a normal distribution (Hair et al., 2013).

In the second stage, the model proposed in the single-factor structure with 6 items has been formulated in TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index). The testing of TLI has been carried out according to the model fit index values. There is no consensus on the sheer number of model fit values and which ones should be taken into consideration at the point of evaluation (Seren et al., 2018). The results of χ^2/sd , RMR, GFI, AGFI, NFI, IFI, TLU, CFI, and RMSI have been taken as the most commonly used fit indices in this study (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Afthanorhan, 2013; Kwon & Marzec, 2016). In this study, it has been determined that the model fit values show a good fit.

In scale development studies using Likert-type ratings, Cronbach's Alpha analyses are used to test the internal consistency of items (Polit & Beck, 2012). In a dataset analysis, the Cronbach's Alpha value range of 0.70-0.79 is considered acceptable, and 0.80-0.89 indicates a good level (Tavşancıl, 2019; Karaman, 2023). It can be seen that the Cronbach's Alpha value for the single-factor structure with 6 items is within an acceptable range and is almost approaching a good fit level. The composite reliability coefficient value is 0.776. In the literature, it is stated that this value should be greater than CR>70 (Hair et al., 2011; Sharif et al., 2020).

Criterion validity has been implemented in scale development studies by considering test-retest correlations and intraclass correlation values. For the test-retest, measurements were taken from 30 individuals two weeks apart, and a dependent sample test was applied to determine the difference between the two measurements, and intraclass correlation values were calculated (Alpar, 2018). In the correlation analysis between the scale scores of the two measurements, a statistically significant and positive relationship has been determined ($p < 0.01$). Considering the analyses performed and the findings obtained, it can be said that the scale is a usable one.

At this point, all researchers working with children, especially preschool teachers, can use the Aggression Tendency Scale for their own purposes. In particular, researchers who will prepare an educational program to prevent aggression in preschool children can use this measurement tool in their experimental studies. In future studies, researchers are recommended to confirm the existing factor structure of the scale by conducting confirmatory factor analysis. In addition, it can be suggested to conduct studies on the concept of aggression using the related scale.

Ethics Committee Approval

Ethical approval has been obtained from the Osmaniye Korkut Ata University Social Sciences Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee with the decision numbered 2023/8/4 on 02.08.2023.

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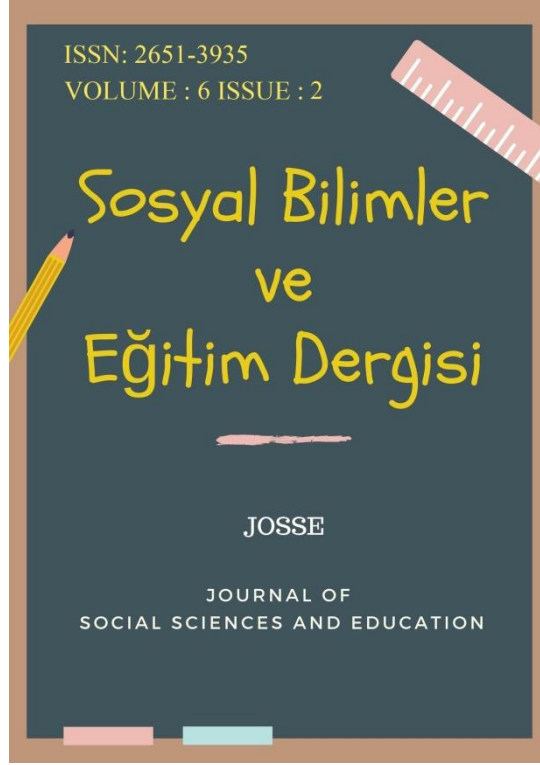
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**A Techno-Innovative Approach to Visual Communication Design in
Geography Teaching: Canva**

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A Techno-Innovative Approach to Visual Communication Design in Geography Teaching: Canva

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Abstract

Communication using visuals such as maps, graphics and concept maps has an important function in geography teaching. For effective geographical visual communication design, these visuals must first have a successful design. While visual design was previously an activity that could only be done by experts in this field, the tools developed with the support of technology have enabled many more people to make these designs even without any training. One of these tools is the Web 2.0 tool called Canva. Research shows that the visuals in the resources used in the geography teaching process are either incomplete or inaccurate. For this reason, the ability of geography teachers to make visual designs with Canva can eliminate this problem. For this, it is essential for geography teachers to be aware of the capabilities of this tool in visual communication design. In this context, the aim of this study is to reveal how the web 2.0 tool named Canva can be used in the teaching process of a geography course with examples. In order to achieve this goal, a descriptive literature review was conducted and document analysis, one of the qualitative research method designs, was used. According to the results obtained from the research, it was determined that Canva contains many geographical visuals, and these visuals can be used in different dimensions of geography teaching processes. At the end of the study, suggestions were made regarding the effect of Canva on the success of visual communication in the geography teaching process.

Keywords: Canva, visual, visual communication design, technology, geography education

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Introduction

Even before the invention of writing, visuals had a very important function in human communication. Even after thousands of years, visuals continue to be an important part of human communication today. With the advancement of technology, the screen-based visual world has become the natural environment of today's young people (Onursoy, 2019). Any image created on these screens can be easily shared between people in different parts of the world who do not even speak the same language. Visuals are used effectively in advertising and marketing, media, IT, entertainment, education, and many other sectors. The common point of all of these sectors is that the target audience is people, and people use visuals as a tool to communicate. Visual communication is to create, develop, and evaluate a message based on visual images and to explore ways of visual communication within this framework (Bedir Erişti, 2021). Therefore, it can be said that the prerequisite for the successful realization of visual communication is the successful design of the visual through which the message is conveyed. At this point, the concept of visual communication design emerges. Visual communication design is the process of designing, programming, and presenting the visual message in accordance with its purpose. In a communication process with visual communication design, the visual that describes an event, phenomenon, or concept is produced according to a number of technical and aesthetic design principles in line with the characteristics, expectations, attitudes, and orientations of the target audience and used in interaction (Bedir Erişti, 2021).

One of the fields affected by technology is visual communication design. Thanks to the advances in this field, while it used to be a job that could only be done by people with interest and talent, today the benefits brought by technology have also caused transformations in the visual communication design process. Today, most people who are interested in this field can do visual design with Web 2.0 tools, digital drawing hardware, or artificial intelligence support. One of these tools is a web 2.0 tool called Canva. Canva is a visual design tool that allows users to create professional designs such as presentations, videos, logos, etc. without any experience (Koç, 2022). All visuals in the form of ready-made templates on Canva are created by experts working in this field. Canva is completely free to use for education, as it is all over the world, and is unlimitedly available to all teachers and students, including premium content and features (Canva, n.d.).

Considering that the basis of education is student and teacher communication, it can be said that there is a close relationship between visual communication design and education. Learning is an activity that takes place through the sense organs. One of the five senses is vision. The information perceived with vision is sent to the relevant part of the brain and made meaningful. Any negative situation in visual perception will cause students to experience problems in cognitive, motor, and social-emotional areas and may cause disruptions in the learning process (Aral, 2021).

According to Cüceloğlu, as cited in Mehrabian, visual messages make up a large part (55%) of the first impression in the first interaction, while this rate is 38% for auditory messages. Expressions describing the content constitute only 7% of the first impression. With the use of visuals in the teaching process, students are able to digest information in a way that suits their own learning style, provide students with the opportunity to relax when the pace of the teaching process is too much for the student, summarize complex information, processes, or relationships and transform them into a form that is easier to grasp, and positively affect students' perceptions of the course by eliciting strong affective reactions to the course (2002: 64).

Geographical visualization can be defined as the visualization of spatial issues and problems by using concrete visual presentations and using people's very powerful information processing abilities visually (MacEachren et al., 1992). The importance of visuals in the geography teaching process is quite high. These visuals can be maps, photographs, pictures, tables, graphs, or concept maps. Regardless of which teaching method and technique is used, it is not possible to successfully carry out the geography teaching process without being supported by visuals.

The aim of geography teaching should not be to overload information by using dense texts; visuals should be used to transfer more understandable, concrete, and permanent information (Akinoğlu, 2005). In many studies, it has been found that in geography teaching processes where visuals are used, students are more enthusiastic and actively participate in the process, and their academic achievement increases (Sekin & Ünlü, 2002; Coşkun, 2003; Eker, 2003; Tomal, 2004; Ulusoy & Gülüm, 2009; Sever, Budak, & Yalçınkaya, 2009; Demirkaya & Ayas, 2015; Demirkaya & Karacan, 2019). In addition, it is emphasized that there are significant deficiencies in terms of design and timeliness in visuals, which are already rarely included in many resources used in the geography teaching process, especially in geography textbooks (Demirkaya & Tomal, 2002; Sekin & Ünlü, 2002; Coşkun, 2003; Gümüş, 2004;

Kızılcıoğlu, 2013; Ünlü, 2016). With the constructivist approach based on the Geography Course Curriculum (GLP), which started to be implemented in 2005 in our country, teachers have to develop materials and design how to organize them visually in accordance with the learning outcomes and try them out in the geography teaching process (Artvinli, 2010). The results obtained from this and similar studies in the literature show that the use of visuals in geography teaching is not a preference but a necessity.

It is seen that students need to learn to learn visually, and teachers need to learn to teach visually (Alpan, 2008). Considering that both those who prepare the resources used in the geography teaching process and those who carry out the process are geographers, it is not difficult to conclude that there are some problems with the use of visuals in communication with students. At the root of these problems, it is understood that geography teachers do not have the necessary equipment related to visual communication design. One of the areas where today's technological development is reflected is in the capabilities of Web 2.0 tools. Canva, one of these tools, has a structure in which users can customize different visual resources according to their needs even without any training in visual communication design. However, there is no study on geography teachers' awareness of this technology or how to use it in the geography course teaching process. In this context, the aim of this study is to reveal how the web 2.0 tool named Canva, which brings a new perspective to visual communication design, can be used in the geography course teaching process with examples. In line with this main objective, answers to the following sub-objectives were also sought:

- What are the visual materials on Canva that can be used for different purposes in the geography teaching process?
- How to use and customize the templates on Canva in the design of the visuals to be used in the geography teaching process?
- How can interaction and collaboration be ensured in the design of visuals to be used in geography teaching on Canva?

Method

In this study, which aims to reveal how the web 2.0 tool named Canva can be used in visual communication in the process of geography teaching, a descriptive literature review was conducted and document analysis, one of the qualitative research method designs, was used. In qualitative research, methods such as interview, method, or document analysis are

used to collect data, and the findings are summarized in various ways (Cresswell, 2012). In this study, document analysis was used to determine the visuals that can be used in visual communication in the geography course teaching process, the problems experienced in the design of these visuals, and the solutions that can be developed by using the web 2.0 tool called Canva for these problems. According to Yıldırım and Şimşek (2018), document analysis is carried out by analyzing written materials that contain the information necessary to be obtained in line with the objectives of the research. In this study, the skills and outcomes in the Geography Lesson Curriculum (GLC) implemented in Turkey were examined, and then the resources on how to use Canva in visual communication design in the geography teaching process were examined. These resources were accessed from the case studies in the "Education" section of Canva. These case studies describe the experiences of educators from around the world with how they have used Canva in their teaching. Finally, the skill or outcome of how Canva will be used in visual communication was revealed with examples. The content analysis method was used to analyze the data. The findings were organized by considering the sub-objectives of the research (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018) and presented to the reader.

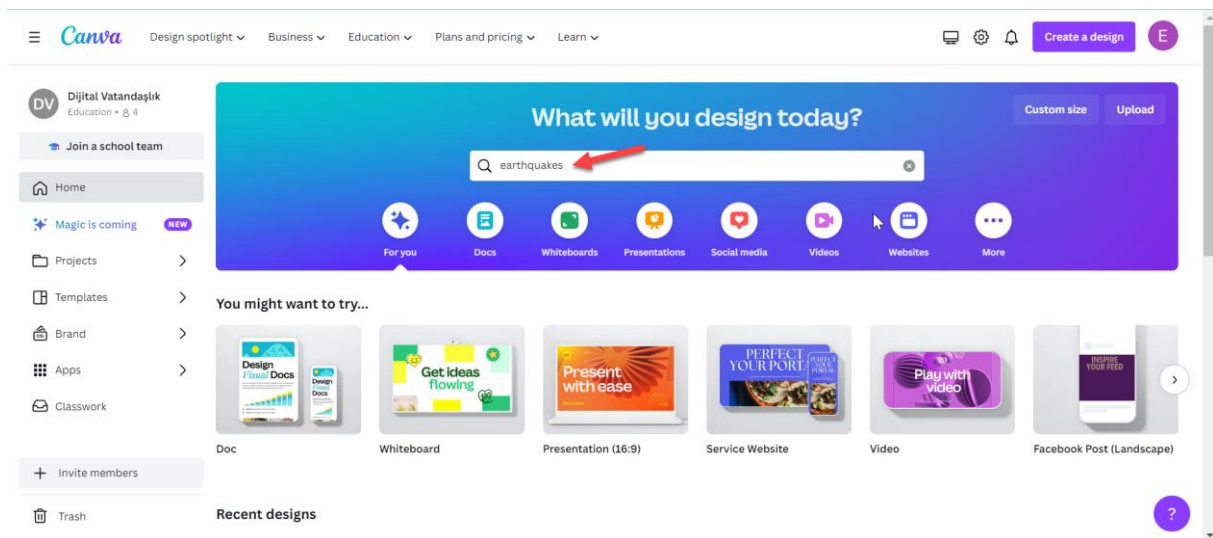
Findings

Findings Related to Visual Materials that Can Be Used in Geography Teaching Processes on Canva

Canva has hundreds of geographical images that can be used for geography lessons for very different purposes. The easiest way to access these images is to type the relevant keywords in the search bar. Located in the GLC “10.1.5. Explains the influence of internal forces on the formation process of landforms in Turkey. The relationship between faults, plate movements, and earthquakes in Turkey is given a place. For a geography teaching process where the acquisition of “Earthquakes” will be processed, all the results in different visual types can be reached by typing the keyword "Earthquakes" in the search bar on Canva (Image 1).

Image 1

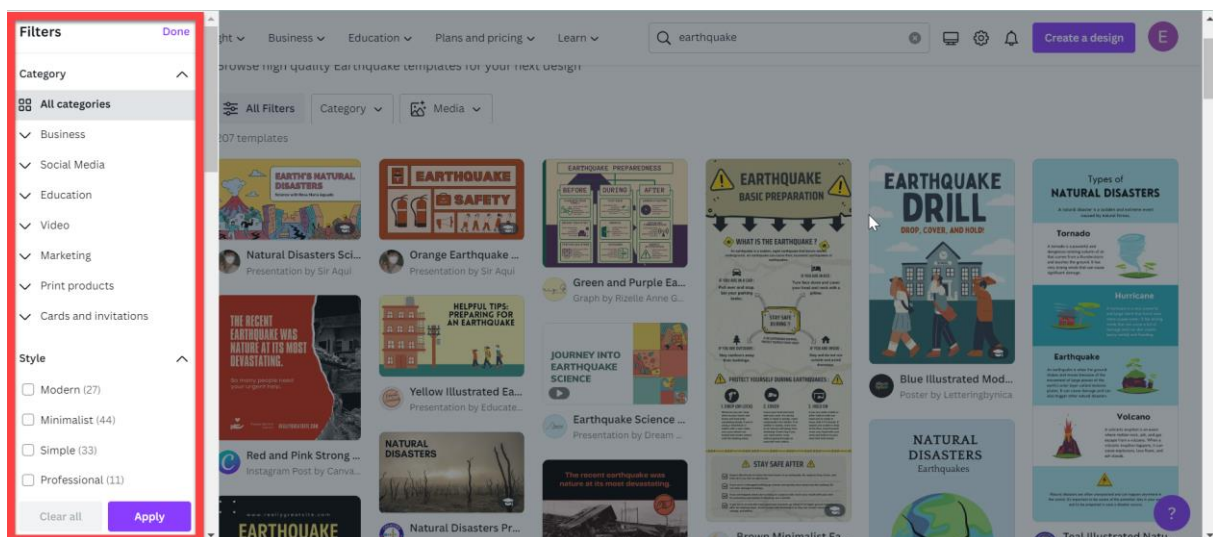
Searching for Designs with the Help of Keywords Typed in the Search Field



There will be dozens of visual materials related to this keyword. These materials appear on the screen mixed according to their types. By using filters, the desired visuals can be easily found under headings such as style, theme, type, grade level, course, and subject (Image 2).

Image 2

Accessing the Desired Images with the Help of Filters

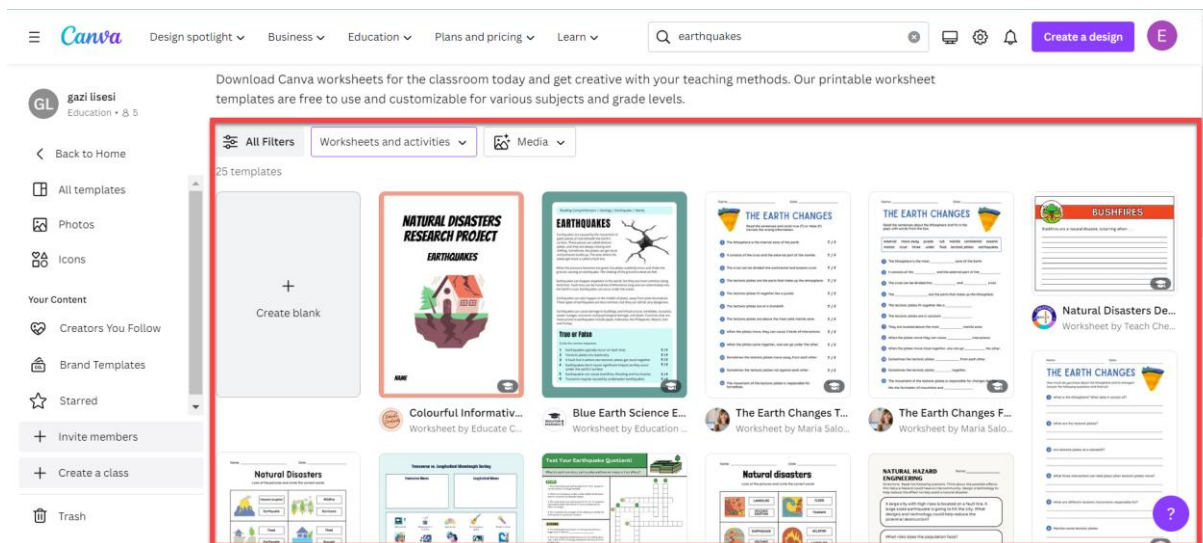


Under the education category, it is possible to access many visuals that can be used for different purposes in geography teaching processes. These resources can be used directly in the geography teaching process, or they can be customized according to the needs. For

example, posters or infographics about earthquakes can be hung on the classroom board to keep students connected with the subject outside the teaching process. Or, in-class or extracurricular activities can be done by using worksheets (Image 3).

Image 3

Visuals That Can Be Used as Worksheets on the Subject of "Earthquakes" On Canva

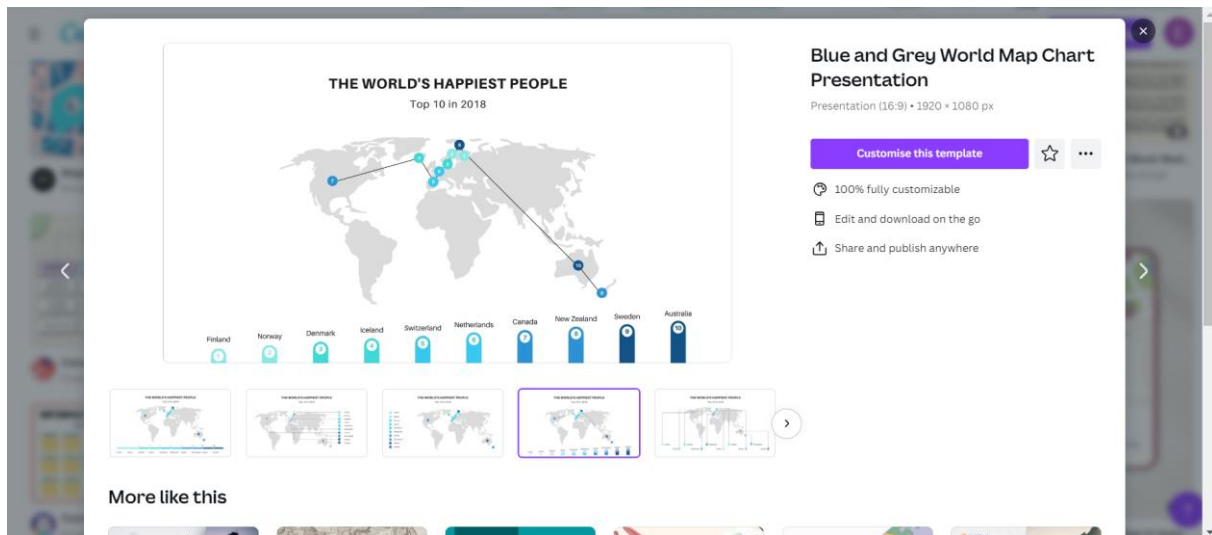


Apart from these, it is possible to access ready-made presentations, picture cards, cartoons, lesson plans, calendars, and much more and integrate these visual resources into the geography teaching process.

Maps are perhaps the most important visual elements used in the geography teaching process. One of the basic geographical skills also included in GLC is "map skills." Map skills include determining location on the map, transferring information on the map, selecting a map suitable for the purpose, making calculations using maps, perceiving spatial distribution, interpreting the map correctly, and creating draft maps (GLC, 2018). Canva has hundreds of visuals that can be used to teach these skills to students. For example, in this section, blank maps related to the world and continents can be customized according to needs, transformed into different maps, and used in the geography teaching process (Image 4).

Image 4

An Example of A Map, A Type of Visual That Can Be Used in Geography Teaching on Canva

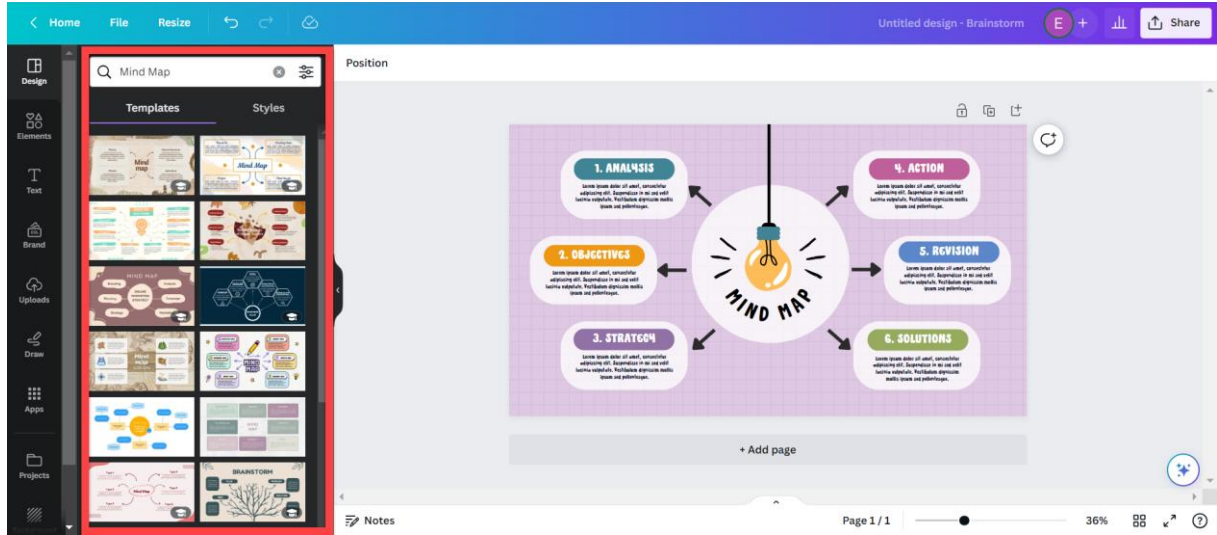


Another visual type available on Canva that can be used in the geography teaching process is concept maps. Geography provides easy recognition by naming the objects and substances it encounters while examining the subjects in its field (Turan, 2002). These names, called concepts, are also included in many sections of the GLC. For example, in the statement "The concepts of absolute and relative position are included," in sub-paragraph a of the learning outcome 9.1.5, "Makes inferences about the properties of time and place using the coordinate system,"; in the statement "Basic concepts of climate elements and factors affecting climate elements are included." in sub-paragraph a of the learning outcome numbered 9.1.11; in the statement "Basic concepts related to agriculture, animal husbandry, forestry, and fisheries are included." in sub-paragraph a of the learning outcome numbered 11.2.15 concepts are directly emphasized.

Knowing what these concepts mean and the relationship between them is a prerequisite for students to make sense of geographical events and phenomena (Sever, Budak, & Yalçınkaya, 2009). There are dozens of ready-made templates on Canva about concept maps, which are so important for the geography teaching process, and these templates can be customized according to the subject and used in the geography teaching process (Image 5). These templates can be easily accessed by typing "concept map" in the search section.

Image 5

An Example of Concept Map Templates on Canva That Can Be Used in Geography Teaching



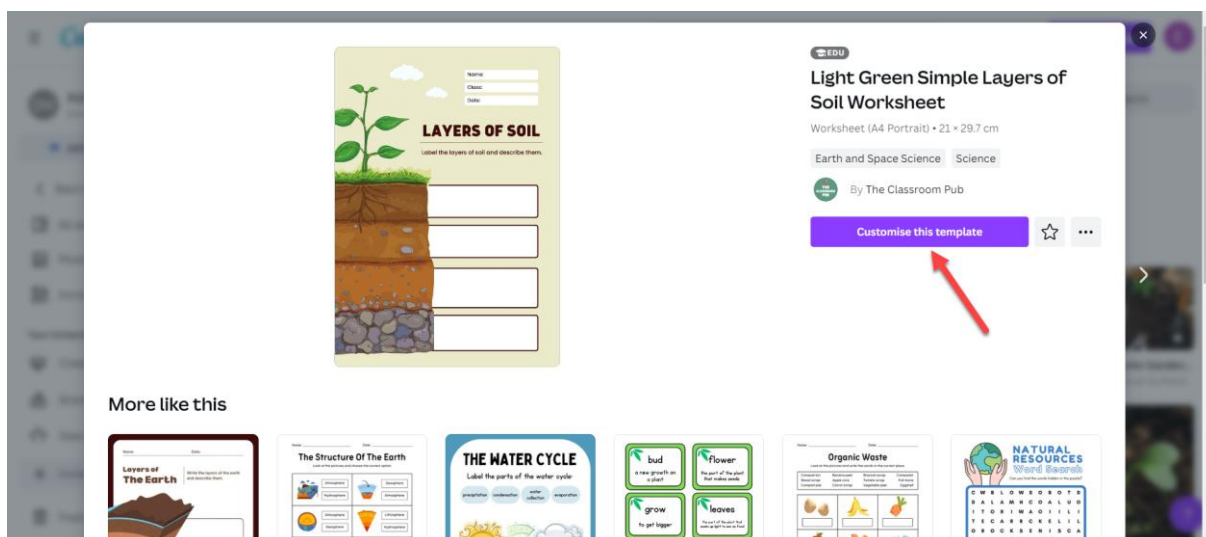
Findings Related to the Use and Customization of Templates on Canva in the Design of Visuals to be Used in the Geography Teaching Process

It is possible to customize the ready-made visuals on Canva in the form of templates in accordance with different needs in the geography teaching process or to make a design on a blank design page by using visual elements related to geography.

When the keyword "soil" is typed into the search bar on Canva to be used in a geography teaching process in which the learning outcome 10.1.12. in the GLC will be taught, it is seen that there are many different visual templates on topics such as soil layers, erosion, elements that make up soil, soil-plant relationship. The "Customize this template" button should be clicked to customize the elements that make up these images according to their needs (Image 6).

Image 6

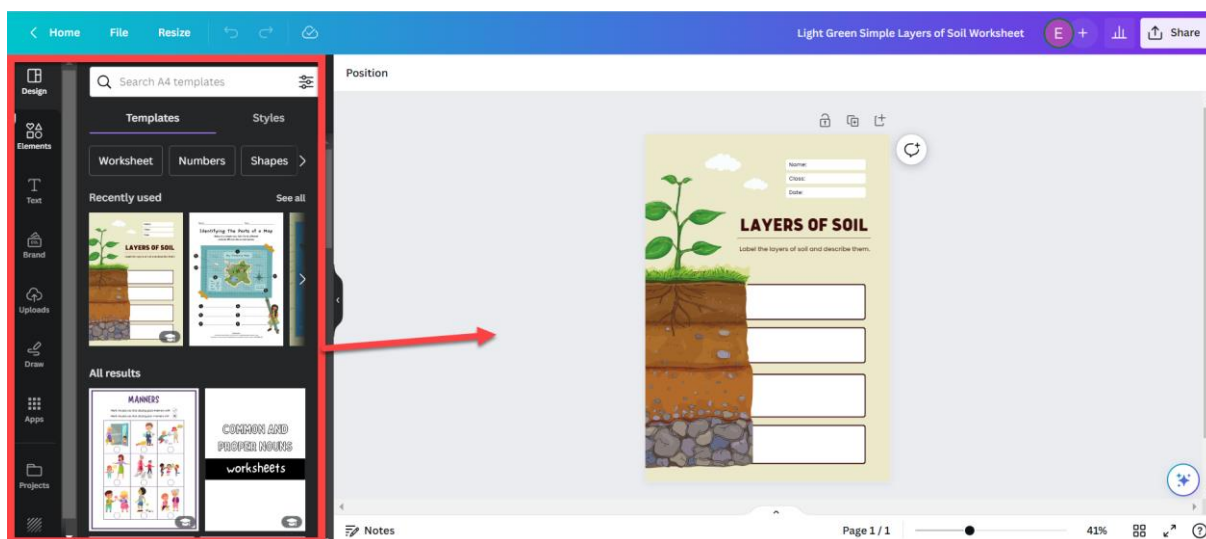
Customization of A Visual That Can Be Used in the Geography Teaching Process in which the Soil Subject is Covered on Canva



In the customization screen, all elements that make up the ready-made template can be customized. For example, different designs can be applied, the design can be enriched by using hundreds of visual elements related to geography, effects and animations can be added to these elements, the body, color, font, and size of the texts can be changed, previously created templates can be applied to the design, different visuals from outside can be imported, drawings can be made on them, or the background can be changed. On Canva, not only ready-made templates but also designs can be made by starting from a blank page (Image 7).

Image 7

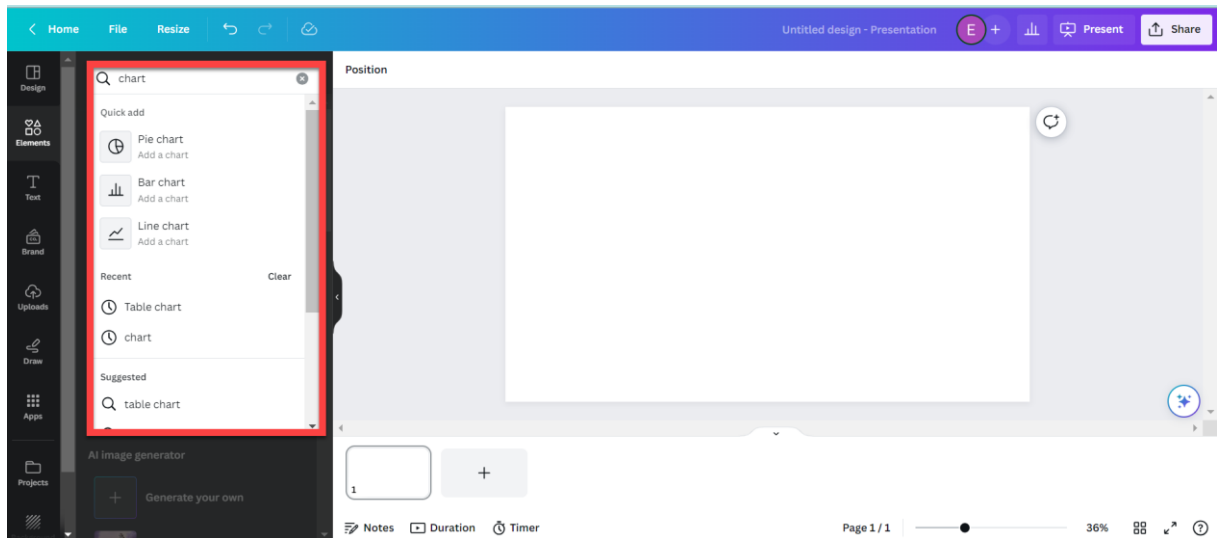
Customization of A Visual That Can Be Used in the Geography Teaching Process in which the Soil Subject is Covered on Canva by Using Different Elements



One of the most important visuals used in geography teaching is graphics. One of the geographical skills given in the GLC is "The ability to prepare and interpret tables, graphs and diagrams". This skill includes selecting and classifying appropriate data, creating tables, graphs, and diagrams appropriate to the data, using and associating relevant photographs, creating cross-sections (such as plant and geology cross-sections), using tables, graphs, and diagrams in appropriate places, interpreting tables, graphs, and diagrams, and synthesizing by comparing tables, graphs, and diagrams (GLC, 2018). "9.1.11. Explains the formation and distribution of climatic elements." in the explanation in sub-paragraph c of the acquisition, "Tables and graphs are drawn using the data of the climatic elements in the place where they live and are associated with daily life." there is an expression. In addition, graphics can be used in the geography teaching process in many subjects, such as population, migration, and economic activities. Line, column, or pie charts can be easily created in Canva. For this, after selecting the elements section on the design page, the word "graphic" should be typed in the search section, and one of the desired graphic types should be selected. (Image 8).

Image 8

Creating Graphics to be Used in the Teaching Process of Geography Course on Canva

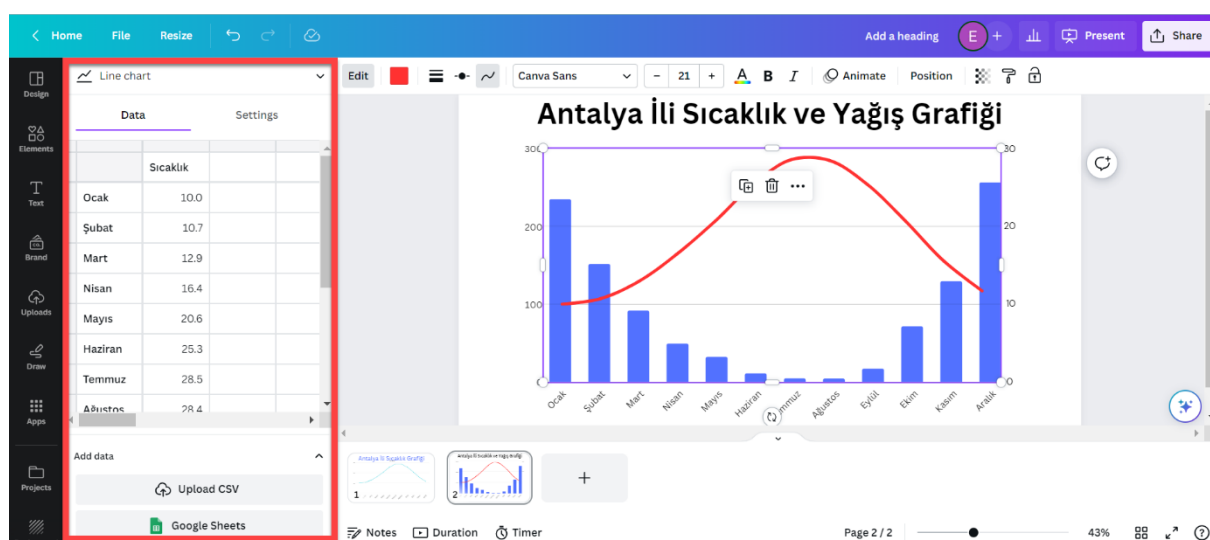


In this section, temperature and precipitation graphs related to climate, one of the most important topics in the geography course, can be easily converted into graphs either by manual data entry or by entering data from various statistical institutions as a file. The color and format properties of the created graphic can be changed (Image 9). Apart from the climate topic, pie charts can be created showing the distribution of population by economic sectors

and the distribution of population in the historical process, the distribution of gases that make up the atmosphere, or various characteristics of developed and undeveloped countries. In addition, population pyramids, which are population graphs showing the status of the population from past to present and where many comments can be made, can also be created with the "Funnel Chart" feature on Canva. This easy preparation of graphs eliminates the dependence on graphs in existing geography resources and ensures that the most up-to-date data is reflected in the graphs.

Image 9

Customization of A Temperature and Precipitation Graph Created on Canva

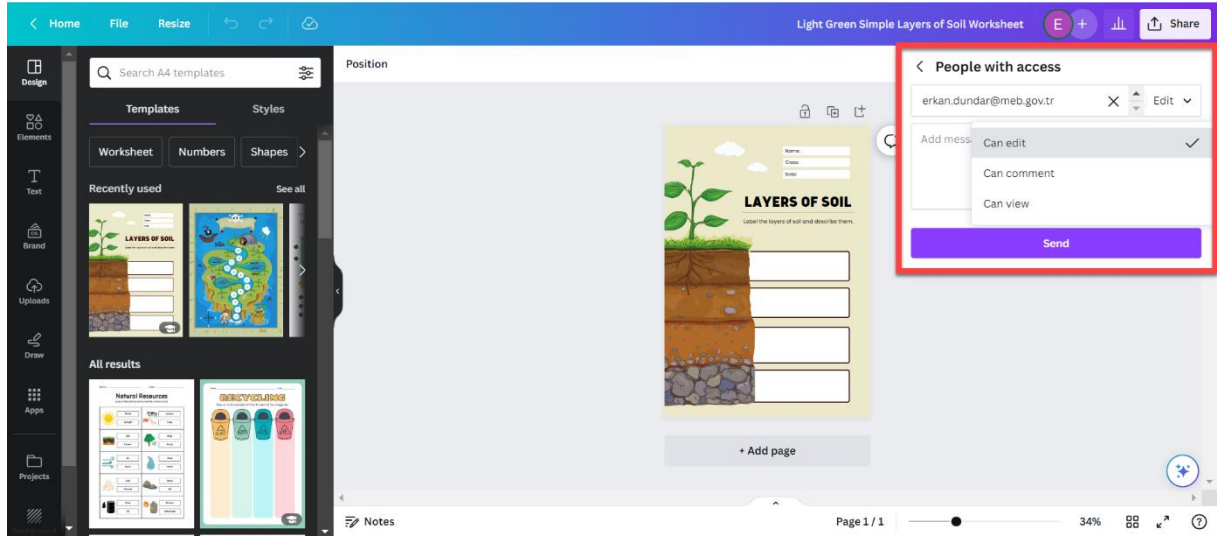


Findings Related to Interaction and Collaboration in the Design of Visuals to be Used in Geography Teaching on Canva

While designing a visual design in Canva, interaction and collaboration can be achieved with the participation of more than one person, either in real time or in different time periods, by giving access authorization. This access authorization can be in the form of editing the visual, commenting only, or viewing only (Image 10). This feature can enable different geography teachers to design visuals in collaboration, while students can work together on a geographical image using collaborative learning.

Image 10

Creating Interaction and Cooperation by Sharing An Image in Canva That Can Be Used in The Geography Teaching Process with The Student



Furthermore, on Canva, teachers can create different classes for their students (Image 11) and folders for different subjects within these classes and set the access authorization of students to these folders (Image 12).

Image 11

Creating Different Classes on Canva for Sharing Images to be Used in Geography Teaching

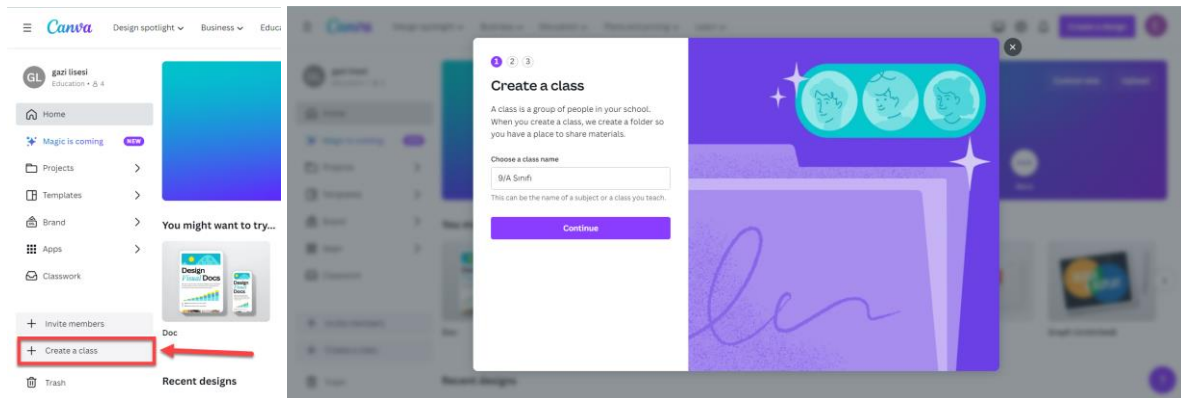
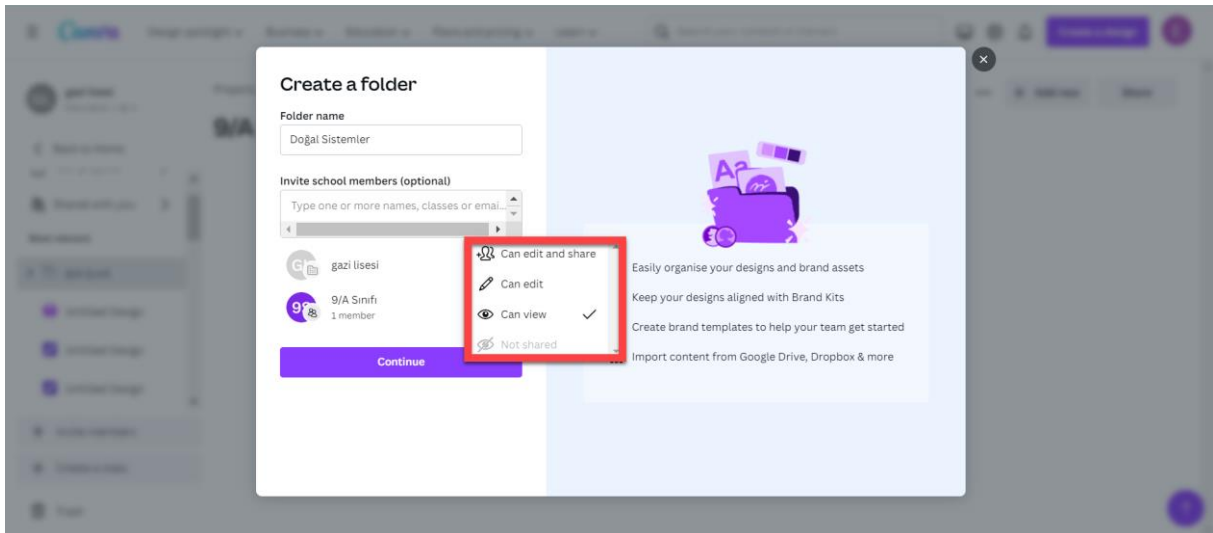


Image 12

Setting Student Access to Folders Created on Canva



The designs in these folders can be sent to each of the students in the class separately, as homework and feedback can be received. For example, a worksheet prepared on the topic "Atmosphere" can be sent to all students in the class or to the desired students with a note and assigned as homework (Image 13). In this case, a notification will appear on the student's profile, and the assignment details will be displayed (Image 14). The student can complete the assignment and send it back to the teacher with a grade (Image 15).

Image 13

Sending an Image to The Student as Homework to be Used as A Worksheet That Can be Used in the Geography Teaching Process on Canva

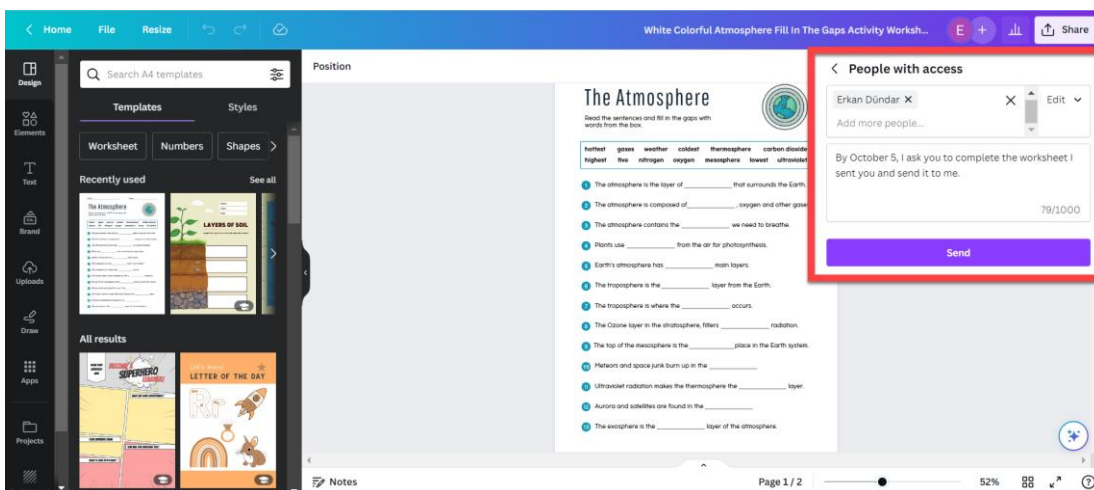


Image 14

View of the Assignment Submitted by the Teacher on the Student's Canva Screen

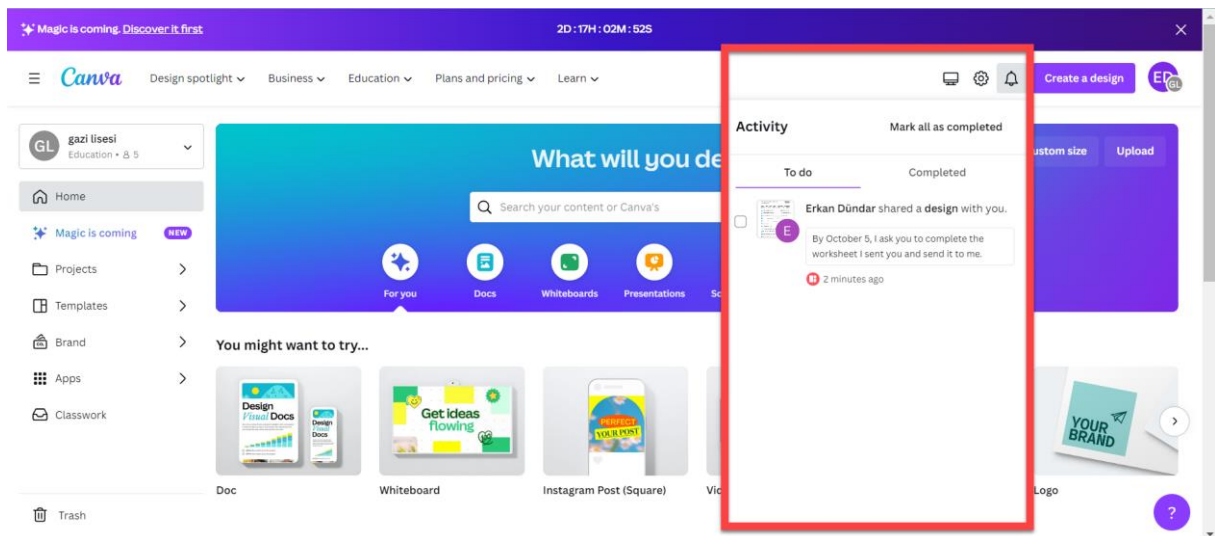
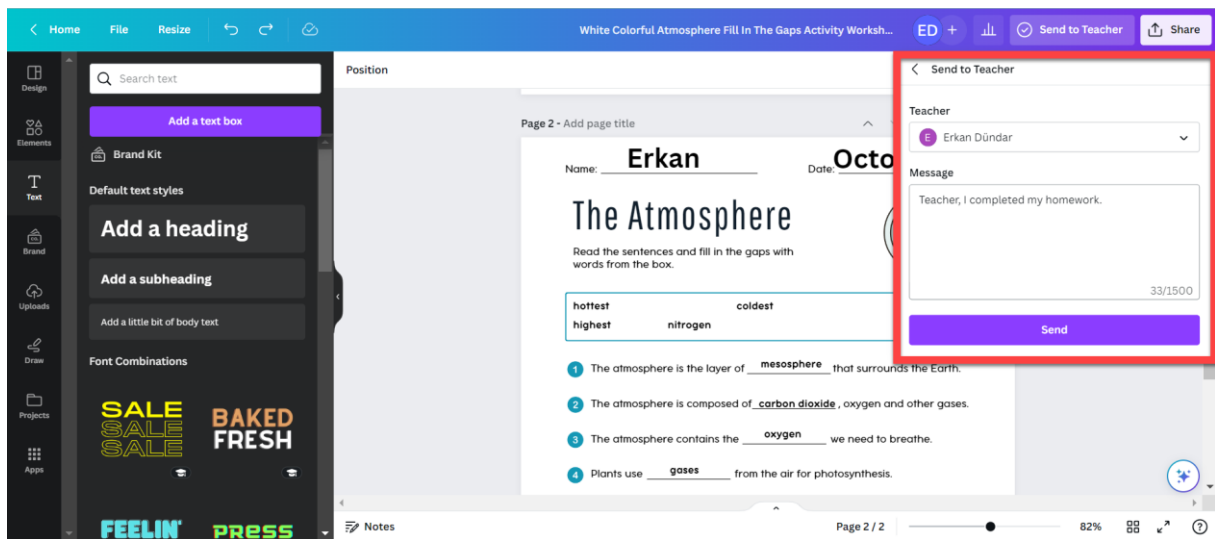


Image 15

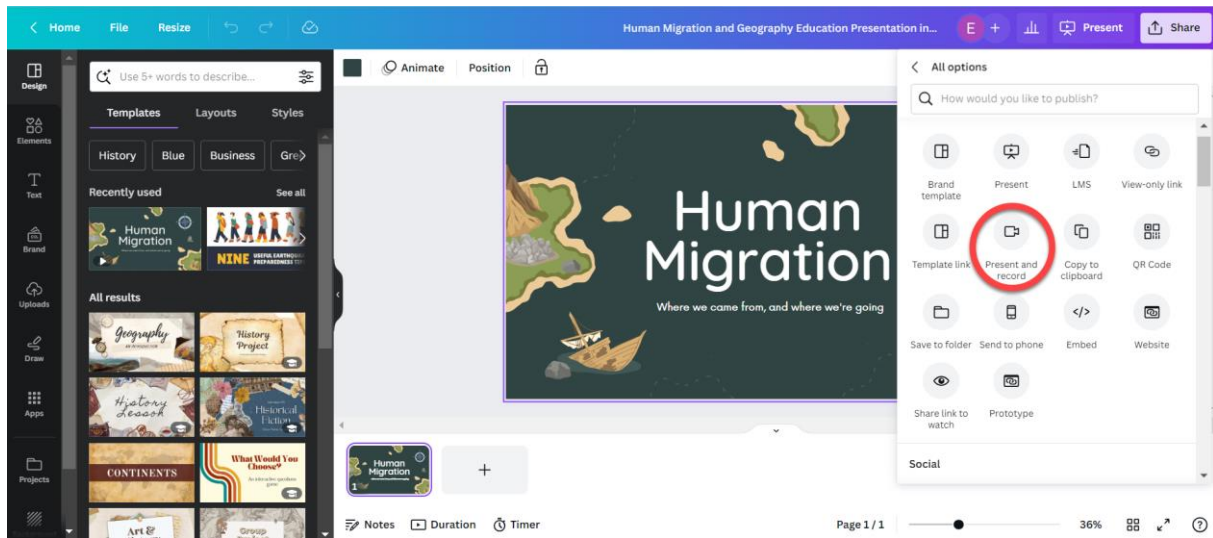
Students do Their Homework and Send it to the Teacher



Visuals produced with Canva can be used in flipped learning to create student-teacher interaction. For example, each slide of a presentation created on Canva about migrations can be audio-recorded by the teacher and shared with the student in video format. Thus, after the student has knowledge about the subject at home, an inverted learning process will be created with different activities to reinforce the same subject at school (Image 16).

Image 16

Enriching A Presentation on Canva by the Teacher in the Context of Flipped Learning and Sharing it with the Student



Discussion and Result

Visuals are elements that appeal to the sense of sight, one of the five senses through which people perceive the outside world. The place and importance of visuals used in many areas of life in education have increased, especially with the integration of technology into education day by day. In geography teaching, especially the expression of abstract facts or geographical processes that cannot be experienced again with visuals, this contributes to students' better understanding of the subject and increases their interest in geography. However, it can be said that achieving these benefits at a high level depends on the professional design of the visuals to be used in communication. Professionally designed visuals stand out both aesthetically and functionally. For this, as Türker and Sözcü (2021:1880) state, geographical knowledge is needed to move between geographical spaces and find answers to the questions of where and how to go from one place to another. In order for this knowledge to be transformed into performance and capability, it is necessary to have geographical skills. The professional creation of geographical visuals, especially maps, graphics, tables, and concept maps, which have these features, is the first condition for successful visual communication in the teaching process. However, research shows that there are not enough visuals in geography course resources and that the existing visuals have deficiencies such as design or not including current data. The way to eliminate this problem is to enable geography teachers to design the visuals they need in their own fields. In the past,

the successful design of these designs required long trainings, but today, the tools that have emerged with the support of technology have minimized the need for this training. Now, professionally designed visuals are uploaded to some platforms and made available to users. One of these platforms is the web 2.0 tool called Canva. Canva has hundreds of maps, graphics, figures, concept maps, presentations, worksheets, and much more to be used in the geography teaching process. Thanks to this free-to-use tool, geography teachers can use ready-made templates at any stage of the geography teaching process, or they can easily customize these visuals according to their own needs. In this way, they can produce visuals suitable for their students' level, readiness, or learning style. In addition, it is also possible to produce visuals such as temperature and precipitation or a population pyramid, which are very important to include current data. In addition, thanks to its interaction feature, Canva can enable geography teachers to work in collaboration with their own classes or with the classes they will create from their students, thus ensuring that the geography teaching process is carried out in a much more efficient and successful way. Research also shows that learning using Canva for education is interactive, creative, collaborative, innovative, and interesting (Rahmatullah, Inanna, & Ampa, 2020; Bakri et al., 2021; Putra & Filianti, 2022; Wijayanti, 2022). It is also seen that the use of visuals produced with Canva in the educational process also increases students' academic achievement (Maryunani, 2021). Nurhayati, Machdalena Vianty, Medio Lailatin Nisphi, and Dian Eka Sari (2022) also concluded that after the Canva training they gave to teachers, their understanding of the application improved and they were able to design and produce learning media for different text types.

As a result, the integration of technology into geography teaching is inevitable in accordance with the characteristics of today's students, and geography teachers have to keep up with these conditions. Visual communication design in the geography teaching process can be realized much more effectively by using technology. One of the tools that enables this is the Web 2.0 tool called Canva. Canva is an advanced visual design platform that contains a large number of geographical images. These images can be customized according to the needs of geography teachers, and student interaction can be provided in this process.

Recommendations

The suggestions that emerged as a result of this research, which aims to reveal how the web 2.0 tool called Canva, which brings a new perspective to visual communication design, can be used in the geography teaching process with examples, are as follows:

- Geography teachers should be informed about the elements such as maps, graphics, presentations, figures, concept maps, etc. on Canva that can be used directly in visual communication in geography course teaching processes.
- Guides consisting of sample lesson designs about the use of Canva in geography teaching should be prepared and shared with geography teachers.
- In-service trainings on the effective use of Canva in the geography teaching process should be organized. With these in-service trainings, geography teachers who produce content for Canva should be trained.
- In higher education institutions that train geography teachers, the integration of platforms such as Canva into the teaching process should be added to the curriculum in courses on teaching material development.
- In cooperation between Canva and MoNE, it should be ensured that geography teachers create and upload ready-made templates to meet each outcome in GLP and that other geography teachers can use these visuals.
- Different studies should be conducted to determine the effect of Canva on students' academic achievement and attitudes in the geography teaching process.

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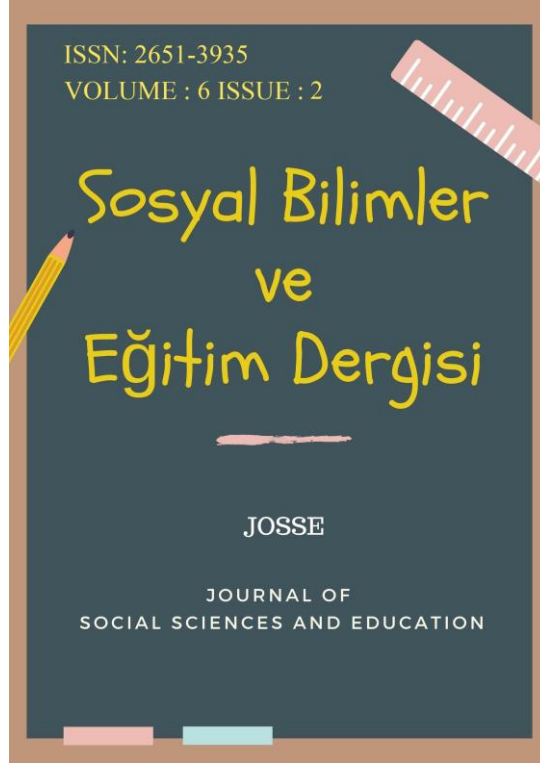
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**Examination of Foreign Students' Experiences in Social Studies Education
from the Teacher's Perspective**

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Examination of Foreign Students' Experiences in Social Studies Education from the Teacher's Perspective

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the experiences of foreign students towards social studies education from the perspective of teachers. Within the scope of this research, in which a case study was used, the involvement of foreign students in in-school and out-of-school learning activities was determined. The researcher's observation notes and opinions of teachers and students are the basic data collection tools. The data were interpreted by content analysis. It has been observed that foreign students have adaptation problems in the social studies course. In many topics, especially in the themes of language and culture and citizenship, it was determined that foreign students could not adapt to the class and remained below the general average in cognitive and affective terms. Foreign students who considered themselves weak in language skills stated that they could not socialize and emphasized that this situation negatively affected their participation in the Social Studies course. The elements of Turkish history, democratic government, national holidays, Turkish family structure, Turkish cultural heritage in the Social Studies course are among the topics that foreign students have difficulty in making sense of. Foreign students who came from various countries such as Syria, Iraq and Libya and took refuge in Turkey stated that they experienced conflict in their inner worlds because they tried to evaluate these themes in the Social Studies course from their own social and cultural perspectives. It may be possible to diversify projects such as PICTES and to include teachers in these projects and to carry out the process of integrating foreign students into the society in a healthier way.

Keywords: Foreign students, social studies, integration, teacher experiences

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Introduction

Migration, which is defined as a permanent change of place from one's own center of life to another place, is a multidimensional event (Baloğlu-Uğurlu & Akdovan, 2019). Migration, which gives rise to differences in terms of reasons for occurrence and status, creates various consequences in the destination. People who voluntarily leave their country in order to reach a qualified standard of living are called migrants. On the other hand, contrary to the previous situation, people who voluntarily leave their country and go to safer places to get rid of various crises and to eliminate the risk of life are called asylum seekers or refugees (General Directorate of Migration Management, 2021; Reçber, 2014). This *"forced mobility"*, which is called refugee or asylum-seeker and numbers hundreds of thousands every day, has been increasing exponentially from past to present. Refugeeism, which has become a serious global problem, started to grow with World War II and reached its peak during the Cold War. Subsequently, the 1951 Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (UN, 1951) gave refugees an international status. Due to the deficiencies in this convention, the status of refugees was revisited and updated with the 1967 protocol. According to the 1967 Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees (UN, 1967), a refugee is defined as *"any person who, owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country, or who, having no nationality and being outside his former country of residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it"*.

Migration, a phenomenon experienced by the Anatolian geography throughout history, has had a direct impact on the social change of the place in question and continues to do so. As in the past, there are mass migrations to Turkey from many African and Asian countries, especially Syria and Iraq, which are our border neighbors, due to political crises, natural disasters, financial problems and internal conflicts in the border regions. It can be said that the number of asylum seekers has reached a considerable level compared to the population of the citizens of the Republic of Turkey due to the migrations caused by various crises that have increased in recent years. According to the data of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Turkey has been identified as the country hosting the largest refugee population in the world with a refugee population of approximately 3.8 million as of 2022. Asylum-seekers

from countries such as Syria, Iraq, Afghanistan, Iran, Somalia and Pakistan are registered by the Directorate General of Migration Management and included in preventive plans for various problems that may arise. In its latest report, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) predicts that refugee migration will continue to increase in the long term due to issues such as civil wars, conflicts, hunger and drought, which will lead to a global security crisis (UNHCR, 2021).

Turkey has faced a massive refugee migration, especially after the Syrian Civil War, and refugees from different countries have crossed the border. This situation has led to potential problems in social, economic and cultural areas such as nutrition and shelter. Educational and cultural activities, which have a slower impact and results compared to others, play a major role in the integration of refugees into society. Educational institutions have a great role to play in the integration process of diverse groups within the society. As a matter of fact, integration is a complex concept and is not a process that can only be carried out through economic means. It can be said that educational, social and cultural activity plans will create significant added value for integrating foreign nationals into Turkish society (Tokmak & Kara, 2023).

Schools are one of the leading institutions to eliminate and minimize the negative consequences of migration, which is a global issue (Pinson & Arnot, 2007). It is essential for foreign students to go through the education process in order to develop themselves in the future and become respected individuals in the society. However, with the participation of children with asylum-seeker status in school life in Turkey, both asylum-seeker students and the teachers who teach them have faced many problems related to education and training. Teachers try to address and solve this problem of foreign students whose academic development is negatively affected when they cannot adapt to the course content. As a matter of fact, as it is seen in the literature, teachers have a leading role in the process of teaching the cultural structure and national language of the society they migrate to, in the development of foreign students' literacy skills (Şeker & Aslan, 2015; Seçmez & İlhan, 2022).

Educational institutions have important duties to integrate the children of foreign families who migrated to Turkey for a number of reasons into Turkish education and to increase their potential to prevent social problems and intervene in crises. Designing educational institutions to include all students in a way that facilitates the integration of foreign nationals will ensure social integration and unity faster. In addition, the studies to be

carried out will contribute to reducing social, financial and political problems (Weinstein, Tomlinson Clarke, & Curran, 2003).

Schools have an crucial role in integrating foreign students into society (Kağnıcı, 2017). As a matter of fact, Turkish Ministry of National Education has prepared short and long-term strategic plans to be implemented by its educational institutions. In these strategic plans, it is emphasized that foreign students should be educated within the Turkish education system in accordance with social and universal norms. In addition, it is aimed to provide diploma equivalence, to provide financial support to families for education, and to open language and vocational skills courses (Ministry of National Education, 2015).

It is important for the peace of the country that foreign students, whose integration into the society is seen as important, become useful individuals who reduce the crisis rather than being a crisis-increasing factor for the society in the process. The Social Studies course, which imposes certain responsibilities on both Turkish and asylum-seeking students for the integration of foreign students into society, prioritizes the students' reflecting peace and tolerance, which are indispensable for the peace and continuity of a society, to their own lives. In addition, Social Studies, which has a curriculum that includes important social issues such as global peace, has the potential to solve local and universal problems (Odia, 2014). It can be defined as a multidisciplinary field that aims to raise an active citizen with a humanistic and realistic mindset in a world order that makes individuals and societies more interdependent in today's world conditions (Arisi, 2011). In addition, the transfer of "*Social Studies is the combination of knowledge and experiences related to human relations for the purpose of citizenship education*" (Barr, Barth, & Shermis, 1977, as cited in Doğanay, 2004:16) has imposed various responsibilities on Turkish and refugee students in order for foreign students to adapt to the socio-cultural norms of the society they immigrated to.

The Social Studies Course Curriculum (SCCP), which aims to acquire the knowledge, skills and values necessary for individuals to adapt to social life and become effective citizens, has an important mission in the citizenship education of primary school children in Türkiye (Kızıllı & Dönmez, 2017, p.221; Tokmak, Yılmaz, & Şeker, 2023). People who have received an effective citizenship education are expected to be committed to the basic principles of the state and to be aware of their citizenship rights and responsibilities and to act for the good of other citizens (Akbaş, 2014, p.346). By fulfilling the goal of raising "*citizens who love their homeland and nation as citizens of the Republic of Türkiye, know and use their rights, fulfill their responsibilities, use basic communication skills to organize social relations*

and solve the problems they face, and have national consciousness" (MoNE, 2018, p.8), it can be said that SCCP will contribute to the coexistence of society with all its diversity.

It is highly probable that foreign students who need to be educated in a country different from their own culture, in a completely different cultural form, may have some problems in the Social Studies course. However, in order to prevent this negative situation, Social Studies course content contains many elements that create awareness. The fact that it prioritizes developing a sense of "us" instead of "me" in all students affects the development of foreign students' sense of belonging to the society they live in. The Social Studies course, which aims to provide students with history, culture, customs, traditions, customs, written and unwritten rules, and citizenship rights and responsibilities, accelerates the adaptation process of foreign students to the society (Baloğlu-Uğurlu & Akdovan, 2019; Aktaş, Tokmak, & Kara, 2021).

Given the fact that Social Studies is the course that most frequently emphasizes the teaching of sociocultural values and norms, it can be said that the performance of Social Studies teachers in schools will affect the healthy execution of the integration process. The practitioners of Social Studies, which is the cornerstone course that frequently emphasizes the unity in society, are in an important position in terms of the adaptation of foreign students to the society. As a matter of fact, the effectiveness of the activities related to the course and teachers' attitudes that can be role models facilitate the adaptation of foreign students to the society in which they live.

When the related literature is examined, the experiences of foreign students in the education/training process and the observations of teachers in this process are scrutinized. The focus of the studies in which terms such as refugee, asylum-seeker or foreign students were used, is the analysis of the current situation of these students in the course operation in schools (Şeker & Aslan, 2015; Ardıç Çobaner, 2015; Kağnıcı, 2015; Yıldırım, 2020). It has been determined that similar studies have been conducted abroad (Betancourt et al., 2015; Naidoo, 2013; Harding, & Wigglesworth, 2005; Cassity, & Gow, 2005; Sidhu, & Taylor, 2007). The data obtained also made an important contribution to future studies. Accordingly, most of the studies in the literature cover in-school activities. In addition, the limitation of the studies that addressed the problem in terms of Social Studies course functioning was also identified. In this context, it is thought that this study will contribute to the related literature. The aim of this research is to identify the main problems experienced by foreign students in the Social Studies course process and to develop solution suggestions. In addition, in line with

the experiences and opinions of foreign students, it is aimed to reveal their perspectives on the process.

Method

Model

Qualitative research method was used in this study. Qualitative research, which is conducive to the use of data collection tools such as interviews, document analysis and observation, allows for the analysis of events or phenomena in the natural environment in which they occur (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008). Throughout the research, steps were taken towards in-depth interpretation of the data collected with tools suitable for fieldwork. Content analysis has been consulted so that the data in question can be analyzed effectively in this context. Within the framework of Marmara University's Institute of Educational Sciences Research and Broadcasting Ethics Committee Resolution 189927 and 10.12.2022, it was decided that it was ethically appropriate to conduct this research. Case studies are based on "how" and "why" questions and researchers opportunities for in-depth examination of phenomena or events beyond one's control It can be said that it provides (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). The most important aspects of qualitative case study Its feature is that the situations that occur at a certain time are revealed in depth with a holistic approach (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2018).

Sample and Population

Criterion sampling method was preferred in this study. It can be said that the study on situations or individuals who meet the criteria determined before the research is conducted more accurately with this sampling method (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). Within the scope of the research, an educational institution with a high number of foreign students compared to other schools was preferred. A total of 8 Social Studies teachers work in this school. In the selection of the participants, attention was paid to the fact that there were Social Studies teachers teaching in classes where foreign students were concentrated. In this context, the study group consisted of Social Studies teachers working in an official public school in Istanbul and foreign national students studying there.

Table 1

Characteristics of Participant Teachers

Code	Branch	Professional Seniority	Gender
Participant Teacher 1	Social Studies	8 years	Male
Participant Teacher 2	Social Studies	12 years	Male
Participant Teacher 3	Social Studies	13 years	Female
Participant Teacher 4	Social Studies	20 years	Female

Table 2

Characteristics of Participating Students

Code	Age	Nationality	Gender
Participant Student 1	12	Syria	Male
Participant Student 2	12	Syria	Male
Participant Student 3	12	Syria	Female
Participant Student 4	12	Syria	Female
Participating Student 5	12	Libya	Female
Participant Student 6	12	Iraq	Male
Participant Student 7	12	Palestine	Female
Participant Student 8	12	Sudan	Male

Data Collection Tools

Within the framework of the research, interviews and observation notes were used as data collection tools. While the Social Studies course was being taught, teachers' experiences about the process were systematically observed and noted by the researcher. Observation notes were examined by three experts before and after the research and reviewed for validity and reliability. Interview technique was also used to contribute to the data to be obtained from the observation technique and to analyze the research more effectively. The questions of the semi-structured interview form were sent to the field experts before the application and applied to the participants after the deficiencies were identified and updated.

Collection of Data and Analysis

Data were collected from Social Studies teachers and foreign students in accordance with the interview technique. Interviews were conducted face-to-face. Each participant was given a voluntary consent form before the interview. The data obtained from the data collection tools were interpreted through content analysis. The views of the participants were described through tables. In the table where themes and codes were created, the frequency of

expression of common views on the process was reflected. The data collected from the researcher's observation notes and the interview form were systematically categorized. Situations that supported or contradicted each other in the observation form and interview form were described.

Findings

The author of the study has also been working as a Social Studies teacher in schools affiliated to the Ministry of National Education for 12 years. During this time, the researcher taught in 5 schools with different socio-economic levels and thus had the opportunity to make detailed observations and to analyze them.

In the regions where the number of foreign students is higher than the number of Turkish students in the school, a number of problems were observed. The process of citizenship awareness, which is tried to be adopted through the Social Studies course, is one of these problems. Considering the fact that the sense of belonging in Türkiye is not at the desired level, it can be said that the Social Studies course is an essential tool for developing the citizenship consciousness of foreign students. Social Studies teachers attach importance to the task of transferring democratic values and social norms through SCCP, whose main starting point is to raise conscious citizens through citizenship education. In addition, it is considered important for foreign students to take on the role of active citizens by developing their social participation skills.

The academic achievement of foreign students who lag behind in terms of Turkish language skills in Social Studies courses is also negatively affected. As a matter of fact, as a result of measurement and evaluation, it was determined that foreign students in the school generally received low grades in oral and written exams. Since their inability to express themselves adequately creates a sense of failure in them, this causes foreign students to turn into a psychologically withdrawn profile. Weakness in Turkish affects their academic failures with a snowball effect. As a matter of fact, when the relevant literature is examined, it is emphasized that the language problem is the main problem experienced in the education of foreign students (Ertan Özalp, 2019; Kardeş & Akman, 2018; Sarıtaş, Şahin, & Çatalbaş, 2016). Students, whose development in the language learning process progresses slowly, also fall behind in academic learning in this process. Thus, it can be said as a result of observations that their interest in the lesson and their sense of curiosity are dulled. In addition, foreign

students, who cannot reveal their existing potential, cause them to feel weak and unsuccessful in front of Turkish citizen students at school.

In order to support foreign students in terms of academic and language development, the school offers supportive courses outside of class time. It was observed that the students who attended these courses increased their attendance and started to improve their academic and language skills. However, the low participation in the supportive courses shows that the mentioned improvement is reflected in very few students. In order to overcome this, administrators and teachers collaborated to carry out a number of social responsibility activities. In particular, support was received from education stakeholders to strengthen their sense of social belonging, increase their language skills and accelerate their academic development. Foreign students were included in many sociocultural activities with the support of local and central governments and non-governmental organizations. However, in a crowded metropolitan city like Istanbul, the high number of students in the school negatively affects the reflection of these activities on the process. Despite these negativities, significant work has been carried out and progress has been observed in the development of foreign students.

Insufficient class time, overcrowded classrooms and current economic inadequacies have led to the use of limited teaching, methods and techniques for students. Opportunities should be given to foreign students to increase their participation in the course and to enable them to express themselves better. The limited opportunities of the in-class lesson and the large amount of texts in the Social Studies textbook create a disadvantageous situation for foreign students who are already weak in language competence.

As a result of the interviews with the teachers, it was determined that the refugee students had difficulties in teaching the social studies lesson in the classrooms. It has been stated that students' poor language skills negatively affect classroom communication. It has been stated that introvert students' participation in class is limited. Social studies teachers stated that the content of the textbooks used during the course was not sufficient for the education of refugee students.

Participant Teacher 1, who organized out-of-school learning activities, concluded that site visits increased students' interest in the lesson. Visiting various out-of-school learning environments in Istanbul also contributed to their communication skills. As a matter of fact, Iranian students, Uyghur Turkish students who are Chinese citizens, Syrian Turkmen students, Syrian Turkmen students and Afghan students who visited the otage tents in Topkapı

Turkish World and saw the Turkish customs, traditions and lifestyle on site showed great interest in this activity. The researcher, who watched and observed a movie about the life story of a child living in another country as a result of forced migration with the students, found that the children developed a sense of empathy. This movie activity facilitated the establishment of a more positive and interactive communication channel between Turkish and foreign students. It can be said that this situation provides significant cognitive and affective contributions to students and enriches their perspectives (Aktaş, 2022; UNESCO, 2010).

The *"Refugees and Us"* exhibition trip to The Culture and Art Center in Istanbul also contributed to the development of empathy for foreign students. This exhibition trip, which made the students more aware of the difficulties, pain and sadness experienced during forced migration, was used as an effective out-of-school learning environment.

Foreign students were encouraged to visit the homes of their Turkish friends as guests and gain on-site experience about the hospitality, tolerance and respectful attitude of the Turkish society. Thus, the *"Will You Be My Guest?"* activity enabled Turkish and foreign students to get to know each other and become more aware of each other. The main purpose of these activities, which were carried out under the guidance of Participant Teacher 2, was to enable foreign students to integrate into society and education more easily. When the feedback received from students and parents who interacted with each other was analyzed, it was determined that foreign students had stereotypes about the Turkish family structure, social life style, traditions and customs. After the *"Will You Be My Guest?"* activity, foreign students realized that their stereotypes were unfounded. The foreign students emphasized that Turkish culture and family structure contain rich elements and have a feature that instills empathy and tolerance.

The important quotations from the interview with Participant Teacher 2 regarding the activity in question are as follows: *"Foreign students who saw certain examples of the Turkish family structure on site determined that there were similar or dissimilar features with their own culture. I think that the students' sense of belonging to the society has developed. I also think that they have encountered good examples of social tolerance. Thus, they have seen the subjects we teach at school such as communication, social cohesion, the importance of family in a practical way. Therefore, I believe that our activity was very effective."*

Among the in-school and out-of-school activities, creative drama and pantomime were the methods through which foreign students were able to express themselves best and reflect their feelings. Under the guidance of Participant Teacher 3, after a case study was determined,

it was acted out. The mime technique was also used with foreign students whose Turkish vocabulary was very poor. Thus, it was seen that the students who felt themselves valuable and could reflect their own perspectives on the case study had a positive perception of the lesson and carried out in-class communication in a healthier way.

In a lesson in which the Six Thinking Hats Technique was used, Participant Teacher 4 identified a common problem that might be of interest to the foreign students in the class. For the solution of this problem, she gave the majority of the class the right to speak and asked for their opinions. They tried to produce a solution by addressing different dimensions of the problem named *"The Impact of Forced Migration on Istanbul"*. Participant Teacher 4 ensured that everyone conveyed their opinions in an impartial manner within the framework of respect. Thus, Turkish and foreign students tried to find common solutions based on each other's ideas.

The following excerpts from Participant Teacher 4's views on the process are given below: *"I think that we teachers are insufficient in integrating foreign students into the society and school. I have difficulty in controlling the class while trying to recover foreign students who fall behind the class in terms of academic and language skills. MoNE should organize more effective in-service training activities in this regard."*

Participant Teacher1 used the debate technique in her lesson to discuss the role and impact of the media and mass media in conveying global problems such as migration, refugee rights, war victims and child labor. Both groups were formed heterogeneously in the debate, enabling them to realize each other's opposite or parallel views and thus respect each other. In addition to contributing to the socialization skills of foreign students through the debate technique, it was also possible for them to pronounce Turkish more beautifully and effectively.

Foreign students consider themselves weak in subjects such as scales, maps, symbols of independence, national holidays, Atatürk's principles and revolutions, and active citizenship awareness in Social Studies and Turkish Revolutionary History and Kemalism courses. On the other hand, they considered themselves more successful in subjects such as UN, UNICEF, children's rights, Nowruz, religious holidays, pronunciation of Ottoman Turkish words. Participant Teacher 1, who used the Social Studies textbook in her class, found that the content was not sufficient to ensure the social and cultural integration of foreign students. It can be said that the interest in the Social Studies course is weak due to reasons such as the fact that the subjects are seen by the students as abstract and based on

memorization, and that there is little experience-based learning due to the limited in-class activities.

The excerpt from the views of Participant Teacher 1 is as follows: *"Foreign students have a cultural adaptation problem. There are also significant problems with absenteeism. I think the main reason for these is language and communication. As far as I can see, this is also effective in experiencing discipline problems in the classroom."*

In addition to the views of the participating teachers, the views of foreign students on the process are also important. As a matter of fact, the statements of refugee students, who emphasized that in-school and out-of-school learning activities had significant effects on them, were shaped in the form of a number of common views. The data obtained from these student opinions are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Foreign Students' Views on the Process

Themes	Codes	f
Contributions of the Social Studies course	Helped me solve my individual problems	3
	I got to know Turkish culture closely	8
	I socialized more with my friends	6
	My Turkish vocabulary has improved	8
	It made it easier for me to integrate into society	5
Impact of out-of-school learning activities	I discovered new places in the city	8
	My historical and cultural knowledge increased	5
	My interest in the lesson increased	5
	I got to know Turkish family structure better	4

As seen in Table 3, 3 of the participant students stated that the Social Studies course made significant contributions in solving individual problems, 8 in getting to know Turkish culture better, 6 in socializing more, 8 in developing Turkish vocabulary, and 5 in integrating into society. 8 students stated that they discovered new places in the city thanks to out-of-school learning activities, 5 students stated that their historical and cultural knowledge increased, 5 students stated that their interest in the course increased, and 4 students stated that they got to know the Turkish family structure better.

Important quotations were included in the data obtained from the semi-structured interview form. The statements of Participant Student 1 are as follows: *"Especially thanks to the home visits, I learned the characteristics of the Turkish family. I was very impressed by*

their hospitality. I realized how valuable the importance of the concept of family in the Social Studies course is." In the statements of Participant Student 3, the following stood out: "Thanks to the drama my teacher made me do in the classroom, I socialized more with my other classmates. Before, I only hung out with my Syrian friends. Thanks to these activities in the classroom, I felt socialized." In addition, the following quotations were given in the opinions of Participant Student 5: "I could not participate in the class much because I could not speak Turkish very well. But thanks to activities such as debates and drama, I learned more vocabulary and got the habit of reading books. Thanks to this course, I learned Turkish culture and history in detail and improved my Turkish."

Discussion and Results

The *"language problematic"* is one of the most important problems that the researcher observed and analyzed in her lessons. It was determined that this problematic triggered the exponential growth of many problems. As a matter of fact, when foreign students interpret a statement in the book according to their own culture and act accordingly, a polemic arises among the students. When play groups are formed at recess and everyone is categorized according to their ethnicity and language family, some marginalizing situations can occur at school. It can be said that language difference is a slowing factor in social and cultural integration, as well as in establishing healthy communication with health, legal and security institutions. The statement of UNHCR Turkiye representative Batchelor (2014), *"If you want to help refugees, teach them Turkish."* reveals the striking situation in terms of reminding the importance of language teaching in carrying out this challenging process in a healthy way.

It is considered important to take the causes and consequences of migration more comprehensively, to organize course content related to it, and to carry out activity-based learning processes in and out of school. It is important to revise and organize the SCCP based on current global issues and to emphasize more on issues such as migration, refugee rights and freedoms, and multiculturalism in Social Studies textbooks. Teachers who can conduct adequate research on multiculturalism or intercultural education and develop their perspectives can easily carry out the process mentioned. As a matter of fact, the teacher in the role of the researcher meticulously handled the content close to the issues related to multiculturalism, migration, refugee rights while teaching the Social Studies course and tried

to reflect them effectively to the students. In return, it was found that there was a noticeable increase in students' interest in the Social Studies course.

It is seen in the literature review that similar findings were made (Seçgin & Erten Özalp, 2020; Zayimoğlu Öztürk, 2018; Tunç, 2015; Oytun & Gündoğar, 2015). In the notes of the researcher, who has years of teaching experience, language and culture conflict was emphasized as the main source of the problem. Foreign students who see themselves as weak in language competence cannot communicate with their peers and feel isolated and withdrawn. Thus, they isolate themselves from the society. In addition, it has been determined that foreign students have problems in establishing healthy communication with other students in in-school and out-of-school environments. In fact, Zayimoğlu-Öztürk (2021) stated that asylum seeker students have been excluded, marginalized and subjected to social isolation. In addition to the negative reflection of this situation on the process of social belonging and adaptation, it has been observed that it directly affects their academic success at school (Temur & Özalp, 2022). In overcoming this problem, it is important to prepare content in the curriculum that focuses on multiculturalism and proposes a social structure based on empathy (Biçer & Özaltun, 2020). On the other hand, in the study of Uysal (2022), it was emphasized that the cultural structure and values of the Turkish society are taught more effectively through the Social Studies course and that this has an important function in the integration of foreign students into society. Therefore, in this period, Social Studies and T.R. It can be stated that History of Revolution and Kemalism courses will be the main courses that will contribute to this process.

The other important work to be done after the effective teaching of Turkish is the adoption of democratic values, social and cultural norms through the Social Studies course; the establishment of empathy-based communication channels and the creation of opportunities for foreign students to keep their own cultures alive. It can be said that the cornerstone of this process is the Social Studies course (Baloğlu Uğurlu & Akdovan, 2019). Because the primary and secondary school age is seen as a critical period in terms of realizing these cognitive and affective gains. In this period, it can be stated that Social Studies and Turkish Revolution History and Kemalism courses will be the main courses that will contribute to this process. As a matter of fact, in Şahin (2020)'s research, it was determined that teachers should participate in in-service training activities regarding the value judgments and classroom management of foreign students in order to solve the situation in question.

As a result, it can be said that the learning activities carried out throughout the process had significant effects on the cognitive and affective development of foreign students. Based on the teachers' views, it is important to integrate foreign students into the society and improve their academic levels in line with pedagogical approaches. As a matter of fact, it was determined that in-school and out-of-school activities revealed positive changes in student attitudes.

It has been determined that immigrant children have many problems regarding their education. The education that should be given to immigrant students; The current situation has been tried to be revealed by considering the dimensions such as method, time, format, content, reducing school dropouts and ensuring continuity of education. In the process of solving the problems mentioned in the findings; The expected results are the healthy integration of Syrian children into the Turkish education system, the development of social sensitivity of these students, and thus contributing to the social peace of the Turkey of the future.

Recommendations

In line with the results obtained within the scope of the research, the following recommendations have been developed:

- There is a need to increase out-of-school learning activities for foreign students to learn the Social Studies course more effectively and integrate into society.
- Efforts can be made within MoNE to increase teachers' active participation in projects such as PICTES.
- It is important to update Social Studies textbooks in the axis of social belonging, tolerance and global citizenship.

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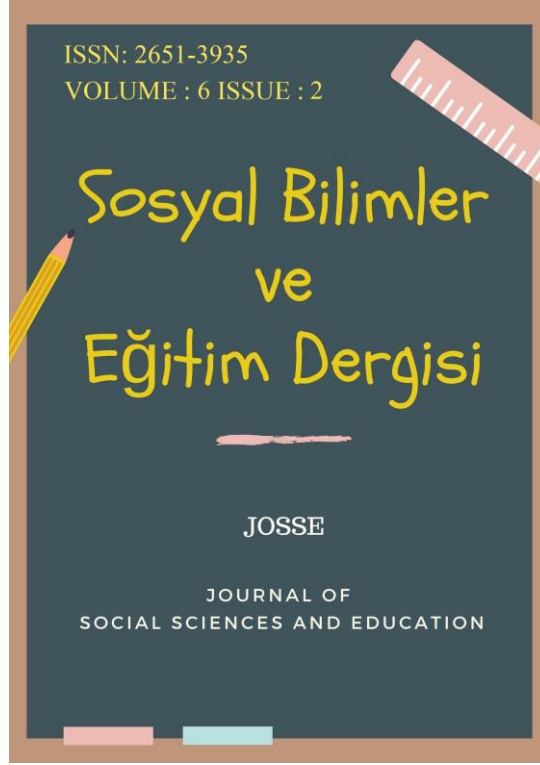
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Reflective Practices of Pre-Service Teachers: Self-reflections on Micro Teaching

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Abstract

This study aims to reveal pre-service teachers' (PSTs) self-reflections on micro-teaching practices. The study was conducted with a qualitative approach. The participants of the study consisted of 117 PSTs from 9 different branches who took the Micro-teaching (Elective) course at the faculty of education of a state university in Türkiye in the 2021-2022 academic year. According to the aim of the study, PSTs did micro-teaching practices. The micro-teaching practices were video-recorded and watched by the PST. The practice was evaluated by the PSTs peers and delivered to the PST in writing. The qualitative data of the study were obtained with the "Self-reflection Form" prepared by the researchers. This form consists of two open-ended questions about the strengths and weaknesses that pre-service teachers realized during the microteaching practice. The data were analyzed by content analysis method. It was found that PST described their strengths and weaknesses in planning, process, and assessment categories. PSTs emphasized their weaknesses more than their strengths for the planning category. In the category of planning, pre-service teachers stated that their strengths were that they were able to prepare lesson plans with well-rounded activities and integrity, and their weaknesses were that they could not manage their time properly and that they realized that the activities and examples were not suitable for the grade level. In the category of processing, they emphasized strengths more than weaknesses. The PSTs consider themselves strongest in lesson management and stated that they need to improve their diction, voice, and oratory skills. The assessment was the least opinioned category by the PSTs. For the assessment of the lesson, PSTs thought that they achieved the outcome by focusing on the teaching process, which was considered successful.

Keywords: Self-reflection, reflective practice, teacher education, pre-service teacher, micro-teaching

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Introduction

As interpreted by John Dewey, we do not learn from experience, we learn from reflecting on experience (Lagueux, 2014). A good teacher is the one who does self-reflection on his/her experiences. A self-reflective teacher constantly observes and criticizes himself/herself (Kundu & Bej, 2022). Considering that a teacher is a role model, evaluating classroom practices can be a powerful tool for the development of students. (Kim et al., 2019). It is essential for a teacher to acquire this behavior during the pre-service education process in order to be capable of self-reflection. Micro-teaching (MT) is one of the implementations that can enable pre-service teachers (PSTs) to engage in self-reflection in teacher training programs.

Micro-teaching methods provide an opportunity for pre-service teachers to demonstrate teaching practice. Considering that in-depth thinking can occur on the basis of practice (Crichton et al., 2021), this practice, which provides a theory-practice connection in teacher training programs, is important. International studies have concluded that micro-teaching is effective in teacher training (Crichton et al., 2021; Erdemir & Yeşilçınar, 2021; Karakaş & Yükselir, 2021; Maguire, 2022; Saban & Çoklar, 2013). However, it is thought that the importance given to micro-teaching has increased in Türkiye.

Teacher Training and Micro-Teaching in Türkiye

Micro-teaching practices, which were first introduced in the world in 1963 at Stanford University (Allen, 1967), started to be implemented in Türkiye in the 1980s and widespread in the 1990s (Yolcu & Turhan-Türkkan, 2021). "Micro-teaching", which was previously applied in various major areas of education courses, was added as a course to the teacher training undergraduate program, which was renewed by the Council of Higher Education (CoHE) to be implemented as of the 2018-2019 academic year. Besides, the statement of "making individual and group micro-teaching practices using special teaching methods and techniques specific to the field" in the content of Teaching Practice I and Teaching Practice II courses in undergraduate programs (CoHE, 2018) shows the importance given to micro-teaching practices in Türkiye.

Studies on micro-teaching in Türkiye (Erdamar & Bangir-Alpan, 2021) shows that interest in micro-teaching has increased in recent years. Although there are studies in the international literature in which pre-service teachers from different branches take part together

(Ledger & Fischetti, 2019; Maguire, 2022), it can be seen that in recent years in Türkiye, there have been many studies on micro-teaching conducted with pre-service teachers from various branches such as English (Erdemir & Yeşilçınar, 2021; Saraçoğlu et al., 2018), elementary mathematics (Yıldız, 2022), social studies (Tünkler, & Güven, 2018), and classroom teaching (Dağ & Temur, 2018). In this study, the self-reflections of pre-service teachers from different branches on the micro-teaching they realized in the "micro-teaching" course, which is a profession knowledge elective course, were revealed. Within this aim, pre-service teachers doing micro-teaching had the opportunity to receive feedback from pre-service teachers from different branches in addition to their own branch together with the instructor in charge of the course, and they created a self-reflection by taking these feedbacks into consideration. It is thought that the study would contribute to the literature due to this difference.

Theoretical Foundations and Literature Review

This section presents the theoretical framework on which the study is based. In this context, reflective practice, reflection, self-reflection and micro-teaching were briefly introduced.

Reflective Practice

Reflective practice is creating a habit or routine for examining experience (Amulya, 2004). When experience is connected with reflective practice, students' cognitive reasoning increases to higher levels than expected in traditional classroom pedagogy (Dellaportas et al., 2022). According to Finlay (2008), reflective practice, that is a part of the lifelong learning process, involves the individual practitioner having self-awareness and critically evaluating their own reactions to the practice process. Thus, the individual gains a new perspective and improves future practices (Finlay, 2008). This study was based on the conceptual framework of Schon' (1983) reflective practitioner model.

Schon (1983) has discussed reflective practice in two different ways: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Accordingly, novices focus mechanically on the practice during practice because of their limited knowledge, while experienced professionals can simultaneously engage in an intuitive reflection as they master the practice. Moreover, all practitioners, professional or novice, are expected to think on/after the practice (Schon, 1983). In this study, pre-service teachers were asked to make self-reflection not during micro-

teaching but after. For this reason, the research was conducted within the framework of Schon's (1983) reflection-on-action theoretical model.

Reflection and Self-Reflection

Reflection is an active process in which an individual looks intently into their own experience in order to explore it in depth (Amulya, 2004). Based on scientific inquiry, reflection is a meaning-making process that moves the learner from an experience to another, ensures the continuity of learning and takes place through interaction within a community (Rodgers, 2002). The three main stages of reflection are (1) returning to the experience, (2) remembering emotions and (3) reappraising the experience (Boud et al., 1985). Another concept related to reflection is self-reflection.

Reflection and self-reflection are related but different concepts (Brownhill, 2023). Self-reflection generally describes the process of looking back at an individual's past learning experiences and what they have done to enable learning to take place, and discovering the connections between their knowledge and their own ideas (Lew & Schmidt, 2011). Steinrücke et al. (2023) describes self-reflection as reflecting on individual's own experiences and actions. Self-reflection, which can mean different meanings for each professional group (Brownhill, 2023), corresponds to the concept of teacher-self reflection when it is considered for teachers. Teacher self-reflection is the teacher's awareness of own behaviors in a situation such as an educational situation, asking himself/herself questions about why he/she chose these behaviors and trying to find solutions that will create alternatives to the relevant situation (Christodoulou, 2010).

Reflective practice strategies, seen as a way of making sense of events, should be integrated into teacher training programs (Maguire, 2022). Because the process of reflection requires the teacher to face the complexity of the context, enables students to learn better, and a reflective teacher can guide students to reflect (Rodgers, 2002). In various studies in the field of education, tools such as portfolios (Farahian et al., 2021), e-portfolios (Slepcevic-Zach & Stock, 2018), collaborative videos (Kerkhoff, 2022) have been used for self-reflection. The pre-service teachers in our study practiced micro-teaching as a reflective practice and performed self-reflection on this practice.

Micro-teaching

Micro-teaching is a technique first developed at Stanford University in 1963 to gain preliminary experience, practice, explore the effects of teaching under controlled conditions and to be used as an in-service training tool for experienced teachers (Allen, 1967). It is a controlled laboratory environment that provides an opportunity to focus on specific teaching behaviors and practice teaching under controlled conditions (Allen & Eve, 1968). Micro-teaching contributes to the development of pre-service teachers pedagogical skills with the "teach, criticize and re-teach" model (Karakas & Yükselir, 2021). Various researchers have offered different suggestions for the implementation process of micro-teaching.

Kroeger et al. (2022) stated that the micro-teaching process consists of four stages: (1) planning, (2) implementation, (3) individual reflection, and (4) collaborative assessment. According to the researchers, micro-teaching is a limited implementation system that makes it possible to focus on specific teaching behaviors. Teacher candidate who prepares a lesson plan for the learning outcome, teaches his/her peers for 10-20 minutes. Subsequently, the student who watches the video recording engages in self-evaluation and the process is completed with the assessment of peers (Kroeger et al., 2022). Demirel (2017) summarized this process as (1) preparing a lesson plan suitable for the given task, (2) micro-teaching and video recording, (3) watching the lesson and assessment by students, listeners and the teacher, (4) making arrangements in the lesson plan according to the criticisms, (5) micro-teaching again, and (6) re-assessment of the improvements made based on the feedback (Demirel, 2017).

Nowadays, applications such as micro-teaching 2.0 constituted by using digital technologies are also implemented (Ledger & Fischetti, 2019). Micro-teaching is a practice that contributes to pre-service teachers becoming ready for the profession and becoming lifelong learners (Arslan, 2021) by establishing a theory-practice connection by following current developments and integrating them into the process (Maguire, 2022).

Purpose of the Study

This study aims to reveal pre-service teachers' self-reflections on micro-teaching practices. For this purpose, the study sought to answer the following research questions:

- What are the strengths of pre-service teachers according to their self-reflections about micro-teaching practices?
- What are the weaknesses that pre-service teachers consider themselves according to their self-reflections about microteaching practices?

Method

Model

This study, which aims to explore pre-service teachers' self-reflections about their own experiences on micro-teaching practices, was carried out with a qualitative approach using data collected with the Self-Reflection Form. Basic qualitative research design from qualitative research designs was used in the study. Qualitative research is concerned with the process of meaning construction, as well as how individuals derive understanding from their own lives and surroundings. The fundamental objective of a Basic qualitative research is to unveil and elucidate these significances (Merriam, & Tisdell, 2016). In this study, basic qualitative research design was preferred because PTs' self-reflections towards microteaching practices were aimed to be examined.

Sample and Population

The participants of the study consisted of 117 pre-service teachers who took the Micro Teaching (Elective) course at the faculty of education of a state university in Türkiye in the 2021-2022 academic year. The participants were pre-service teachers in the second, third, and fourth grades of the departments of mathematics teaching, science teaching, preschool teaching, classroom teaching, English language teaching, special education teaching, counseling and guidance, Turkish language teaching, and social sciences teaching. The participants of the study were selected by criterion sampling method, one of the purposive sampling methods. Criterion sampling involves the thorough examination and analysis of all instances that satisfy a predetermined criterion of significance (Patton, 2015, pp. 425). The criterion was determined as enrolling to Micro Teaching (Elective) course.

Data Collection Tools

The qualitative data of the study were obtained with the "Self-reflection Form" prepared by the researchers. This form consists of two open-ended questions about the strengths and weaknesses that pre-service teachers noticed during the micro-teaching process.

These questions:

-Identify the three strengths of your micro-teaching. Explain these strengths in relation to learning/teaching theories, approaches and methods.

-Identify three weaknesses/needs to be improved in your micro-teaching. Explain the reasons for these weaknesses and how they can be strengthened by relating them to learning/teaching theories, approaches and methods.

The students were asked to give three opinions because it was observed that the students gave short answers in the pilot study. During the development of the form, the opinions of two field experts were consulted and the appropriateness of the questions in terms of content and content was ensured.

Collection of Data and Analysis

The data collection process was carried out in accordance with the following stages;

- Selection of the attainment: Each pre-service teachers selected a course appropriate to their own field and a educational attainment from the curriculum of this course.
- Preparation of the lesson plan: The pre-service teachers prepared a lesson plan in accordance with the attainment and students' grade.
- Doing the lesson and taking the video of the practice: A classroom environment was created where pre-service teachers were able to apply and record their lesson plans. Peers were in this class as students. Video recording was made while the pre-service teachers was doing the micro-teaching practice.
- Sharing the video recording with academic members and peers: The video recording of the practice was shared with the academic members and peers for assessment.
- Assessment of the video content by peers using the "Peer Assessment Form": The faculty member developed a form for the assessment of the pre-service teachers by the peers and informed the peers about how to evaluate the pre-service teachers with the form. The Peer Assessment Form has evaluation items such lesson planning, time management, use of materials, tools, etc., enthusiasm, joy, energy and confidence, power to realize the target attainment, etc., and open-ended questions for the strengths, weaknesses and suggestions of the pre-service teachers.
- Written assessment of the video content by the faculty member: The opinions of the faculty member about the video recording were given to the pre-service

teachers in written form. These opinions include the strengths and weaknesses of the pre-service teachers regarding the planning, implementation and assessment of the course and the suggestions of the faculty member.

- Sharing the opinions, evaluations and suggestions of the faculty member and peers about the course with the pre-service teachers: The faculty member and peers shared their written opinions, evaluations and suggestions about the pre-service teachers' practice with the pre-service teachers.
- Self-reflection by the pre-service teachers: The pre-service teachers evaluated the micro-teaching practice in writing with the "Self-Reflection Form", taking into account the evaluations of the faculty member and peers.

The data were analyzed by content analysis method following the steps suggested by Schreier (2014, p.174). The contextual appropriateness of the self-reflection forms was checked during preparation of the data. As a result of this analysis, four forms were found to be inappropriate for the context of the research and were removed from the study. In accordance with the research questions, the strengths and weaknesses of pre-service teachers in micro-teaching practices formed the coding framework of the research. After the construction of the framework, the forms appropriate to the context were pre-examined and it was seen that the strengths and weaknesses were expressed for the planning, processing and assessment steps of the lesson. Therefore, planning, processing and assessment were determinate as categories. Then, the data were segmented according to the constructed framework and the pilot coding phase was conducted. At this stage, a researcher did the pilot coding of the data. When the pilot coding was completed, the researchers came together and carried out the main analysis phase of the data. At this stage, the codes obtained in the pilot coding were reviewed and a second coding was conducted. The codes with disagreement were discussed by the researchers and the codes were constructed by consensus. The main analysis was completed by combining the codes and constructing sub-themes. The findings are presented in tables according to the constructed frameworks.

Ethics Committee Approval

At all the stages of this study, a great care was taken not to violate the ethical rules and ethical rules were precisely followed. Ethical approval for the study was obtained because of the decision numbered 284521 and taken in the session numbered 16 on Sept. 19, 2023, by the Ethics Committee of Sakarya University.

Findings

The themes in Table 1 emerged in the categories of planning, processing and assessment within the framework on their strengths after the content analysis.

Table 1

Themes Emerging from Psts' Own Reflections on Their Strengths on MT

Category	Themes	Description
Planning	Integrity of the plan	Integrity of the lesson process from beginning to end / time management / planning of the activity
	Strategy/Method/Technical appropriateness	Choosing appropriate strategy/method/technique during planing
	Suitability of the material	Appropriateness of the prepared/used material for the teaching process and the student
Process	Lesson Management	Factors related to the lesson from the beginning of the teaching process (e.g. body language, active participation, reinforcement, mastery of the subject, concretization, etc.).
	Use of Materials	Proper and effective use of prepared materials
	Classroom Management	To be able to involve students effectively in the teaching process
Assessment	Achievement of outcome	Gaining the targeted attainment at the end of the teaching process
	Feedback	Using feedback during and after the teaching process

The themes in Table 2 emerged in the categories of planning, processing and assessment within the framework on their weaknesses after the content analysis:

Table 2

Themes Emerging from Psts' Own Reflections on Their Weaknesses on MT

Planning	Suitability of the material	Lack of utilization of instructional technologies, inappropriateness of the prepared materials to the course content and insufficient number of materials
	Integrity of the plan	Disconnected course integrity due to lack of connection between activities
	Strategy/Method/Technical appropriateness	The strategy methods or techniques used are not appropriate for the course content or that more appropriate strategy methods or techniques can be used
	Attention, attraction and motivation	Lack of attention or interest in the course content, difficulty in connecting with daily life, inability to motivate learning
Process	Lesson management	Problems related to the lesson from the beginning of the teaching process (e.g. body language, active participation, reinforcement, mastery of the subject, concretization, etc.).
	Classroom Management	Lack of effective student involvement in the teaching process

	Use of Materials	Lack of correct and effective use of the prepared materials
	Limitations of micro-teaching	Problems and lack of focus due to the nature of the micro-teaching process
Assessment	Achievement of outcome	Lack of gaining the targeted attainment at the end of the teaching process
	Feedback	Inadequate or no use of feedback during and after the teaching process

Planning

PSTs emphasized their weaknesses more than their strengths for planning category. The PSTs stated that their strengths were that they were able to manage the time correctly in preparing the lesson plans and that they were able to prepare lesson plans that included well-rounded activities and had integrity. PST 13 stated that "...the lesson plan is integrated..." PST 26 stated that "...the integrity of the topic is strong..." and PST47 stated that the lesson is in an "interconnected process".

More of the PSTs mentioned that they realized that they were not able to manage their time properly and activities and examples were not suitable for the grade level as their weaknesses. PST64 stated that "disconnections occurred during the role-play activity" due to the inaptitude of the plan. PSTs mentioned that time management is the most crucial point that they need to improve in the plan flow. PST15 stated that "I could have provided more time for each child to express their thoughts." and that their inability to manage the time prevented the students from revealing their thoughts more. PST27 stated that "I should have waited for a certain time for the students to take notes." and that the students could not take enough notes due to the inability to manage the time.

PSTs mentioned that the appropriateness of strategies, methods, and techniques, including interactive and various techniques together, were their strengths. PSTs used a variety of strategies, methods, techniques, and approaches. PSTs such as PST32, PST25, PST81 mentioned the discovery learning in their answers, but PST29 said "using many teaching strategies", PST40 mentioned 5E model, PST62 and PST30 mentioned drama, PST101 mentioned group discussions, PST53 mentioned the experiment method, and PST86 and PST108 mentioned preparing "...student-centered lesson...". PSTs emphasized that they need to improve themselves and they should use techniques that include discovery learning and involve students more in the process. PST19 emphasized that "I could have encouraged students to discover and research more", but PST46 emphasized that "they could have been enabled to discover the information in their own minds rather than by giving it".

PSTs expressed preparing appropriate materials was their strengths. However, opinions has shown that, the appropriateness of the material of the PSTs is evaluated as the appropriateness of the material to the student grade or the attainment. A few PSTs mentioned that they prepared materials appropriate to both elements. PST53 stated that the material was " appropriate for the attainment to be achieved" and PST28 emphasized that the material was "*entertaining for students*". Despite this, most of the PSTs mentioned that the quantity and quality of their materials were insufficient and they did not integrate ICT into their lessons.

PSTs express that one of the strengths of the planning process is that they provide attention, interest, and motivation by designing activities related to daily life. PST34 "*...students are not bored...*" PST37 "*...interesting...*" considered themselves successful in preparing activities. However, they stated that they could have made the introduction to the lesson and the beginning of the activity more interesting and felt inadequate in increasing the motivation of the students.

Process

PSTs emphasized their strengths more than their weaknesses for process. They most commonly stated that they had strengths and weaknesses in the process step. PSTs consider themselves strengths mostly in lesson management. PSTs stated that they ensured active participation, achieved strong communication/interaction, were able to attract interest and attention, and had an expression, diction, voice, and body language appropriate to the grades of the students. But still, the PSTs mentioned that they did not do complete lesson management as a whole. Although they expressed their strengths at this point, they said that they especially needed to improve their diction, voice, and oratory abilities. PST117 mentioned that he realized that "*it was difficult to gather the attention of the children on myself because my tone of voice was always on the same level...*" and PST17 stated that "*I had difficulty in using my tone of voice adequately in a crowded classroom*". PST76 "*...I think I should use my gestures and mimics more effectively, I realized that my facial expression was a bit serious on the video and I should smile a little more.*" and stated that he needed to improve himself in this context.

Many PSTs reported that they felt excited and nervous because there were many PSTs who were lecturing for the first time, and therefore they had difficulties in controlling the process. PST30 "*I was excited and could not manage the time well*", PST32 "*my pronunciation was distorted because of my excitement.*", PST69 "*I could not manage my*

excitement, and often wandered a lot in the classroom". Excitement affected PSTs differently. However, examining the effect generally, PSTs forgot to do their planned activities, and their oratory, emotion, and body control weakened due to the excitement.

A few PSTs stated that they had problems in the application process of the activities, they realized at the moment that they had inadequate preparation for the lesson, they were unable to control the board and notebooks, and they could not apply their methods and plans in the process as they had planned. The differentiating and remarkable factor in the process of lesson teaching is the codes received for the micro-teaching process. PSTs expressed the negativities caused by the characteristics of the micro-teaching process as the points to be improved. PST38 and PST30 stated that "*...in a real classroom environment...*" they would perform better. PST52 "*because I had my peers in front of me*" and PST117 expressed that "*acting as if there was a child in front of me without having*" affected them.

Assessment

Assessment was the least opinioned category by the PSTs. PSTs expressed that they ended the lesson by applying a lesson process of activities appropriate to the attainment and hence they achieved the learning outcome. PST46 "*the lesson plan being prepared based on the attainment*", PST69 "*teaching the attainment to students by using techniques appropriate to their grade level*", and PST96 considered "*the activity being appropriate to the attainment*" as teaching outcomes to students. Interestingly, the point they focus on in this process is the teaching process. A small number of the PSTs stated that they achieved the outcome via the assessment activities at the end of the process. Most of the pre-service teachers who stated that they achieved the outcome assumed the students to have achieved the outcome due to their successful completion of the teaching process.

PSTs expressed that they needed to improve themselves in this regard, and they focused on two circumstances while expressing that they could not achieve the learning outcome. The first one focused on assessment and assessment activities instead of the process. PST38 "*I could increase the assessment activities.*" and PST8 said, "*I could make an evaluative study.*" They consider inadequate or non-existent assessment as a failure to achieve the outcome. Another case is that, PSTs considered themselves inadequate in the process and stated that they could not achieve the outcome. PST62 "*I had difficulty in fully teaching the topic to the students because it was an intangible topic.*" and PST71 said that "*I could have had the students apply activities that would enable them to make measurements at*

their desks." and they considered they could not be achieved the outcome to the students sufficiently due to their weaknesses in the process.

Few of the PSTs focused on feedback. PSTs stated that they saw strengths in feedback by giving immediate feedback during the lesson, but they did not ask open-ended questions, did not summarize, and did not use reinforcements such as "well done" sufficiently.

Discussion and Results

This study aimed to examine the strengths and weaknesses of pre-service teachers from different branches studying at the faculty of education towards micro-teaching practices through self-reflection. Unlike previous studies in which PSTs did reflection during teaching (e.g. Kourieos, 2016), this study was based on Schon's (1983) reflection-on-action theoretical model. Studies indicate using more than one source for feedback on micro-teaching is effective (Erdemir & Yeşilçinar, 2021; Onwuagboke et al., 2017). Feedback from the faculty member, the peer, and own performing the micro-teaching could lead to a more effective reflection on the micro-teaching. The data were collected from the self-reflections of 117 pre-service teachers taking the micro-teaching optional course by watching their videos after reading the feedback of their peers and faculty members. PSTs' watching their own videos and their friends' videos helps them discover their strengths and weaknesses, contributing considerably to their future lessons (Ismail, 2011; Koross, 2016; Ogeyik, 2009; Saban & Çoklar, 2013).

Practices in micro-teaching courses in faculties of education enable pre-service teachers to make self-assessment and improve their teaching skills. This study differs from other studies (Dağ, & Temur, 2018; Farahian et al., 2021) by including the self-reflections of pre-service teachers of nine different branches studying in faculties of education. This qualitative study is based on three categories: planning, processing, and assessment, as in Maguire's (2022) research. The self-reflections of the pre-service teachers on micro-teaching practices, the findings regarding their strengths and weaknesses themselves were discussed under the categories of planning, process and assessment.

Micro-teaching process contributes to PSTs in terms of planning the lesson (Göçer, 2016; Karlström & Hamza, 2019; Koross, 2016). PSTs expressed that they realized their weaknesses in planning the lesson more than their strengths in the micro-teaching process. Although the inability to establish a connection between the activities in the theme of plan

flow was seen as a weakness by the PSTs, the strengths were the planning of the activity and time management. Koross (2016) similarly states that micro-teaching improves PSTs in time management. PSTs emphasized that the number of materials was low and was not appropriate for the content of the lesson. Besides PSTs who stated that they were able to determine appropriate strategies, methods, and techniques for the lesson, there were also PSTs who expressed that they could have chosen more appropriately. Micro-teaching requires to be planned according to the target group, learning outcomes, content, and assessment stages in the curriculum. In contrast, inexperienced PSTs focus on direct instructional content (Karlström & Hamza, 2019), which may be one of the reasons they consider themselves weaker in planning. Choosing activities in the planning of the micro-teaching process affects students' participation, understanding of the topic and the lesson flow (Karakaş & Yükselir, 2021).

PSTs' inability to choose their activities correctly and disconnect between the activities was one of the reasons for the problems in planning. PSTs, who regarded lesson management as their strengths most in the process, expressed that they provided active participation in the lesson, communicated well, drew attention and interest, used the materials correctly and effectively, and had an expression, diction, voice, and body language appropriate to the grade level of the students. Studies on micro-teaching practices show that PSTs improve their material development and use (Elias, 2018; Göçer, 2016; Ogeyik, 2009). Furthermore, the PSTs stated that they gained experience in classroom management through microteaching practices (Göçer, 2016; Ismail, 2011; Koross, 2016). According to Ogeyik (2009), through micro-teaching practices, PSTs can gain experience in dealing with undesirable behaviors and drawing the attention of careless students to the lesson. This study determined some problems in preparing materials and using them effectively in micro-teaching practices for a few PSTs. In Ogeyik's (2009) study, PSTs stated that they had problems in producing materials.

Assessment was the lowest opinion given by the PSTs. Basturk (2016) revealed that the PSTs had the most problems in the assessment and assesment field, used less alternative assessment and assesment tools, ignored students' misconceptions and difficulties, could not use instructional technologies effectively, and had problems in ending the lesson in micro-teaching practices. PT's have high belief levels in summative assessment and low belief levels in formative assessment (Şahin, & Karaman, 2013). Furthermore, PT's feel themselves weak in alternative assessment techniques (Evin Gencel, & Özbaşı, 2013). PTs may therefore not

have been able to use alternative assessment and evaluation methods in the process. PSTs expressed that they ended the lesson by applying a lesson process of activities appropriate to the learning outcome and hence they achieved the learning outcome. PT's measurement and evaluation knowledge is improving with the grade level but is still limited (Şahin, & Soylu, 2019). PTs may therefore have identified measurement and evaluation with the education and learning process. They might have thought that they achieved the attainment without measurement and evaluation because they considered the process successful. PSTs during and after the learning process have the idea that they do not give feedback or give insufficient feedback. As Elias (2018) expressed, micro-teaching practices can improve the assessment skills of PSTs in the teaching process.

Recommendations

This study revealed the self-reflections of the PSTs towards micro-teaching practices. PSTs stated that they had problems with the lesson flow caused by a lack of connection between the activities. In future research, it may be possible to analyze self-reflections on micro-teachings practiced with a planning to connect all the activities in the course with a script.

PTs focused more on their weaknesses in the planning theme of the research. Issues such as material development, time management, choosing the right Strategy/Method/Technical are factors that develop with teaching experience. For this reason, micro-teaching practices can be included more in teacher training programs.

PT's stated that they had difficulties with diction, voice, and body language. Although these topics are mentioned in the course contents in teacher training programs, PT's can be supported with a course within elective courses.

PTs expressed the least opinion in the measurement and evaluation theme. Moreover, they generally focused on the success of the teaching process instead of measurement and evaluation tools in this theme. For this reason, it should be underlined in teacher training programs that they should not ignore the measurement and evaluation process.

Ethics Committee Approval

At all the stages of this study, a great care was taken not to violate the ethical rules and ethical rules were precisely followed. Ethical approval for the study was obtained because of

the decision numbered 284521 and taken in the session numbered 16 on Sept. 19, 2023, by the Ethics Committee of Sakarya University.

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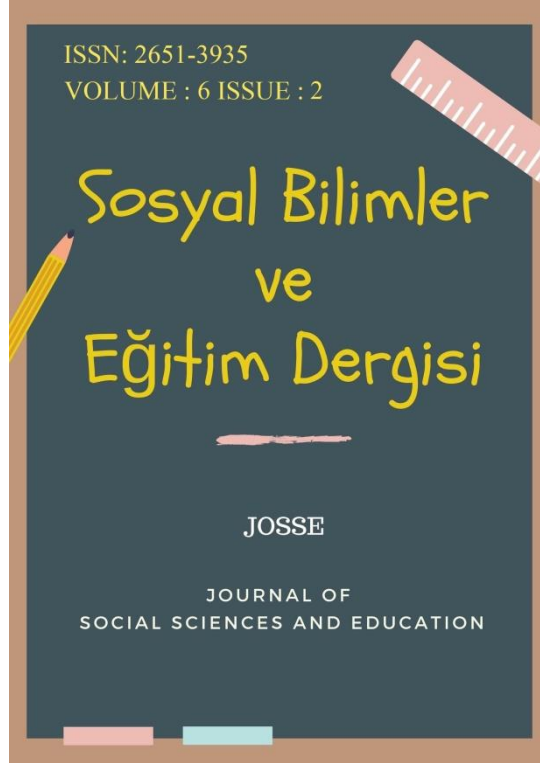
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Problem-Solving Strategies Employed by 8th Grade Students While Solving Multiple Choice Questions in the Republic of Turkey History of Revolution and Kemalism Course

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Problem-Solving Strategies Employed by 8th Grade Students While Solving Multiple Choice Questions in the Republic of Turkey History of Revolution and Kemalism Course

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Abstract

The objective of this study is to examine the problem-solving approaches employed by 8th-grade students when tackling multiple-choice questions in the Turkish Republic Revolution History and Kemalism Course. Additionally, the study aims to ascertain the impact of these strategies on students' rates of success and overall academic performance. The present investigation was organized in accordance with a qualitative research methodology. The comprehensive and multi-faceted nature of this approach was deemed preferable. The study group comprises a collective of six students, all of whom are enrolled in the 8th grade at a public school located in the city center of Kars. These students possess varying levels of academic achievement in the course of Turkish Republic Revolution History and Kemalism. The students in the study group were determined by the purposeful sampling method. The participants of the study were instructed to engage in verbalized thinking sessions while solving multiple-choice questions related to the Turkish Republic Revolution History and Kemalism. The data collected from video recordings of the students' question-solving activities were digitized and subjected to content analysis. The findings of the study revealed that students with higher academic performance, who also provided accurate responses to the questions, employed a wider range and greater quantity of cognitive-metacognitive strategies in comparison to students with lower academic performance. Furthermore, in this study, it has been observed that students' use of cognitive-metacognitive strategies is a significant factor in reaching the correct answers to multiple-choice questions.

Keywords: Metacognitive, cognitive, question-solving strategy, Turkish Republic Revolution History and Kemalism course

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Introduction

Individuals who are expected to grow up as an effective citizen have a number of basic skills. Some of these skills are directly related to thinking skills. One of the most important of these skills, which is indispensable for an effective citizen profile, is problem solving skill (Yılar & Karadağ, 2020). In other words, one of the most important goals of formal education is to equip students with the skills necessary to handle problems successfully throughout their lives. (Baki, Karataş, & Güven, 2002; Yılar, 2022). Different methods are employed to enhance students' problem-solving abilities. These approaches primarily seek to answer the question, "What are the sources of errors that students make in problem-solving processes and what are the necessary conditions for them to answer the question correctly?" (Karaçam, 2009). In order to find answers to such questions, studies are carried out to determine the situations that affect the problem-solving processes of students in different learning areas (Diken, 2014).

Polya (1957) defines problem-solving as going around an obstacle, achieving an impossible goal, or finding a way out of a difficulty. Researchers define the situation in which individuals encounter an unfamiliar question or difficulty as a problem and the process of overcoming this difficulty is problem-solving (Mayer, 1998; Newell & Simon, 1972; Ray, 1955; Dewey, 1910). Van Gog et al. (2005) state that when solving a problem, students use problem-related field knowledge, problem-solving process monitoring components, and problem-solving strategies. The process of problem-solving is a complex activity that must be addressed from a metacognitive as well as a cognitive point of view (Brown & Palincsar, 1982). Therefore, it is inevitable that studies should be conducted to distinguish and identify the strategies students use in their problem-solving processes as cognitive-metacognitive (Diken, 2020).

Individuals with high cognitive-metacognitive skills try to simplify, divide, and solve the complex problems they encounter and continue the problem-solving process in a more controlled way. These behaviors exhibited by individuals in the problem-solving process enable them to perform more successfully (Özsoy, 2007). There are studies (Diken, 2014) that describe individuals with these characteristics in the problem-solving process as experts, label those without these characteristics as novices, and identify differences between individuals categorized as novices and experts in problem-solving. Through the use of metacognition, people can actively engage in their own learning, control and regulate their learning, and be

aware of their own thought and decision-making processes. As a result, it aids in learning by delivering a better qualified performance and encourages more academic success. In addition, it provides the person responsibility and boosts their self-confidence so they can act quickly. (Topkaya, Şentürk ve Yılar, 2021).

The structure of cognitive-metacognitive strategies is intricately connected. Consequently, any strategy can be categorized as metacognitive-cognitive based on its intended purpose. A strategy is deemed cognitive when it is employed to execute mental processes within any aspect of the solution, while it is considered metacognitive when it is utilized to oversee, assess, and regulate the problem-solving process (Livingstone, 1997; Flavell, 1976, 1979). When examining the studies on metacognitive-cognitive strategies in the literature, examples of cognitive, metacognitive, and both cognitive-metacognitive strategies, as generally identified in the studies conducted by Diken (2020), Diken and Yürük (2019), Yurttaş (2016), Diken (2014), Kumlu (2012), and Karaçam (2009) are as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Cognitive Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, and the Combined Utilization of Both Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies are Employed by Students

Cognitive Strategies
Visualization
Reading while tracing the words with a pen
Reading starting from the root of the problem
Comparison
Comparing figures
Comparing descriptions in the text
Comparing the figures and descriptions in the text
Comparing figures in the text of the question with options
Comparing descriptions in the text of the question with options
Comparing options
Examination
Examining the Figures
Examining the Charts
Examining the Tables
Metacognitive Strategies
Re-reading
Repeating highlights
Slowing down reading speed
Increasing reading speed
Underlining clues
Encircling clues
Reading other options for verification
Marking
Marking a shape
Marking options
Marking a table
Marking descriptions in the text
Elimination
Elimination of figures in the text
Option Elimination
Review
Reviewing the Figure
Reviewing the Graph
Reviewing the Table
Reviewing the process
Backtracking
Both Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies
Reading with underlining words
Asking oneself questions
Note-taking
Expressing in one's own words
Reflecting on the problem in behavior
Trial and error
Drawing
Drawing Shapes

When the literature is analyzed, it becomes clear that there is not much research, particularly at the secondary education level, on the methods for answering multiple-choice questions in social studies and history courses. In this regard, it is considered that this study can make a significant contribution to the field. The objective of this research was to ascertain the strategies employed by 8th-grade students when responding to multiple-choice questions about the Turkish Republic Revolution History and Kemalism (TRRHK) course.

Additionally, the study aimed to examine the influence of these strategies on the students' rates of answering the question correctly and overall academic performance.

Method

Model

The study was conducted with a holistic multi-state design (Yin, 2003) from qualitative research methods. This research design was preferred because it aimed to consider several situations holistically in the study and then compare them with each other (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). In this study, the academic achievement level of 8th-grade students in the TRRHK course and the rate of correctly answering the questions are the situations in the study, and the patterns between these situations were determined and presented holistically.

Study Group

The study group is made up of six 8th graders who are enrolled in the TRRHK course at a public school in the heart of Kars and have varying academic success backgrounds. The students in the study group were determined by the purposeful sampling method. The reason for using the purposeful sampling method is to reach participants who can provide answers that are suitable for the research problems identified by the researcher (Erkuş, 2013). The selection of participants was contingent upon their grade point averages achieved during the fall semester of the 2021-2022 academic year in the course of TRRHK, alongside their expressed willingness to participate. To ensure utmost confidentiality, both the names of the educational institution and the students involved in the study were withheld. Consequently, the participating students were assigned unique codes, namely "S1-S2-S3-S4-S5-S6".

Table 2

The Type of School Where the Students Studied, the Turkish Republic Revolution History Course Grade Point Averages and Levels

School Type	Students	Course GPA	Level of GPA
Public School	S1	97	High
	S2	92	High
	S3	89	High
	S4	55	Low
	S5	43	Low
	S6	35	Low

Table 2 shows that S1, S2, and S3 had grade point averages of 97, 92, and 89 in the course on the Turkish Republic Revolution and Kemalism, respectively, indicating "high" grade point average levels. Of the other students, S4, S5, and S6 had grade point averages of 55, 43, and 35, respectively, in the TRRHK course and their grade point average levels were "low". While determining the grade point average levels of the students in the TRRHK course, the Ministry of National Education Secondary Education Institutions Regulation was taken into consideration (MEB, 2018).

Data Collection Tools

The data for the study were acquired via thinking-aloud sessions conducted with 8th-grade students, about multiple-choice questions concerning the TRRHK course. The thinking-aloud session is a methodology that elucidates the correlation between students' problem-solving proficiency and other influential factors in problem-solving (Van Someren, Barnard & Sandberg, 1994).

The multiple-choice questions to be used in these sessions were selected based on units with a high number of learning outcomes in the 8th-grade curriculum of the TRRHK course (MEB, 2018). The reason for this is that it has been determined that in the Transition to High School Exam (LGS), one of the important central exams in Turkey, there are more questions related to these units with a higher number of learning outcomes compared to other units. Furthermore, while selecting questions attention was paid to the questions in which it was anticipated that students may tend to use a greater number and variety of strategies in the process of solving them. Then, the preparation test books for the High School Transition Exams (LGS) were examined and the appropriate questions were selected for the determined units. During the application, questions that require the activation of various problem-solving strategies such as map analysis, table analysis, and figure analysis were selected to identify students' use of different problem-solving strategies. After the questions were determined, the opinions of a social studies teacher at the school where the study was conducted, a field expert faculty member who studies metacognitive-cognitive strategies, and a faculty member who studies in the field of social studies and history teaching were sought to determine whether there were any information errors or misconceptions in the questions. After receiving expert opinions, the questions were finalized to be used in the study.

Table 3

Distribution of the Questions Used in the Study by Units and the Number of Objectives of the Units MEB (2018)

Questions	Unit	Number of Objectives of Units	Contents
1	A hero is born	4	Table
2	National Awakening: Steps Taken Towards Independence	8	Map
3	A National Epic: Independence or Death!	7	Text
4	Kemalism and Modernizing Turkey	9	Figure

Data Collection and Analysis

During the data collection process, a literature review of cognitive-metacognitive strategy-related studies conducted in Turkey and abroad was conducted, and the list of cognitive-metacognitive strategies was utilized (See Table 1). The questions belonging to the 8th grade TRRHK course to be used in the study were determined by examining the High School Entrance Exam preparation books after taking the opinions of the field experts. Then, in line with the decisions of the Kafkas University Social Sciences and Humanities Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Board dated 07.12.2021 and numbered 25, the necessary ethical permissions were obtained, the necessary correspondence was made with the Kars Provincial Directorate of National Education, and the permissions were obtained from the parents of the students who will participate in the research with the parent consent form. During the spring semester of the school year 2021–2022, the study was conducted.

Before answering multiple-choice questions, students were briefed about the thinking-aloud session. The students were instructed to articulate their thoughts, actions, and problem-solving approaches audibly during the process of answering questions. In order to reduce the excitement of the students due to the use of cameras in the process of solving questions and to ensure that they adapt well to the process, a two-question pilot study was administered to the students before the actual implementation. During and after the pilot study, necessary feedback was given to the students to make the data collection process more efficient. Following the pilot study, the implementation process was begun, and the researcher videotaped the steps taken by the students as they resolved their questions. In the process of solving the questions, it was observed that the students were sometimes silent for a long time. In this case, the students were warned by the researcher to express what they thought aloud.

The participants individually solved the multiple-choice questions during the days designated for history lessons, and the process of data collection was concluded within two weeks.

During the data analysis process, the metacognitive, cognitive, and both metacognitive-cognitive strategies identified by Diken (2020), Diken and Yürük (2019), Yurttaş (2016), Diken (2014), Kumlu (2012), and Karaçam (2009) in their studies were used to determine which strategies students employed while solving the questions. The video recordings of students' question-solving processes were examined, transcribed into written form, and computerized. Thus, the raw data were obtained. The coding of the obtained data was made through content analysis. A discussion was held with a field expert faculty member in the field to verify the accuracy of the data in the encodings. The consistency and reliability of the codes were discussed with this faculty member to determine whether the strategies reached from the obtained data were metacognitive or cognitive. While coding studies were carried out, separate codes were made by the researcher and the field expert faculty member, and the resulting coding was compared. While these encodings were carried out, the reliability formula provided by Miles & Huberman (1994) (Reliability = agreement/agreement + disagreement) (cited in Yanpar-Yelken, 2009) was used. As a result of the comparisons, the coders came to a common decision by discussing the codes that were inconsistent with each other. As a result of the joint decision reached on the encodings, encoder reliability was calculated and the consistency between the encoders was found to be 96%. In qualitative research, when researcher and expert evaluations are conducted, their agreement should reach a reliability level of 70% or higher (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). The fact that the reliability value obtained from the calculation made between the researcher and the field expert in this study is above the specified value is an indication that this study is consistent.

Ethics Committee Approval

In line with the decisions of the Kafkas University Social Sciences and Humanities Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Board dated 07.12.2021 and numbered 25, the necessary ethical permissions were obtained, the necessary correspondence was made with the Kars Provincial Directorate of National Education, and the permissions were obtained from the parents of the students who will participate in the research with the parent consent form.

Findings

In this section of the study, the distribution of metacognitive-cognitive strategies used by 8th-grade students participating in the research while solving questions related to the TRRHK course is presented in tables based on their grade point averages and whether they answered the questions correctly or incorrectly. The metacognitive-cognitive strategies listed in the tables were coded separately, and it is also seen that some strategies can be coded as both metacognitive and cognitive strategies (see Table 1).

Table 4

Cognitive Strategies Employed by Students While Answering the First Question

Students Answer Course Grade Point Average	S1 Correct High	S2 Correct High	S3 Correct High	S4 Wrong Low	S5 Wrong Low	S6 Wrong Low
General Cognitive Strategies						
Reading while tracking the words with a pen				+	+	
Reading with underlining words	+	+	+			
Reading starting from the root of the question	+	+	+			
Visualization	+	+	+			
Expressing in one's own words	+	+	+			
Comparing Strategies						
Comparing descriptions in the text of the question with options	+	+	+			
Review Strategies						
Examining the Tables	+	+	+	+	+	+

As can be seen in Table 4, it was determined that S1, S2, and S3, who answered the question correctly, used the cognitive strategies of "reading by underlining the words, reading starting from the root of the question, visualization, expressing in one's own words, comparing the explanations in the text of the question with the options, and examining the table" while solving the question.

In the first question, S4, S5, and S6, whose course grade point average level was low, answered incorrectly. It was determined that S4 and S5 of these students used the cognitive strategies of "reading by following the words with a pen and examining the table" while solving the question, while S6 used only the cognitive strategy of "examining the table" when solving the question.

Table 5*Metacognitive Strategies Employed by Students While Answering the First Question*

Students Answer Course Grade Point Average	S1 Correct High	S2 Correct High	S3 Correct High	S4 Wrong Low	S5 Wrong Low	S6 Wrong Low
General Metacognitive Strategies						
Reading with underlining words	+	+	+	+		
Underlining clues	+	+	+			
Encircling clues	+	+	+			
Checking the correctness of the selected option	+	+	+			
Re-reading	+	+	+	+		
Marking Strategies						
Marking a table	+	+	+			
Marking descriptions in the text	+	+	+			
Marking options	+	+	+			
Re-Examination Strategies						
Reviewing the Table	+	+	+	+	+	
Elimination Strategies						
Option Elimination	+	+	+			

Table 5 reveals that participants S1, S2, and S3 employed metacognitive strategies to successfully answer the question. These strategies “underling words, underlining clues, identifying clues, encircling relevant information, verifying the accuracy of their selected option, re-reading the text, marking the table, highlighting explanations in the question text, marking the available options, reviewing the table, and eliminating incorrect options”.

Participant S4, who had a low course grade point average, provided an incorrect response to the question. Upon analysis, it was found that this student employed metacognitive strategies such as “underlining the words, re-reading, and re-examining the table while attempting to solve the question”. Similarly, participant S5, who also answered the question incorrectly, solely utilized the metacognitive strategy of “re-examining the table” during the problem-solving process. In contrast, participant S6, who also provided an incorrect response, abandoned the task and thus did not employ any metacognitive strategy while attempting to solve the initial question.

Table 6*Cognitive Strategies Employed by Students While Answering the Second Question*

Students Answer Course Grade Point Average	S1 Correct High	S2 Correct High	S3 Correct High	S4 Wrong Low	S5 Wrong Low	S6 Wrong Low
General Cognitive Strategies						
Visualization	+	+	+	+		
Reading while tracking the words with a pen					+	
Reading starting from the root of the question	+	+	+			
Reading with underlining words	+		+			
Expressing in one's own words	+	+	+			
Thinking about the question	+	+	+	+		
Map Interpretation	+	+	+			
Comparing Strategies						
Comparing the map in the text of the question with options	+	+	+			
Comparing the map with descriptions in the text of the question	+	+	+			
Review Strategies						
Map review	+	+	+	+	+	+

According to the data presented in Table 6, individuals denoted as S1, S2, and S3, who exhibited a commendable academic performance in terms of their course grade point average, and also provided accurate responses to the question, employed the cognitive strategies of "visualization, reading starting from the root of the question, expressing in one's own words, thinking about the question, map interpretation, comparing the map in the text of the question with the options, comparing the map with the explanations in the text of the question, and the map review" while solving the question. In addition, it was also determined that S1 and S3, whose used the cognitive strategies of "reading with underlining words" while solving the question.

It was determined that S4, S5, and S6, whose course grade point average level was low and answered the second question incorrectly, used the "map examination" cognitive strategy when solving the question. In addition, it was determined that S4 used the cognitive strategies of "visualization and thinking about the question", while S5 used the cognitive strategy of "reading by following the words with a pen" while solving the question.

Table 7

Metacognitive Strategies Employed by Students While Answering the Second Question

Students Answer Course Grade Point Average	S1 Correct High	S2 Correct High	S3 Correct High	S4 Wrong Low	S5 Wrong Low	S6 Wrong Low
General Metacognitive Strategies						
Re-reading	+	+	+	+	+	
Reading with underlining words	+	+	+			
Double-checking the options	+	+	+			
Checking the correctness of the selected option	+	+	+			
Repeating clues	+	+	+	+		
Underlining clues	+	+	+			
Encircling clues	+	+	+			
Taking notes on the map	+	+	+			
Re-Examination Strategies						
Re-examining the map	+	+	+	+	+	
Marking Strategies						
Marking the map	+	+	+			
Marking descriptions in the text	+	+	+			
Marking options	+	+	+			
Elimination Strategies						
Option Elimination	+	+	+			

As can be seen in Table 7, S1, S2, and S3, whose course grade point average level was high and answered the question correctly, used the metacognitive strategies of "re-read, reading with underlining words, checking the options again, checking the accuracy of the options marked, repeating the clues, underlining the clues, encircling the clues, taking notes on the map, re-examining the map, marking the map, marking the explanations in the text of the question, marking the options and eliminating the options" while solving the question.

It was determined that S4, who answered the question incorrectly, used the metacognitive strategies of "re-reading, repeating the clues, and re-examining the map" while solving the question. It was determined that S5, who answered the question incorrectly, used the metacognitive strategy of "re-reading and re-examining the map" while solving the question. It was determined that S6, who answered the question incorrectly, gave up solving the question and therefore did not use any metacognitive strategy.

Table 8

Cognitive Strategies Employed by Students While Answering the Third Question

Students	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6
Answer	Correct	Correct	Correct	Wrong	Wrong	Wrong
Course Grade Point Average	High	High	High	Low	Low	Low
General Cognitive Strategies						
Reading while tracking the words with a pen				+	+	+
Reading starting from the root of the question	+	+	+			
Reading with underlining words	+		+			
Thinking about the question				+		
Comparing Strategies						
Comparing descriptions in the text of the question with options	+	+	+			
Review Strategies						
Examining the Figures	+	+	+			

As can be seen in Table 8, it was determined that S1, S2, and S3, who answered the question correctly, used the cognitive strategies of "reading starting from the root of the question, comparing the explanations in the text of the question with the options and examining the figures" while solving the question. In addition, S1 and S3 also used the cognitive strategy of "reading by underlining words" when solving the question.

It was determined that S4, used the cognitive strategies of "Reading while tracking the words with a pen and thinking about the question" while solving the question. It was determined that S5 and S6, whose course grade point average level was low and answered the question incorrectly, used only the cognitive strategy of "Reading while tracking the words with a pen" while solving the question.

Table 9

Metacognitive Strategies Employed by Students While Answering the Third Question

Students	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6
Answer	Correct	Correct	Correct	Wrong	Wrong	Wrong
Course Grade Point Average	High	High	High	Low	Low	Low
General Metacognitive Strategies						
Re-reading	+	+	+	+		
Reading with underlining words	+		+			
Double-checking the options	+	+	+			
Checking the correctness of the selected option	+	+	+			
Underlining clues	+	+	+			
Encircling clues	+	+	+			
Re-Examination Strategies						
Re-examining the options	+	+	+	+	+	
Marking Strategies						
Marking options	+	+	+			
Elimination Strategies						
Option Elimination	+	+	+			

As can be seen in Table 9, it was determined that S1, S2, and S3, who answered the question correctly, used the metacognitive strategies of "re-reading, re-checking the options, checking the correctness of the option they marked, underlining the clues, encircling the clues, re-examining the options, marking the options, and eliminating the options" while solving the question. In addition, S1 and S3 also used the cognitive strategy of "reading by underlining words" when solving the question.

It was determined that S4 used the metacognitive strategy of "re-reading and re-examining the options" while solving the question. It was determined that S5 only used the metacognitive strategy of "re-examining the options", while S6 gave up solving the third question and therefore did not use any metacognitive strategy.

Table 10

Cognitive Strategies Employed by Students While Answering the Fourth Question

Students Answer Course Grade Point Average	S1 Correct High	S2 Correct High	S3 Correct High	S4 Wrong Low	S5 Wrong Low	S6 Wrong Low
General Cognitive Strategies						
Visualization	+	+	+			
Reading with underlining words	+		+			
Reading while tracking the words with a pen				+	+	
Reading starting from the root of the question	+	+	+			
Comparing Strategies						
Comparing the figures and descriptions in the text of the question	+	+	+			
Comparing the figures in the text of the question with options	+	+	+			
Review Strategies						
Examining the Figures	+	+	+	+	+	+

As can be seen in Table 10, it was determined that S1, S2, and S3 who answered the question correctly, used the cognitive strategies of "visualization, reading starting from the root of the question, comparing the explanations in the text of the question with the figure, comparing the figures in the text of the question with options and examining the figure" while solving the question. In addition, S1 and S3 also used the cognitive strategy of "reading by underlining words" when solving the question.

The cognitive strategies employed by S4 and S5 during the question-solving task were identified as "reading while tracking the words with a pen and examining the figure." Conversely, S6, whose academic performance was characterized by a low course grade point average, solely relied on the cognitive strategy of "examining the figure" while attempting to solve the question.

Table 11

Metacognitive Strategies Employed by Students While Answering the Fourth Question

Students	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6
Answer	Correct	Correct	Correct	Wrong	Wrong	Wrong
Course Grade Point Average	High	High	High	Low	Low	Low
General Metacognitive Strategies						
Underlining clues	+	+	+			
Encircling clues	+	+	+			
Checking the correctness of the selected option	+	+	+			
Re-reading	+	+	+	+		
Marking Strategies						
Marking a shape	+	+	+			
Marking descriptions in the text	+	+	+			
Marking options	+	+	+			
Re-Examination Strategies						
Reviewing the Figure	+	+	+	+	+	
Elimination Strategies						
Option Elimination	+	+	+			

As can be seen in Table 11, it was determined that S1, S2, and S3, who answered the question correctly, used the metacognitive strategies of "underlining the clues, encircling clues, checking the correctness of the option they marked, re-reading, marking the figure, marking the explanations in the text, marking the options, re-examining the figure and option elimination" while solving the question.

It was determined that S4, who answered the question incorrectly, used the metacognitive strategy of "re-reading and re-examining the figure" while solving the question. It was determined that S5, whose course grade point average level was low and answered the question incorrectly, only used the metacognitive strategy of "re-examining the figure" while solving the question. It was observed that S6, whose course grade point average level was low and answered the question incorrectly, did not use any metacognitive strategy while solving the question.

Discussion and Results

Individuals living in a complex social structure encounter several different problems brought about by complexity. If the problem is not solved by itself, they try to find a solution and develop some strategies within this path. However, for these strategies to be developed, individuals need to have some problem-solving skills. One of the most important stages of the problem-solving skills that will be gained by individuals in this process to solve the problem is included in the education process. For this reason, one of the main objectives of educational institutions is to provide students with problem solving skills. Thus, students will be able to solve the problems they encounter in daily life more easily and become thinking and questioning individuals (Yılar & Tağrikulu, 2019). Because an individual's problem-solving skills regarding the issues they encounter and the subsequent development of these skills are among the significant topics emphasized in social sciences (Çimşir, Baysal, 2019). This study aimed to investigate the strategies employed by 8th-grade students when answering multiple-choice questions in the TRRHK course. Four distinct question types were designed to elicit responses from the participants, and the results obtained were analyzed to determine the impact of different strategies on the students' academic achievement levels and correct answer rates.

In this study, it was found that students with high course grade point average levels who correctly answered questions also used more and different cognitive and metacognitive strategies than students with low course grade point average levels who answered incorrectly. In the study conducted by Serin & Korkmaz (2018), they aimed to determine the level of metacognitive skills used by 4th-grade primary school students during mathematical problem-solving activities through their behaviors and expressions in understanding and predicting the problems. When looking at the results of their study, it is observed that students who are more successful in problem-solving processes tend to employ metacognitive behaviors more than other students. These results are in line with the results of our study. Additionally, when looking at the strategies identified in the studies conducted by Diken & Yürük (2019), Tutar, Demir & Diken (2020) and Diken (2020), they came to the conclusion that students who provided accurate responses to the questions employed a greater variety of cognitive and metacognitive strategies than those who provided inaccurate responses. These results support the results of our study. There are studies in the literature that indicate students with high academic achievement use a greater number and variety of metacognitive-cognitive strategies

while problem-solving, whereas students with low academic achievement use fewer metacognitive-cognitive strategies (Gick, 1986; Clement, 1991). In these studies, researchers have addressed expert-novice differences in problem-solving. In Gick's (1986) study, it is expressed that experts' possession of schemas empowers them to use various strategies successfully, while novices rarely or inadequately use the same strategies. Clement (1991) noted that experts are more flexible in reaching the solution, but novices rarely reach the solution or do not solve the question at all. In our study, it was found that students with higher grade point averages used a greater variety and number of metacognitive-cognitive strategies, while students with lower grade point averages used fewer metacognitive-cognitive strategies, and some of them even abandoned attempting to solve certain questions without using any strategy. These results are consistent with the findings of previous studies mentioned above.

According to these results obtained from the study, it was determined that the student's use of a large number and variety of metacognitive and cognitive strategies is a very important tool in reaching the correct answers to questions. Furthermore, it is also considered that students' subject knowledge related to the course has an impact on their ability to answer questions correctly. In other words, it is a very important finding highlighted in this study that a student with subject knowledge and strategy knowledge can have a higher probability of reaching the correct answer to a multiple-choice question depending on the nature of the question (whether it contains a figure, explanation, map, etc.) by using the appropriate and correct strategy. Tuminaro and Redish (2007) stated that experts have too much subject knowledge regarding the problem, while novices have little or no subject knowledge about the problem. The study results of Tuminaro and Redish (2007) support the results reached from the findings of our study. Some of the metacognitive and cognitive strategies identified in this study can also be found in the existing literature. In addition to the metacognitive-cognitive strategies identified in the literature (see Table 1), this study identified some additional cognitive strategies such as "map interpretation, map examination, comparing the map in the text of the question with the options, and comparing the explanations in the text of the question with the map" and metacognitive strategies such as "taking notes on the map, re-examining the map, and marking the map," which could contribute to the relevant literature.

Recommendations

Social studies and history teachers can be trained in metacognitive-cognitive strategies through vocational training seminars. Furthermore, it may be beneficial to provide students at all levels of education with training on what metacognitive and cognitive strategies are and how using these strategies can be effective in achieving correct answers when solving questions in exams. Textbooks published abroad include reading and writing strategies for students (Turan, 2022). Similarly, question-solving strategies can be included in textbooks to help students acquire cognitive and metacognitive question-solving skills. This study was carried out in a sample of 8th-grade students who will take the High School Transition Exam. In the following period, different studies can be carried out by taking sample groups to solve the questions in all central exams held in Turkey.

Ethics Committee Approval

In line with the decisions of the Kafkas University Social Sciences and Humanities Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Board dated 07.12.2021 and numbered 25, the necessary ethical permissions were obtained, the necessary correspondence was made with the Kars Provincial Directorate of National Education, and the permissions were obtained from the parents of the students who will participate in the research with the parent consent form.

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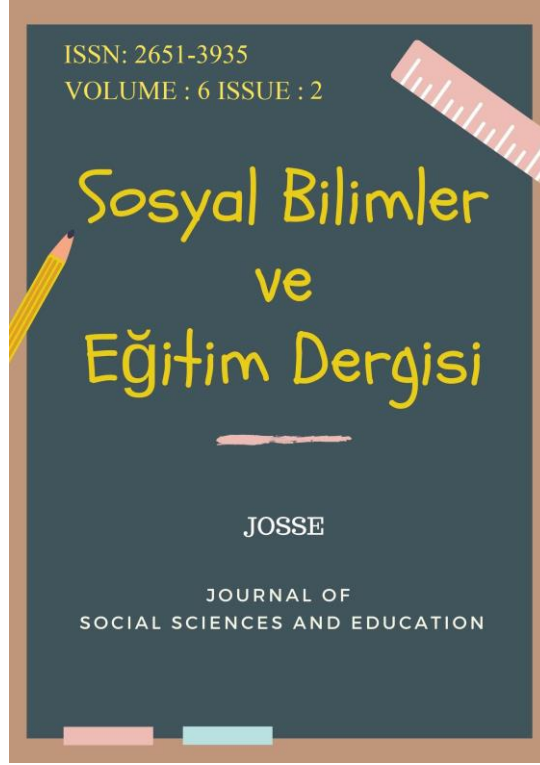
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Investigation of the Teachers' Curriculum Adaptation Patterns

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Investigation of the Teachers' Curriculum Adaptation Patterns

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Abstract

Teachers, due to various reasons, make changes and adjustments to the official curriculum while implementing their teaching programs, which is referred to as curriculum adaptation. This study aimed to examine teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns. The study was conducted using a quantitative research approach through the survey method. The study group consisted of 473 teachers determined through a convenience sampling method. Data were collected using the Curriculum Adaptation Patterns Scale. Data analysis included percentages, frequencies, means, independent t-tests, one-way analysis of variance, Kruskal-Wallis, and Post-Hoc analyses. According to the findings of the research, teachers' curriculum adaptation levels were a moderate level. For the total mean score, there were no significant differences based on gender, in-service training, level of education, and the socio-economic level of the region where the school is located variables. However, there were significant differences based on the year of work experience for those with 8-15 years of experience, the type of school where they work (primary and secondary schools), the place of employment (working in districts), the faculty of graduation (education and other faculties), and the weekly teaching hours variable for those with 0-15 hours and 26 hours and more. Significant differences were determined in favor of those who received 86-100 according to the KPSS educational sciences score of the teachers, and 86-100 according to the KPSS field exam, and those who were assigned before the field exam.

Keywords: Curriculum adaptation, curriculum, teacher, curriculum information

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Introduction

Education is a system. This system consists of input, process, and output components. In order for the system to function systematically, effectively, successfully, and under control, there is a need educational and teaching programs. These programs serve as guiding principles for teachers, students, and other stakeholders within the education system.

Curriculum is defined as the process and content by which a school is responsible for and controls the students' acquisition of knowledge, values, skills, and attitudes (Doll, 1986). Curriculums, encompass all educational activities related to students while instructional programs specifically cover educational activities related to a particular subject. In this sense, curriculum has a broader scope compared to instructional programs.

In Türkiye, curriculums are prepared by the Republic of Türkiye Ministry of National Education. Due to variations in teachers' conditions, the official programs developed by the Board can differ in implementation. Consequently, teachers can make adaptations such as extending revising, and omitting within the official curriculum (Bümen and Yazıcılar, 2020). The concept of curriculum adaptation has gained prominence, particularly in recent years, due to reasons such as the central role of teachers in curriculum development, school-based curriculum development, and reflective practices (Eryaman and Riedler, 2010).

Curriculum adaptation refers to the significant modifications made by teachers to the previously established official curriculum, encompassing its structure, content, activities, methods, and techniques (Drake and Sherin, 2006; Sherin and Drake, 2009). Adaptation involves interventions by teachers aimed at improving the learning process by addressing certain negative or deficient aspects of the curriculum through actions like skipping, omitting, or adding elements (Çeliker Ercan, 2019). Curriculum adaptation can be described as the process where teachers, in their role as implementers of the curriculum, make adjustments while considering factors such as the school, students, subject, and their own experiences and expertise.

The process of adaptation occurs in three stages: before instruction, during instruction, and after instruction. Adaptations made before instruction involve adjustments to lesson plans, activities, methods, techniques, materials, etc., considering the characteristics of the student group and the school, all for the purpose of preparing for the class. Adaptations made during instruction refer to the modifications teachers make during the class, going beyond their original lesson plans based on the reactions of the students and the learning process.

Adaptations made after instruction involve evaluation based on the data collected at the end of a lesson, unit, or period. These adaptations serve as preparation for the next class, unit, or period (Yazıcılar, 2016).

Teachers make adaptations in curriculum for various reasons. Teachers' thoughts, beliefs, and attitudes towards the curriculum significantly impact their adaptation to the program (Li and Harfitt, 2017; Parson et al., 2018). Similarly, students' interests, needs, and differences also influence teachers' adaptations to the curriculum (Akbulut Taş, 2022; Li and Harfitt, 2017; Yazıcılar and Bümen, 2019). Teachers' professional competence can also lead to positive or negative changes in curriculum adaptations (İlhan, 2022). Another influential factor in curriculum adaptation is the school context and educational policies (Burkhauser and Lesaux, 2017; İlhan, 2022; Bümen and Yazıcılar, 2020). Furthermore, factors such as lack of equal opportunities, parental expectations, socio-economic characteristics, and academic exams can also prompt teachers to make adaptations to instructional programs.

In the international literature, Li and Harfitt (2017 and 2018) have conducted a greater number of studies on teachers' forms of curriculum adaptation. Li and Harfitt suggested that curriculum adaptation can take the forms of modifying plans, reorganizing or restructuring, omitting, adding, and creating. Modifying plans refers to altering the timing of instruction from the originally planned schedule. Reorganizing or restructuring involves teachers making changes to content, activities, and materials. Omitting entails skipping certain content in the curriculum. Adding refers to teachers introducing additional materials to facilitate learning. Creating involves teachers generating tasks or assignments that differ from the official curriculum. In the national literature, Bümen and Yazıcılar (2020) expressed patterns of adaptation as omitting, extending, and replacing with something new. Omitting refers to skipping a planned part of a lesson. Extending involves teachers introducing additional materials, creating different activities, adding learning outcomes that are not present in the official curriculum, and subsequently adding content. Replacing with something new entails teachers making changes in terms of duration, sequence, activities, and materials related to the topics.

The lack of active involvement of teachers in the development or revision processes of curricula can lead to certain changes and adjustments when written programs are put into practice (Bümen, 2019). Examining teachers' patterns of curriculum adaptation is essential. This is because while some adaptations can be appropriate and successful, others might be detrimental and disruptive (Troyer, 2019). There is a limited number of studies in the

literature examining teachers' curriculum adaptations. According to demographic variables, there are studies conducted with mathematics curriculum (Yazıcılar, 2016) and secondary school teachers (İlhan, 2020). In this study, it has been tried to contribute to the literature by including many demographic variables that can affect the adaptation processes of teachers from all school types and branches. In this context, the study aims to investigate the level of teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns and whether they exhibit significant differences based on certain demographic variables. Accordingly, the study seeks to address the following questions.

Problem Statement

What is the level of teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns, and do teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns exhibit significant differences based on certain demographic variables?

Sub-problems

1. What are the levels of teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns?
2. Do teachers' curriculum adaptation levels exhibit significant differences based on gender?
3. Do teachers' curriculum adaptation levels exhibit significant differences based on year of seniority?
4. Do teachers' curriculum adaptation levels exhibit significant differences based on the faculty from which they graduated?
5. Do teachers' curriculum adaptation levels exhibit significant differences based on the type of school where they work?
6. Do teachers' curriculum adaptation levels exhibit significant differences based on their place of work?
7. Do teachers' curriculum adaptation levels exhibit significant differences based on their participation in in-service training?
8. Do teachers' curriculum adaptation levels exhibit significant differences based on their weekly teaching hours?
9. Do teachers' curriculum adaptation levels exhibit significant differences based on their education level?

10. Do teachers' curriculum adaptation levels exhibit significant differences based on the type of school where they work?
11. Do teachers' curriculum adaptation levels exhibit significant differences based on their KPSS education science scores?
12. Do teachers' curriculum adaptation levels exhibit significant differences based on their KPSS subject exam scores?

Method

Model

In this study, a survey method has been utilized to determine the level of teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns and to examine them based on certain variables. The survey method involves numerically describing the opinions, thoughts, tendencies, attitudes, and concerns of a sample group selected from the population on a particular subject (Creswell, 2017). With the measurement tool determined within the scope of the study, the data were obtained online from volunteer participants.

Sample and Population

The study group of the research consists of 473 teachers who were selected through convenience sampling and voluntarily participated in the study. The convenience sampling technique, particularly used in human assistance research, is chosen due to its practicality, ease of access by the researcher, and economic advantages (Monette, Sullivan, & Dejong, 1990). Demographic characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Data of the Participants

Variable	Group	f	%
Gender	Female	367	77.6
	Male	106	22.4
Year of Work Experience	0-7 years	66	14.0
	8-15 years	232	49.0
	16-25 years	145	30.7
	26 and more	30	6.3
The worked school type	Primary School	219	46.3
	Secondary School	148	31.3

Socio-economic level of the region where the school is located	High School	106	22.4
	Low	100	21.1
	Moderate	351	74.2
	High	22	4.7
Education Level	Graduate	371	78.4
	Post-graduate	102	21.6
Place of employment	Village-town	88	18.6
	Center of District	189	40.0
	Center of Province	196	41.4
In-service training related to the curriculum	Yes	331	70.0
	No	142	30.0
Faculty of Graduation	Education	368	77.8
	Faculty of Science and Literature	71	15.0
	Other	34	7.2
Weekly working hours	0-15 hours	71	15.0
	16-25 hours	143	30.2
	26 and above	259	54.8
KPSS education science test scores	0-75 point	72	15.2
	76-85 point	264	55.8
	86-100 point	90	19.0
	I was appointed before the KPSS.	47	9.9
KPSS field exam test scores	0-75 point	55	11.6
	76-85 point	141	29.8
	86-100 point	55	11.6
	I was appointed before the subject exam.	222	46.9

Data Collection Tool

In the research, data were collected using the Curriculum Adaptation Patterns Scale developed by Yazıcılar Nalbantoğlu, Bümen, and Uslu (2021). The scale is a 5-point Likert scale consisting of 20 items, 3 factors. The factors of the scale are “extending,” “omitting,” and “replacing or revising.” The items ranged between 1 to 5 as never, rarely, occasionally, frequently, and always. The reliability coefficients for the omitting, extending, and replacing or revising factors of the scale were 0.87, 0.72, and 0.85, respectively. For the sample in the study, the reliability coefficients for these factors were found as 0.83, 0.81, and 0.86, respectively. The overall reliability coefficient for the scale was 0.87. Based on these values, it can be concluded that the scale is sufficiently reliable.

Data Analysis

Initially, the normal distribution of the data was checked. Both the skewness and kurtosis values for both the demographic variables and the total mean score of the scale were found to be between -2 and +2. According to George and Mallery (2010), skewness and kurtosis values between -2 and +2 are sufficient for data to exhibit normal distribution. The kurtosis value for the total mean score of the scale was 1.817, and the skewness value was

0.486. Since the data exhibited normal distribution, independent t-test analyses were conducted for the variables of gender, level of education, and participation in in-service training. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for the variables of year of work experience, type of school, place of employment, faculty of graduation, weekly teaching hours, KPSS education science test score, and field knowledge test score. Since the number of participants in the group with a high socio-economic level of the region where the school is located was below 30, a non-parametric test, specifically the Kruskal-Wallis test, was conducted. For teachers' curriculum adaptation pattern levels, percentage, frequency, and mean analyses were conducted. As the scale items are scored between 1 and 5, averages of 1.00 to 2.32 were categorized as low, 2.33 to 3.65 as moderate, and 3.66 to 5.00 as high levels. For the entire scale, scores ranging from 20 to 100 were categorized as low (20-46), moderate (47-73), and high (74-100). For the omitting and extending factors low levels were categorized between 7 and 16, moderate levels between 17 and 26, and high levels between 27 and 35. For the replacing or revising factor, low levels were categorized between 6 and 13, moderate levels between 14 and 22, and high levels between 23 and 30.

Ethics Committee Approval

For this study was received ethics decision by Hatay Mustafa Kemal University Social And Humanities Scientific Research And Publication Ethics Committee. (Date:14.07.2023 Decision:12).

Findings

The averages of the teachers were checked to determine the sub-dimensions of the scale and their levels in the whole scale, and the results are given in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Values Obtained from the Scale

Subdimension	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	S. Deviation	Level
Omitting	473	7	35	13.63	5.59	Low
Extending	473	7	35	29.01	4.53	High
Replacing	473	6	30	16.38	4.85	Middle
Total	473	20	100	59.02	11.31	Middle

According to Table 2, the teachers’ levels in the omitting factor was at low level with a mean score of 13.63, it was at high level in the extending factor with a mean score of 29.01. Additionally, their level was at moderate level in terms of replacing or revising factor with a mean score of 16.38. The teachers’ total level was found to be at moderate level with a mean score of 59.02.

To determine whether there was a significant difference in teachers’ curriculum adaptation patterns based on gender variable, an independent t-test was conducted, and the results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

T-Test Analysis Results Based on the Gender Variable

Subdimension	Groups	N	X	ss	t	df	p
Omitting	Female	367	13.00	4.99	-3.934	471	.00**
	Male	106	15.83	6.89			
Extending	Female	367	29.43	4.35	3.854	471	.00**
	male	106	27.53	4.86			
Replacing	Female	367	16.36	4.49	-.110	471	.912
	Male	106	16.43	5.96			
Total	Female	367	10.21	10.21	-.660	471	.510
	Male	106	14.51	14.51			

**p<.01

According to the data in Table 3, teachers’ curriculum adaptation patterns did not significantly differ based on the gender variable [t(471): -.660, p>.05]. Among the factors of the scale, there was no significant difference in the replacing or revising [t(471): -.110, p>.05]. For the extending dimension, there was a significant difference in favor of female teachers [t(471): 3.854, p<.05], while for the omitting dimension, there was a significant difference in favor of male teachers [t(471): -3.934, p<.05].

To determine whether there was a significant difference in teachers’ curriculum adaptation patterns based on their year of work experience, ANOVA test was conducted, and the results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

ANOVA Test Result for the Year of Work Experience Variable

Variables		N	X	S.V.	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Omitting	0-7 years	66	11.78	Between	3	219.631	7.291	.00**

	8-15 years	232	14.58	Groups				
	16-25 years	145	12.62	Within	469	30.125		
	26 +	30	15.23	Groups				
Extending	0-7 years	66	29.15	Between	3	108.766	5.428	.001*
	8-15 years	232	29.46	Groups	469			
	16-25 years	145	28.84	Within		20.038		
	26 +	30	26.00	Groups				
Replacing	0-7 years	66	15.19	Between	3	98.997	4.287	.005*
	8-15 years	232	17.08	Groups				
	16-25 years	145	15.65	Within	469	23.093		
	26 +	30	17.06	Groups				
Total	0-7 years	66	56.13	Between	3	708.720	5.705	.001*
	8-15 years	232	61.13	Groups				
	16-25 years	145	57.12	Within	469	124.233		
	26 +	30	58.30	Groups				

**p<.01 *p<.05

According to the data in Table 4, there was a significant difference in teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns based on their year of work experience in terms of both total mean score and factors of the scale [F(3,469):5.705, p<.05]. A post-hoc analysis was conducted to identify exactly which groups differ from each other, and the results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Post-Hoc. Analysis Results for the Year of Work Experience Variable

Variables	I	-	J	Mean difference	Std. error	p
Omitting	0-7 years		8-15 years	-.83	.52	.508
			16-25 years	-2.79	.58	.00**
			26 years +	-3.44	.91	.003*
Extending	8-15 years		16-25 years	1.95	.56	.003*
			26 years +	-.64	.94	.983
			16-25 years	26 years +	-2.60	.90
Replacing	0-7 years		8-15 years	-.31	.62	.997
			16-25 years	.31	.67	.998
			26 years +	3.15	.67	.000**
Total	8-15 years		16-25 years	.62	.49	.746
			26 years +	3.46	.48	.000**
			16-25 years	26 years +	2.84	.54
Extending	0-7 years		8-15 years	-1.88	.62	.019*
			16-25 years	-.45	.62	.976
			26 years +	-1.86	.79	.126
Replacing	8-15 years		16-25 years	1.42	.50	.027*
			26 years +	.01	.70	1.000
			16-25 years	26 years +	-1.41	.70
Total	0-7 years		8-15 years	-5.00	1.31	.001*
			16-25 years	-.98	1.21	.961
			26 years +	-2.16	1.68	.748

8-15 years	16-25 years	4.01	1.13	.003*
	26 years +	2.83	1.63	.427
16-25 years	26 years +	-1.17	1.55	.973

**p<.01 *p<.05

According to Table 5, in the omitting factor, the difference was in favor of the teachers with 16-25 years of work experience and with 26 years and more year of work experience. In the extending factor, this difference was in favor of the teachers with 26 years and more experience. In the replacing or revising subdimension, the difference was in favor of the teachers with 8-15 years of experience. Additionally, in terms of total mean score, the difference was in favor of the teachers with 8-15 years of work experience.

ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns in terms of the types of schools they worked in. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

ANOVA Results for School Type Variable

Variables		N	X	S.V.	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Omitting	Primary	219	12.75	Between	2	159.643	5.186	.006*
	Secondary	148	14.45	G.	470	30.783		
	High school	106	14.31	Within G.				
Extending	Primary	219	30.28	Between	2	552.817	30.148	.000**
	Secondary	148	29.04	Groups				
	High school	106	26.34	Within	470	18.337		
Replacing	Primary	219	16.24	Between	2	258.952	11.471	.000**
	Secondary	148	17.69	Groups				
	High school	106	14.82	Within	470	22.574		
Total	Primary	219	59.28	Between	2	1021.679	8.320	.000**
	Secondary	148	61.19	Groups				
	High school	106	55.48	Within	470	124.145		
				Groups				

**p<.01 *p<.05

According to the data presented in Table 6, there was a significant difference in teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns based on the types of schools in terms of both the total mean score and factors of the scale [F(2,470):8.320, p<.01]. Post-hoc analysis was conducted to identify exactly which groups differ from each other, and the results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Post-Hoc. Results Analysis Results for School Type Variable

Variables	I	-	J	Mean difference	Std. error	p
Omitting	Primary		Secondary	-1.76	.63	.022*
			High school	-1.55	.61	.036*
Extending	Primary		High school	.14	.75	.996
			Secondary	1.24	.42	.010*
			High school	3.93	.57	.00**
Replacing	Secondary		High school	2.69	.60	.00**
			Secondary	-1.44	.50	.012*
			High school	1.42	.57	.042*
Total	Primary		High school	2.87	.62	.00**
			Secondary	-1.91	1.20	.302
			High school	3.80	1.36	.018*
	Secondary		High school	5.71	1.57	.001*

**p<.01 *p<.05

According to the results presented in Table 7, in terms of the omitting dimension, there was a significant difference in favor of primary school teachers compared to secondary school and high school teachers. In the extending dimension, there was a significant difference in favor of primary school teachers compared to both secondary school and high school teachers. Additionally, in the comparison between secondary school and high school teachers, the difference was in favor of secondary school teachers. In the replacing or revising dimension, there was a significant difference between the primary and secondary school teachers in favor of secondary school teachers; between the primary school and high school students in favor of primary school teachers; between the secondary school and high school teachers in terms of secondary school teachers. In terms of the total mean score, there was a significant difference between the primary school and high school students in terms of primary school teachers; and between the secondary and high school students in favor of secondary school students.

ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns based on the graduated faculty variable. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

ANOVA Results for the Graduated Faculty Variable

Variables	Faculty	N	X	S.V.	df	Mean Squares	F	p
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Omitting	Education	368	13.34	Between	2	124.561	4.027	.018*
	Scien.-Lit.	71	13.97	Groups				
	Other	34	16.11	Within	470	30.933		
Extending	Education	368	29.54	Between	2	337.328	17.520	.00**
	Scien.-Lit.	71	26.18	Groups				
	Other	34	29.11	Within	470	19.254		
Replacing	Education	368	16.91	Between	2	308.447	13.793	.00**
	Scien.-Lit.	71	13.70	Groups				
	Other	34	16.14	Within	470	22.363		
Total	Education	368	59.82	Between	2	1155.140	9.348	.00**
	Scien.-Lit.	71	53.85	Groups				
	Other	34	61.38	Within	470	123.577		

**p<.01 *p<.05

According to the data presented in Table 8, there was a significant difference in teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns based on the graduated faculty type in terms of the total mean score and the score obtained from the subdimensions of the scale [F(2,470): 9.348, p<.01]. Post-hoc analysis was conducted to identify exactly which groups differ from each other, and the results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Post-Hoc Analysis Results for the Graduated Faculty Variable

Variables	I	J	Mean difference	Std. error	p
Omitting	Education	Science - Literature	-.62	.72	.383
		Other	-2.77	.99	.006*
	Science - Literature	Other	-2.14	1.15	.065
Extending	Education	Science - Literature	3.36	.62	.00**
		Other	.43	.67	.893
	Science - Literature	Other	-2.93	.86	.003*
Replacing	Education	Science - Literature	3.21	.65	.00**
		Other	.77	.82	.734
	Science - Literature	Other	-2.44	.99	.041*
Total	Education	Science - Literature	5.95	1.44	.00**
		Other	-1.57	1.99	.430
	Science - Literature	Other	-7.53	2.31	.001*

**p<0.01 *p<0.05

According to the results presented in Table 9, there was a significant difference in the curriculum adaptation patterns of teachers based on the faculties from which they graduated in

terms of omitting subdimension. This difference was in favor of the teachers who graduated from faculties categorized as other than education and faculties related to arts and sciences. In the dimensions of “extending” and “replacing or revising” subdimensions, there was a significant difference in favor of education faculty graduates in the comparison between education and arts and sciences faculties, and in favor of graduates from faculties other than arts and sciences in the comparison between arts and sciences and other faculties. In terms of the total mean score, significant difference was observed in favor of education faculty graduates in the comparison between education and arts and sciences faculties, and in favor of graduates from faculties other than arts and sciences in the comparison between arts and sciences and other faculties.

The results of the one-way ANOVA analysis conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in the curriculum adaptation patterns of teachers based on place of work are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

ANOVA Results for Place of Work Variable

Variables		N	X	S.V.	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Omitting	Town	88	12.45	Between	2	80.714	2.594	.76
	District	189	14.07	Groups				
	City	196	13.74	Within	470	31.119		
Extending	Town	88	29.38	Between	2	182.995	9.191	.00**
	District	189	29.89	Groups				
	City	196	27.98	Within	470	19.910		
Replacing	Town	88	15.60	Between	2	227.221	10.006	.00**
	District	189	17.58	Groups				
	City	196	15.57	Within	470	22.709		
Total	Town	88	57.44	Between	2	1004.785	8.089	.00**
	District	189	61.55	Groups				
	City	196	57.30	Within	470	124.217		
				Groups				

**p<0.01 *p<0.05

According to the data presented in Table 10, there was no significant difference in the adaptation patterns of teachers based on their place of work in the omitting dimension. However, there was a significant difference in the extending and replacing or revising dimensions, as well as in terms of the total mean score [F(2,470):8.089, p<.01]. Post-hoc

analysis was conducted to identify exactly which groups differ from each other, and the results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Post-Hoc. Results for The Place of Work Variable

Variables	I	-	J	Mean difference	Std. error	p
Omitting	Town		District	-1.61	.71	.075
			City	-1.29	.71	.216
Extending	Town	District	City	-2.14	1.15	1.000
			District	City	-.51	.48
Replacing	Town		District	1.39	.55	.036*
		District	City	1.90	.45	.00**
Total	Town		District	-1.97	.61	.001*
		District	City	.03	.61	0.960
Total	District		City	2.01	.48	.00**
		Town	District	-4.11	1.22	.003*
			City	.13	1.14	.999
		District	City	4.24	1.20	.001*

**p<0.01 *p<0.05

According to Table 11, there was no significant difference in the omitting dimension. In the extending dimension, there was a significant difference in favor of those working in villages and small towns compared to those working in district and provincial centers, and in the comparison between district and provincial centers, there was a significant difference in favor of those working in district centers. In the replacing or revising dimension, there was a significant difference in favor of those working in district centers. In terms of the total mean score, there was a significant difference in favor of teachers working in district centers compared to those working in both villages and small towns, as well as provincial centers.

To determine whether there was a significant difference in teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns based on their participation in in-service training, an independent t-test was conducted, and the results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

T-Test Results for in in-Service Training Variable

Variables	Groups	N	X	ss	t	df	p
Omitting	Yes	331	13.66	4.61	.140	471	.889
	No	142	13.57	7.41			
Extending	Yes	331	28.86	4.43	-1.088	471	.291
	No	142	29.35	4.75			
Replacing	Yes	331	16.14	4.48	-1.477	471	.141

	No	142	16.92	5.60			
Total	Yes	331	58.67	9.68	-.897	471	.371
	No	142	59.85	14.41			

According to the data in Table 12, there was no significant difference in teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns, in terms of total mean score and the sub-dimensions, based on their prior participation or non-participation in in-service training related to the curriculum [t(471): -.897, p>.05].

Independent t-tests were conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns based on their education level. The results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

T-Test Results for the Education Level Variable

Variables	Groups	N	X	ss	t	df	p
Omitting	Undergraduate	371	13.61	5.78	-.141	471	.888
	Graduate	102	13.70	4.89			
Extending	Undergraduate	371	29.13	4.58	1.141	471	.255
	Graduate	102	28.55	4.34			
Replacing	Undergraduate	371	16.61	5.03	2.322	471	.021*
	Graduate	102	15.50	4.04			
Total	Undergraduate	371	11.68	11.68	1.266	471	.206
	Graduate	102	9.78	9.78			

*p<0.05

According to the data presented in Table 13, there was a significant difference in teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns based on their education level only in the replacing or revising dimension in favor of the teachers with a bachelor's degree. There was no significant difference in other dimensions and in terms of total mean score [t(471): 1.266, p>.05].

An analysis of one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns based on their weekly teaching hours. The results are presented in Table 14.

Table 14

ANOVA Result for the Weekly Teaching Hours

Variables		N	X	S.V.	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Omitting	0-15 hours	71	17.76	Between	2	733.509	25.881	.00**
	16-25 hours	143	13.36	Groups				
	26 hours +	259	12.65	Within	470	28.341		
Extending	0-15 hours	71	30.08	Between	2	367.769	19.231	.00**
	16-25 hours	143	27.12	Groups				
	26 hours +	259	29.76	Within	470	19.124		
Replacing	0-15 hours	71	18.74	Between	2	258.659	11.458	.00**
	16-25 hours	143	15.48	Groups				
	26 hours +	259	16.22	Within	470	22.575		
Total	0-15 hours	71	66.59	Between	2	2714.944	23.217	.00**
	16-25 hours	143	55.97	Groups				
	26 hours +	259	58.64	Within	470	116.940		
				Groups				

**p<0.01

According to the data in Table 14, there was no significant difference in teachers' curriculum adaptation patterns based on their weekly teaching hours, both in the sub-dimensions of the scale and in terms of total mean score [F(2,470):23.217, p<.01]. Post-hoc analysis was conducted to identify exactly which groups differ from each other, and the results are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Post – Hoc. Results for the Weekly Teaching Hours Variable

Variables	I	-	J	Mean difference	Std. error	p
Omitting	0-15 hours	16-25 hours	16-25 hours	4.39	.91	.00**
			26 hours +	5.10	.90	.00**
		16-25 hours	26 hours +	.70	.48	.368
Extending	0-15 hours	16-25 hours	16-25 hours	2.95	.64	.00**
			26 hours +	.32	.64	.943
		16-25 hours	26 hours +	-2.63	.41	.00**
Replacing	0-15 hours	16-25 hours	16-25 hours	3.25	.73	.00**
			26 hours +	2.52	.70	.002*
		16-25 hours	26 hours +	-.73	.46	.416
Total	0-15 hours	16-25 hours	16-25 hours	10.61	1.75	.00**
			26 hours +	7.95	1.73	.00**
		16-25 hours	26 hours +	-2.66	1.01	.026*

**p<0.01 *p<0.05

According to the data in Table 15, significant differences existed based on weekly teaching hours variable. In the sub-dimension of “omitting”, this difference was in favor of the teachers with 0-15 hours of weekly teaching hours. In the “extending” sub-dimension, this difference was in favor of those with 0-15 hours and those with 26 hours or more of weekly

teaching hours. In the replacing or revising dimension, this difference was in favor of those with 0-15 hours of weekly teaching hours. In terms of the total mean score, compared to teachers with 16-25 hours and those with 26 hours or more of weekly teaching hours, teachers with 0-15 hours of weekly teaching hours were favored. In the comparison between teachers with 16-25 hours and those with 26 hours or more of weekly teaching hours, the difference was in favor of the teachers with 26 hours or more of weekly teaching hours.

Since the number of participants in the group with a high socio-economic level of the region where the school is located was below 30, Kruskal-Wallis test, was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in the curriculum adaptation patterns of the teachers based on the socio-economic level of region where the school is located. The results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Kruskal Wallis Results According to the Socio-Economic Level of the Region Where the School is Located

Variables		N	Mean Rank	df	Chi Square	p
Omitting	Low	100	222.03	2	5.258	.072
	Middle	351	244.42			
	High	22	186.59			
Extending	Low	100	232.15	2	.969	.616
	Middle	351	239.89			
	High	22	212.98			
Replacing	Low	100	248.95	2	1.516	.469
	Middle	351	232.50			
	High	22	254.55			
Total	Low	100	227.17	2	1.078	.583
	Middle	351	240.78			
	High	22	221.32			

According to Table 16, there was no significant difference in curriculum adaptation patterns of the teachers based on the socio-economic level of region where the school is in terms of the subdimension of the scale and the total mean score.

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in curriculum adaptation patterns based on teachers' KPSS education sciences exam scores. The results are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

ANOVA Results for the KPSS Education Sciences Exam Scores Variable

Variables		N	X	S.V.	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Omitting	0-75 point	72	14.54	Between	3	195.162	6.445	.00**
	76-85 point	264	12.82	Groups				
	86-100 point	90	15.57	Within	469	30.281		
	I was appointed before the exam	47	13.06	Groups				
Extending	0-75 point	72	28.18	Between	3	173.957	8.866	.00**
	76-85 point	264	29.09	Groups				
	86-100 point	90	30.62	Within	469	19.621		
	I was appointed before the exam	47	26.76	Groups				
Replacing	0-75 point	72	15.88	Between	3	219.106	9.815	.00**
	76-85 point	264	15.73	Groups				
	86-100 point	90	18.80	Within	469	22.324		
	I was appointed before the exam	47	16.12	Groups				
Total	0-75 point	72	58.61	Between	3	1387.642	11.574	.00**
	76-85 point	264	57.65	Groups				
	86-100 point	90	65.00	Within	469	119.891		
	I was appointed before the exam	47	55.95	Groups				

**p<0.01

According to the data in Table 17, there was a significant difference in curriculum adaptation patterns based on teachers' KPSS education sciences exam scores both in the sub-dimensions and the total mean score [F(3,469):11.574, p<.01]. Post-hoc analysis was conducted to identify exactly which groups differ from each other, and the results are presented in Table 18.

Table 18

Post – Hoc. Results for The KPSS Education Sciences Exam Scores Variable

Variables	I	-	J	Mean difference	Std. error	p
Omitting	0-75-point		76-85 point	1.71	.70	.098
			86-100 point	-1.03	1.01	.890
	76-85point		I was appointed before the exam.	1.47	1.00	.604
			86-100 point	-2.74	.83	.008*
86-100 point		I was appointed before the exam.	-.23	.82	1.000	
		I was appointed before the exam	2.51	1.09	.133	
Extending	0-75-point		76-85 point	-.91	.73	.767
			86-100 point	-2.44	.76	.011*
	76-85point		I was appointed before the exam.	1.41	.90	.544
			86-100 point	-1.53	.44	.004*
86-100 point		I was appointed before the exam.	2.32	.70	.005*	
		I was appointed before the exam	3.85	.70	.00**	

Replacing	0-75-point	76-85 point	.15	.73	1.000
		86-100 point	-2.91	.86	.006*
	76-85point	I was appointed before the exam.	-.23	.89	1.000
		86-100 point	-3.06	.59	.00**
Total	0-75-point	I was appointed before the exam	-.39	.64	.991
		86-100 point	2.67	.78	.006*
	76-85point	76-85 point	.95	1.69	.994
		86-100 point	-6.38	2.14	.020*
Total	76-85point	I was appointed before the exam.	2.65	2.14	.771
		86-100 point	-7.34	1.54	.00**
	86-100 point	I was appointed before the exam.	1.69	1.53	.853
		I was appointed before the exam	2.02	2.02	.00**

**p<.01, *p<.05

According to the data in Table 18, there was a significant difference in adaptation patterns based on their KPSS education sciences exam scores. In the dimensions of “omitting” and “replacing or revising” dimension, this difference was in favor of the teachers with 86-100 points. In the “extending” dimension, this difference was in favor of the teachers with 86-100 points. Additionally, there was a significant difference between the teachers with 76-85 points and those who were assigned before the education sciences exams and in favor of the teachers with 76-85 points. In terms of the total mean score, there was a significant difference in favor of the teachers - with KPSS education sciences scores between 86-100.

ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in curriculum adaptation patterns based on the teachers’ KPSS subject area exam scores. The results are presented in Table 19.

Table 19

ANOVA Results for The KPSS Field Exam Score Variable

Variables	N	X	S.V.	df	Mean Squares	F	p	
Omitting	0-75 point	55	13.96	Between	3	35.806	1.144	.331
	76-85 point	141	13.00	Groups				
	86-100 point	55	14.50	Within	469	31.301		
	I was appointed before the exam	222	13.74	Groups				
Extending	0-75 point	55	28.81	Between	3	45.378	2.220	.085
	76-85 point	141	28.42	Groups				
	86-100 point	55	30.23	Within	469	20.443		
	I was appointed before the exam	222	29.13	Groups				
Replacing	0-75 point	55	15.47	Between	3	200.346	8.926	.00**
	76-85 point	141	14.89	Groups				

	86-100 point	55	17.41	Within	469	22.444		
	I was appointed before the exam	222	17.29	Groups				
Total	0-75 point	55	58.25	Between	3	632.050	5.068	.002*
	76-85 point	141	56.31	Groups				
	86-100 point	55	62.16	Within	469	124.724		
	I was appointed before the exam	222	60.16	Groups				

**p<0.01

According to the data in Table 19, there was a significant difference in curriculum adaptation patterns based on teachers' KPSS subject area exam scores in the "replacing or revising" sub-dimension and in the total mean score [F(3,469):5.068, p<0.01]. Post-hoc analysis was conducted to identify exactly which groups differ from each other, and the results are presented in Table 20.

Table 20*Post – Hoc. Results for The KPSS Field Exam Score Variable*

Variables	I	J	Mean difference	Std. error	p
Omitting	0-75-point	76-85 point	.96	.88	.279
		86-100 point	-.54	1.06	.609
		I was appointed before the exam.	.22	.84	.794
	76-85-point	86-100 point	-1.50	.88	.090
		I was appointed before the exam.	-.74	.60	.218
		86-100 point I was appointed before the exam	.76	.84	.364
Extending	0-75-point	76-85 point	.39	.71	.585
		86-100 point	-1.41	.86	.101
		I was appointed before the exam.	-.31	.68	.647
	76-85-point	86-100 point	-1.81	.71	.073
		I was appointed before the exam.	-.70	.48	.889
		86-100 point I was appointed before the exam	1.10	.68	.631
Replacing	0-75-point	76-85 point	.57	.80	.978
		86-100 point	-1.94	.87	.163
		I was appointed before the exam.	-1.82	.78	.130
	76-85-point	86-100 point	-2.52	.63	.001*
		I was appointed before the exam.	-2.39	.50	.00**
		86-100 point I was appointed before the exam	.12	.61	1.000
Total	0-75-point	76-85 point	1.93	1.75	.854
		86-100 point	-3.90	2.01	.288
		I was appointed before the exam.	-1.91	1.80	.874
	76-85-point	86-100 point	-5.84	1.44	.001*
		I was appointed before the exam.	-3.84	1.13	.005*
		86-100 point I was appointed before the exam	1.99	1.49	.707

**p<.01 *p<.05

Based on the data presented in Table 20, there was no significant difference in the “omitting” and “extending” sub-dimensions according to the KPSS subject area exam scores of the teachers. However, in the “replacing or revising” sub-dimension, there was a significant difference between the teachers with 86-100 points and who were assigned based on subject area exams in favor of those with 86-100 points. When comparing those who scored between 76-85 points with those assigned before the subject area exams, there was a significant difference favoring those who were assigned before the exams. In terms of total mean score, there was a significant difference between the teachers with 86-100 points and who were assigned based on subject area exams in favor of those with 86-100 points. When comparing those who scored between 76-85 points with those assigned before the exams, there was a significant difference in favor of those assigned before the exam.

Discussion and Results

Teachers can make certain adjustments to the curriculum they implement. Meidl and Meidl (2011) refer to this phenomenon as teachers making fine-tuning adjustments to the curriculum. In this study, the potential differences in teachers’ curriculum adaptation patterns based on certain demographic variables that could have an impact have been investigated through a survey method.

Teachers’ curriculum adaptation patterns were determined as low in the omitting dimension, as high in the extending dimension, and as moderate in the replacing or revising dimension and in terms of total mean score. Based on this result, it can be inferred that teachers generally adhere to the content, and they adapt the program by expanding the content, activities, or materials. Teachers exhibit a moderate level of adjustment in terms of duration, sequence of topics, methods, techniques, and material changes. The moderate level of teachers’ curriculum adaptation patterns suggests that they do not extensively modify or adapt the curriculum. This could be attributed to the centralized administrative approach in Türkiye, where the curriculum is developed by the Republic of Türkiye Ministry of National Education for the entire country. Yazıcılar (2016) has indicated the perception of teachers in Türkiye to refrain from deviating from the regulations. Similarly, Tokgöz (2013) has pointed out that due to the centralized curriculum approach in the Turkish education system, teachers do not engage in program adaptation behaviors.

There was no significant difference in curriculum adaptation patterns based on teachers' genders. This result indicates that teachers, regardless of gender, are more inclined to implement the official program without making significant adaptations. The finding by Tokgöz (2013) stating that teacher autonomy is lacking supports this finding. Similarly, Karatay, Günbey, and Taş (2020) have stated that there is no significant difference between gender and teacher autonomy. In the omitting dimension, there was a significant difference in favor of male teachers, and in the extending dimension, there was a significant difference in favor of male teachers as well. This implies that male teachers engage in curriculum adaptation by omitting certain parts of the lesson, while female teachers adapt the curriculum by adding extra time, examples, activities, and materials, among others.

There was a significant difference between teachers' years of work experience and curriculum adaptation levels in favor of those with 8-15 years of experience. This difference was obtained in the omitting and extending sub-dimensions in favor of the teachers with higher year of work experience. Therefore, teachers with greater experience, knowledge, expertise, and observations are more inclined to adapt the curriculum due to their familiarity with the subject. This finding is supported by Burkhauser and Lesaux (2017) as well as McCarthy and Woodard (2017), who found that experienced teachers tend to adapt the curriculum more, taking students' needs into account while adapting and being more experienced in research and accessing various resources compared to less experienced teachers. Teachers with higher experience possess a better understanding of the curriculum, school, and students' conditions. Their awareness of students' challenges and effective learning strategies makes them more adept at curriculum adaptation. Their greater familiarity with learners' difficulties and learning styles, as well as their understanding of school and student conditions, give them an advantage in the adaptation process.

According to school type variables, there was a significant difference in favor of secondary school and high school teachers in the omitting dimension, in favor of primary school teachers in the extending dimension, and in favor of primary and middle school teachers in the replacing or revising dimension and in terms of total mean score. Primary school teachers tend to engage in more expansion-type adaptation due to factors such as the limited number of learning outcomes in their curriculum, the manageable content volume, and the developmental characteristics of primary school students. This is because they may not have the flexibility to omit over certain content or outcomes. Instead, they adapt by extending on the existing material to ensure each student's needs are met. This finding is supported by

Yazıcılar and Bümen (2019), who stated that teachers from different schools adapt their curriculum for various reasons while considering the unique characteristics of their schools.

There was no significant difference in curriculum adaptations based on the socio-economic level of the region where the school is located. This may be attributed to teachers striving to ensure equal opportunities for all students regardless of any class or socio-economic distinctions during their duties. However, in terms of their work locations, there was a significant difference in favor of teachers in district centers in the extending dimension, replacing or revising dimension, and in terms of total mean score, compared to those in villages and small towns. This result can be interpreted by the fact that students in rural areas are more disadvantaged compared to students in district and city centers, leading to a higher emphasis on expansion-type adaptations. Teachers in district centers might have fewer concerns regarding protocols and oversight compared to those in city centers, resulting in the significant differentiation of adaptation patterns. Existing literature indicates that teachers consider the learning environment when adapting curriculum (Burkhauser and Lesaux, 2017). According to Davis, Beyer, Forbes, and Stevens (2011), teachers base their adaptations on the local context, which includes the conditions of their work location.

In the variable of educational level, there was no significant difference in terms of total mean score and the omitting and extending dimensions, while there was a significant difference in favor of bachelor's graduates in the replacing or revising dimension. This finding suggests that teachers with bachelor's and postgraduate degrees have similar tendencies in curriculum adaptation. Based on the variable of the graduated faculty, there was a significant difference in favor of graduates from faculties other than education in the omitting dimension, and in favor of graduates from both education faculties and other faculties in the extending, replacing or revising dimensions and in terms of total mean score. Bernard (2017) emphasized that teachers' knowledge and McCarthy and Woodard (2017) stated that teachers' pedagogical skills are influential factors when adapting curriculum. It can be argued that teachers who have graduated from education faculties possess these skills due to the theoretical education and internship opportunities they received during their academic studies. However, it could be further explored whether teachers from other faculties make adaptations within the boundaries of the curriculum to determine the extent of their adaptation and its alignment with the goals of the curriculum.

There was no significant difference in curriculum adaptation patterns of the teachers based on whether they have received in-service training related to the curriculum. This

situation may be attributed to factors such as the subject matter, quality, and characteristics of the participants in the in-service training that teachers have received. According to the weekly class hour variable, a significant difference was found in favor of teachers who teach 0-15 hours per week compared to those who teach more than 26 hours. This result suggests that teachers with fewer teaching hours tend to adapt the curriculum more extensively than those with a higher number of teaching hours.

Based on the KPSS education sciences exam scores, there was a significant difference in favor of those who scored between 86 and 100 in terms of total mean score, as well as in the omitting and replacing or revising dimensions. In the extending dimension, there was a significant difference in favor of those who scored between 86 and 100, as well as in favor of those who scored between 76 and 85. The curriculum adaptation patterns of those who scored higher on the education sciences exam were significantly higher. In terms of KPSS subject exam scores, there was no significant difference in the omitting and extending sub-dimensions. However, in the replacing or revising dimension and in terms of total mean score, there was a significant difference in favor of those who scored between 86 and 100, as well as in favor of those assigned before the subject exam. It can be suggested that the high pedagogical and subject knowledge of teachers influences their adaptation skills positively, while those assigned before the subject exam exhibit effective adaptation skills due to their high years of service, which result in experience and expertise. Bernard (2017) emphasized the importance of teachers' knowledge, while McCarthy and Woodard (2017) highlighted pedagogical skills. Additionally, İlhan (2022) underlined the role of professional experience in curriculum adaptation.

Teachers may need to make certain adjustments to curriculum due to reasons such as the nature of the curriculum, the subject matter, the characteristics of the students, the school environment, technological developments, and individual considerations. In curriculum adaptation, what matters is the ability to make successful modifications that address students' needs and other conditions, all while staying within the boundaries of the curriculum and without deviating from it.

As a result, teachers can make some adaptations on the programs they implement, sometimes obligatory and sometimes voluntarily. Teachers' curriculum adaptation levels were a moderate level. For the total mean score, there were no significant differences based on gender, in-service training, level of education, and the socio-economic level of the region where the school is located variables. However, there were significant differences based on the year of work experience for those with 8-15 years of experience, the type of school where they work

(primary and secondary schools), the place of employment (working in districts), the faculty of graduation (education and other faculties), and the weekly teaching hours variable for those with 0-15 hours and 26 hours and more. Significant differences were determined in favor of those who received 86-100 according to the KPSS educational sciences score of the teachers, and 86-100 according to the KPSS field exam, and those who were assigned before the field exam.

Recommendations

1. There is a limited number of studies in the literature on curriculum adaptation. For this reason, studies can be conducted for both teachers and teacher candidates.
2. The extent to which teachers who graduated from other faculties other than the faculty of education make adaptations within the boundaries of the program can be examined as a separate research topic.
3. A screening study can be done with different demographic variables and a large number of participants.
4. Relational screening studies can be conducted to measure the relationship between curriculum adaptation and different variables that may be related.

Ethics Committee Approval

For this study was received ethics decision by Hatay Mustafa Kemal University Social And Humanities Scientific Research And Publication Ethics Committee. (Date:14.07.2023 Decision:12).

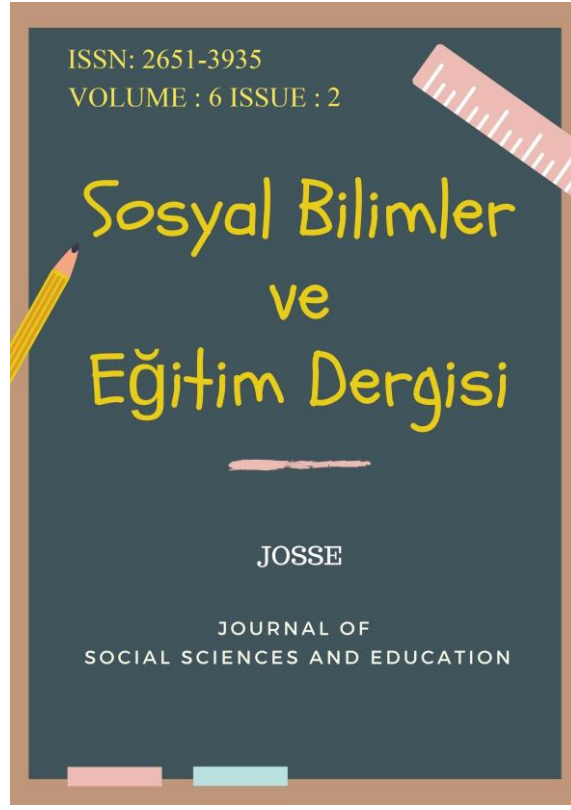
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Investigation of Social Studies Teachers' Design and Production-Oriented Teaching Activities in In-class/Out-of-School Learning Environments

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Investigation of Social Studies Teachers' Design and Production-Oriented Teaching Activities in In-class/Out-of-School Learning Environments*

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Abstract

In the current study, it is aimed to determine to what extent social studies teachers direct their students to design and production in in-class/out-of-school learning environments. The study employed the survey model, one of the quantitative research methods. The participants of the study are social studies teachers working in two provinces in the Southern Aegean in the 2020-2021 school year. In the study, the "Examination of Social Studies Teachers' Design and Production-Oriented Teaching Activities in In-Class/Out-of-School Learning Environments" questionnaire, developed by the researchers, was used to reveal to what extent social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented teaching activities. As a result of the study, it was revealed that teachers supported their students in the dimensions of interest and professional awareness at a "high" level. However, their support was found to be at a "medium" level in the activity dimension, engaging in activities dimension and design and production-oriented teaching dimension. Moreover, the extent to which the teachers include design and production-oriented teaching activities for students in in-class/out-of-class learning environments was found to not vary significantly depending on the variables of age, gender, education level and professional experience. Various and numerous design workshops can be opened to support students' design and production activities and to offer design and production-oriented teaching environments to teachers.

Keywords: Social studies, design and production-oriented teaching, in-class/out-of-school learning environments

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Introduction

In the social studies classes, it is aimed to help students gain a “social personality”. According to Sözer (1998), students in social studies classes gain experience in developing critical, constructive and creative thinking skills, acquiring problem-solving abilities, enhancing interpersonal relationships, learning collaboration and developing a sense of responsibility. In this respect, the social dimension of the social studies classes seems to be highly dominant. Within the social dimension, the expectations, orientations and goals of society should comply with what is taught within social studies classes to students. Therefore, attention has been paid to this harmony in the social studies curriculum. The 11th Development Plan of Turkey aims to strengthen the country’s human capital by fostering an inclusive and high-quality education system that transforms knowledge into economic and social benefits and trains individuals who are inclined toward technology usage and production (Strateji ve Bütçe Başkanlığı, 2019). Research has indicated that students’ participation in the workforce and their lifelong learning by transferring knowledge can be achieved through a design-oriented approach (Chen, 2013; Girgin, 2020). The goals for 2023 and Turkey’s increasing influence in its region have made it imperative for every sector of society and the workforce to become more productive, creative and qualified. Turkey’s education policies aim to educate individuals who are capable of both producing and designing. The goal and necessity of progress in the field of design and production are significant in social studies instruction, just as they are in learning areas like science and mathematics. As a natural consequence of this, an education approach in social studies should be established in such a way as to focus on design and production (promoting design and production in all fields). Razzouk and Shute (2012) have stated that helping students think like designers can better prepare them to handle challenging situations and solve complex problems in school, their careers and their overall lives. Kröper, Fay, Lindberg, and Meinel (2011) have noted that design-focused thinking can assist in deep learning processes related to coping with complex problems, problem perception and generating different solutions.

In the social studies curriculum, both in-class and out-of-school learning environments have been developed based on student-centred activities. In this regard, the curriculum encourages educators to create learning environments that are conducive to experiential

learning, interactive, collaborative and even make learning enjoyable (Malkoç and Kaya, 2015). Taking into account the framework outlined by the curriculum, teachers are not limited to in-class activities but can also utilize out-of-class learning environments. These may include various environments where different professions are practiced, such as museums, science centres, local factories, vocational training courses, universities and archaeological sites. The study conducted by Üztemur, Dinç and Acun (2017) focuses on museum education as one of the out-of-school learning environments. In the study, students participating in museum education as an alternative learning environment within the scope of Social Studies have realized that historical sites embody material evidence of aesthetic, cultural, and artistic development. The results of the existing research indicate that approaching out-of-school learning environments in social studies classes with artistic and cultural production and design-focused activities can provide students with a different perspective.

While design-oriented thinking is important for fields such as the business world and engineering, it has gained importance in the field of education over time. Design-oriented thinking is a process that enables the acquisition of skills necessary for the demands of the current century (Retna, 2015). Researchers have stated that design-oriented thinking has a significant impact on interdisciplinary studies in 21st century education and that it contributes to the acquisition of skills such as creative thinking, problem solving and working in collaboration and supports constructivist learning (Goldman and Zielezinski, 2016; Razzouk and Shute, 2012; Scheer, Noweski and Meinel, 2012). Teachers should design lessons that are suitable for these skills in order to equip students with 21st-century skills, and therefore, teachers should be supported in terms of design-oriented thinking skills (Chiu et al., 2021; Henriksen, Gretter and Richardson, 2018). It is important for a multidisciplinary course, such as social studies, not to be limited to traditional classroom and learning environments restricted with four walls. Directing students towards these environments within the scope of social studies is important for them to become acquainted with professions and to enable them to make observations in various fields of production. Thus, it becomes possible to introduce professions and provide guidance within the framework of the social studies course so that design and production orientation of students can be promoted.

In social studies classes, teachers can serve as a source of inspiration for students to foster design and production-oriented thinking, help them gain experience by means of various in-class or out-of-class activities and guide them by introducing professions. Here, beyond product-oriented thinking, there is a need to explain design-oriented thinking. Design-

oriented thinking is often defined as an analytical and creative process that provides individuals with opportunities for experimentation, creation, prototyping, gathering feedback and redesigning (Razzouk and Shute, 2012). Design-oriented thinking is employed by designers to address innovation needs at strategic, tactical and operational levels, with a focus on putting people at the centre of the process (Indigo, 2018). Furthermore, design-oriented thinking is often associated with different and convergent thinking processes as it aims to solve problems with a human-centered approach (Baker and Moukhliiss, 2020). The translation of this definition into learning environments is of utmost importance, especially when viewed from a teacher's perspective. Teachers should create situations in their practices that require students to find solutions by presenting problems related to production or innovation. Design-oriented thinking enables students to work collaboratively, think creatively and take risks (Girgin, 2020). Vanada (2014) states that design-oriented thinking will increase students' concept development through intuitive thinking and brainstorming techniques, and will help them develop products through teamwork and risk-taking. In this process, students should formulate strategies, develop tactics for solving problems and take actions in operational sense. In this way, students who are traditionally passive and solely focused on absorbing information in the classroom can transform into innovative, productive and active learners. Over time, these types of practices in the learning environment can yield many benefits for students in terms of experiential learning.

In recent years, successful initiatives have been carried out to establish a teaching approach centred on design and production. For instance, the practices referred to as "enrichment workshops" by Saranlı and Deniz (2018) serve as a successful example. In these workshops, content, process, and product enrichment are carried out, and club activities are conducted, encouraging students to engage in production. Teachers have taken various measures to facilitate the process, such as helping students acquire possible resources related to their chosen workshop topics, developing supplementary materials and resources, establishing communication with potential experts or mentors and ensuring that the workload among students is appropriately distributed. In this way, students are encouraged to use the knowledge and experiences they have gained to create a product. However, as summarized above, workshop activities have been primarily focused on learning areas such as mathematics and science. Another example is the "Dene yap" (Try and Make) workshops (For detailed information: <https://deneyap.org>). With the training given in these workshops, it is aimed to impart 21st century skills, increase interest and curiosity in learning, create career

awareness and educate science and technology literate individuals. In this context, they provide students with the fundamental knowledge and technical infrastructure necessary for developing technology projects, thereby giving them a vision for future technologies. They also encourage innovative and original project development by fostering domain-specific expertise. It is important to extend this mindset and educational approach beyond the limited fields such as “Production and Design”, “Robotics and Coding”, “Electronic Programming”, “Internet of Things”, “Cybersecurity”, “Energy Technologies”, “Nanotechnology”, “Mobile Applications”, “Artificial Intelligence”, “Aviation and Space,” created in the “Try and Make” workshops to all learning areas. In the light of the ideas and sample practices put forward in this context, the current study can contribute to the field by revealing the current situation of social studies teachers in terms of inspiring their students for a design and production-oriented approach and making them gain experience and professional awareness with various in-class and out-of-class applications. From the perspective of social studies teachers, their approach to the subject is guiding and preparatory for future applications in this field. In this context, the purpose of the current study is to determine the extent to which social studies teachers guide their students toward design and production in both in-class and out-of-school learning environments. To this end, answers to the following questions were sought;

1. To what extent do social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities in in-class/out-of-school learning environments?
2. Does the extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities vary significantly depending on their age?
3. Does the extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities vary significantly depending on their gender?
4. Does the extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities vary significantly depending on their education level?
5. Does the extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities vary significantly depending on their professional experience?

Method

Model

Since the current study aims to determine the extent to which social studies teachers guide their students toward design and production in in-class/out-of-school learning environments, the survey model, one of the quantitative research methods, was employed. The survey model is used to determine a situation, make evaluations according to standards and uncover potential relationships between events. The survey model is used to identify a situation and describe it as it exists (Karasar, 2013).

Sample and Population

The population of the study consists of social studies teachers working in the provinces of Denizli and Muğla in the 2020-2021 school year. The study conducted within the framework of pandemic management and pandemic rules included 72 social studies teachers participating on a volunteer basis. The demographic characteristics of the social studies teachers who participated in the study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Participating Social Studies Teachers

		n	%
Age	25 years old and younger	7	9.7
	26-35 years old	29	40.3
	36-45 years old	27	37.5
	46 years old and older	9	12.5
Gender	Female	32	44.4
	Male	40	55.6
Education level	Undergraduate	65	90.3
	Graduate	7	9.7
Professional experience	Less than 1 year	6	8.3
	1-5 years	9	12.5
	6-10 years	24	33.3
	11-15 years	11	15.3
	16-20 years	13	18.1
	21 years and more	9	12.5

As seen in Table 1, 7 (9.7%) of the teachers are 25 years old and younger, 29 (40.3%) are 26-35 years old, 27 (37.5%) are 36-45 years old and 9 (12.5%) are 46 years old and older. Of the participating teachers, 32 (44.4%) are female and 40 (55.6%) are male. When the education level of the participants is examined, it is seen that 65 (%90.3) hold an undergraduate degree while 7 (9.7%) hold a graduate degree. Finally, it is seen that among the social studies teachers participating in the study, 6 (8.3%) have less than 1 year of professional experience, 9 (12.5%) have 1-5 years of professional experience, 24 (33.3%)

have 6-10 years of professional experience, 11 (15.3%) have 11-15 years of professional experience, 13 (18.1%) have 16-20 years of professional experience and 9 (12.5%) have 21 years and more of professional experience.

Data Collection Tools

In the study, the “Examination of Social Studies Teachers’ Design and Production-Oriented Teaching Activities in In-Class/Out-of-School Learning Environments” questionnaire, developed by the researchers, was used to reveal to what extent the social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented teaching activities. During the development of the questionnaire, the three stages identified by Boateng et al. (2018) were taken into consideration. First, the researchers prepared a pool of items that should be in the conceptual structure of the questionnaire. Then, the questionnaire form was created by obtaining the opinions of four expert faculty members. Lastly, a pilot application was conducted. The final form of the questionnaire was found to have five dimensions “activity dimension”, “interest dimension”, “engagement dimension”, “professional awareness dimension” and “design and production-oriented teaching dimension”. The reliability value of the data collection tool has been determined as 0.81. Furthermore, a personal information form was used in the study to determine the demographic characteristics of the social studies teachers, including age, gender, education level and professional experience.

Collection of Data and Analysis

The data collection tool prepared by the researchers was administered to the participating social studies teachers both in face-to-face and online settings. The administration of the questionnaire to the teachers took approximately 10-15 minutes, and prior to the administration, information about the study was given.

The questionnaire developed by the researchers consists of Likert-type questions with five response options: “strongly agree”, “agree”, “neutral”, “disagree” and “strongly disagree”. In the analysis of the responses given by the participants to the questionnaire items, descriptive analysis techniques such as arithmetic mean (X_{Mean}) and standard deviation (sd) values were used. The levels of the participants’ answers to each question were evaluated based on the arithmetic mean values. When evaluating the mean scores, they were evaluated according to the following ranges; Low: 1.00-2.33, Medium: 2.34-3.67 and High: 3.68-5.00. In addition, frequency (f) and percentage (%) values were calculated in the analysis of the

demographic information. Due to the skewness and kurtosis values of the obtained data falling outside the range of -2 to +2 in the descriptive analysis, non parametric tests were conducted. Non-parametric analysis methods were used to compare the scores the participants received from the questionnaire in the context of the demographic information. The levels of significant differences between the groups were examined in the context of demographic information by using the Chi-Square Test of Independence.

Ethics Committee Approval

This study has been deemed ethically appropriate from a research ethics perspective by the Ethics Committee of Social and Human Sciences Research at Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University, with decision number 278 dated July 06, 2021.

Findings

In this part of the study, the findings obtained from the analysis conducted in accordance with the identified sub-problems are presented. The findings obtained from the analyses conducted to find an answer to the first sub-problem of the study “To what extent do social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities in in-class/out-of-school learning environments?” are presented below.

Table 2

The Social Studies Teachers’ Level of Supporting their Students with Design and Production-Oriented Activities in In-Class/Out-of-School Learning Environments

Dimension	n	ss	\bar{x}	Level
Activity	72	.451	3.25	Medium
Interest	72	.651	3.70	High
Engagement	72	.480	3.38	Medium
Professional awareness	72	.672	3.83	High
Design and production-oriented teaching	72	.485	3.54	Medium

When Table 2 is examined, it is seen that the social studies teachers’ mean score for design and production-oriented teaching activities is 3.54. It is seen that the design and production-oriented teaching level of the social studies teachers is at the “medium” level. The findings indicate that the social studies teachers’ support for the dimensions related to design and production-oriented teaching is “medium” for the activity dimension ($\bar{x} = 3.25$) and

engagement dimension ($\bar{x} = 3.38$), while it is “high” for the interest dimension ($\bar{x} = 3.70$) and professional awareness dimension ($\bar{x} = 3.83$).

Table 3

Mean Scores Taken from the Items in the Activity Dimension of the Design and Production-Oriented Teaching Activities in In-Class/Out-Of-School Learning Environments

Activity Dimension Items	ss	\bar{x}
I teach my lessons in the classroom environment.	.596	4.305
I include workshops in my lessons.	.866	2.402
In my classes, students sit in rows.	.948	3.875
I include group work in my lessons.	.718	2.819
I incorporate out-of-school applications into my lessons.	.649	2.972
In my lessons, we visit historical sites such as museums, archaeological sites and science museums with my students.	.996	2.277
In my lessons, we organize visits to local institutions and organizations such as factories and universities.	1.048	2.333
I give project assignments in my lessons.	.916	3.680
Students produce materials in my lessons.	.729	3.555
Students design something in my lessons.	.884	3.250
In my lessons, I incorporate design and production with a focus on national goals.	.868	3.083
In my lessons, I allow my students to create new things.	.902	3.125
Unusual ideas are generated in my lessons.	.795	3.291
In my lessons, I associate social studies with the subjects of development and production.	.737	3.361
I plan my lessons taking into account the national goals.	.885	3.430
I use words like “let’s design and plan” in my lessons.	.742	3.888

When the mean scores in Table 3 are examined, it is seen that the item with the lowest mean ($\bar{x}=2.277$) is “In my lessons, we visit historical sites such as museums, archaeological sites and science museums with my students.” while the item with the highest mean ($\bar{x}=4.305$) is “I teach my lessons in the classroom environment.”

Table 4

Mean Scores Taken from the Items in the Interest Dimension of the Design and Production-Oriented Teaching Activities in In-Class/Out-Of-School Learning Environments

Interest Dimension Items	ss	\bar{x}
My students can use the knowledge they acquire in classroom activities in their daily lives.	.902	3.125
My students can explore their areas of interest through in-class production and design activities.	.859	3.722
The knowledge acquired through design is related to daily life.	.817	3.583
My students can use the knowledge they gain from out-of-school activities in their daily lives.	.834	3.750
My students can explore their areas of interest through out-of-school activities focusing on production and design.	.852	3.569
Workshop activities increase students’ interest in learning.	.903	4.000

Design and production activities enable students to explore nature with a holistic approach.	.833	4.152
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When the mean scores of the items in Table 4 are examined, it is seen that the item with the lowest mean ($\bar{x}=3.125$) is “My students can use the knowledge they acquire in classroom activities in their daily lives.” while the item with the highest mean ($\bar{x}=4.152$) is “Design and production activities enable students to explore nature with a holistic approach.”

Table 5

Mean Scores Taken from the Items in the Engagement Dimension of the Design and Production-Oriented Teaching Activities in In-Class/Out-Of-School Learning Environments

Engagement Dimension Items	ss	\bar{X}
Design activities make my lessons more enjoyable.	.756	3.930
I can design or produce with the materials I have/in my workshop.	.862	4.041
In production, students look for solutions to their problems in daily life.	.989	2.916
Students’ creating something makes lessons more enjoyable.	.704	3.694
Sharing designs and products contributes to the identification of new problem situations.	.754	3.777
In design and production activities, students become aware of their mistakes.	.750	4.027
I don’t believe that design and production activities can enhance 21 st century learning skills for the future.	.804	3.833
I feel uncomfortable implementing design and production-oriented activities.	.715	3.902
Sharing designs and products is important.	.762	3.847
I can teach the lesson more easily with design activities.	1.117	2.861
I can teach subjects and concepts more easily through production in the lesson.	.750	4.027
I see myself as a workshop teacher.	1.002	3.402
Workshop activities encourage students to work in teams.	.929	3.694
I include out-of-school learning activities in the lesson.	.712	4.333
I know what to do in my classroom for design education.	.812	4.041
I am not interested in implementing activities that result in a product.	1.475	2.180
In my lessons, my students can improve their design skills.	1.318	1.916
I encourage my students to transfer what they know to a product or design.	1.106	1.763
My lessons develop students’ creativity.	1.033	1.555
My students can make designs with the materials I have/in my workshop.	.988	3.597
I don’t think design activities will benefit students.	.857	3.708

As seen in Table 5, the item with the lowest mean score ($\bar{x}=1.555$) is “My lessons develop students’ creativity.” while the item with the highest mean score ($\bar{x}=4.333$) is “I include out-of-school learning activities in the lesson.”

Table 6

Mean Scores Taken from the Items in the Professional Awareness Dimension of the Design and Production-Oriented Teaching Activities in In-Class/Out-Of-School Learning

Professional Awareness Dimension Items	ss	\bar{X}
My classroom activities can contribute to students' career choices.	.774	4.138
In my lessons, I direct students to production and design-oriented professions.	.756	4.138
I plan out-of-school activities in a way that will contribute to my students' career choices.	.899	3.916
Students can acquire skills for different professions through in-class activities.	.821	3.791
My students get to know different professions through my out-of-school activities.	.887	3.527
I am aware of the industry and job opportunities around me.	.963	3.472
I am aware of the workforce potential around my school.	.798	3.847

As seen in Table 6, the item with the lowest mean score ($\bar{x}=3,472$) is “I am aware of the industry and job opportunities around me.” while the item with the highest mean scores ($\bar{x}=4,138$) are “My classroom activities can contribute to students' career choices.” and “In my lessons, I direct students to production and design-oriented professions.”

The findings obtained from the analyses conducted to find an answer to the second sub-problem of the study “Does the extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities vary significantly depending on their age?” are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Results of the Analysis Conducted to Determine Whether the Extent to Which the Social Studies Support their Students with Design and Production-Oriented Activities Varies Significantly Depending on Age

	Low	Medium	High	Pearson Chi-square	p
25 years old and younger	0	3 (42.9%)	4 (57.1%)	7.195	.303
26-35 years old	0	21 (72.4%)	8 (27.6%)		
36-45 years old	1 (3.7%)	16 (59.3%)	10 (37.0%)		
46-55 years old	0	3 (33.3%)	6 (66.7%)		
Total	1 (1.4%)	43 (59.7%)	28 (38.9%)		

As seen in Table 7, out of the social studies teachers who participated in the study, one conducts design and production-oriented teaching at a low level, 43 at a medium level and 28 at a high level. When the analysis results regarding whether the level of design and production-oriented teaching of the participating social studies teachers varies depending on the age variable was examined, it was observed that there is no significant difference ($\chi^2=7.195$; $p>.05$). It was revealed that the teacher whose support is at a low level is in the age range of 36-45 ($F=1$). It can be seen that the social studies teachers whose support is at a

medium level are mostly in the age range of 26-35 (F=21), while the smallest number of them is in the age range of 25 and younger and in the age range of 46-55 (F=3). When the ages of the teachers in the high-level category are examined, it is seen that the majority are in the age range of 36-45 (F=10) while the smallest number of them is in the age range of 25 and younger (F=4).

The findings obtained from the analyses conducted to find an answer to the third sub-problem of the study “Does the extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities vary significantly depending on their gender?” are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Results of the Analysis Conducted to Determine Whether the Extent to Which the Social Studies Support their Students with Design and Production-Oriented Activities Varies Significantly Depending on Gender

	Low	Medium	High	Pearson Chi-Square	p
Female	0	17 (%53.1)	15 (%46.9)	2.164	.339
Male	1 (%2.5)	26 (%65.0)	13 (%32.5)		
Total	1 (%1.4)	43 (%59.7)	28 (%38.9)		

As seen in Table 8, the extent to which the social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities does not vary significantly depending on gender ($\chi^2=2.164$; $p>.05$). The teacher whose level of support is at a low level is a male (F=1). It is seen that 26 of the social studies teachers who are at a medium level are male while 17 of them are female. On the other hand, while 15 of the teachers who are at a high level are female, 13 of them are male.

The findings obtained from the analyses conducted to find an answer to the fourth sub-problem of the study “Does the extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities vary significantly depending on their education level?” are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Results of the Analysis Conducted to Determine Whether the Extent to Which the Social Studies Support their Students with Design and Production-Oriented Activities Varies Significantly Depending on Education Level

	Low	Medium	High	Pearson Chi-Square	p
Undergraduate	1 (1.5%)	40 (61.5%)	24 (36.9%)	1.141	.565
Graduate	0	3 (42.9%)	4 (57.1%)		
Total	1 (1.4%)	43 (59.7%)	28 (38.9%)		

As seen in Table 9, the extent to which the social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities does not vary significantly depending on education level ($\chi^2=1.141$; $p>.05$). The education level of the teacher who is at a low level holds an undergraduate degree ($F=1$). On the other hand, while the great majority of the teachers who are at a medium level hold an undergraduate degree ($F=40$), very few of them hold a graduate degree ($F=3$). While the great majority of the teachers who are at a high level hold an undergraduate degree ($F=24$), few of them hold a graduate degree ($F=4$).

The findings obtained from the analyses conducted to find an answer to the fifth sub-problem of the study “Does the extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities vary significantly depending on their professional experience?” are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Results of the Analysis Conducted to Determine Whether the Extent to Which the Social Studies Support their Students with Design and Production-Oriented Activities Varies Significantly Depending on Professional Experience

	Low	Medium	High	Pearson Chi-Square	p
Less than 1 year	0	4 (66.7%)	2 (33.3%)	7.195	.303
1-5 years	0	4 (44.4%)	5 (55.6%)		
6-10 years	0	16 (66.7%)	8 (33.3%)		
11-15 years	0	8 (72.7%)	3 (27.3%)		
16-20 years	1 (7.7%)	7 (53.8%)	5 (38.5%)		
21 years and more	0	4 (44.4%)	5 (55.6%)		
Total	1 (1.4%)	43 (59.7%)	28 (38.9%)		

As seen in Table 10, the extent to which the social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented activities does not vary significantly depending

on professional experience ($\chi^2=7.195$; $p>.05$). The teacher whose level of support is low has 16-20 years of professional experience ($F=1$). While 16 of the teachers who are at the medium level have 6-10 years of professional experience, 4 of them have less than 1 year of professional experience and 4 of them have 21 and more years of professional experience. While the great majority of the teachers who are at the high level have 6-10 years of professional experience ($F=8$), very few of them have less than 1 year of professional experience ($F=2$).

Discussion and Results

The purpose of the current study is to determine the extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented teaching activities in in-class/out-of-school learning environments. The results of the study showed that the teachers provide high levels of support to their students in the dimensions of interest and professional awareness. However, their support was determined to be medium in the dimensions of activity, engagement and design and production-oriented teaching in general. The means obtained in the item-based examinations are also supportive of these levels. As seen in the following items; *“In my lessons, we organize visits to local institutions and organizations such as factories and universities ($X_{\text{mean}}=2.33$)”*, *“I include group work in my lessons ($X_{\text{mean}}=2.81$)”*, the mean values calculated for the items including statements related to directing students to design processes are low. However, it is seen that items indicating a teacher-centred classroom environment, such as *“I conduct my lessons in the classroom environment ($X_{\text{mean}}=4.30$)”* or *“My students sit in rows in my lessons ($X_{\text{mean}}=3.87$)”* have higher means. Similarly, it was found that items in the interest dimension, such as *“Workshop activities increase students’ interest in learning ($X_{\text{mean}}=4.00$)”* or *“Design and production activities enable students to explore nature with a holistic approach ($X_{\text{mean}}=4.15$)”* have high arithmetic mean values. However, it was observed that the teachers’ mean scores obtained from the items *“I include workshop activities in my lessons”* and *“I include group work in my lessons”* are low. This shows that students cannot be provided with environments that will increase their interest in design and production-oriented learning and are suitable for them to engage in exploratory learning. Item-based examinations shed light on the first problem of the study regarding teachers’ approaches to design and production-oriented activities in their classrooms. The findings showed that the teachers primarily support their students to raise

their professional awareness and interest in design and production-oriented activities. However, their mean scores from the dimensions of activity and engagement were found to be relatively lower. These findings suggest that teacher guidance and support for design and production-oriented learning have not yet reached the necessary level in the classroom and activities. The shift from teachers being curriculum and tool technicians to becoming designers of learning experiences has also been suggested by Persico, Pozzi and Goodyear (2018). This is because it is important to view teaching not only as a practice that involves design tasks but also as an element that supports both the products of teaching and learning and the process of generating professional knowledge (Warr and Mishra, 2021).

In the current study, the extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented teaching activities in in-class/out-of-school learning environments was examined in relation to the variables of age, gender, education level and professional experience. The extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented teaching activities in in-class/out-of-school learning environments was found to not vary depending on the variables of age, gender, education level and professional experience.

In the 7th article of the “Points to be considered in the implementation of the social studies curriculum” section of the 2018 Social Studies curriculum, it is stated that “*In teaching Social Studies, importance should be given to benefiting from out-of-school environments. These studies may be directed to the immediate surroundings of the school (such as the school garden) to the marketplace, official offices, factories, exhibitions, archaeological excavation sites, workshops, museums and historical places (historical buildings, monuments, museum-cities, battlefields, virtual museum tours, etc.). Also, oral history and local history studies should be conducted on appropriate subjects.*” (Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı [MEB], 2018). The arithmetic mean scores obtained for the items “*We visit historical sites such as museums, archaeological sites and science museums with my students in my lessons*” and “*We organize visits to local institutions and organizations (factories, universities, etc.) in my lessons*” in the activity dimension were found to be low. This indicates that social studies teachers make limited use of out-of-school learning environments in the context of design and production-oriented teaching activities.

In their study, Malkoç and Kaya (2015) stated that the reasons for not being able to sufficiently benefit from out-of-school learning environments could be attributed to factors such as the inadequacy of the school’s physical infrastructure, a dense curriculum, time

constraints and the number of students. In this context, it can be emphasized that social studies teachers should be attentive to utilizing the out-of-school learning environments mentioned in the curriculum. Moreover, in the 2018 Social Studies curriculum, the Ministry of National Education emphasizes that *“the curriculum as a whole should be designed to direct students towards the use of higher-order cognitive skills, promote meaningful and lasting learning, be built upon a solid foundation of previous learning and be integrated with other disciplines and everyday life within the context of values, skills and competencies.”* (MEB, 2018). However, in the current study, it was seen that the social studies teachers have low mean values in terms of their interest in design and production-oriented teaching in both in-class and out-of-school learning environments, even though the items *“My students can explore their areas of interest through out-of-school activities focusing on production and design.”* and *“My students can use the knowledge they acquire in in-class activities in their daily lives”* have medium arithmetic mean values. In addition, the items with low mean scores in the dimension of social studies teachers’ engagement in the design and production-oriented teaching activities in in-class/out-of-school learning environments are *“My students can improve their design skills in my lessons.”*, *“I encourage my students to transfer what they know to a product or design.”* and *“My lessons develop students’ creativity.”*

Design and production-oriented thinking develops students’ problem solving, creative thinking, critical thinking and innovative thinking skills (Girgin, 2020; Carroll et al., 2010). It will be easier for social studies teachers to achieve the goals stated in the social studies curriculum if they follow an educational-instructional process that is associated with daily life, fosters the use of high-level skills and includes out-of-school learning environments. Furthermore, in the 2005 Social Studies curriculum, it is emphasized that students should have skills that enable them to harmonize with the real world outside the school. It is stated that the development of creativity skills can be achieved not only through in-class activities but also by supporting students in the school environment and during their time outside the school (MEB, 2005).

The results of the study showed that the teachers provide high levels of support to their students in the dimensions of interest and professional awareness. However, their support was determined to be medium in the dimensions of activity, engagement and design and production-oriented teaching in general. The extent to which social studies teachers support their students with design and production-oriented teaching activities in in-class/out-of-school

learning environments was found to not vary depending on the variables of age, gender, education level and professional experience.

Recommendations

The current study was conducted in two provinces in the south of the Aegean region of Turkey, involving voluntarily participating social studies teachers and limited to the items included in the questionnaire. In light of the results of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- Teacher opinions can be determined by using questionnaires by school administrators and teacher groups in order to guide the activities that can be carried out during the year.
- The items in the dimensions of professional awareness, interest, activity and engagement, which were created within the scope of the current study and are related to design and production-oriented learning, can be used in different sample groups and sizes.
- The questionnaire items can be rearranged and adapted in the light of theories put forward on social science teaching and design and production-oriented thinking and can be used in measurement tools with different structures.
- Finally, examinations based on the items and dimensions in the questionnaire indicate that teachers structure design and production-oriented learning more through professional awareness and interest. In this connection, in-service training can be provided to social studies teachers to guide and support them within the framework of activities and student activities.
- Studies can be organized together with teachers, students, parents and school administrators to determine the design and production-oriented learning needs of students.
- Various and numerous design workshops can be opened to support students' design and production activities and to offer design and production-oriented teaching environments to teachers.
- More emphasis should be placed on skills that support design and production-oriented teaching in the Social Studies curriculum.

Ethics Committee Approval

This study has been deemed ethically appropriate from a research ethics perspective by the Ethics Committee of Social and Human Sciences Research at Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University, with decision number 278 dated July 06, 2021.

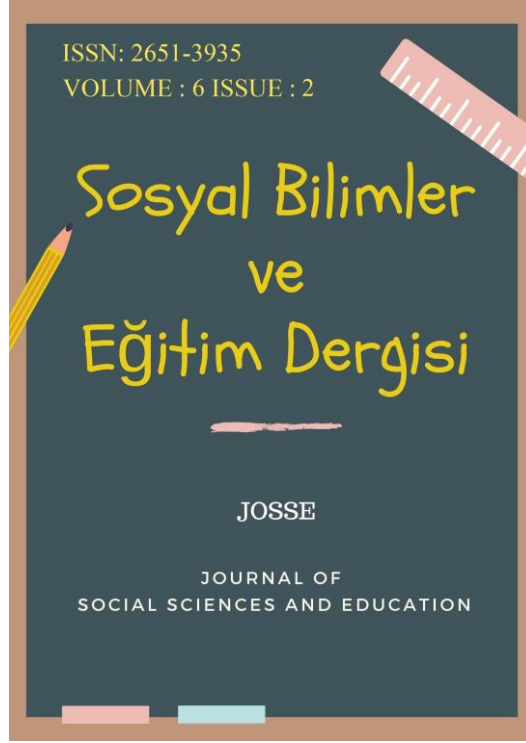
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**The Effect of Recreational Flow Experience on Mental Well-Being in
Fitness Participants***

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The Effect of Recreational Flow Experience on Mental Well-Being in Fitness Participants*

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Abstract

This study aimed to determine the effect of recreational flow experience on mental well-being in fitness participants. The "Recreational Flow Experience Scale" developed by Ayhan et al., (2020) and the "Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale" developed by Tennant et al., (2007) and adapted into Turkish by Keldal (2015) were used as data collection tools in the study. The research group consists of a total of 501 volunteer individuals, 344 males (68.7%) and 157 females (31.3%), selected by convenience sampling method among individuals attending the fitness center. The normality test of the obtained data was tested by checking the skewness-kurtosis values and it was determined that the data showed a normal distribution. In this context, in addition to descriptive statistics, pearson correlation and regression analyses were used in the analysis of the data. According to research findings, it has been determined that there is a positive relationship between recreational flow experience and mental well-being. Additionally, it has been observed that recreational flow experience has a positive effect on mental well-being, and recreational flow experience predicts mental well-being by approximately 17%. Accordingly, it was concluded that the flow experience experienced during recreational activities is an important factor in the mental well-being of the participants.

Keywords: Recreation, Recreational flow experience, Mental well-being, fitness participants

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Introduction

Individuals have to use their time efficiently in daily life activities (Gümüşay et al 2023). Individuals participate in fitness activities to renew both physically and spiritually. Fitness is a concept that is mentioned a lot and its popularity is increasing day by day. The widespread fitness centers appear as a recreational activity area in which individuals participate in their leisure time. Recreation is leisure time activities that are performed with the consent of individuals in line with certain conditions and motivations and have mental, physical, social, and cultural gains for individuals (Turhan & Koç, 2022). During the activities, the flow experience, which is an optimal experience formed by the positive interaction between the individual's ability and the environment, is experienced (Jang, 2016).

The basis of the flow experience is rooted back to Maslow's work in the 1960s. In the 1970s, psychologist and researcher Csikszentmihalyi, who was influenced by Maslow's work, developed and conceptualized the concept of flow (Turan, 2019). Currently, flow experience is a research area within positive psychology. Flow experience is defined as an optimal experience in which the individual is completely focused on the activity, he/she participates so that environmental factors and thoughts are filtered, there are clear goals, and the sense of control is intensely felt (Csikszentmihalyi, 1977). When the individual is cognitively engaged in the activity, concentration is so intense that irrelevant perceptions and thoughts are filtered out and concerns about other problems disappear. In the most intense moments of the activity, the participant's actions are identified with his/her awareness (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). In the moment of flow that the individual experiences during the activity, the concentration is so intense that irrelevant perceptions and thoughts are filtered and the worries about the problems encountered in daily life disappear (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). This experience is also experienced intensely during recreational activities. Recreational flow experience can be expressed as a positive experience in which an optimal experience of difficulty and skills is experienced during the activity, environmental factors and thoughts are filtered, concentration is intense, and a feeling of pleasure and happiness is aroused (Ayhan, Eskiler, & Soyer, 2020). This experience is also defined as the most positive emotion in human life, the most pleasurable experience, and a psychological state that arouses a feeling of happiness (Decloe, et al. 2009). During the recreational flow experience, the individual relaxes mentally, forgets his/her worries, and experiences a subjective and temporary experience full of pleasurable and positive emotions. At the end of the activity, the

individual gains positive benefits by experiencing positive emotions and feelings (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). In this context, the positive experiences of the individual during the activity will contribute to their mental well-being.

Mental well-being is defined as "being aware of the individual's abilities, being able to overcome the stress in his/her life, being productive and useful in business life and contributing to the society in line with his/her abilities" (Who, 2004). In another definition, mental well-being is defined as the fact that the individual is satisfied with the emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and environmental behaviors at that time, feels peace and in this sense does not feel psychological and mental turmoil (Sawyer et al., 2001). Studies show that mental well-being is an important factor reflecting the positive side of individuals' mental health. (Koivumaa-Honkanen, & Kaprio 2005).

Participation in recreational activities contributes to reducing anxiety and tension in individuals and increasing self-confidence and happiness (Chang, 2015; Hutchinson, Bland & Kleiber, 2008; Kim, June & Rhayun, 2002; Li, Zeng & Li, 2021; Wang & Wong, 2014). In this context, it is possible that individuals' mental well-being levels will increase with the flow experienced during participation in recreational activities. Despite that, there are different studies on recreational flow experience and mental well-being in the literature. Looking at the studies on flow experience, Tao et al. (2022) found that leisure participation had a significant effect on flow experience in the study in which they examined the effect of regular leisure participation on flow experience. In the studies conducted to examine the flow experience in leisure participation, it is seen that studies on flow experience in serious leisure activities that require commitment and regular participation are dominant (Dieser et al., 2015; Frash Jr & Blose, 2019; Heo et al., 2010; Hsu & Liu, 2020; Shen et al., 2022). Considering the studies on mental well-being, Kim et al. (2015) examined the relationship between leisure time attitude, leisure time satisfaction, and psychological well-being of university students and reported that leisure time attitude and leisure time satisfaction positively affect satisfaction and there is a positive relationship. In another study, Hribernik and Mussap (2010) examined the relationship between leisure time satisfaction and subjective well-being of individuals and reported a positive relationship between leisure time satisfaction and health. When different studies are examined, Ryff and Singer (2008) stated that mental well-being, managing relationships with people, self-understanding, and self-realization affect an important part of people's lives. It is essential to understand the relationship between sports and mental well-being concepts in terms of taking part in physical activities that are beneficial for physical and

mental health and increase body resistance to negativities and diseases and quality of life by creating a lifestyle (Biddle, Fox, & Boutcher, 2000).

It is seen that studies in which recreational flow experience and mental well-being are included together in fitness participants are limited in national and international literature. Considering this information, the importance of this research emerges to explain the mental well-being of fitness participants as a result of experiencing flow during the activity. In this context, the study aimed to investigate the effect of recreational flow experience on mental well-being in fitness participants.

Method

Model

In this study, the relational survey model, which was one of the quantitative research methods, was used. The relational survey model refers to a scientific approach that aims to reveal the relationship or effect between two different quantitative variables (Büyüköztürk et al. 2012; Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012; Karasar, 2016). According to this model, in the study, after descriptive analyses were conducted on the relationship between recreational flow experience and mental well-being levels of individuals participating in fitness activities, the relationship between these variables was explained with the relational screening model.

Sample and Population

The research group consisted of a total of 501 participants, 344 males (68.7%) and 157 females (31.3%), who were selected by convenience sampling method on the basis of volunteerism among individuals who were living in Sakarya province, aged 18 and over, and participate in fitness activities. Data from the research group were collected between February and May 2023. The demographic characteristics and participation status of the participants are presented in Table 1.

When Table 1 was analyzed, it was seen that 68.7% of the participants were male and 31.3% were female. It was determined that the highest participation was at the age of 18-24 with 40.9%, followed by 25-32 years with 38.1% and 33 years and older with 21.0%, respectively. It was observed that the highest level of education of the participants was the bachelor's degree with 52.7%, followed by high school and earlier with 29.7% and master's degree with 17.6%, respectively. It was determined that the participants had an average

monthly income of 0-11,500 TL at 50.5%, 11,501-23,000 TL at 32.7%, and 23,001 and above at 16.8%. It was determined that 43.3% of the participants answered the question "Who do you attend events with?" as "with friends", 39.5% "alone" and 17.2% "with family". Moreover, it was determined that 74.7% of the participants answered "yes" and 25.3% answered "no" to the question of whether they would participate in the fitness activity again next year. It was determined that 79.2% of the participants answered "yes" and 20.8% answered "no" to the question of whether they would recommend the last fitness activity to their friends. Besides, it was determined that the participants answered the question "For what purpose do you participate in these activities?" as Physical Health with 59.7%, Mental Health with 21.0%, and Socialisation with 19.4%.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Variables	Variable	N	%
Gender	Female	157	31.3
	Male	344	68.7
	Total	501	100.0
Age	18-24	205	40.9
	25-32	191	38.1
	33 and older	105	21.0
	Total	501	100.0
Educational Status	High school and earlier	149	29.7
	Bachelor's degree	264	52.7
	Master's degree	88	17.6
	Total	501	100.0
Monthly Income	0-11.500 TL	253	50.5
	11.501-23.000 TL	164	32.7
	23.001 and more	84	16.8
	Total	501	100.0
Who do you attend events with?	With Friends	217	43.3
	With Family	86	17.2
	Alone	198	39.5
	Total	501	100.0
Will you be attending the fitness event again next year?	Yes	374	74.7
	No	127	25.3
	Total	501	100.0
Would you recommend the last fitness event you attended to your friends?	Yes	397	79.2
	No	104	20.8
	Total	501	100.0
For what purpose do you participate in these activities?	Socialization	97	19.4
	Physical Health	299	59.7
	Mental Health	105	21.0
	Total	501	100.0

Data Collection Tools

Recreational Flow Experience Scale: The "Recreational Flow Experience" scale developed by Ayhan et al. (2020) was used to determine the flow experiences perceived by fitness participants during the activity. The related measurement tool was developed in a sample of individuals participating in traditional and extreme sports branches for recreational purposes. The recreational flow experience scale consisted of 9 items and one dimension. The items in the scale were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The high mean value to be obtained from the scale means high recreational flow experience, while the low mean value means low recreational flow experience. Besides, it was determined that the developed recreational flow experience scale had a sufficient level of internal consistency ($\alpha = .892$).

Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale: "Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale" developed by Tennant et al. (2007) and adapted to Turkish culture by Kendal (2015) was used to determine the mental well-being levels of the participants. This scale consisted of 14 positive items and had a 5-point Likert-type measurement level ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The lowest score was 14 points and the highest score was 70 points. High scores obtained from the scale indicate high mental well-being. The validity and reliability coefficient of the scale was reported as ($\alpha = .920$) (Kendal, 2015).

Statistical Analysis

The data obtained from the scales were analyzed using the IBM SPSS 24.0 package program. In addition to descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation analysis was performed to determine the relationship between recreational flow experience and mental well-being in fitness participants. Moreover, linear regression analysis was performed to determine the effect of recreational flow experience on mental well-being in fitness participants. In the statistical analysis and interpretations of the data, the significance level was taken as 0.05. To determine whether there was a multicollinearity problem in the data to be used for the analyses, Durbin-Watson coefficient values, binary correlations ($r < 0.80$), tolerance values ($1 - R^2 > 0.20$), variance inflation factor ($VIF = [1 / (1 - R^2)] < 10$) and maximum case index value ($CI < 30$) were examined for the regression model and it was determined that there was no autocorrelation problem between variables (Coşkun et al., 2012; Büyüköztürk, 2016).

Ethics Committee Approval

In this research, participants were given detailed information about the aim and content of the study and signed an informed consent form. Ethical approval for this study was obtained from Balikesir University (Decision No: 2023/92) and the research was carried out within the scope of the Council of Higher Education Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Instruction.

Findings

In this part of the study, the results and interpretations of the statistical analyses conducted following the research were presented.

Table 2

The Relationship between Recreational Flow Experience and Recreation Area Preference

Factors

Sub-dimensions		1	2
Recreational Flow Experience ⁽¹⁾	r		.411**
	p	1	.000
Mental Well-Being ⁽²⁾	r	.411**	1
	p	.000	

**p<0.001; N=501

When the results of the analyses were examined, it was determined that there was a positive and moderately significant relationship between recreational flow experience and mental well-being ($p<.01$; Table 2). This result shows that as the participants' recreational flow levels increase, their mental well-being levels will also increase.

Linear regression analysis was used to determine the effect of recreational flow experience on mental well-being. As a result of the analysis, it was determined that recreational flow experience predicted mental well-being by approximately 17% ($\text{adj.R}^2 = .167$). In other words, it was determined that the independent variables had a statistically significant effect on the dependent variable ($p<.001$). Accordingly, it was observed that the effect of recreational flow experience on mental well-being was significant in the model (Table 3).

Table 3

The Effect of Recreational Flow Experience on Mental Well-Being

Dependent Variable: Mental Well-Being					
Variables	B	Standard Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	2.070	.175		11.803	.000
Recreational Flow Experience	.296	.029	.411	10.058	.000
R²=.169, ADJ.R²=.167					
F=101.164, p=.001				Method: Enter	

Discussion and Results

The results obtained from this study, which was conducted to determine the relationship between participants' recreational flow experience and mental well-being levels, were discussed and interpreted in this section. When the results of the analyses were examined, it was determined that there was a positive relationship between recreational flow experience and mental well-being. Accordingly, as the level of flow experienced by the participants during recreational activities increased, it was seen that there was a positive change in their mental health perceptions. Moreover, it was observed that recreational flow experience had a positive effect on mental well-being and recreational flow experience predicted mental well-being by approximately 17%.

Individuals who experience flow during participation in recreational activities not only do sports, but also achieve positive outcomes in terms of self-improvement through exercise, avoiding social alienation, protecting their mental and physical health, and improving their creative expression skills (Kim & Lee, 2008). During the recreational flow experience, the individual relaxes mentally, forgets his/her worries, and experiences a subjective and temporary experience full of pleasurable and positive emotions. At the end of the activity, the individual experiences positive emotions and feelings and gains positive gains (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). Moreover, flow experience points to a psychological state in which people feel successful, happy and motivated. The flow experience has a structure that directly affects the feeling of happiness in individuals and increases it positively as a result and process.

Moreover, the flow experience increases individuals' motivation and strengthens their belief that they can perform even more difficult tasks. These positive emotions they feel as a

result of this experience indirectly contribute positively to their mental well-being (Moneta & Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Moneta, 2004). Recreational flow experience is important for mental health due to its stress-reducing effects, increasing positive emotions, providing self-improvement opportunities, and strengthening social connections. In this context, it can be stated that recreational flow experience has a significant effect on mental well-being.

There were studies in the related literature that support the results of this study. LeFevre (1988) observed an increase in the positive emotions of individuals in direct proportion to the time and frequency spent in the flow experience. In the study conducted by Bloch (2001), it was revealed that flow experience caused several positive psychological states such as joy, cheerfulness, happiness, and honor. Fullagar and Kelloway (2009) also reported that flow experience had a positive effect on people's mental well-being. Moreover, there were studies in the literature that flow experience was effective on various issues in the field of positive psychology as well as mental well-being. In these studies, conducted on various sample groups, it was reported that flow experience was effective on happiness (Sahoo & Sahu, 2009; Tsaur, Yen, & Hsiao, 2013); subjective well-being (Bryce & Haworth, 2002; Carpentier, Mageau, & Vallerand, 2012; Cheng & Lu, 2015; Clarke & Haworth, 1994; Moutinho et al., 2019) and life satisfaction (Chang, 2003; Chen et al., 2010).

As a result, it was determined that there was a moderate positive relationship between recreational flow experience and mental well-being, and recreational flow experience predicted mental well-being by approximately 17%. It was concluded that the flow experience during recreational activities was an important factor in the mental well-being of the participants. The study, which is thought to be a locomotive for future studies, will have the importance and quality to make a difference in terms of contributing to the field as an important study in which recreational flow experience and mental well-being are combined.

Limitations and Suggestions

In this study, the relationship between recreational flow experience and mental well-being was investigated. In future studies, structural equation modeling can be used with variables such as recreational flow experience, mental well-being, leisure time interest, psychological commitment, recreational specialization, and perceived benefit.

To increase the recreational flow experience, which has a significant impact on the mental well-being of individuals, some suggestions are given below for fitness businesses:

- Organise yoga, zumba, spinning, and other group activities that contribute to the recreational flow, as group classes can help individuals strengthen social connections and enjoy exercising together.
- It is recommended to hire well-trained and motivating trainers. Well-trained and motivating instructors can help clients to better understand and correctly perform their exercises. Trainers can support the recreational flow experience by paying attention to the emotional and psychological needs of clients.
- By creating specific programs focused on achieving personal goals, clients' exercise should be complete more meaningful. In this way, the sense of achievement obtained by participants can contribute to increasing mental well-being.
- Modern equipment and a clean, organized environment can encourage clients to come to the fitness center regularly. This in turn can increase recreational flow levels.

Ethics Committee Approval

In this research, participants were given detailed information about the aim and content of the study and signed an informed consent form. Ethical approval for this study was obtained from Balikesir University (Decision No: 2023/92) and the research was carried out within the scope of the Council of Higher Education Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Instruction.

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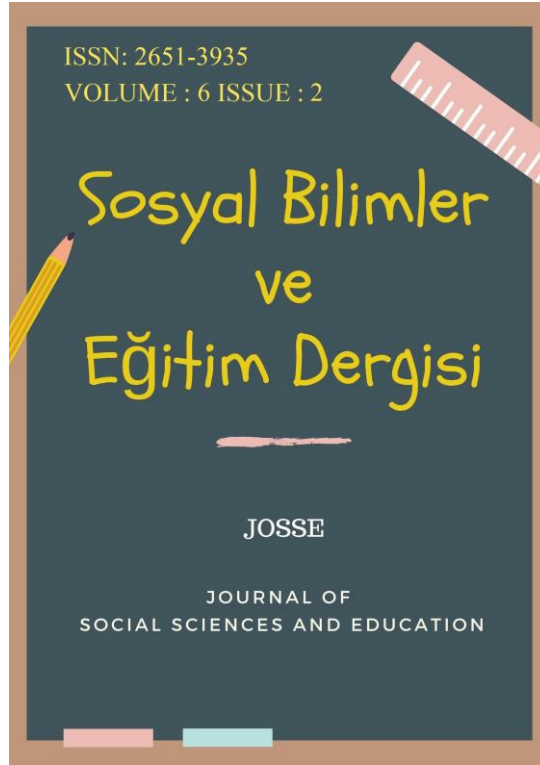
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Determining the Perceptions of Social Studies Teacher Candidates on the Subject of Political Geography by Word Association Test (WAT)

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Determining the Perceptions of Social Studies Teacher Candidates on the Subject of Political Geography by Word Association Test (WAT)

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Abstract

This research aims to investigate the cognitive structures of social studies teacher candidates regarding political geography with the word association test. The scanning method was used in the research. 4th-grade social studies teacher candidates at a state university in Turkey in the 2022-2023 academic year participated in the research. We conducted the research with 26 teacher candidates, selected using the criterion sampling method, one of the purposeful sampling methods. The Word Association Test (WAT) form obtained the research data. "Political geography, geographical necessity, dominance theory, continental shelf, problematic region, a form of government, international power struggles, conflict zones, geopolitics, and Turkey's neighbors" were keywords in the WAT form. Prospective teachers formed concepts regarding each keyword, and we created a frequency table for these concepts. Then, we prepared concept network maps based on this frequency table. We used the breakpoint technique in the preparation of the concept network maps. As a result of the research, social studies teacher candidates formed 561, a concept about political geography. When the sentences made by social studies teacher candidates about political geography concepts were examined, it was determined that the number of sentences containing scientific information was 161, and the number of sentences containing non-scientific or superficial information was 86. As a result of the research, the word association test is an important tool in determining prospective teachers' perceptions of certain concepts. It is recommended that social studies teacher candidates be given training to improve their cognitive levels on the subject.

Keywords: Word association test, political geography, social studies, teacher candidate

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Introduction

Social studies, in order to help the social existence of the individual, includes social sciences such as history, geography, economy, psychology, philosophy, sociology, anthropology, political science and law, and citizenship subjects, as well as bringing together the learning areas in a unit, and includes the individual's social. It is a course prepared based on mass education, in which communication with the physical environment is investigated in the context of the past, present, and future (Ministry of National Education [MEB], 2005). Social studies are a course that includes various disciplines and derives its resources from the knowledge, skills, and concepts of these social science disciplines (Öztürk, 2009). Social studies, which constitute the basic building blocks of education systems in our age, is considered indispensable and is taught as a compulsory course by the state (Şişman, 2014). is a type of course that helps individuals establish the connection between their past, present, and future and develops them in many aspects (Aykaç & Adıgüzel, 2011). Social studies aims to raise citizens equipped with the basic knowledge, skills, and values required by their age, who use the concepts and methods of social sciences, who are actively productive, and who know and use their rights and responsibilities (Kaymakçı, 2009). Therefore, social studies course is taught by selecting and kneading information from social disciplines such as sociology, political science, psychology, history, and geography with an interdisciplinary approach (Sözer, 1998). Geography, whose subject is “to investigate, examine and question the relations between the earth and people,” is a branch of science that “examines and investigates the distribution of these events and the reasons affecting this distribution” (Yazıcı & Koca, 2011). Geography education is defined as “enabling students to examine problems about natural and human events by gaining different perspectives and finding answers to them by determining and using different scales, to understand the world from one part to another locally and generally, to gain an investigative nature and the ability to solve problems inside and outside the classroom.” evaluated (Karabağ, 2001). Political geography examines the geographical arguments of various policies, political goals, decisions, and activities of countries, organizations, and organizations. It analyzes the impact of these geographical arguments on various policies, political goals, decisions, and activities. It involves investigating the impact of geographical location on various strategic relations between states or regions (Akengin, 2019). Political geography can be defined as the science that examines the causes, consequences, distribution, and connections between physical and human events

in the whole world or only in a particular region or state and determines various views or approaches to running the state order (Özey, 2013). A look at geography in economic geography, from an economic perspective; in historical geography, this perspective is from a historical perspective, and in political geography, this perspective is from a political perspective. However, no matter what angle it is viewed from, as in the interpretation of economic, historical, and political events, geographical factors inherent in geography always maintain their weight (Günel, 1997).

It became possible for the social studies teaching undergraduate program to take its place in the Turkish education system as an independent field in the Republic period in 1998. In addition, the renewal of the social studies undergraduate program was carried out in 2006. Since this period, geography group courses, one of the essential elements of social studies, have found a place in the program. The geography group, which consists of 8 courses in total, includes courses named General Physical Geography, General Human and Economic Geography, Geography of Countries, Human and Economic Geography of Turkey, Physical Geography of Turkey, Geography of Environmental Problems, Contemporary World Problems and Political Geography (Kaymakçı, 2012). In the Political Geography and Geopolitics of Turkey course, the political formation of the European Union, the Middle East, the Balkans, Cyprus, the Caucasus, and Central Asia is discussed in line with the physical and human factors influential in political geography. Prospective teachers of the Political Geography and Geopolitics of Turkey course may gain information about their countries and communities' geographical and political aspects (Council of Higher Education [YÖK], 2018). Accordingly, it is thought that the cognitive structures of prospective teachers on this subject should be examined, taking into account the contents of the courses they took during their undergraduate education, and the deficiencies in their cognitive structures, if any, should be eliminated.

When the relevant literature is scanned, it appears that studies have been conducted directly on political geography, especially Süha Göney, Ramazan Özey, and Hamza Akengin (Akengin, 2019; Göney, 1979; Özey, 2013). On the other hand, it is seen that some research has been conducted on political geography in social studies (Aksoy & Karaçalı, 2014; Çoban & Şahin, 2018; Ersoy & Ayaydın, 2023; Gülüm, 2014; Karakaya & Öner, 2021; Uğurlu & Doğan, 2016; Uğurlu & Akdovan, 2019; Yılmaz & Yiğit, 2010). In addition, many studies have been conducted on the examination of cognitive structures in social studies (Açıkgöz, 2019; Akdoğan, 2022; Aladağ & Yılmaz, 2014; Balcı, 2019; Çelik & Çakmak, 2023;

Çelikkaya & Kürümlüoğlu, 2019; Çetin & Yel, 2022; Çetin & Uslu, 2022; Demirer & Şaşmaz Ören, 2020; Demirkaya et al., 2020; Deveci et al., 2014; Durmuş & Sert, 2022; Er Tuna, 2018; Gençoğlu, 2019; Karaca & Yalçınkaya, 2019; Karakuş, 2019; Özkaral and Bozyiğit, 2021; Özyurt & Ercan Yalman, 2020; Şimşek, 2013; Tokcan & Yiter, 2017; Turgut & Kaymakcı, 2019; Ünal & Er, 2017; Yılar & Ünal, 2022; Yılmaz, 2019). However, there is no study examining the cognitive structures of social studies teacher candidates regarding political geography issues. However, social studies teachers are essential in helping future generations know the impact of geographical location on various strategic relations between states or regions. It is thought that this research will contribute to filling the gap in the literature and will guide future research on the place of political geography in social studies education undergraduate programs.

This research aims to examine the cognitive structures of social studies teacher candidates regarding political geography using the word association test. For this purpose, “What are the cognitive structures of fourth-grade social studies education undergraduate program teachers regarding the subject of political geography?” The answer to the question has been sought.

Method

This part of the research includes information about the research model, study group, data collection tool, data collection, and data analysis.

Model

The scanning model detects a past or present situation as it exists (Karasar, 2018). While the variables that exist in a particular situation are determined with the scanning model, the relationships between these variables are also determined (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). In line with these explanations, the survey model was used in the current research to determine social studies teacher candidates' concepts about political geography. The research was conducted considering that the screening model was suitable for determining the cognitive structures of prospective teachers on political geography using the word association test. Thus, misconceptions can be detected by associating prospective teachers' thoughts about political geography positively or negatively.

Sample and Population

This study group consisted of 4th-grade social studies teacher candidates studying at a state university in Turkey in the 2022-2023 academic year. The criterion sampling method, one of the purposeful sampling methods, was used to determine the study group. Criterion sampling is preferred in determining participants with appropriate qualifications in line with the purpose of the research (Büyüköztürk et al., 2017). In the current study, the selection criteria were determined as having taken the “Political Geography and Geopolitics of Turkey” course and not having participated in a study on the WAT before. A total of 26 social studies teacher candidates, nine males and 17 females, participated in the research.

Data Collection Tools

WAT was used to determine social studies teacher candidates' concepts regarding political geography. A word association test is a technique that enables direct examination of the perceptions created by predetermined words in individuals. Participants write the first concepts that come to mind to the keywords included in the WAT (Sato & James, 1999; Şimşek, 2015). In the current study, WAT was used to reveal the cognitive structures of social studies teacher candidates regarding the determined concepts and to identify possible misconceptions. In the data collection tool in the WAT form, “political geography, geographical necessity, theory of dominance, continental shelf, problematic region, a form of government, international power struggles, conflict zones, geopolitics, and Turkey's neighbors” were used as keywords. In determining these keywords, the subject area was first examined, and the keywords that were thought to be necessary within the scope of the subject were determined by the researcher. In order to determine that the determined keywords were within the scope of the subject, opinions were taken from 2 geography education experts. The sample concept in the WAT form is presented as follows.

Table 1

WAT Sample Application Page

When you see the following concepts, write the first words that come to your mind in the spaces next to them. You have one (1) minute to write the words.

Political Geography

Political Geography

Political Geography

Political Geography

Political Geography

Write the sentence that comes to your mind about political geography in the section below.

Related Sentence

Collection of Data and Analysis

Before the application, prospective teachers were explained the WAT form and information on how to fill out the form. Then, an example application regarding a concept not included in the form is presented. Students were given 1 minute to write the first concept that came to mind for each keyword in the form. Then, they were asked to write a sentence about the relevant concept. The data obtained with the data collection tool were examined in detail. The frequency of concepts created by prospective teachers for ten key concepts was determined. While calculating the frequency, the identification of the words that the prospective teachers associated with the concepts given in the WAT form and their frequency of repetition were taken into account. In line with this frequency table, concept network maps were created in the CMaps program. The concept network maps indicate the connections between the answer words created by the teacher candidates for each keyword. In the creation of the prepared concept network maps, Bahar et al. (1999) was used. Accordingly, the highest cut-off point is determined by taking the middle number of the most repeated words of each key concept in the form. This situation is repeated until the words are finished by creating another breakpoint by taking the midpoint of other repeating words (As cited in Ercan & Taşdere 2010).

In the data obtained within the scope of the research, cut-off points were determined according to the most frequently repeated word. Accordingly, the cut-off point ranges were determined by decreasing the range in accordance with the cut-off point criteria in the literature. In the WAT form, to examine prospective teachers' cognitive structures in-depth, the participants were asked to write a sentence regarding the relevant concept. In the analysis of these sentences, Ercan & Taşdere's (2010) classification (sentences containing scientific information, containing non-scientific or superficial information, and containing misconceptions) was used. In ensuring the validity of the research, the researcher displayed an objective attitude during the data collection process. Additionally, in order to ensure the validity of the research data, the data obtained was analyzed by another researcher, and researcher triangulation was performed. The reliability of the research was ensured by including direct quotations to support the findings (Patton, 2014).

Ethical Committee Approval

The ethical review was carried out by = Kastamonu University Social and Human Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

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Findings

Under this heading, the findings of the pre-service social studies teachers related to the words they associate with the concepts of political geography in the word association test are included and explained with tables and figures:

Table 2

Findings on the Number of Words That Pre-Service Social Studies Teachers Associate

Concepts within the Word Association Test

Concepts	f	%
Geographical Necessity	73	13,01
Dominance Theory	70	12,49
Problem Area	68	12,12
Conflict Zones	64	11,41
International Migration Struggles	63	11,23
Geopolitics	55	9,80
Continental Shelf	52	9,27
Political Geography	44	7,84
Form of Management	44	7,84
Turkey's Neighbors	28	4,99
Total	561	100

According to the table, 561 words were associated with political geography concepts in the Word Association Test of social studies teacher candidates. 73 (13.01%) of the words associated by pre-service social studies teachers are geographical necessity, 70 (12.49%) are dominance theory, 68 (12.12%) are problematic regions, 64 (11.41) are conflict zones, 63 (11.23) are international migration struggles, 55 (9.80) are geopolitics, 52 (9.27%) are continental shelf, 44 (7.84%) are political geography and management style, and 28 (4.99%) belong to Turkey's neighbors. Accordingly, when the number of words that the pre-service teachers associated with political geography in the table was examined, it was determined that they associated the most with geographical necessity and the least with Turkey's neighbors.

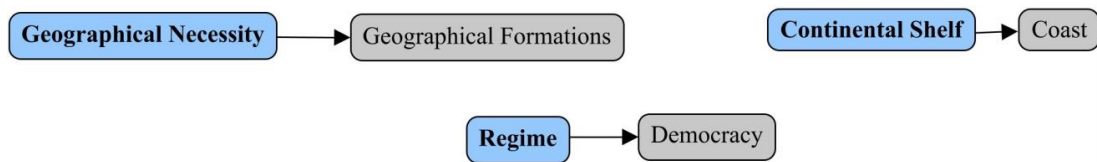
The words related to the pre-service social studies teachers participating were examined using the breakpoint technique in Figure 1.

Figure 1.

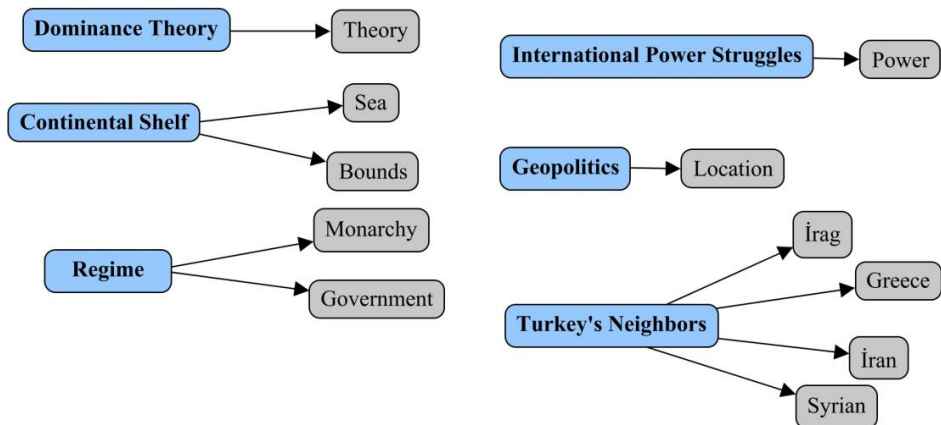
Breakpoint 28 and up



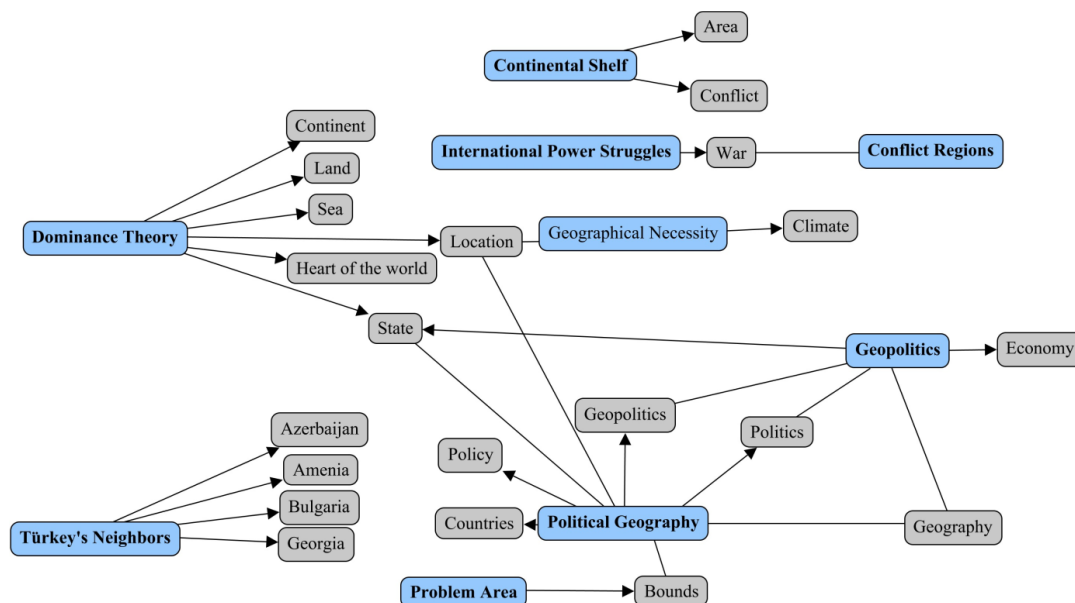
Breakpoint 22-18



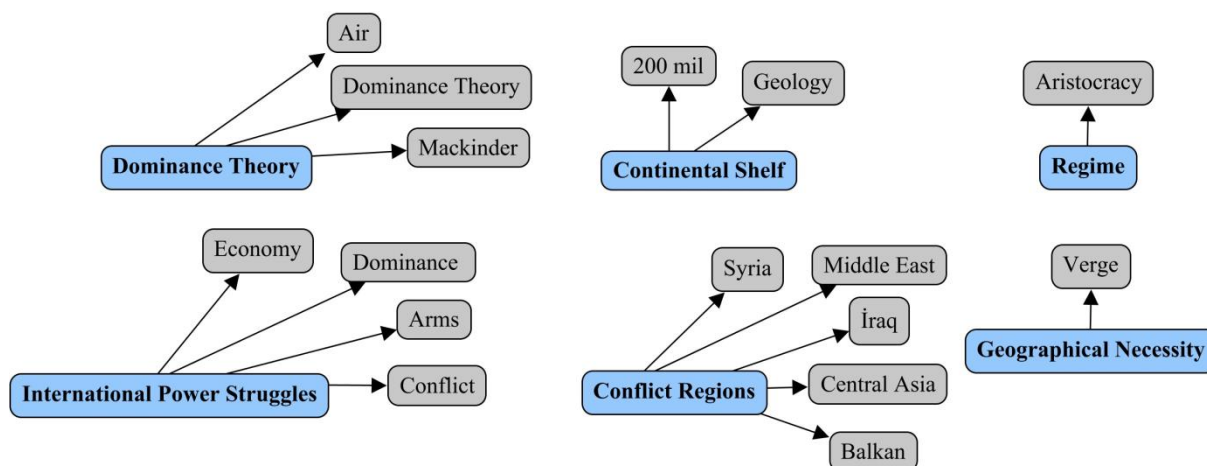
Breakpoint 17-13



Breakpoint 12-8



Breakpoint 7-3



In the word association test, each central concept whose breakpoints are examined is shown in blue, and the words associated with the image are gray.

At the cut-off point 28 and above, it was determined that the pre-service social studies teachers who participated in the survey were most associated with the conflict zone out of ten political geography concepts. Accordingly, pre-service teachers make the most associations about this concept due to Turkey's geopolitical position.

It was determined that the pre-service social studies teachers who participated in the research between 22-18 cut-off points associated words with the concepts of geographical necessity, continental shelf, and management style. When the terms related to these concepts were examined, they associated the geographical elements such as landforms and the coast of the pre-service teachers and the idea of democracy with a libertarian expression.

When the words associated with the concepts between cut-off points 17-13 were examined, it was seen that the pre-service social studies teachers related words with the concepts of dominance theory, international power struggles, geopolitics, Turkey's neighbors, form of government, continental shelf and form of administration. They have been determined to associate these concepts with words such as theory, sea, waters, borders, monarchy, government, power, position, Iraq, Greece, Iran, and Syria. When we look at the words associated with the pre-service teachers, there is an increase in the terms related to these concepts.

When the concepts of political geography associated with cut-off points 12-8 are examined, it is determined that pre-service social studies teachers have the pictures of dominance theory, Turkey's neighbors, continental shelf, international power struggles, geographical necessity, geopolitics, problematic region, conflict zones, political geography. There is an increase in the number of concepts given within the scope of the research at this cut-off point for pre-service teachers. On the other hand, when we look at the words associated with pre-service teachers, it is seen that it is related to geographical and political elements such as continent, land, sea, the heart of the world, state, location, area, conflict, war, climate, economy, geography, borders, countries, geopolitics; It has been revealed that they have associated with border countries such as Azerbaijan, Armenia, Bulgaria, and Georgia. When we look at the number of words related to the concepts in the word association test in general terms, the number of comments associated increases as the breakpoint interval narrows.

When the cut-off point 7-3 interval is examined, it is seen that it is associated with the concepts of dominance theory, international power struggles, continental shelf, conflict zone, and geographical necessity. Pre-service teachers associated these concepts with words such as weather, dominance theory, Mackinder, economy, domination, aristocracy, Balkan, Syria, the Middle East, Central Asia, Iraq, and conflict.

The findings obtained as a result of the analysis of the sentences made by the pre-service teachers about the concepts of political geography are explained in Table 3:

Table 3

Findings on Pre-Service Social Studies Teachers' Sentences on Political Geography Concepts

Concepts	Number of Scientific	Number of Sentences Containing Unscientific or	Number of Sentences
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	Sentences	Superficial Information	Containing Misconceptions
Political Geography	14	12	-
Geographical Imperative	10	16	-
Dominance Theory	18	8	-
Continental Shelf	19	7	-
Problem Area	13	12	1
Form of Management	20	6	-
International Migration Struggles	22	4	-
Conflict Zones	17	9	-
Geopolitics	15	9	2
Turkey's Neighbors	13	3	-
Total	161	86	3

When the sentences of social studies teacher candidates about the concepts of political geography were examined, it was determined that the number of sentences containing scientific information was 161, and the number of sentences containing non-scientific or superficial information was 86. In addition, it was determined that the number of sentences containing misconceptions was 3.

It was determined that the pre-service teachers made 14 sentences with scientific content and 12 sentences with non-scientific or superficial information content about the concept of political geography. On the other hand, it was observed that the pre-service teachers did not make sentences, indicating that there was a misconception. In this direction, pre-service teachers drew attention to the effect of geographical location, the plans of the countries, and their examination of a cause-effect relationship in their scientific sentences. Looking at the statements of the teacher candidates, SB3-E draws attention to the effect of geographical location; “The positive and negative situations provided by geographical conditions to the states and their relations with other states by taking into account these situations.”, to the plans of the countries and their examination in the relationship of cause and effect, SB14E; “It is an area that regulates the borders of countries and their relations with other countries, and every country should plan.” and SB22-K; “Political geography is a sub-branch of the science of geography that explains the connection between man and the earth based on the principle of cause and effect.” he said.

It was determined that the pre-service teachers had ten pieces of scientific content and 16 non-scientific or superficial information content regarding the concept of geographical necessity and needed to make a sentence containing misconceptions. It has been observed that pre-service teachers who make sentences with scientific knowledge emphasize the countries' positions. In this regard, SB27-K, “It is a geographical necessity that Greek civilization in ancient times should be established and developed in the valleys between the mountains.” He

said. In the sentence part, which is not scientific information or contains superficial information, pre-service teachers drew attention to the limitations offered by geography. SB9-K on the subject; “It refers to a living condition that living things have to do.” He wrote a sentence in the form of.

It was determined that the pre-service teachers had 18 pieces of scientific content and eight non-scientific or superficial information content regarding the concept of dominance theory and did not make a sentence containing a misconception. This was emphasized in the rulings of the pre-service teachers with scientific knowledge of Mackinder's theory of black domination. Accordingly, SB6-K from teacher candidate's states, “Mackinder's theory of land domination is that the continents of Asia, Europe, and Africa constitute the whole island of the world.” He said. They have written general sentences in which various theories have been put forward in sentences that need more scientific knowledge or contain superficial information. SB22-E on the subject; “In history, various theories have always been put forward to dominate the world.” He said.

It was determined that the pre-service teachers had 19 pieces of scientific content and seven non-scientific or superficial information content regarding the concept of the continental shelf and needed to make a sentence containing misconceptions. In sentences with scientific information, attention was drawn to how far it covers under the sea and what it is. SB5-K on the subject; “The continuation of the territories of the countries under the sea, up to -200 meters.” He said. Sentence SB26-K, which is not scientific information or contains superficial information, “Just because it is far from the headquarters does not mean its steps cannot be reached.”

It was determined that the pre-service teachers had 13 pieces of scientific content and 12 pieces of non-scientific or superficial information about the concept of the problem area, and they needed to make a sentence containing a misconception. Sentence SB13-E with scientific information; “There are problematic regions due to the geopolitical position of the countries.” Sentence SB10-K, which is not scientific information or contains superficial information; “Problem areas are often at the borders.” A pre-service teacher (SB18-K) said about the concept of a problematic region, “The project to benefit from the Euphrates basin and the Tigris basin is called the Southeastern Anatolia Project.” He wrote a sentence in the form of. In this case, it can be said that the teacher candidate does not have enough knowledge about the concept of the problematic region and has a misconception because a

wrong connotation arises in his mind when the southeastern Anatolia region comes to his mind and is called the complex region.

It was determined that the pre-service teachers had 20 pieces of scientific content and six non-scientific or superficial information content regarding management style. They needed to make a sentence containing misconceptions. Ruling with scientific information SB5-K; “The path followed in the state administration.” Sentence SB18-E that is not scientific knowledge or contains superficial information; “True Democracy brings prosperity.” It has also been the first time that the company has

It was determined that the pre-service teachers had 22 pieces of scientific content and four non-scientific or superficial information content regarding the concept of international power struggles. They should have made a sentence containing misconceptions. The sentence with scientific information on the subject is SB13-E; “There are problematic regions due to the geopolitical position of the countries.” A sentence that is not scientific information or contains superficial information is also SB10-K; “Problem areas are often at the borders.” He said.

It was determined that the pre-service teachers had 17 pieces of scientific content and nine non-scientific or superficial information content regarding the concept of conflict zones, and they needed to make a sentence containing misconceptions. The sentence with scientific information is SB13-E, “There are problematic regions due to the geopolitical position of the countries.” and SB6-K, “Areas that differ from the country to which they are affiliated in terms of ethnic, cultural, religious, sectarian or regional characteristics and demand political autonomy or independence by using this difference are the basis of the conflict.” SB10-K in a sentence that is not scientific information or contains superficial information; “Problem areas are often at the borders.” He said.

It was determined that the pre-service teachers had 15 pieces of scientific content and nine non-scientific or superficial information content regarding the concept of geopolitics and needed to make a sentence containing misconceptions. While pre-service teachers who made sentences with scientific knowledge drew attention to the country's position, pre-service teachers who made sentences without scientific knowledge or with superficial information drew attention to factors such as the country's characteristics. In this position, SB12-E, which writes a sentence with scientific information; SB10-K, which makes sentences that are not scientific information and contain superficial information while writing sentences such as “It is the special position of a country”; “Geopolitics determines the characteristics of the world.”

On the other hand, it has been determined that geopolitics is a branch of political geography and that some pre-service teachers need clarification about the subject. A pre-service teacher who was found to have a mistake on the subject SB23-K said, “It is a branch of political geography.” He said.

It was determined that the pre-service teachers had 13 pieces of scientific content and three non-scientific or superficial information content regarding the concept of Turkey's neighbors. They did not make a sentence containing a misconception. It has been determined that the pre-service teachers focus on how many neighbors Turkey has for the relevant concept and make sentences indicating which countries these are. On the other hand, it has been determined that in sentences that are not scientific or contain superficial information, teacher candidates write sentences that are in the interest of the state and that their claims should be considered. In this regard, SB17-K, “Turkey has eight neighbors.” SB24-K; “Turkey's neighbors are countries such as Greece, Iraq and Syria.” SB18-E; “The interests of the state are above all personal interests,” he said.

Discussion and Results

This study aims to examine the cognitive structures of pre-service social studies teachers regarding the concepts of political geography. Within the scope of the research, when the words associated by the pre-service teachers for the concepts specified in the word association test were examined, the results obtained from the study were explained in the paragraphs below.

This study aims to examine the cognitive structures of pre-service social studies teachers related to the subject of political geography with the word association test. In this context, it can be said that the word association test is an effective technique in revealing the cognitive structure (Ozkara, & Bozyiğit, 2021). For this purpose, a total of the keywords “Political geography, geographical necessity, theory of dominance, continental shelf, problematic region, the form of government, international power struggles, conflict zones, geopolitics, and Turkey's neighbors” were examined with the SOE for 4th grade social studies students with the purposeful sampling method. A total of 561 response concepts were generated to these ten key concepts. In particular, while the answer concept was primarily produced for the geographical necessity dominance theory, the problematic region, and the conflict region key concepts, the least answer concept was produced for the fundamental idea

of Turkey's Neighbors. When the words associated by the pre-service teachers with these concepts are examined, they often make associations with the difficulty of geography and the expansion of the dominant areas of the states in response to this difficulty.

A total of 44 answer concepts related to the keyword political geography were produced. Fourteen of the sentences made by pre-service social studies teachers regarding the concept of political geography are scientific, and 12 are non-scientific or superficial sentences. However, geography, especially political geography, is considered essential in social studies courses. In this context, teacher candidates are expected to have the competence and knowledge to make scientifically based sentences about the concept of political geography.

A total of 73 answer concepts were generated regarding the keyword geographical necessity. Ten of the sentences made by social studies teacher candidates regarding the idea of geographical necessity are scientific, and 16 are non-scientific or superficial sentences. In this direction, pre-service teachers cannot correctly evaluate the concept of geographical necessity.

A total of 70 answer concepts were produced for the dominance theory keyword. Eighteen of the sentences made by social studies teacher candidates regarding dominance theory are scientific, 10 of which contain non-scientific or superficial information. Considering the number of concepts produced by teacher candidates, it is said that their level of readiness is high, and they have sufficient knowledge about the theory of dominance, which has an essential place in political geography.

A total of 52 answer concepts were generated regarding the continental shelf keyword. Nineteen of the sentences made by social studies teacher candidates about continental shelf are scientific, and seven are non-scientific or superficial. The continental shelf, an essential geographical concept, is associated with the dominance of states in the seas. Among the critical disputes between Turkey and Greece is the continental shelf. In this context, it is common for pre-service teachers to produce different concepts and mainly scientific sentences because this subject has an essential place in both social studies and various disciplines and media.

A total of 68 answer concepts were produced for the problem area keyword. In the word association test, it was determined that the pre-service teachers associated the word with the concept of the problem area the most in the determined cut-off point range. When the problem area was mentioned, the expression conflict often came to mind. The frequent agenda

of political problems arising from the frequent border problems around the world in recent years is influential in the cognitive structures of teacher candidates. On the other hand, pre-service teachers often associated words with the concepts of continental shelf, geographical necessity, continental shelf, and form of management. In addition, 13 of the sentences made by social studies teacher candidates regarding the concept of problem area are scientific, and 12 are non-scientific or superficial sentences. It has also been determined that there needs to be more clarity about this crucial concept.

A total of 44 answer concepts were produced regarding the management style keyword. 20 of the sentences made by social studies teacher candidates regarding management style are scientific, and 6 are non-scientific or superficial sentences. The fact that the rulings made by the teacher candidates for the relevant concept are predominantly scientific is based on the candidates' high prior knowledge and experience about the current concept. As a matter of fact, when the courses in the social studies undergraduate program are examined, it is seen that they have content for the relevant concept.

A total of 63 answer concepts were produced for the keyword of power struggles between nations. Twenty-two of the sentences made by pre-service social studies teachers about the idea of international power struggles are scientific, and 4 are non-scientific or superficial sentences. The richness of the concepts produced by the pre-service teachers regarding the idea of power struggles between nations and the abundance of scientific sentences can be explained by both the undergraduate program in which they are educated and the fact that Turkey takes an active role in the power struggles between the countries of the world and that this issue is constantly kept warm and reported through the media. This created awareness of the relevant concept in pre-service teachers.

A total of 64 response concepts were produced for the keyword conflict zones. Seventeen of the sentences made by pre-service social studies teachers regarding the idea of conflict zones are scientific, and 9 are non-scientific or superficial sentences.

A total of 55 response concepts related to the keyword geopolitics were produced. Fifteen of the sentences made by pre-service social studies teachers about geopolitics are scientific, and 9 are non-scientific or superficial sentences. It has also been determined that there is a misconception. In the survey conducted by Ünal & Er (2017), it was determined that the concept of geopolitics is a difficult concept to teach in the social studies lessons of social studies teacher candidates. Geopolitics is a comprehensive concept that includes world

politics, world domination, and military strategy in general. Pre-service teachers can make a conceptual error while evaluating the relevant concept in this context.

Twenty-eight answer concepts were produced for the keyword Turkey's neighbors. It has been determined that pre-service teachers mainly associate words with the names of countries related to Turkey's neighbors. In addition, in the sentences they wrote, it was seen how many countries this situation bordered and that it was mainly scientific information. Yılmaz & Yiğit (2010) emphasize that pre-service social studies teachers should have sufficient knowledge about Turkey's neighbors, away from prejudice, and the ability to evaluate the relations between these countries and Turkey from different perspectives. Tunçel (2002), on the other hand, stated in his study that students did not have information about the neighboring countries of Turkey. In addition, 13 of the sentences made by pre-service teachers about the concept of Turkey's neighbors are scientific, and three are non-scientific or contain a superficial interest. Apart from this, it has been revealed that teacher candidates have misconceptions in different studies (Doğru, 2021; Doğru & Özsevgeç, 2023)

When the words associated with the pre-service teachers were examined, it was determined that they frequently emphasized the words related to geographical elements (sea, landforms, etc.) and the necessity of states to have power (domination theory, war, weapons, etc.).

It has been determined that a significant part of the sentences made by the pre-service teachers in the word association test are sentences with scientific content, and the number of sentences containing non-scientific or superficial information and sentences with misconceptions is relatively few. Similarly, Demirkaya, Köç, & Ünal, (2020) found in their study that social studies teacher candidates generally have a scientific qualification. In general, the number of scientific and non-scientific sentences about the concept is close to each other when viewed from the concept perspective. In this case, the cognitive structures of the teacher candidates should be developed about the subject. In addition, when the breakpoint intervals are considered, it is possible to say that there is an increase in the words associated with the pre-service teachers as the breakpoint interval decreases. In this case, the cognitive structures of the teacher candidates on the subject are limited.

Recommendations

Since there are a limited number of studies related to the research, research carried out with different working groups and designed with different methods can be carried out to deal with the subject in depth. In addition, similar studies on different concepts can be carried out apart from those examined in the current study. Social studies teacher candidates can be trained to improve their cognitive levels related to the subject.

Compliance with Ethical Standard

The ethical review was carried out by = Kastamonu University Social and Human Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

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Issue number of the certificate of ethical review: 2023/11-26

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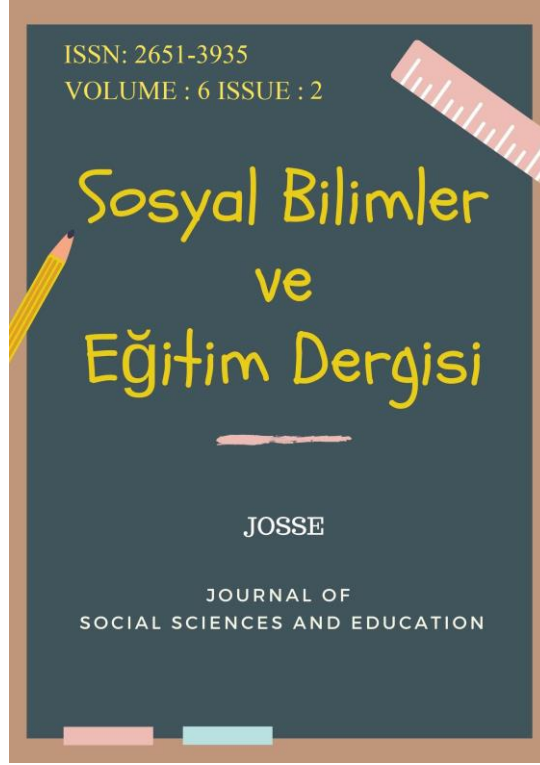
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Fighting with the Modern Plague: Temperance Movement, Degeneration and Education in Early Republican Türkiye

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Fighting with the Modern Plague: Temperance Movement, Degeneration and Education in Early Republican Türkiye

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Abstract

The temperance movement, which emerged in the 19th century with a scientific foundation, and the degeneration discourse found a place in the Ottoman Empire nearly simultaneously with Europe. The influence of doctors educated in Europe played a pivotal role in this process. While the temperance movement and the discourse on degeneration swiftly integrated into the Ottoman Empire's educational system, they assumed a more radical form in the Republic of Türkiye. This study explores how the temperance movement and the degeneration discourse were incorporated into Türkiye's education system during the single-party period. Commencing from the early years of the Republic's establishment, the Hilâl-i Ahdar Society, alongside a cadre of distinguished psychiatrists affiliated with the society, assumes a leading role in initiatives aimed at imparting anti-alcohol education to the youth. It has been seen that degeneration is addressed from two perspectives, especially in textbooks and magazines for the youth: biological and social. Biological degeneration was rooted in the belief that alcohol use would lead to a corrupt race. On the other hand, social degeneration viewed alcohol use as a problem capable of causing societal disarray, economic instability, and moral decay. In both dimensions, a connection was established between the anti-alcohol movement, the country's population policy, and notions of patriotism in the educational system.

Keywords: History of education, Hilâl-i Ahdar, Green Crescent, Anti-alcohol movement, health policy

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Introduction

By the turn of the 20th century, alcoholism was widely regarded as one of the day's "three greatest plagues", along with syphilis and tuberculosis (Snelders & Pieters, 2005, p. 87). Also, during this period, scientific thought posited that alcoholism was an inherited condition. The ideas of French psychiatrist Benedict-Augustin Morel were particularly influential in shaping this perspective. Morel proposed that acquired habits could be transmitted through familial lines and that when a harmful habit was inherited, it would do so with increasing severity across successive generations. He provided specific examples of this phenomenon, stating that individuals in the first generation with an anxious or alcoholic temperament were more likely to develop conditions such as cerebral haemorrhage, epilepsy, and hysteria in the second generation and that the third generation would be prone to insanity, characterised by eccentricity, disorderliness, and danger. Furthermore, Morel posited that these factors would double exponentially in the fourth generation, resulting in the extinction of the family line, as this generation would only produce imbeciles, idiots, or infertile offspring (Carlson, 1985, p. 122). In his book, Morel (1857, pp. 139-140) argued that children born to parents who are alcoholics would be idiotic. Morel also delved into the cultural aspects of this issue, stating that alcohol is a contributing factor to negative behaviours and moral degradation (Huertas, 1993, pp. 2-3). He extended his theory to clinical psychiatry three years later and published "Traité des maladies mentales" (1860). His books and works generated significant interest and widespread acceptance within psychiatry, especially in French psychiatry. Following Morel, Valentin Magnan, a prominent French psychiatrist, took the lead in further defining and establishing the clinical characteristics of alcoholism as a psychiatric disorder. Magnan included alcoholism in his psychiatric theory of hereditary degeneracy, arguing that alcoholism causes mental disorders and social problems due to hereditary degeneration. However, the initial literary connection between alcoholism and degeneration was often imbued with moral overtones, with alcohol use being blamed for various social problems and receiving negative press. Magnan further emphasised the detrimental effects of alcohol on society, stating that it not only bastardises race but also significantly contributes to poverty, crime, madness, and the overburden of institutions such as asylums, hospitals, correctional facilities, and prisons (Magnan, 1874; Prestwich, 1997, p. 116).

During that time, there was a rising and increasing backlash against alcohol consumption throughout various segments of society in Europe. Even Friedrich Engels, a prominent philosopher and social theorist, advocated for banning or restricting alcohol use. In his article written in 1876, "Prussians schnapps in the German Reichstag," Engels (1989, pp. 114-116) describes how the working-class population of the Berg region, particularly in Elberfeld-Barmen in the 1820s, fell victim to cheap, potent alcoholic beverages. He recalls his memory of large crowds of "soused men" staggering arm in arm, walking down the streets, loudly singing, and moving from one tavern to the next, ultimately returning home. Engels contends that this new form of drunkenness fundamentally differed from previous alcohol consumption, characterised by "good-natured tipsiness." He notes that this new type of drunkenness was associated with an increased frequency of knife wounds and fatal stabbings. Engels argues that heavy alcohol consumption led not only to criminal behaviour but also to a state of passivity, citing the lack of worker mobilisation during the 1830 events in northern Germany despite the connection between alcohol and rebellion. In contrast, successful uprisings occurred in German states that protected themselves from the proliferation of Schnaps.

Concerns about corruption and the negative impact of alcohol on society persisted throughout the 19th century. Besides, studies claiming alcohol causes degeneration and corrupts race continued to be accepted in the "scientific world". The temperance movement was scientifically organised during the last quarter of the 19th and mid-20th centuries. The inaugural congress against alcoholism was held in Antwerp, Belgium, in 1885. By the onset of the First World War, 14 scientific congresses had been held within the Western hemisphere (Edman, 2015, p. 22). The congresses addressed a broad range of topics, including the moral degradation associated with alcohol consumption, its negative impact on military readiness, the hindrance of industrial development, the production of criminals, degeneration, and demographic decline. Education was also a vital issue that was discussed at the congresses. Anti-alcohol advocates argued that anti-alcoholism education should be provided to children and youth to prevent future generations from becoming enslaved to alcohol and corrupting the race. Charles Wakely, General Secretary of the United Kingdom Band of Hope Union, which was established in 1855 to educate children and youth about the dangers of drug and alcohol abuse, stated in his presentation at the congress held in Christiania in 1890:

Save the children, and you will save the state. If the children of today are taught to grow up sober and intelligent, the manhood and womanhood of the future will be secure. If,

on the other hand, they remain unwarned and thus become intemperate and sensual, the national shame and degradation will grow with the lapse of years, and the thralldom of drink will restrain as with a hand of iron, every effort on behalf of social purity and peace. (Wakely, 1891, p. 126)

The anti-alcohol movement was treated as a national concern. Anti-alcohol advocates argue that to secure the country's future, children who would become parents and citizens must be educated to avoid alcohol consumption. To this end, organisations such as the Band of Hope in the United Kingdom and the Woman's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) in the United States authored textbooks. They worked to incorporate anti-alcohol education into the school curriculum. Wakely (1891, p. 127), for example, noted in his speech that over 20,000 children had read the textbook written by Benjamin Ward Richardson entitled "The Temperance Lesson Book" (1880) and served as a guide for schoolchildren and families. This textbook was studied in public schools in England as well as in schools and colleges in the United States (Thompson, 2013, pp. 214-215). Richardson (1887) also wrote another textbook for public schools. In the same period, scientific temperance textbooks and manuals began to be published in the United States, and the temperance movement was included in chapters on hygiene and health education in textbooks. Some notable manuals and books included those by Brown (1888; 1886), Colman (1880; 1885), Gow (1873), Guernsey (1888), Steele (1884), and Walker (1883), to mention but a few. The Scientific Temperance Instruction (STI), a WCTU department established in 1879 to address the use of alcohol and drugs, played a significant role in the publication of many textbooks on the temperance movement in the United States. The STI led to a contentious debate but ultimately resulted in the mandatory inclusion of alcohol education in the curriculum of public schools across the United States (Zimmerman, 1999).

The temperance movement gained a following not only in the United Kingdom and the United States but also in many countries of the world, supported by governments, and entered textbooks and school curricula such as Australia (Rodwell, 1998), Bulgaria (Kamenov, 2015; 2020), and Canada (Sheehan, 1980; 1984). Among these countries were the modern Turkish Republic and its predecessor, the Ottoman Empire.

Comprehensive and well-documented research on the temperance movement in both states is available. Arpacı's (2015) meticulous study delves into the evolution of Türkiye's temperance movement from 1910 to 1950. This analysis covers its historical backdrop, international context, and intellectual underpinnings, exploring biological and social

degeneration themes. In her dissertation, Balkan (2012) explored the timeframe from 1920 to 1939, investigating the integral role of the temperance movement in shaping the nation-building process. Biçer-Deveci (2021) illustrates how the burgeoning anti-alcohol movement in Istanbul found its inspiration in the worldwide anti-alcohol sentiment and Western nations. She highlights that the American prohibition model influenced the brief period of prohibition in 1920s Türkiye. Evered and Evered (2016) scrutinise the anti-alcohol movement during the early years of the Republican era, forging a connection between its historical context and contemporary issues faced by Türkiye. In his chapter, Georgeon (2002) delves into the Islamic prohibition of alcohol. He meticulously traces the evolution of drinking practices in 19th and 20th-century Istanbul, shedding light on the emergence of a distinct drinking culture that became synonymous with the middle class during the Kemalist era; in his book (2023), he delved comprehensively into the realm of wine and alcohol consumption, spanning from the days of the Ottoman Empire to the contemporary era.

Unlike the studies mentioned above, the present research aims to explore how the temperance movement and the concept of degeneration manifested and evolved within the educational paradigm during the Republic's single-party period. Despite the modern Turkish context witnessing more pronounced radicalisation of the temperance movement and apprehensions regarding degeneration, their origins are traced back to the Ottoman Empire. Consequently, the examination commences with the Ottoman Empire's scenario, followed by exploring the temperance movement, degeneration, and education within early Republican Türkiye, relying upon primary educational resources as a lens for analysis.

Method

Model

The current study uses historical research to examine the relationship between the temperance movement, degeneration discourse and educational paradigm during the Republic's early years. Historical research is a qualitative method that delves into studying and interpreting past events and phenomena. Historians seek to unravel historical developments, changes, and interactions that have shaped our world over time by employing a systematic and disciplined approach. Central to historical research is the use of primary sources, which are original materials from the specific period being investigated. These valuable sources provide an authentic glimpse into the past and serve as the foundation for

critical examination and analysis. The ultimate goal of historical researchers is to reconstruct events and gain a profound understanding of the motivations and contexts that drove historical actors. A fundamental aspect of historical research involves establishing a meticulous chronological order of events. This chronological framework clarifies historical narratives and helps researchers comprehend the interconnectedness and causality behind various occurrences (Gottschalk, 1969; Hexter, 1971; Mallick & Verma, 2005; Muratovski, 2022).

Data Collection Tools

The primary sources of the research are educational materials, magazines, The Board of Education and Discipline and archival sources from the early Republican Period. Some primary sources were received from the National Library of the Republic of Türkiye Ministry of Culture and Tourism. Moreover, relevant scholarly literature was carefully examined to understand better the relations of the temperance movement, degeneration and educational paradigm in the historical context.

Collection of Data and Analysis

After obtaining relevant primary sources and secondary literature, documents were reviewed and categorised, carefully considering the chronological sequence of events. The global evolution of this subject and its origins within the Ottoman Empire were included to understand the interplay between the temperance movement, degeneration discourse, and education during the early Republic period. Then, the relationship between the temperance movement, degeneration discourse and educational paradigm during the Republic's early years was analysed from a historical perspective.

Findings

The Temperance Movement, Education, and the Birth of Degeneration fear in the Ottoman Empire

The Ottoman Empire's relationship with alcohol consumption was complex and dynamic. Since the empire's beginning, Muslims had a history of indulging in alcohol consumption, necessitating implementing various measures based on the Qur'anic prohibition to counter this behaviour (Koyuncu, 2020, pp. 59-107). However, according to Ortaylı (1986,

p. 89), these prohibitionist measures were not exclusively motivated by religious doctrine but were frequently enacted to address concerns regarding the legitimacy of the state's authority. During the reign of Mahmud II, a pivotal figure in the modernisation of Türkiye, the use of alcohol was generally relaxed. This relaxation included the government's assumption of control over some taverns and the widespread consumption of champagne and wine in bureaucratic circles (Georgeon, 2002, p. 15; Koyuncu, 2020, p. 107). Alcohol consumption during the Tanzimat era, a critical phase of modernisation and reform in the Ottoman Empire, was associated with modernisation and a willingness to accept cultural progress within elite groups (Oğuz, 2021, p. 112). However, it is worth noting that Ottoman modernisation was primarily focused on the West and thus influenced by European attitudes towards alcohol consumption, particularly in France and America, during the late 19th century. As the Constitutionals gained power, transforming the Ottoman state into a nation-state, Western norms began shaping the health discourse. Consequently, a medical and psychiatric discourse against alcohol emerged towards the end of the 19th century, diverging from the religious discourse.

It is unsurprising that physicians, particularly psychiatrists, aligned themselves with the temperance movement in the Ottoman Empire. Given that most Ottoman doctors had trained in Europe during the era, they were exposed to the close association between mental illness, alcoholism, and degeneration. This exposure profoundly impacted the idealistic young physicians, who sought to implement the temperance movement they had encountered in Europe, in Ottoman territories. Besim Ömer Pasha [Akalin] was among these physicians. After obtaining his medical degree from the Mekteb-i Tıbbiyye-i Şâhâne (the Royal College of Medicine) in 1885, he travelled to Paris to continue his studies (Besim Ömer, 1932, p. 50). By the late 1880s, Besim Ömer had become a vocal advocate of the temperance movement and an ardent supporter of eugenics during the Republican era. He began publishing pamphlets to raise awareness about the harmful effects of alcohol on public health (Mazhar Osman, 1933, p. 779), and his pioneering book on the temperance movement in Ottoman literature soon followed (Besim Ömer, 1305 [1887]). In addition, Besim Ömer authored a *hıfzıssıhha* (sanitation) textbook for high school and teacher training programmes that provided extensive coverage of alcohol. In this textbook, he explained the nature of alcohol and examined the global rise in alcohol consumption. Furthermore, under the title of "*da‘-i küül*" (alcoholism), he presented a detailed analysis of the detrimental effects of alcohol on the human body and mind. He asserted that alcoholism is a societal issue. He contended that

the first step in combating alcoholism was to educate young people in schools and the public via books, believing alcoholism was a by-product of ignorance (Besim Ömer, 1330 [1914], pp. 256-289). In order to engage the students, he included images in his book (Figure 1).

Figure 1

Text Says: Before Alcoholism on the Left, After on the Right (Besim Ömer, 1330 [1914], p. 272).



The influence of two renowned psychiatrists of the time, Auguste Forel and Emil Kraepelin, significantly impacted Ottoman physicians. Mazhar Osman [Usman] reports (1933, p. 776) that Forel, seeking to establish an anti-alcohol movement in Istanbul "according to European tradition," dispatched letters to his former pupils, Haçig Boğosyan and Baha Bey, urging them to join him in his efforts. Towards the end of March 1910, Forel himself arrived in Istanbul, where he inaugurated a gild called "Byzance, Nr. 2" within the Greek Philological Society [Rum Filoloji Derneği] and delivered lectures at various institutions, including the Mekteb-i Tıbbiye [School of Medicine], Galatasaray Mekteb-i Sultânisi [Galatasaray High School], and other schools in Istanbul. In 1913, Haçig Boğosyan founded the Turkio Hagalkolagan Ingeragtsityun [Anti-Alcohol League of Türkiye] movement, which mainly targeted young people and established student branches in schools with the support of his mentor. Nevertheless, this movement remained primarily confined to the Armenian community in the Ottoman Empire (Etker, 2020, pp. 224-225).

Mazhar Osman, Fahrettin Kerim [Gökay], and Raşit Tahsin [Tuğsavul] were prominent advocates of anti-alcoholism during this era. They were all trained under the guidance of Emil Kraepelin, a well-known proponent of the fight against alcoholism, who also contributed to the development of degeneration theory and eugenicist ideas (Engstrom, 2007; Engstrom & Crozier, 2018; Hoff, 2008). Kraepelin's philosophy had a significant influence on these physicians. Psychiatrist Raşit Tahsin, a student of Kraepelin, delivered lectures at the Mekteb-i Tıbbiye [School of Medicine] on the detrimental effects of alcoholism, which he viewed as one of the most significant foes of humanity. He also gave public lectures at Türk Ocağı [Türk Ocağı] (Mazhar Osman, 1933, p. 779).

Mazhar Osman and Fahrettin Kerim were among the founders of Hilâl-i Ahdar [the Green Crescent], established in 1920 to fight alcoholism. As stated in its first statute, one of the society's primary objectives was to promote hıfzıssıhha (sanitation) education in schools, starting with the first grade (Hilâl-i Ahdar Cemiyeti Nizamnâmesi, 1336 [1920], p. 2). In the society's inaugural speech, Mazhar Osman emphasised that alcohol consumption destroys generations, and the society's goal was safeguarding future generations (Hilâl-i Ahdar Cemiyeti, 1338 [1920], p. 235). Dr. Milaslı İsmâîl Hakkı Bey, one of the society's founding members, espoused the view that alcohol caused degeneration. İsmâîl Hakkı Bey contended that despite his/her parent's good health, numerous children in Anatolia were born with disabilities or diseases. He attributed this occurrence to the influence of Greek physicians who promoted the consumption of raki and cognac. Like Mazhar Osman, İsmâîl Hakkı Bey believed that education represented a potent weapon in the battle against alcohol (Hilâl-i Ahdar Cemiyeti, 1338 [1920], p. 236). The same concerns were expressed in the Tarman Newspaper, which was started to be published by the Armenian Ettıba Society in Istanbul, the year the Green Crescent Society was founded. An article published in the magazine clearly stated that alcohol corrupts the breed. In addition, a report was prepared on the fight against alcohol, and it was requested to introduce anti-alcohol classes in schools. In other words, the anti-alcohol movement and fear of degeneration could be observed in Muslims and non-Muslims of society (Yarman, 2014, pp. 161-162).

The issue of alcohol and degeneration existed in textbooks even before the Hilâl-i Ahdar was established. While both subjects were handled at a much more detailed and scientific level at high school-like upper levels, like Besim Ömer Pasha's textbook, they were often told with small stories and suggestions at the primary school level. However, both subjects were included in primary school civics rather than science and health classes.

Because, in this period, when medical science was modernised, and the human body became the focal point of politics, the disease evolved into a social problem and began to affect the nation rather than the individual. As Foucault (2008) stated, in this period, the state and its institutions tried to regulate and control the biological and social lives of people and communities in that society. This approach, which emerged in Europe after the French Revolution and formed the basis of modern nations, was also adopted by the Ottoman intellectuals. Following the declaration of the Constitutional Monarchy, students were encouraged to prioritise their physical and mental health as citizens. Maintaining physical well-being was a fundamental obligation towards oneself and the nation. In the case of alcohol, physical and mental health would be protected because, as stated in a textbook, alcohol would spoil the body and destroy the soul. The soul and morality would be just as perfect if the body were perfect. Therefore, avoiding such unpleasant habits as gluttony and drunkenness was necessary (Doktor Hazık, 1328 [1912], p. 50). Alcohol was also described in textbooks as one of the main factors that destroy social life. It was emphasised that alcoholics were murderers and insane people who had no idea what they were doing, could not work and died young from poverty. Students were advised not to drink even a single drop of alcohol because it was said that such people were banished from social life (A. Rıza, 1327 [1911], pp. 13-14; M. Asım & A. Cevad (1334 [1918], pp. 76-79). It was also stated in the textbooks that alcohol corrupted the race, and the children of drunkards were said to be weak, sickly, stupid, and clumsy, so the idea of degeneration was expressed in a simple way that children could understand (A. Rıza, 1327 [1911], p. 14).

As Arpacı (2015, p. 40) noted, the Ottoman Empire's temperance movement was based on the idea of degeneration. Like in textbooks, the discourses formed in the writings, especially in the *Hilâl-i Ahdar* Journal, were gathered on two lines as biological and social degradation issues. Similar discourses might be found in other periodicals at the time. For instance, an anonymous article in one of the preeminent periodicals of the period, *Servet-i Fünun*, referred to experimental research conducted in Europe. This paper posited that alcohol consumption by parents led to intellectual impairment and imbecility in their offspring (İşrete Müptelâ, 1322 [1906], p. 103). The discourse regarding the management of degenerates (*mütereddi*) also included debates on whether to prioritise their protection or pursue sterilisation measures. While certain intellectuals advocated for sterilisation, others recognised the detrimental impact of degenerates on society but rejected sterilisation as a viable solution. Instead, they asserted that it was incumbent upon the government to safeguard

degenerates and provide them with education and training to promote societal benefit (Menfaâti Umûmiye, 1332 [1916], pp. 30-31).

The advent of the Balkan War sparked intense debates on degeneration among Ottoman intellectuals and educators. The loss of the Balkans and the casualties suffered in the war raised concerns about preserving the Ottoman race. As a result, topics such as degeneration, alcoholism, and even eugenics gained attention in publications. These journals presented solutions to enhance the quality of the race and outlined responsibilities for educators. An article titled "Eugenics; The Science of Breeding" was among the first to delve into these matters within an education journal. Authored by Münir Mazhar (1920, pp. 852-857), it explored the progression of eugenics, examined European studies and defined eugenics as "child training before birth." This definition closely resembled the definition of eugenics as presented in the "scientific literature" of that period. Münir Mazhar argued that the war had led to a selection process wherein only the weakest individuals of descent remained while losing those who were strongest. The term eugenics was first introduced into the scientific literature by Francis Galton. Galton (1904) defined eugenics as "the science which deals with all influences that improve the inborn qualities of a race; also, with those that develop them to the utmost advantage." So, Galton's formulation was heavily influenced by Darwin's research on heredity and evolution. Galton believed that leveraging new scientific insights could enhance the quality of human reproduction, a notion that swiftly gained traction within the "scientific" community (Levine, 2017, p. 2). Mazhar, evidently influenced by this movement, emphasized in his article that allowing these degenerate individuals to persist would spell disaster for future generations. Mazhar criticised the population policies of the period. He advocated for controlling marriages to prevent degenerates from having children, citing the United States as an example where sterilisation was practised on degenerates. He suggested that propaganda should be employed in schools to dissuade alcoholism and bad marriages and argued that teachers were well-positioned to play a pivotal role in safeguarding race.

The need for a robust generation became increasingly apparent in an era where a healthy and numerous population represented a source of national strength. However, during the ten years that began with the Balkan Wars and ended with the establishment of the Republic, the physical condition of the Ottoman race was not encouraging. In an article titled "The Weak Race", published in *İdman Journal*, Burhaneddin Bey complained that Ottomans were setting an example for a weak race. He asserted that safeguarding the race was to engage

in physical exercise and refrain from entertainment, consuming alcohol, and smoking (Cora, 2013, p. 55). Such views gained even greater currency during and after World War I, especially given the prevalence of war neurosis among returning soldiers (Yanıkdağ, 2013) and the alarming levels of alcohol consumption in cities such as Istanbul during the war years (Özer, 2003, pp. 253-255; Toprak, 2017). Although the alcohol ban law [Men-i Müskirâat Kanûnu] was enacted in 1920, it proved ineffective in curbing alcohol consumption (Karahanoğulları, 2008; Üçüncü, 2012).

As the war drew to a close, the consumption of alcohol and the degeneration emerged as the preeminent concerns of the nascent Turkish Republic. The apprehension surrounding these issues comprised two primary dimensions. The first dimension pertained to the deleterious biological ramifications of alcohol and the attendant risk of degeneration, which had the potential to culminate in the corruption of the Turkish race. The second dimension of concern revolved around the possibility of social degeneration arising from moral and economic collapses that could be precipitated by alcohol consumption. Hilâl-i Ahdar first initiated the battle against these two dimensions of danger.

Reaching the Students: Hilâl-i Ahdar and its Activities for Young in the Republic's Early Years

The alcohol ban law [Men-i Müskirat Kanunu] was amended in 1924 -one year after the establishment of the Republic- and in 1926, its complete revocation transpired due to economic concerns, subsequently substituted by the "İspirto ve Meşrûbât-ı Küûliyye İnhisârı Hakkında Kanûn" [Law on the Monopoly on Alcohol and Alcoholic Beverages], which stipulates the release of alcohol, was introduced. With this law, the production and trade of alcoholic beverages was monopolised by the state (Biçer-Deveci, 2021, p. 37; Karahanoğulları, 2008, pp. 134-135).

Hilâl-i Ahdar members expressed dissatisfaction with the amended alcohol ban. However, they also acknowledged their inability to act on the matter. Some members believed that if the government banned alcohol, it might lead to illegal production, criminal activities, and even the spread of more dangerous drugs like morphine and heroin (Erdal et al., 2020, p. 97). So, instead of an outright ban on alcohol, they believed it would be better to educate and warn the public, especially young people. The steady involvement of educators within the Hilâl-i Ahdar can be seen not only as a coincidence but also as a reflection of the association's commitment to public awareness and education. For example, the appointment of Salih

Keramet and Ali Mahir, who taught at Robert College, as vice presidents, and the presence of two educators among the twelve elected members of Hilâl-i Ahdar at the 1923 congress reflect the association's education and awareness-raising mission (Hilâl-i Ahdar Heyet-i, 1339 [1923], p. 3). This tendency continued and gained momentum in the following years, with many educators taking part in Hilâl-i Ahdar. Besides, the Hilâl-i Ahdar included young people in time. Teachers and many students attended the congress held in 1924. At the same congress, with the permission of the Ministry of Education, it was decided to hold conferences in schools and Darülmualimât [Teacher Training School] to distribute pamphlets against alcohol and to increase the number of members by reaching more teachers and students. In addition, it was decided to publish a journal of Hilâl-i Ahdar that would be published every 15 days to reach young people and enlighten the public (Erdal et al., 2020, pp. 108-109).

In 1926 and 1927, Hilâl-i Ahdar began to organise various activities and initiatives to reach students more effectively. During this period, Hilâl-i Ahdar's activities attracted students' attention and provided them with more information about the ideals and goals of the organisation. In particular, prominent figures of the organisation, such as Mazhar Osman, Fahrettin Kerim, İhsan Şükrü, and Şükrü Hâzım, enlightened young people through conferences and events they organised in schools and conveyed the philosophy of Hilâl-i Ahdar. In 1926, many students from famous schools such as the Erkek Muallim Mektebi [Teacher Training School for Men], Adana Kız Muallim Mektebi [Adana Teacher Training School for Girls], Orman Mektebi [School of Forestry], Gelenbevî and İstiklâl High Schools chose to become members of Hilâl-i Ahdar. That was an essential sign of the effectiveness and popularity of the organisation among the student population. Following this success, the organisation focused on reaching more students and increasing the number of its members (Hilâl-i Ahdar Cemiyeti, 1927, p. 3). To this end, in line with the decisions taken by Hilâl-i Ahdar executives, the society aimed to organise more school conferences and plan various student activities, such as performances and excursions. These activities were intended to foster closer interaction with students, encourage their participation in the Hilâl-i Ahdar and make them more committed to its ideals. One of these activities was to organise celebrations on the first Friday of May every year under the name of Yeşilgün Bayramı [Green Day Festival] to attract more young people to society and to 'show them that it is always possible to have fun without drinking'. The first Green Day Festival was celebrated on May 6, 1927. The day before the celebrations, Mazhar Osman told Vakit newspaper that alcohol corrupts

the mind cells of the race and degenerates the human being away from nobility and that they aimed to raise the young generation against alcohol (Hilâl-i Ahdar günü, 1927, p. 1). The celebrations were attended by Hilâl-i Ahdar members, school principals, teachers, students and their families from essential schools in Istanbul, such as Darülfünûn [University], Erkek Muallim Mektebi [Teacher Training School for Men], İstiklâl High School. A ferry with the flag of the Hilâl-i Ahdar Society on its mast departed from the bridge and gathered participants from all the piers in the Bosphorus. The participants danced on the ferry, travelled to Kireçburnu and had dinner there, and the entertainment continued until late hours. The participating youth distributed badges on the streets with the inscription 'alcohol is the enemy of health and happiness' (İçki düşmanları, 1927, p. 2).

Hilâl-i Ahdar persisted in its efforts to extend its influence among the youth. By November 10, 1930 aiming to reach the youthful more systematically, they established the İçki Aleyhdarı Gençler Cemiyeti [Youngs Temperance Society], with Fahrettin Kerim Bey in the role of president¹. The association's administrative body predominantly consisted of seasoned educators; nevertheless, the intention was that the society would be managed by the young members under the guidance of the administrative committee (İçki Aleyhdarı Gençler, 1931, p. 3). The society conducted its activities in a highly disciplined and ceremonial ambience. Annual congresses were one of the central activities of the society. In these congresses, the activities to be carried out that year were planned, and important decisions were taken. During the congresses, the participation and contribution of young members were of great importance. A special oath ceremony was organised at each congress to emphasise the commitment to the society's purpose and reinforce the solidarity among the members (Figure 2). This oath, in which they pledged to abstain from consuming alcohol in any manner except under the guidance of a medical prescription and always work for the benefit of society (Dün Yapılan, 1934, p. 3), was a ritual in which new members were officially accepted into the society. Reciting this oath enabled the members to express their commitment to the society's values.

Figure 2

A photograph from the oath ceremony of the Green Crescent Youth Society (İçki düşmanı gençler, 1941, p. 2)

¹ On 8 November 1936, the society was renamed the Green Crescent Youth Society. (Yeşilay Gençler Birliği Nizamnamesi, 1938, p. 1).



These young people were not just members of society but also fervent advocates against alcohol consumption. Their role extended to propagating the society's ideals through various means. They planned compelling performances, theatrical presentations, enlightening conferences, and engaging outings, which took place in educational institutions and public spaces¹ (Figure 3). Their efforts included distributing badges and information leaflets and leaving behind cards containing anti-alcohol monologues on event tables. Among these cards were cautionary messages highlighting the detrimental effects of alcohol, exemplified by phrases like "the generation of the drunk will degenerate." (İçki düşmanlarının çayında, 1935, p. 6).

Figure 3

A group from the Türkiye Temperance Society, with Fahrettin Kerim and Bahattin Bey from Green Crescent, on a trip (Mükip Cevdet, 1934, p. 9).

¹ See for some of these activities, "İçki aleyhdarı gençler", 1936, p.6; "İçki aleyhdarı gençlerin", 1934, p. 4; "İçki aleyhtarları", 1933, p. 9; "İçki aleyhtarlarının gezintisi", 1936, p. 6; "İçki düşmanı gençler", 1932, p. 2; "İçki düşmanı gençler", 1933, p. 4; "İçki düşmanı gençler", 1941, p. 2; "İçki düşmanları bugün", 1932, p. 3; "İçki düşmanları", 1934, p. 2; "İçki düşmanlarının müsameresi", 1935, p. 3; "İçki düşmanlarının tenezzühü" 1934, p. 4; "İçki düşmanlığı faaliyeti", 1934, p. 7; "İçki düşmanlığı gününde", 1931, p. 3; "İçki ve zehirle mücadele", 1931, p. 1; "Yeşil Hilâl 23 Mart'ta", 1931, p. 2; "Yeşil Hilâl müsameresi", 1932, p. 3; "Yeşilay gezintisi", 1935, p. 3; "Yeşilay: İçki Düşmanları", 1931, p. 3.



A surge in similar cautionary notes can be observed from the mid-1930s onward. The discourse surrounding the potential of alcohol to induce biological degeneration gained considerable momentum and transitioned to a more "scientific" and "medical" context during the middle of the 1930s.

Saving the Breed: Alcohol, Biological Degeneration, and Education

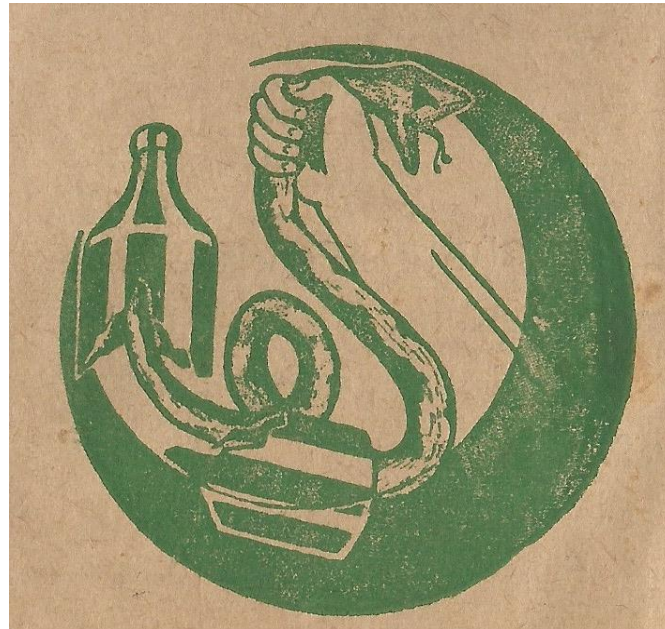
The apex of this discourse of degeneration was embodied in the "scientific and medical" appearance at the sixth National Turkish Medical Congress held in 1935. Central to the congress was the exploration of toxicomania, which prominently featured alcohol in its discourse, with the inaugural session dedicated exclusively to this topic. Prominent figures of the time, notably Fahrettin Kerim Gökay, Mazhar Osman Usman, Tevfik Sağlam, and İbrahim Zati Öget, who held staunch anti-alcohol views, played pivotal roles in directing the congress and guiding its initial discussions. Fahrettin Kerim Gökay, in particular, presented an exhaustive report during the meeting, incorporating data derived from international medical and psychiatric experiments. Gökay (1935) emphatically underscored the correlation between alcohol consumption and degeneration, highlighting its detrimental impact on the race. Likewise, Mazhar Osman contributed a presentation that delved into the interplay between alcohol and heredity, focusing on imperative measures to safeguard the nation against degeneration (Gökay, 1935, p. 51). Among the proposed solutions, a central tenet involved public awareness propaganda, with an emphasis on educating both the general populace and the youth about the perils of alcohol consumption and its potential to undermine

the well-being of the nation (Altıncı Ulusal Tıp Kurultayı, 1936, pp. 46-60). That was predominantly conducted during state-sponsored scientific gatherings within newspapers, magazines, books, and educational materials. The primary focus of these publications centred around alcohol. They aimed to disseminate the perspective that alcohol wreaks havoc explicitly on human genetic structures, consequently jeopardising the biological continuity of the "race".

The most renowned and widely circulated among these publications was Hilâl-i Ahdar Magazine.¹ From its first issue, the magazine dedicated itself to portraying the adverse biological degeneration caused by alcohol consumption. The magazine's emblem was a strong hand strangling a snake emerging from a broken liquor bottle (Figure 4). In 1933, the magazine came under the control of Fahreddin Kerim Gökay. It was renamed İçki Düşmanı Gazete [the Enemy of Alcohol Gazette], aiming to reach young people, as Fahrettin Kerim (1933, p. 2) highlighted in the newspaper's inaugural edition. The National Board of Education also supported the gazette (Milli Talim ve Terbiye Dairesi, 1933).

Figure 4

Emblem of Green Crescent (Yeşilay, 1941, p. 1)



¹ *Hilâl-i Ahdar* was a journal of Hilâl-i Ahdar Society, which operated from 1925 to 1933 under the banner of *Hilâl-i Ahdar: Sıhhi ve İctimai İçki Düşmanı* (Green Crescent: The Enemy of Alcohol in Health and in Society). In 1933, it underwent a name change, becoming *İçki Düşmanı Gazete* (the Enemy of Alcohol Gazette), with a pronounced focus on engaging the youth. Since 1937 and up to the present day, it has persevered under the appellation *Yeşilay* (Green Crescent.)

Fahredden Kerim Gökay held a profound conviction that alcohol was a catalyst for degeneration and the erosion of societal integrity. He expressed that the newspaper's purpose was to safeguard the purity of the race from the perils of degeneration, and he regarded this endeavour as a patriotic obligation (Fahrettin Kerim, 1933, p. 2). The newspaper often underscored that a significant number of children with alcoholic parents exhibited various involuntary traits, such as anger, cognitive challenges, intellectual deficits, epilepsy, melancholy, and even homicidal tendencies. These assertions were supported by experiments and data gathered by experts from other countries, lending the information a more "scientific". For instance, a study conducted by a Swiss physician on 1086 children born to alcoholic fathers revealed terrifying outcomes: 17 of these infants succumbed shortly after birth, 256 passed away during their early years, 108 perished due to childhood tremors, 80 suffered from bone ailments and tuberculosis, 82 exhibited intellectual disabilities, 50 were diagnosed with epilepsy, and 301 were afflicted by alcoholism akin to their father's, while the remainder displayed moral and mental frailty (Dr. Kudsi, 1933, p. 2). On occasion, significantly more extensive statistical data was offered. During a presentation at Istanbul Boys' High School, Dr Kudsi Halkacı (1937, p. 3-4), a member of the Green Crescent central committee, remarked, "From the lineage of a Prussian woman plagued by alcoholism, 834 descendants yielded 181 individuals who turned to prostitution, 142 who resorted to begging, 83 who became murderers, and one who wandered as a vagrant." Doctor Kudsi asserted in his speech that no other malady played a more pronounced role in hereditary outcomes than alcoholism.

These concepts were also disseminated via the state school curriculum, adorned with a veneer of "scientific" credibility. The notion that parents grappling with alcoholism could not usher healthy offspring into the world was underscored throughout educational materials spanning all academic levels, ranging from elementary school to university. The narrative contended that progeny of alcoholics faced premature mortality, with the survivors often exhibiting tendencies toward violence, immorality, or mental instability (Ebulmuhsin Kemal, 1930, p. 86; Küley, 1938, p. 168; Muallim Abdalbaki, 1927-1928, p. 105). Sadrettin Celal (1930, p. 55), a prominent educator during that era, earnestly endeavoured to instil within his students the notion that alcohol contributes to the degeneration of the human race:

If we examine the children of the drunkards, we will see that these poor people are weak and frail; They are born with the disease. If they do not die young, they will be a fool, afflicted with diseases such as epilepsy and tuberculosis.

These views were not exclusive to textbook authors or radical educators; even education bureaucrats like Reşit Galip, who served as the education minister in 1932, held such beliefs. Reşit Galip's book, intended for village teachers, stated that "the child of a drunkard can only be stupid, degenerate, epileptic" (Reşit Galip, 1933, p. 72).

Some radical educators and psychiatrists recommended the idea of sterilisation to prevent alcoholics from contaminating the gene pool with their offspring. Among those advocating this view was Besim Ömer Akalın. At this point, it is worth remembering that sterilisation took a radical turn in Germany following World War I and on July 14, 1933, the German government enacted the "Law for the Prevention of Offspring with Hereditary Diseases" [Gesetz zur Verhütung erbkranken Nachwuchses]. This legislation authorised the compulsory sterilisation of individuals afflicted with any of nine hereditary conditions, notably "severe alcoholism" (Lepicard, 2020, p. 141). This legal development engaged in heated discussions on sterilisation in the scientific community in Türkiye. Even one of the main topics of the Seventh National Turkish Medical Congress was eugenics (Biol, 1938). Akalın (1938, pp. 35-36) openly advocated sterilisation, stating that a child born to an alcoholic father was inherently destined for degeneracy. He wrote, "First of all, we should save the race and not show mercy to the bastardised". Akalın went a step further, proposing the creation of individual health records for students, documenting the physiological and pathological conditions of their family members spanning up to three generations. He suggested making marital decisions based on these health records. However, he acknowledged the practical challenges of implementing such a system at the time.

Gökay, while not as extreme as Akalın, shared a similar perspective. He advocated for a characterology health record system during the Second National Education Council [Maârif Şûrası] in 1943. Psychiatrist Şevket Aziz Kansu, who held closeness to eugenic discussions (see Kansu, 1939), supported Gökay's ideas and suggested expanding this concept into an anthropology health record (İkinci Maârif, 1943, pp. 137-138).

Although these aspirations remained unrealised, by 1943, abstaining from alcohol and safeguarding future generations from biological degeneration became incorporated into the "Principles of Turkish Ethics" and were included in textbooks (Taşkiran, 1943, pp. 5-6).

Indeed, the escalation of concerns about biological degeneration in Türkiye post-1935 was not coincidental. This development can be linked to the emergence of the Turkish History Thesis during the same period, along with the prevalence of the 'anthropological race' notion of the time. In this era, endeavours were undertaken to uplift the Turkish race disparaged by

the West through comprehensive anthropological and archaeological investigations. On the one hand, extensive studies delved into the migration of the Turks from Central Asia to Anatolia and their rich cultural heritage, while on the other, there was an ongoing exploration of the biological aspects of the Turkish race (see Toprak, 2015). Consequently, if scientific research suggested that alcohol consumption jeopardized the corruption of the race, it was deemed a matter of significant concern.

While the fear of biological degeneration continued, on the other hand, the aspect of alcohol causing societal problems and hindering order was being addressed. The incorporation of a tenet, such as abstinence from alcohol among the principles of Turkish ethics, was indicative of this heightened apprehension.

Saving the Nation: Alcohol, Social Degeneration, and Education

The temperance movement posited that the peril posed by alcohol extended beyond its biological impact to encompass a profound societal dimension. This assertion rested upon the fundamental belief that alcohol was the principal catalyst for social degeneration, moral decay, and socio-economic decline, as Arpacı (2015, p. 44) stated. Within this framework, social degeneration was perceived as intricately linked to, if not synonymous with, biological degeneration.

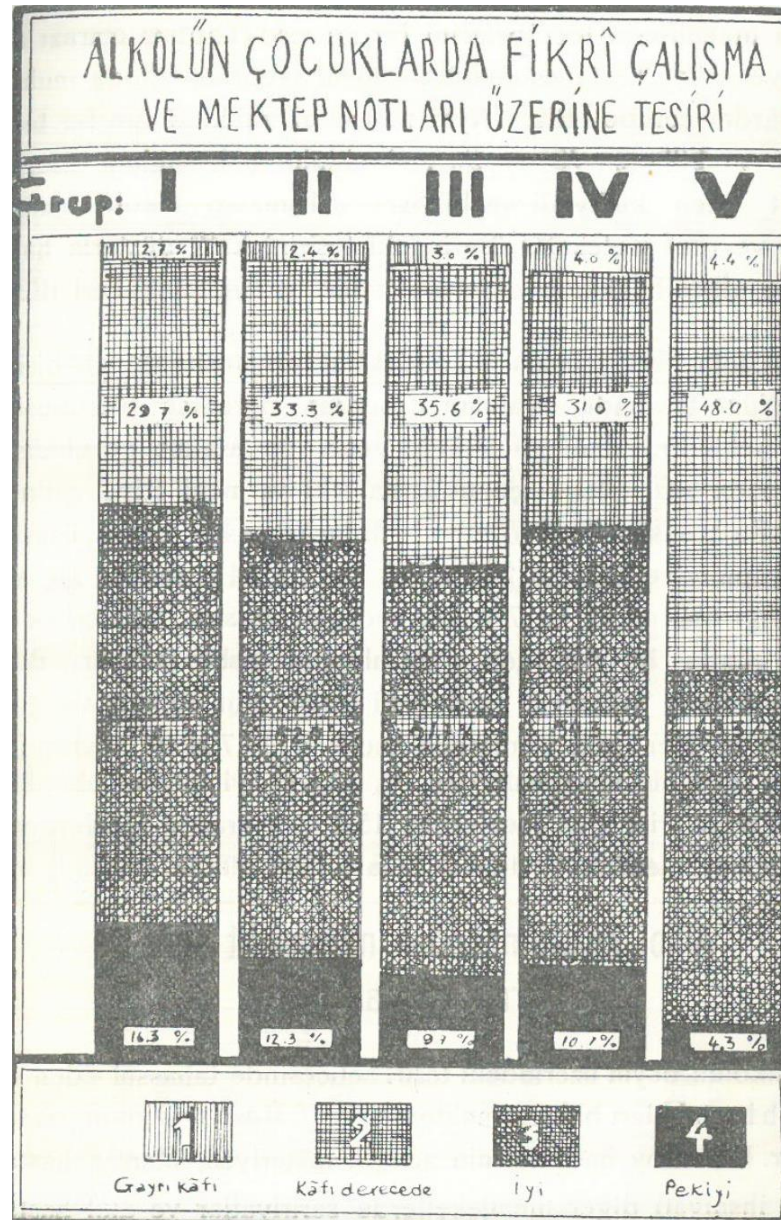
There were main arguments for social degeneration. Primarily and notably, the deleterious effects of alcohol consumption were identified as a primary factor contributing to demographic decline. Educational materials aimed at young individuals, such as textbooks and periodicals, frequently emphasised the pivotal role of population strength in bolstering the youthful Republic. This discourse underscored the detrimental consequences of alcohol-induced mortality and admonished students to abstain from its consumption. It was customary for this admonition to be reiterated regularly, given that the era emphasised population abundance as a symbol of the nation's vitality. In a textbook, it was written that those "who fell into the swamp of alcoholism were dragged to death by digging their graves every day" (Ali Kami, 1929, pp. 146-148). That sentence explicitly stated that these alcoholic individuals not only became bereft of personal utility but also failed to serve the interests of their families and the state at large. At this point, it is noteworthy that an attempt was made to establish a relationship between alcohol consumption and the understanding of desirable citizenship.

One of the prevailing arguments about the phenomenon of social degeneration centred on the assertion that alcohol consumption engendered a degradation of cognitive faculties, a

characteristic intimately tied to the notion of desirable citizenship. A noteworthy illustration of this discourse can be found in the proceedings of the sixth National Turkish Medical Congress held in 1935, during which Gökay (1935, p. 33) presented research findings belonging to Professor Hecker on children's mental development and school performance (Figure 5).

Figure 5

The Effect of Alcohol on Children's Mental Development and School Performance (Gökay, 1935, p. 33).



This recurring theme, extensively articulated in publications such as the *Enemy of Alcohol Gazette* and the *Green Crescent Magazine*, was grounded in the premise that alcohol gave rise to mental retardation in both adult and young populations. The consequences of this phenomenon were thought to extend beyond biological degeneration to include social and national consequences. Each child deemed unlikely to contribute to the nation's welfare was construed as a potential liability. Such individuals were perceived as incapable of rendering future service to the country, be it in defence or economic advancement, thereby impeding the nation's progress. Children were systematically educated about the far-reaching consequences of alcohol consumption on national productivity. According to data from *Green Crescent Magazine*, the Turkish state's annual expenditure on alcohol-related public expenses amounted to six million liras. Also underlined, the number was more extensive than this because those who drank alcohol did not go to work, did not pay taxes, and died prematurely, causing harm to the nation (Gökay, 1937, p. 13). The damage caused by alcohol to the country's economy is given as twenty million liras annually in a textbook (Ebulmuhsin Kemal, 1930, p. 86). Presumably, these numbers were not based on actual statistics. Nevertheless, it is plausible that such statistics were employed with the primary pedagogical intent of imparting to students a discernible comprehension of the adverse societal and national ramifications wrought by alcohol consumption.

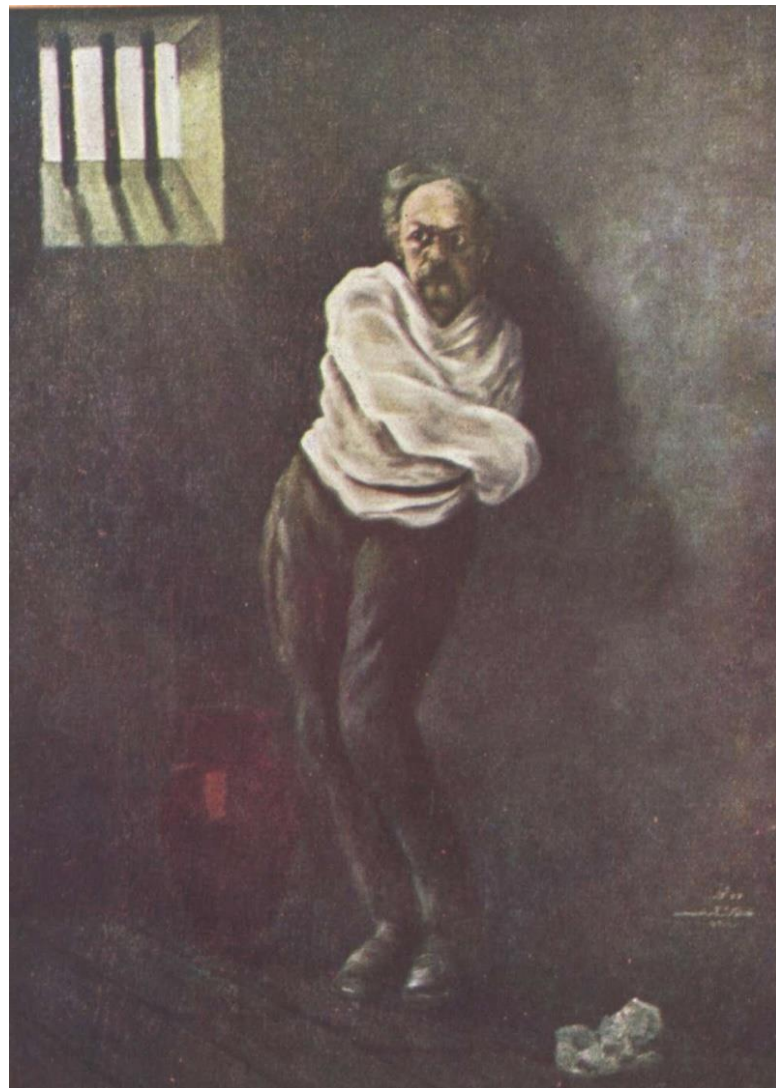
Furthermore, alcohol posed another economic detriment to the country by contributing to the overcrowding of mental institutions, thereby escalating state expenditures on these facilities. Gökay (1948, p. 35) regarded alcoholic beverages as the foremost catalyst of societal degeneration due to their strain on the state budget, particularly within the prison and asylum funds, ultimately depleting the nation's wealth. It is worth noting that educational materials frequently associate alcohol with mental instability and cognitive impairment. These materials often conveyed the message that prolonged alcohol consumption would inevitably lead to insanity. They included statements such as, "continuous alcohol consumption progressively deteriorates the brain and nerves, culminating in complete insanity and institutionalisation" (Tabiat Bilgisi, 1949, p. 33), and "alcoholics experience gradual physical and mental decline, eventually succumbing to diseases or losing their sanity" (Ermat & Ermat, 1945, p. 72).

Alcohol was depicted as a source of humiliation within society as well. In a fourth-grade textbook, there was a story of how an adult man became an object of ridicule in the

presence of children. The issue of alcoholism was illustrated for children with the story in which a drunk man was followed by children leaving school and got stuck among flies and animals in the barn (İbrahim Hilmi, 1934-1935, pp. 151-153). Some educational materials even featured illustrations depicting alcoholics in straitjackets (Figure 6).

Figure 6

Curse of Alcohol (Sıhhi Müze Atlası, 1926, 63).



Students were required to abstain from alcohol to secure a reputable standing in society and evade the risk of being ridiculed. The prevailing narratives consistently associated alignment with the temperance movement with achieving social standing and demonstrating

patriotism, thereby conveying to young individuals that they constituted integral components of a broader societal fabric.

Discussion and Results

In the 19th century, there was a shared recognition between states and scientists regarding the importance of cultivating a strong and disciplined populace, underscoring the imperative for societal control. This acknowledgement spurred the development of the temperance movement within scientific circles, effectively intertwining it with discussions on degeneration. As governmental bodies increasingly grasped the gravity of this matter, the temperance movement gained considerable traction, establishing a notable presence in scientific literature and achieving widespread popularity (Kühl, 2013).

The temperance movement and the discourse of degeneration, which notably captured the interest of psychiatrists, entered the Ottoman Empire almost concurrently with their appearance in Europe. Initially introduced by a fellow of educated physicians who had received their training in Europe, the anti-alcohol campaign swiftly transitioned from a religious emphasis to a more scientific viewpoint, as also highlighted by Arpacı (2015). An educational understanding to enlighten the public has emerged during this transformation. Shortly after, the anti-alcohol movement found its place within school curricula and textbooks. However, unlike in the United Kingdom and the United States, dedicated lessons or textbooks specifically for the temperance movement (Zimmerman, 1999) were never developed in both the Ottoman Empire and its successor, the Republic of Türkiye. Nevertheless, elements of the temperance movement and the degeneration discourse were incorporated into lessons like health science or civics within the educational structure.

Especially during the period following the Balkan Wars, concerns about degeneration grew prominently within both the educational and medical communities, fueled by the loss of a robust and youthful generation on the battlefronts. Boosting the population emerged as one of the pivotal policies of the early Republic era, thereby engrossing the ruling elite and the educated segments of society to foster a vigorous and industrious populace. Alcohol was considered a pressing public health concern, recognised for its detrimental impact on society and families, inflicting widespread suffering (Evered & Evered, 2016). It is evident that numerous doctors, including psychiatrists, attached considerable importance to this matter during the Early Republican Period. However, and still, it seems surprising that psychiatrists

are so heavily involved in the education system. Fahrettin Kerim Gökay's involvement in the 'moral principles commission' at the National Education Council can be considered a connection between the desired morality and the alcohol use that Gökay's expertise.

In that period, the temperance movement was closely associated with degeneration, which appeared to be considered from biological and societal dimensions (Arpacı, 2015). Besides its role in corrupting the racial fabric and jeopardising the Turkish generation, alcohol was also viewed as a factor contributing to societal disintegration. Within the educational framework, evident attempts were made to safeguard society against these twin threats. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that, despite the dedicated efforts of a faction of psychiatrists, the anti-alcohol movement remained relatively passive compared to its European counterparts.

This study showed that educational resources, including textbooks, youth-oriented magazines, and journals, commonly portrayed the temperance movement and the concept of degeneration within a scientific framework, occasionally drawing on less empirical statistics. These materials frequently presented cautionary tales as illustrative narratives, advising students to avoid such behaviours. They also implied to young readers that they could achieve societal respect by adhering to the lifestyle promoted in the educational materials. Particularly evident in the narratives within textbooks, it can be inferred that Republican elites aimed to convey the message that a strong connection existed between the anti-alcohol movement and patriotism.

Nonetheless, the endeavours of Hilâl-i Ahdar, rooted in the Ottoman Empire, to bolster the temperance movement are commendable. It appears that Hilâl-i Ahdar effectively reached a significant number of young people. Regrettably, due to the absence of concrete statistical data, it remains challenging to ascertain the overall efficacy of these efforts in achieving their intended objectives. Nevertheless, it is plausible to infer the state's aspiration for an 'ideal lifestyle' or desirable citizens, which underscores the alignment of the temperance movement in the early republic period with the state's agenda of cultivating a robust population. It is visible that the imperative for a healthy and vigorous generation was incorporated into the education system, primarily through textbooks and state-supported initiatives like Hilâl-i Ahdar and its affiliated publications. Besides, the temperance movement within the educational structure supported shaping the desired social order and moral framework.

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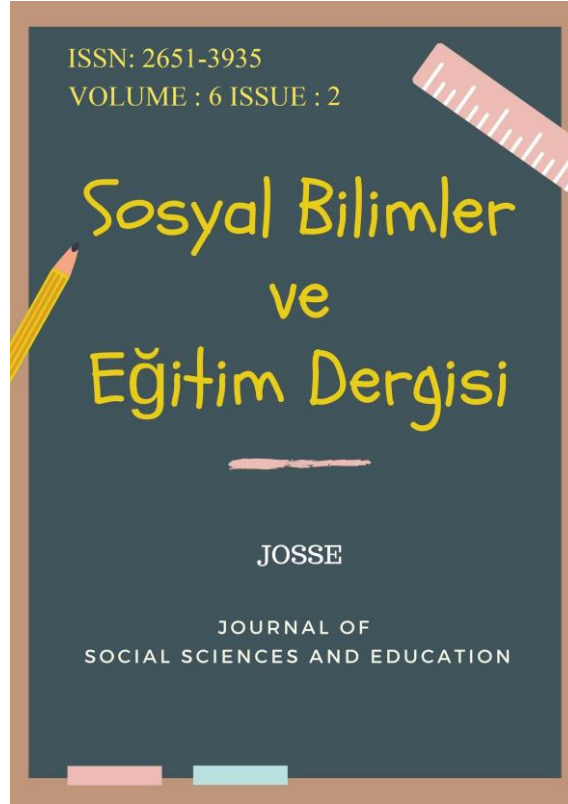
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**Measurement and Evaluation in Turkish Language and Literature
Teaching**

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Measurement and Evaluation in Turkish Language and Literature Teaching

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Abstract

It can be said that there are many problems to be solved in the field of Turkish language and literature education and training. One of the most important of these is that Turkish language and literature teaching and education are very close to each other and even confused with each other. This situation reveals its difference more clearly especially during measurement and evaluation practices. When the existing literature is examined, it is seen that there is a very limited number of studies in the field of measurement and evaluation of Turkish language and literature. In this context, in this study, studies on measurement and evaluation in Turkish language and literature teaching were reached. The available studies were analysed by content analysis. As a result, it was found that the majority of the studies were in the scale development style. Based on the studies, it was suggested that some necessary studies should be carried out in the field of measurement and evaluation in teaching Turkish language and literature.

Keywords: Turkish language and literature, education, training, measurement and evaluation

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Introduction

Turkish language and literature teaching is one of the important parts of education and training processes. Effective teaching in this field does not only develop language skills. A very comprehensive development can be mentioned, including reading, comprehension, expression and even taking a place in society. It also aims to add value to the rich cultural heritage of Turkish language and literature. It is very important to use strong measurement and evaluation methods to ensure the success of this educational activity. However, in order to better understand the issue of measurement and evaluation in teaching Turkish language and literature, it is necessary to distinguish between language and literature education and language and literature teaching.

Literature education and literature teaching are used together as twin concepts (Aydın, 2006, p. 4). In order to determine what we want to do with literature at which level of education, we must first distinguish between these two concepts. The most important issue here is the question "Are we going to do language and literature education or language and literature teaching?". It is thought that answering this question first and planning in this direction will be more useful. Separating the concepts of teaching and education of Turkish language and literature from each other and ending the confusion of concepts is also very valuable in solving certain problems related to literature.

According to Çetişli (2006, p. 4), what is fundamental in education is to educate, train, educate and give experience to the individual in terms of living, working, feeling, behaviour and expression. In other words, the education of literature means educating with literature. If language and literature teaching can be considered as teaching literary knowledge, it will be better understood how the two concepts differ from each other. Based on all these, "it should be emphasised that literature education and literature teaching are two different things" (Aydın, 2006, p. 4).

It is very difficult to talk about a literature education in isolation from the literary work. It is even impossible. However, the active use of literary texts should also be taken into consideration here. The consideration of texts only in terms of year, title of the work and author's name is not sufficient for the targeted literature education. Çetişli (2006, p. 5) states that such an endeavour will not do anything other than imposing a series of abstract knowledge on young minds. He defines literature as literary texts with aesthetic value that come from the pen of the writer or poet. Undoubtedly, the artist who created the text, the

community and conditions in which it comes to life, the literary tradition and the school to which it belongs are of great importance in literature education where texts are at the centre. Moreover, different disciplines such as history, philosophy, sociology, psychology, linguistics and theology should also be utilised. The emphasis here is on putting the literary text at the centre and not using it for other purposes. What kind of perspective should the literature educator, who places the literary text at the centre of his/her practices, approach the object in question and what kind of attitude should he/she take towards it? The first answer to this question should be sought in the reason for the existence of the work of literature. A literary text is an art object that is the embodiment of the art of literature. A literary text is no different from a painting, sculpture or composition in terms of being a work of art. The main element that separates the products of fine art from each other and prepares the way for them to be named differently is expressed as the materials that bring them into existence. From this point of view, literature is a branch of fine art that comes to life or finds life in language.

Indeed, literature has an aspect that requires teaching such as literary knowledge and theories and literary history. Literature teaching can be associated with literary science (Aydın, 2006, p. 4). According to Uçan (2006, p. 13), literature education is considered as an art education by all experts, and in art education, perception, feeling, an ability based on intuition, a view based on criticism, interpretation and interpretation skills are among the first skills to be acquired. Çetişli (2006, p. 5-6) states that the most important fact that the literary educator should never forget is that literary works are a very clear object of beauty and a work of art. Therefore, the literature educator is seen as a kind of art educator who has to base his/her work on an aesthetic point of view. His/her task is to reveal, nurture, develop and enrich the beauty, sensitivity and feelings of young people in their souls through the enjoyment of literary texts. In this way, brand new doors are opened to the lives of people who are becoming more materialised and shallow every day. To quench the thirst of the souls for beauty, nature and life are heard and understood in a deeper way.

According to Uçan (2006), in our education system, literature education does not go beyond language education or word analysis. In our high schools and universities, literary knowledge and theories are mostly emphasised in the field of knowledge. It turns into a history course, or rather a history of literature course, in which definitions are memorised along with some rules. The history of literature is also for a better understanding of the text under consideration. The main aim here should be a better understanding of the text. When we consider the teaching of literature as mentioned, it can be concluded that this is the activity

currently carried out in schools. However, it is very difficult to call it literature education. Because we are trying to teach literature, yes, that is true. However, it is also necessary to mention the fact that we are inadequate in implementing literature education at all levels of education. In order to be able to talk about literature education, real practice is necessary. "The main practice that should be given or done in literature education is the quality of the art product, in other words, the literary text, how the meaning in the text is produced, and what the language and discourse in the text say. Immediately after this, as a requirement of its polysemy, it is to reveal what the literary text makes the reader think and feel".

Literature course is a course in which students write, speak, think and read and has its own literary forms. Measurement tools should be organised according to these characteristics of Turkish language and literature course. In addition, the relationship between literature and fine arts should not be ignored. Measurement and evaluation practices, which are generally defined as "exams", should not be considered only as an application that determines whether a course or a class is passed or failed. A good measurement and a healthy evaluation afterwards can increase the quality level. It is also necessary and important to question the effectiveness of in-class practices. For this reason, "There are important differences between a teacher who has gained special knowledge in the field of measurement and evaluation and a teacher who has not. A teacher who grades by following measurement and evaluation techniques can both reach less erroneous value judgements and evaluate and improve his/her own teaching methods" (Turgut & Baykul, 2015, p. 4). Therefore, "Measurement and evaluation studies are indispensable elements of the education and learning process" (Göçer, 2014a, p. 193).

"Measurement and evaluation studies and practices in the context of student, learning outcomes, course and teacher are an essential and inseparable element of the education and training process with the tasks they undertake. Measurement results actually separate learning from its context and reduce it to a number. According to these numbers, that is, according to the results of tests or exams, school performance or national performances are tried to be achieved. At the level of government, ministries, schools, teachers, parents and pupils, the numbers from tests or exams are important in the social system. For this reason, people try to reach the better level (or higher numbered ones)." (Karadoğan, 2019, p. 57).

Cemiloğlu (2003, p. 172) states that "literature and language skills and grammar indicators are different. For this reason, it should be well determined which measurement tool will be widely used in which field. In addition, when the diversity of literary genres is added to this, he states that the types of measurement needed will diversify".

"Since literature education is also an art education, especially during the evaluation, rather than inadequacies and mistakes, the guidance on what the students have done

incompletely and how to do it better will both attract the students' interest in the subject and prevent them from assuming that they cannot do it. It can be said that criticism and negative comments should be avoided in terms of students' developmental characteristics and the characteristics of the period they are in. For this reason, great care should be taken when evaluating, especially in literature education" (Karadođan, 2019, p. 42).

In this context, as a result of the literature review, few studies on measurement and evaluation in Turkish language and literature teaching were found. Considering this gap in the field, this study aims to contribute to filling the gap in the field. Another aim is to guide the studies that can be done in the field by revealing the current situation with the current number of studies. It is expected to contribute to the literature by showing the studies conducted in the field together.

The aim of this study is to bring together the articles related to measurement and evaluation in Turkish language and literature teaching and to see the studies in the field in a holistic way. Thus, both all current studies can be seen and new studies can be shed light on the new studies to be carried out by identifying the subjects that have not been studied.

Within the scope of the study, only articles were discussed and the subject was limited. The purpose of considering articles is that these studies can be published faster than studies such as books and contribute more to the academic field. In addition, the main reason why only Turkish language and literature teaching was chosen as the subject and Turkish education and Turkish language and literature departments were excluded from the scope of the study is that the curriculum, number of students and number of faculties of the three departments are very different from each other.

Method

The data of the research were collected by document analysis technique, one of the qualitative data collection methods. Document analysis involves the analysis of written materials containing information about the phenomenon or phenomena targeted to be researched. Document analysis enables the analysis of documents produced within a certain period of time about a research problem or documents produced by more than one source on the relevant subject and at different intervals based on a wide time period (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2002, pp. 140-143). By using the content analysis technique, the researcher objectively analysed the contents of the texts, documents, documents and themes within

certain rules. It is a set of methodological tools and techniques that aim to extract meanings from concepts, texts, verbal or written materials according to predetermined criteria as an objective, systematic, deductive reading tool that investigates social reality. Even if it is seen as weak at the planning stage, it gives effective and interesting results in practice. It is a multifunctional and gradually developing technique that enables to transform quantitative into qualitative and to reach unwritten messages based on written text (Tavşancıl & Aslan, 2001, pp. 21-22).

In this context, studies on the subject have been compiled. The aspects that should be related to measurement and evaluation in Turkish language and literature teaching, which are applied and found deficient are mentioned. The study was finalised by making suggestions on the subject.

Findings

In the literature review on Turkish language and literature education and teaching, there are very few studies on the field. This shows the need for study in the field. It is surprising that there are so few studies in such an important field as Turkish language and literature. The reason for this is that the field of study is difficult, tires the researcher a lot, requires knowledge in both Turkish language and literature and measurement and evaluation. When we look at the studies on measurement and evaluation in Turkish language and literature education/teaching; Veyis, Bükler & Muslu (2021) developed "Turkish Language and Literature Teachers' Field Knowledge Proficiency Scale (TDS-FKQS): Validity and Reliability Study" developed by Gücüyeter & Karadoğan, (2020), "Turkish Language and Literature Teachers Measurement and Evaluation Proficiency Scale Validity and Reliability Study" developed by Gücüyeter, & Karadoğan (2019), "Scale development study to determine the measurement and evaluation attitudes of Turkish language and literature teachers: validity and reliability", "Turkish language and literature teachers' measurement and evaluation attitudes, competence and practices" by Karadoğan (2019), Aslan & Bayraktar (2017), "Turkish Language and Literature Teacher Candidates' Knowledge and Awareness of the Use of Rubrics", Çiftçi (2017), "A Study on the Question Asking Skills of Turkish Language and Literature Teachers", Demir Atalay, (2017), "Literature Teacher Candidates' Perception of General Competence in Measurement and Evaluation", Eryılmaz & Mammadov (2016), "An overview of application measurement and evaluation in Turkish language and literature

education" by Gcer (2015), Karako ztrk (2015), "Turkish Language and Literature Teachers' Views on Performance Evaluation: A Qualitative Research" by Benzer & Eldem (2013), "Turkish Language and Literature Teachers' Level of Knowledge on Measurement and Evaluation Tools" by Maden (2011), "Turkish Language and Literature Teachers' Perceptions on Measurement and Evaluation" by Maden (2011), "Question Qualifications Used in Measurement and Evaluation within the Scope of the Objectives of Turkish Language and Literature Education" by Karadz (2009), Kurudayıođlu, řahin & The study prepared by elik (2008) titled "Evaluation of the Measurement and Evaluation Dimension in the Turkish Literature Programme Implemented in Turkey: A Case Study" prepared by Grses (2006) and "The place of measurement and evaluation in language teaching" prepared by Grses (2006) are the main studies prepared in the field.

As can be seen from the studies, there are very few studies on Turkish language and literature education/teaching, but there are almost no studies at primary, secondary and higher education levels. The fact that there are very few studies on subjects that can be presented under many other headings such as students, questions, question forms specific to subjects, etc. reveals that there are many subjects that need to be studied in Turkish language and literature education/teaching.

As can be seen from the studies, the majority of the researches in the field are aimed at determining the scale development and measurement and evaluation situations. Even this information alone can be an indicator of how limited number of studies on the field is. Scale development studies are very important for the realisation of quantitative studies in a field. Without scale studies, the next stage cannot be passed and the necessary quantitative information about that field cannot be collected. In this context, the intensity of scale development studies indicates that this field cannot go beyond the stage of meeting the need for quantitative studies.

As another finding, the first step has been taken to determine the needs of the field with reliable and valid scale studies. However, it can be said that there is a need for more comprehensive studies that will propose solutions.

Discussion and Results

As a result, there are very limited number of studies in the field of measurement and evaluation in Turkish language and literature teaching. According to this result, it is seen that

there is a lot of work that can be done in the field. The field of Turkish language and literature teaching and education, which has many problems and problems to be solved, should be addressed rapidly and comprehensively.

Literature course is not a field where theoretical knowledge is taught, it is a skill area where every person develops his/her feelings and thoughts. For this reason, it is necessary to design the learning activities of this course as a field where emotion and thinking skills are developed, not theoretical, and measurement and evaluation tools should be aimed at determining these skills (Karadüz, 2009, p. 17).

While we have not yet made progress in the measurement and evaluation of even the theoretical data, the teaching of Turkish language and literature will be carried to completely different dimensions with the measurement of emotion and thought skills. In this context, what kind of studies should be carried out to develop students' four basic skills? If each skill is considered separately, how should the measurement and evaluation of these four basic skills be done in Turkish language and literature teaching? It is essential to carry out studies on these issues in the field. Besides, Karadüz (2008) states in his study that teachers use classical assessment and evaluation methods. He also underlines that the question types cannot go beyond the knowledge level. In the light of this information, necessary studies should be carried out in order for current assessment and evaluation methods to take their place in Turkish language and literature teaching. In order to carry student development to a higher level with questions in analysis, synthesis and evaluation stages, necessary studies should be carried out with measurement and evaluation directorates in provincial centres and in-service training centres.

Reconsidering the integration with technology in the context of literature education and teaching will help to overcome some problems. In this context, academic studies on measurement and evaluation in teaching Turkish language and literature with technology will contribute to the development of the field. For the simplest example, technology can be used to increase interest in literary works and to concentrate attention. By increasing these and similar applications, literature teaching and education can be given completely different dimensions.

In addition to these, another title that can be counted as a problem of measurement and evaluation in Turkish language and literature is that the curricula of both education faculties and secondary education schools change at short intervals. Curricula should of course be updated. However, such frequent changes cause negative situations for both educational institutions. Just when they get used to it, the programme changes again. It may be more

beneficial to update the programmes every 10 years or 5 years instead of changing the programmes provided that the basics of the programmes remain the same.

As a result, Güzel (2006, p. 22) takes current educational approaches as a starting point and emphasises that literature education is obliged to fulfil the tasks such as self-realisation, revealing and developing one's hidden powers, being at peace with oneself and the society one is in, being equipped with universal and national values, using Turkish beautifully, effectively and correctly, and expressing oneself verbally and in writing. From this point of view, it is thought that academic studies on all of the titles given by Güzel (2006) regarding measurement and evaluation in Turkish language and literature education will improve the field.

It is thought that the assessment of the genres that come to mind first in Turkish language and literature education/training should also be unique. In this context, it can be suggested to carry out studies on the assessment and evaluation of novels, stories, poems and other literary genres and to carry out assessment and evaluation practices specific to these genres. Book reports, essays and in-class discussions can be suggested for the evaluation of novels. Students can be encouraged to express their interpretations, analyse the author's narrative choices and explore the social and cultural themes presented in the novel. Regarding the evaluation of poems, students can be asked to analyse the poem by examining the poet's use of metaphors, symbols and imagery. Evaluation can involve interpreting the poems, identifying poetic elements and exploring the emotional impact of the lines. Students can be encouraged to create their own poems by applying the techniques they have learnt and receive constructive feedback on their creative efforts. Students can be made to analyse story structure, character development and the main message of the story. Methods for assessing stories may include written analyses, oral presentations or discussions exploring the narrative techniques used by the author.

Another title that should be applied for the development of the field of measurement and evaluation in the teaching/education of Turkish language and literature and for the necessary studies to be carried out is to increase the academic studies related to this field. Academic staff should concentrate on this field and the missing subjects should be identified and addressed as soon as possible. In addition, it is important that the departments that train Turkish language and literature teachers reach the value they deserve. These departments should be given the necessary value and the rights of teacher candidates studying in these

departments should be protected. It can be said that this application will make a serious contribution to the field of Turkish language and literature teaching/education.

Recommendations

If a functional assessment and evaluation is aimed in Turkish language and literature teaching, firstly, we need to make sense of Turkish language and literature literacy, then we need to determine expectations and make assessment and evaluation practices accordingly. This is an application that is not very easy, demanding and professionalism (Karadoğan, 2019, p. 40).

In Turkish language and literature courses, in addition to reading and listening comprehension, it is possible to talk about goals such as being able to analyse, synthesise and evaluate, express oneself orally and in writing, and adapt to the national culture. For this reason, it seems more meaningful to conduct exams for these objectives (Karadoğan, 2019, p. 42). Cemiloğlu (2003, p. 173) states that "for these reasons, essay-type exams are more appropriate for the Turkish language and literature course". In addition, he states that a good Turkish language and literature teacher can also prepare and apply multiple-choice questions in accordance with the subject. Within the scope of their study, Benzer and Eldem (2013) concluded that teachers generally choose classical assessment and evaluation methods. This leads to the conclusion that teachers also prefer classical assessment and evaluation practices more. However, it can be said that a comprehensive study should be conducted on why current methods are not preferred.

As stated in the main objectives of the literature course, students should perceive this course as a culture and aesthetic.s course and see it as an education of emotion and thought. Learning at the knowledge level is not aimed at analysing the elements that make up the textual structure (Karadüz, 2009, p. 28). For this reason, the studies on measurement and evaluation in Turkish language and literature teaching should increase rapidly and students should be developed mentally with questions at the stages of analysis, synthesis and evaluation.

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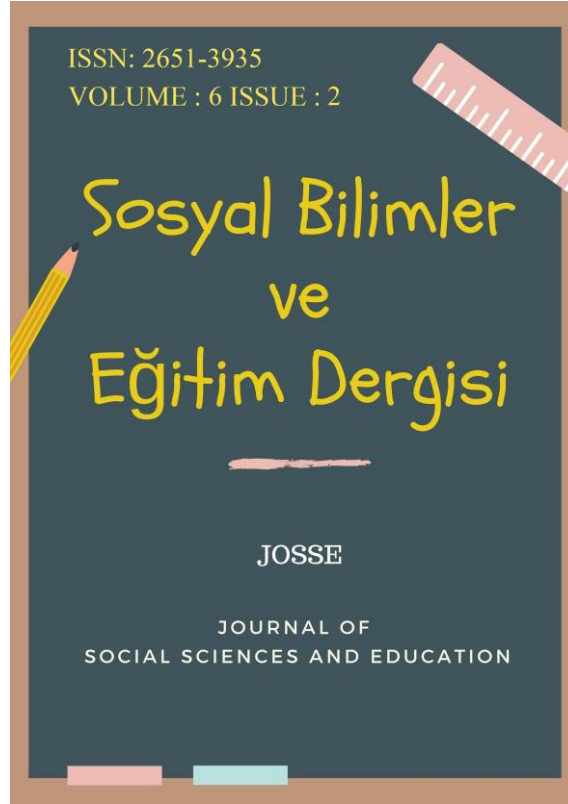
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Middle School Eighth Grade Students' Perceptions of the Flag

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Middle School Eighth Grade Students' Perceptions of the Flag

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate middle school eighth grade students' perceptions of the flag. This study was conducted as basic qualitative research. The data were collected through a metaphor form and student drawings and analyzed using content analysis technique. 240 metaphor forms and 155 student drawings were analyzed. As a result of the research, 8th grade students produced 87 valid metaphors about the flag. The most produced metaphors are listed as homeland, independence, martyrs, freedom and blood. The results showed that the perception of the flag in the minds of the students was gathered under six themes: "flag as a historical heritage", "flag in terms of the values it represents", "flag as a representation of the country/homeland", "the flag in terms of the feelings it evokes", "flag as a unifying/protective element" and "the flag in terms of reminding place, person, and elements." It was determined that the theme of the flag as a historical heritage was the most prominent in both metaphors and student drawings, and that the students mostly viewed the flag as a national value symbolizing a long historical struggle.

Keywords: National value, flag, metaphor, drawing, student perception

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Introduction

Human beings are inherently social entities. Therefore, people are expected to take into account some values that exist in society and have the power to regulate social life to sustain their lives healthily (Doğanay, 1993). The family and school environment primarily play a role in the individual's realisation and learning of these values. Many different factors, such as friends, close environment and social media, can also be mentioned (Baloğlu & Balgamiş, 2005; Fidan & Erden, 2001). Individuals learn whether behaviours are right or wrong, good or bad in the family environment. However, this learning is shaped according to the family's social, economic and cultural environment, not consciously or within a specific programme. Schools, on the other hand, try to impart values in society systematically and within the framework of certain programmes (Akkiprik, 2007; Deveci, 2008). Therefore, each country's education system aims to transfer national and universal values to individuals in addition to basic knowledge and skills (Varış, 1988).

Universal values are seen as values that concern the whole world and humanity. The elements that ensure the continuity, unity and solidarity of the society, adopted by the majority of the society and unique to that nation, constitute national values (Özlem, 1990; Yücel, 1993). There are different approaches in the literature about what national values are. However, in general, concepts and values within the scope of the state, homeland, nation, national anthem, flag, and army (Çetin, 2015; Demircioğlu & Tokdemir, 2008; Evin & Kafadar, 2004; Özbudun, 1997; Yılmaz, 2013), family, culture, language, religion, important historical personalities, traditions and customs (Karaçanta, 2013; Özkartal, 2009; Savaşkan & Arslan, 2015; Yıldız, 2018) are considered as national values. The national flag is one of the most important national values of the countries. Various studies have determined that individuals in different age groups (Demir, 2012; Demir Atalay & Fırat Durdukoca, 2018; Karaçanta, 2013; Kılıç & Demir, 2017) see the national flag of their country as an important national value. Acquiring national values is an indispensable part of countries' education systems. Because students' adoption of these values is considered important for the continuity of society

In Türkiye, ensuring that students become individuals who have adopted national and moral values, exercised their rights and fulfilled their responsibilities is among the main objectives of curricula (Ministry of National Education [MoNE], 2018). Many courses at different levels of the education system are responsible for providing these values. However,

social studies is foremost course that prepares students for social life and enables them to gain responsibilities as good and effective citizens. While ensuring students' social adaptation, it considers the society's norms, cultures, and national and spiritual values (Aslan, 2016; Ross, 2006). Accordingly, in the curriculum, the main objectives are to ensure that students "grow up as citizens of the Republic of Türkiye who love their homeland and nation, know and use their rights, fulfil their responsibilities, and have a national consciousness" and "know the importance and ways of being a virtuous person by adopting national, spiritual and universal values" (MoNE, 2018, p.8). In addition, many learning outcomes in the programme can be associated with national values. In particular, in the fifth-grade Effective Citizenship learning domain, the learning outcome "Values our flag and the National Anthem, one of our symbols of national sovereignty and independence" (MoNE, 2018, p.19) emphasises the provision of learning about the flag as a national value in a concrete way.

Students' perceptions, experiences and learning about the flag cannot be limited to school because citizens of a country have continuous experiences with the national flag in their daily lives. In addition, as emphasised earlier, school environments and curricula such as social studies include learning about the flag in a structured way. Therefore, determining students' perceptions of the "flag" can reveal the meaning and importance of the national flag as a national value for them. In the related literature, various methods, such as interviews (Aydemir & Ulu Kalın, 2018; Birlik, 2022), word association tests (Nacaroğlu & Bozdağ, 2020; Üztemur & İnel) or some quantitative data collection tools (Sönmez, 2021; Şener & Boydak Özcan; 2013) have been used to determine students' perceptions towards some concepts. Moreover, metaphors are also frequently used in studies to determine students' perceptions (i.e. Coşkun, 2010; Güven & Güven, 2009; Güner, 2013; Kaya, 2014; Özdemir, 2012; Saban, 2008; Selanik Ay & Kurtdede Fidan, 2013; Yılmaz et al., 2013).

Lakoff and Johnson (2010, p.27), one of the pioneers of metaphor use, define metaphor as "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another kind of thing". According to Saban (2008), metaphor is to establish a relationship between two phenomena that are not similar and to evolve the existing mental schema into another mental schema. In short, metaphors are tools that enable individuals to express how they make sense of their lives, their environment, the events they experience, and the objects around them by using different analogies. Metaphors make it easier for the human mind to understand abstract phenomena that are difficult to explain by transforming them into concrete, more understandable expressions (Şeyihoğlu & Gençer, 2011). Individuals frequently use

metaphors daily to express, strengthen and make sense of their wishes more effectively, consciously or unconsciously (Aykaç & Çelik, 2011). At the same time, metaphors give us clues about how individuals perceive the world (Yalçın Wells, 2015).

Drawings are the other data collection tool used in studies to determine student perceptions (i.e. Ahonen et al., 2018; Benek & Akçay, 2018; Cronin Jones, 2005; Kisovar Ivanda & Batarelo Kokić, 2013; Şahin Akyüz, 2016; Yavuz Mumcu, 2020). Drawings are an effective method for understanding children's feelings and thoughts that they cannot express verbally, and reliable and critical information about children can be obtained (Halmatov, 2016). When students are made to draw, they can be made to think about issues that are important to them in a meaningful way. When combined with drawings and narratives, it is easier to discover the meanings that children attribute to a certain phenomenon (Einarsdottir et al., 2009). Through drawings, children's inner worlds, as well as their experiences with the external world, their perception of the world, and their interaction with their environment and adults, can be revealed (Malchiodi, 2005).

In Türkiye, there are various metaphor and drawing studies in the literature to determine students' perceptions of the values in the curriculum or national values (i.e. Akyol & Kızıltan, 2019; Ceylan, 2016; Çapar, 2019; Çatak & Yıldız, 2018; Duran, 2018; Er Türküresin, 2018; Er Türküresin et al., 2018; Faiz & Karasu Avcı, 2019; Gazel & Yıldırım, 2018; Göksu, 2020; Gömleksiz & Öner, 2016; İnel et al., 2018; Karaçanta, 2013; Sönmez & Akıncan, 2013). Some studies have obtained limited data about the flag. (i.e. Kılıç & Demir, 2017; Özcel & Çelebi Öncü, 2021). There is a comparative study in the literature that includes Turkey (Becker et al., 2017). However, no study has been found to determine in detail students' perceptions of the national flag in Turkey. Therefore, the study has unique value. At the same time, as stated before, the flag is both a national value for societies and a symbol that represents important values such as independence and sovereignty. In this context, the research can reveal whether the expected meanings of the flag are formed in students' minds. It can contribute to a clearer understanding of national values. At the same time, determining students' perceptions about the flag can reveal how their experiences in their daily lives and learning in the school environment about the flag are reflected in them. Therefore, the study aimed to determine the perceptions of secondary school students about the concept of a flag, and answers to the following questions were sought:

1. What are the metaphors that students have about the concept of "flag"?

2. Under which themes and categories are the students' drawings and metaphors categorised?

Method

Model

The basic qualitative research was used in the study. This design is the most frequently used among qualitative research designs in the field of education. Basic qualitative research is concerned with how individuals interpret reality in the social world. In other words, it focuses on how individuals make sense of their lives and experiences. Researchers may not always conduct phenomenology, theory building, discourse analysis or ethnographic studies. Basic qualitative research enables qualitative research with an interpretive approach (Merriam ve Tisdell, 2016; Merriam, 2009). The research aimed to investigate the meanings that middle school students create their minds about national flag of their countries.

Participants

In the study, data was collected from 8th grade middle school students who completed social studies courses which included concrete information about the flag at all grade levels. Convenience sampling, one of the purposeful sampling strategies, was used to determine the participants. It is a frequently used sampling method in qualitative research because it provides advantages to researchers in terms of speed, practicality and easy access. Data was collected in two stages. In the first stage, metaphor forms were distributed to a total of 250 volunteer students in 15 classes in five schools. However, 240 valid forms were analyzed. Of this participant group, 54.4% were girls, and 45.6% were boys. In the second stage, drawing papers were distributed to 170 volunteer students in the same classes, but 155 of them were included in the analysis. 15 drawings that were not complete enough to be interpreted were excluded from analysis. Of this participant group, 54.8% were girls, and 45.2% were boys.

Data Collection Tools

In basic qualitative research, interviews, observations or document analysis can be used to collect data (Merriam, 2009). In the study, metaphor form and student drawings were used to determine students' perceptions of the flag. Metaphors are frequently used as a data collection tool in qualitative research in the field of educational sciences. This is because

metaphors are a powerful tool for individuals to make sense of the world, and abstract concepts in our minds can be easily concretised through metaphors (İbret & Aydınöz, 2011; Ocak & Gündüz, 2006). Therefore, it is thought that students can make sense of the flag, which exists as a spiritual and national value in their lives and which they often have various experiences, more easily by concretising it in their minds. A form was prepared based on similar studies (i.e. Coşkun, 2010; Er Türküresin, 2018; Kaya, 2014; Saban, 2008). In the prepared form, students were asked to complete the statement “The flag is like..... Because.....” statement was asked to complete. A sample metaphor expression and explanation about a different concept were included in the form prepared to ensure comprehensibility.

Student drawings were also used in the study to diversify the data. Drawings, which are also one of the familiar activities of daily life, are seen as a powerful tool in conveying children’s thoughts as they come from within (Yavuzer, 2019). In this sense, in the study, students were asked to reflect on the first thing that came to their minds by thinking about the flag with their drawings. The students were left free for the drawings, but A4 size paper and different colours of dry paint were distributed. In addition, students were asked to explain their drawings with written expressions because the explanations accompanying the drawings enable the meanings attributed to the phenomenon to be discovered more easily (Einarsdottir et al., 2009).

Data Analysis

The data were analysed using the content analysis technique (Merriam, 2009). In content analysis, concepts that are similar and related to each other are interpreted by bringing them together within the framework of certain themes. In this regard, for the analysis of metaphors, firstly, the forms of all participants were numbered, and four forms that did not have a metaphor expression, two forms that did not have a valid metaphor quality (Turkish flag is as if it was washed with the blood of our martyrs, Turkish flag is a good thing), and four forms did not state a reason for the metaphor were eliminated. In the second stage, the metaphors created by the participants were analysed in terms of the relationship between the source and the subject and valid metaphors were determined. In the third stage, the metaphors produced by the participants about the concept of “flag” were brought together by taking into account their common features.

All drawings were numbered, and students were given a code with the same number as the drawing (S1, S2, S3, ...) for the analysis of the drawings. In determining the perceptions and thoughts about the flag, the elements included in the drawings and the students' written narratives were evaluated as a whole. Subsequently, each drawing was analysed independently and repeatedly, and the similar or different aspects of the drawings were tried to be understood. Thus, drawings with common features were tried to be grouped under similar themes. In the last stage, student drawings and metaphors were evaluated together, and common themes were determined.

Various strategies were followed to ensure credibility in the research (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2016): (1) Data triangulation was provided through both metaphors and drawings. (2) Data were collected under the supervision of the researcher to ensure comprehensibility throughout the applications. (3) Written explanations were used to diversify data sources and to make better interpretations. (5) The data analysis process was explained in detail and reported. (4) Sample metaphor justifications, drawings and explanations of the participants were included. (f) The themes and categories were presented to the expert opinion, and inappropriate metaphors and drawings were discussed and finalised.

Ethics Committee Approval

In this study, all the rules specified to be followed within the scope of "Higher Education Institutions Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Directive" were complied with. The study was approved by the Kutahya Dumlupınar University Social and Human Sciences Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee on the meeting dated 20.09.2023.

Findings

In this part of the study, all metaphors reflecting the meaning and perception formed in the minds of secondary school eighth-grade students about the flag were given, then the metaphors and drawings of the students were evaluated together, and the categories and themes under which their perceptions of the flag were gathered in terms of their common characteristics were examined.

Students' Metaphors of the Flag

All metaphors created by the students regarding the flag are presented in Table 1. According to Table 1, students created a total of 87 valid metaphors reflecting their perceptions of the flag. 27 of them were expressed by only one student, while the others were expressed by more than one student. *Independence* (f=24) and *homeland* (f=24) were the two most frequently created metaphors. *Blood* (f=17), *martyrs* (f=14), *freedom* (f=12), *bird* (f=11) and *soldier* (f=9) metaphors were also expressed by many students.

Table 1

Flag Metaphors of Students

No	Metaphor	f	No	Metaphor	f	No	Metaphor	f
1.	Independence	24	31.	History	2	61.	Pen	1
2.	Homeland	24	32.	Land	2	62.	Eagle	1
3.	Blood	17	33.	Phoenix	2	63.	Poplar Tree	1
4.	Martyrs	14	35.	Star	1	64.	Cat	1
5.	Freedom/Liberty	12	34.	Main Hero	1	65.	Clothing	1
6.	Bird	11	36.	Monument	1	66.	Book	1
7.	Soldier	9	37.	Mother	1	67.	Commander	1
8.	Flower	5	38.	Love	1	68.	Wolf	1
9.	Trust	6	39.	Father	1	69.	Leader	1
10.	Türkiye/Our Country	5	40.	Leading Role	1	70.	Mehmetçik(Turkish Soldier)	1
11.	Life	4	41.	Blank Canvas	1	71.	Happiness	1
12.	Symbol	4	42.	Courage	1	72.	Music Genre	1
13.	Honesty	4	43.	Plane Tree	1	73.	Organ	1
14.	Gift	3	44.	Sea	1	74.	Ozone Layer	1
15.	Key	3	45.	Epic	1	75.	Immortality	1
16.	House	3	46.	Friendship	1	76.	Originality	1
17.	Shield	3	47.	Effort	1	77.	Soul	1
18.	Nation	3	48.	Souvenir	1	78.	War	1
19.	Family	2	49.	Story	1	79.	Assurance	1
20.	Whole/Unity	2	50.	Light	1	80.	Infinity	1
21.	Wave	2	51.	Roof of the House	1	81.	Honour	1
22.	Sovereignty	2	52.	Veterans	1	82.	Painting	1
23.	Carpet	2	53.	Corn Poppy	1	83.	Turk	1
24.	Character	2	54.	Sun	1	84.	Conscience	1
25.	Identity	2	55.	Trust	1	85.	Puzzle Piece	1
26.	Sacred Artifact	2	56.	Source of Faith	1	86.	Food/Meal	1
27.	National Anthem	2	57.	Human	1	87.	Armor	1
28.	Wind	2	58.	Image/Symbol	1			
29.	Surname	2	59.	Heart	1			
30.	Hawk	2	60.	Castle	1			
							Total	240

Themes and Categories Regarding Students' Flag Perceptions

When the metaphors and drawings created by the students about the flag were analysed, it was seen that they were grouped under 6 themes in terms of their common characteristics: (1) *flag as a historical heritage*, (2) *flag in terms of the values it represents*, (3) *flag as a representation of the country/homeland*, (4) *flag in terms of the feelings it evokes*, (5) *flag as a unifying/protective element*, and (6) *the flag in terms of reminding place, person, and elements*.

Flag as A Historical Heritage

Considering both the metaphors and drawings of the students, most students associated the flag with the difficulties, struggles and sacrifices experienced in the historical process and considered it as a value that should be seen as a relic of this process. Students created metaphors symbolising the War of Independence in this theme with the highest frequency of metaphors. As seen in Table 2, *martyrs* (f=13) is the metaphor with the highest frequency in this theme. This is followed by *homeland* (f=8) and *soldier* (f=7). The explanations of the students who produced the related metaphors are actually similar. The students identified the flag with those who took part in the national liberation war and those who were martyred, stated that it symbolised the liberation struggle for the homeland and that the flag reminded the soldiers because of their role in this process. Other metaphors with high frequencies were listed as *life/soul* (f=8), *trust* (f=8), *honour* (f=8), and *gift* (f=8). Similar emphases are observed when analysed with all metaphors with lower frequencies. The students stated that the losses and sacrifices in the long and challenging liberation war process made the flag a symbol of this process and that they saw it as a trust that should be kept above everything else.

Table 2

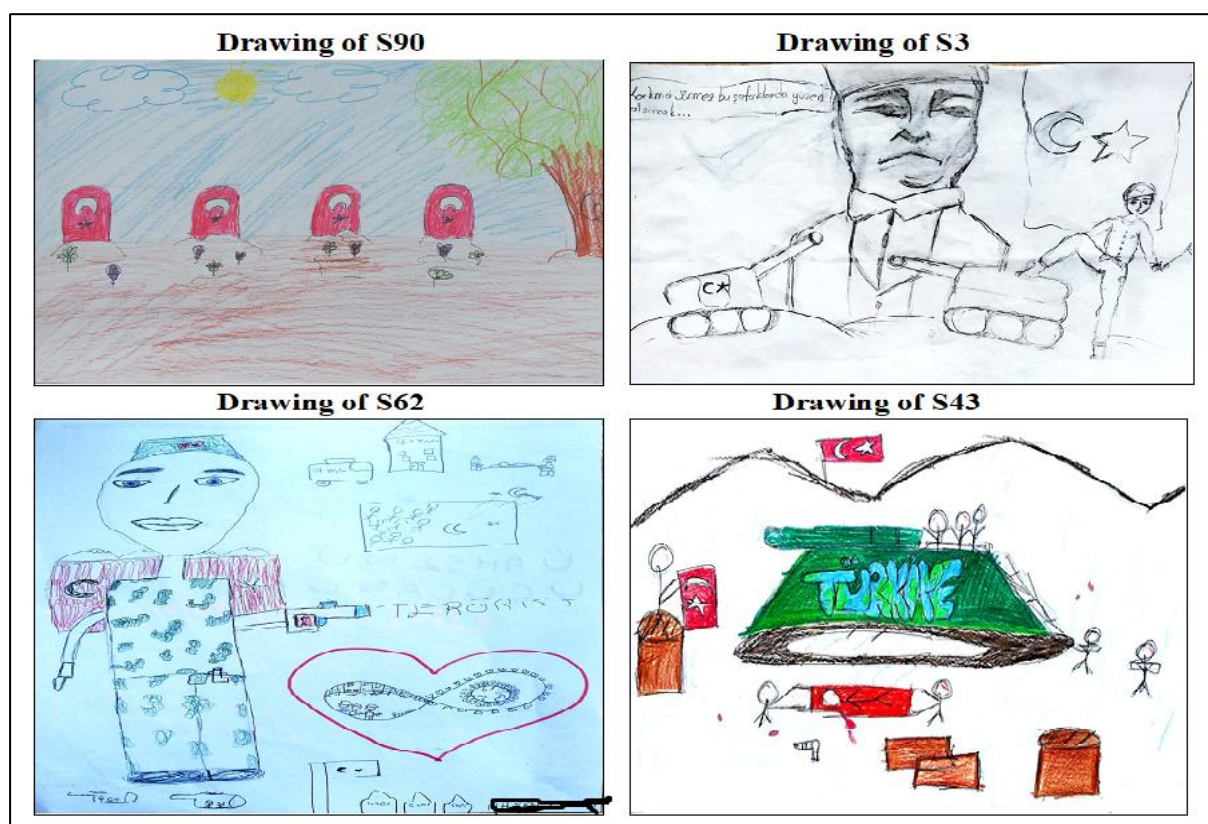
Metaphors and Sample Extractions Related to Theme of Flag As Historical Heritage

Metaphor	f	Student Number	Sample Extractions
Martyrs	13	194	Since our martyrs fought by sacrificing their lives, our lands and our flag are the memories left to us from them. We should take care of this flag like our eyes.
Homeland	8	229	Because every time I look at our flag, I remember the sacrifices made for this homeland and our martyrs.
Soldier	7	91	The flag has come to us from our ancestors and history who faced difficulties. We should sacrifice our blood and lives for the flag.

Soul/life	4	52	We have martyred fathers, brothers, sisters, brothers, relatives and many more for the sake of our flag, so the flag is our life. I will give my life for this flag, for this homeland.
Trust	4	41	We must protect the independence that we gained thanks to our ancestors.
Honesty	3	85	It is our duty to protect and protect our flag. When a bad word is said about our flag, I feel as if my own honour and honour have been damaged. (...) The flag is entrusted to us by our ancestor Mustafa Kemal Atatürk.
Gift	3	132	Our flag is entrusted to us by our ancestors. If it were not for them, maybe we would not be able to live as a free state.
Identity	2	162	Our flag is the symbol of which country we are a citizen of and our history.
Sacred artefact	2	59	(...) After the devastating war we fought in our time, our homeland was cleared of enemies by sacrificing even lives. Our flag was raised to immortalise the bloodshed.
History	2	202	It is based on the events that countries have experienced in the past. I think it is the same in other countries.
Land	2	204	We gave many martyrs to plant the flag on these lands. We called the lands where we hung our flag homeland. We struck fear into the enemy. Now, in order to protect our flag, we must first protect our lands.
Monument	1	84	The blood of tens of martyrs was shed for our flag (...) For this reason, our flag is a monument that always reminds us of them by floating in the sky.
Epic	1	17	It is like a symbol of our ancestors' struggle for us.
Effort	1	44	Since it was won with the struggle of our soldiers and martyrs, it shows the efforts of that country.
Veterans	1	173	It has participated in many wars, and died for it, but it has come out of all wars intact.
Souvenir	1	88	Our martyrs sacrificed their lives and fought for our lands, our flag is the memory left to us from them. We must look after this flag like our eyes.
Story	1	74	Our flag tells us how our martyrs fought.
Image	1	231	It tells more than one emotion, thought and experience with a single visual; flags.
Human	1	242	By learning about people's pasts, we get to know them better and gain knowledge. Flags also have a history and if we learn about this history, we will learn new information.
Pencil	1	119	The soldiers under that flag made history.
Leader	1	225	It is like a leader. For example, Ataturk. Thanks to him, revolutions have changed. I think the flag is like a leader.
Mehmetçik (Turkish Soldier)	1	138	The colour of our flag is not yellow or blue but blood red. It represents the soldier.
Happiness	1	222	Whenever people look at the flag, they should be happy to see how Atatürk founded this country with what difficulties.
Freedom	1	162	There is the blood of our martyrs on that flag, and unless every inch of the land of this homeland is watered with blood, that flag will remain with us.
War	1	169	Because the flag was won in war and died for it.
Total	65		

Figure 1

Sample Drawings Related to Theme of Flag As Historical Heritage



Similarly, the highest number of drawings ($f=63$) belong to the theme of the flag as a historical heritage. In this sense, students mostly depicted the *War of Independence* in their drawings. Also, *war*, *martyrs*, *the blood of martyrs*, *soldiers*, and *Atatürk* are the elements that are frequently discussed in the drawings. In addition, some students associated the recent *15th of July and terrorist attacks* with the flag. In the student explanations of all drawings, the difficult struggles, wars fought, and blood shed for the flag are emphasised. According to the students, since the flag symbolises this process, it should be highly valued, and always protected, and similar sacrifices should be made when necessary. Some sample student drawings and explanations are given in the following:

S90: Soldiers were martyred for the sake of the homeland and the flag.

S3: Our flag reminds me of the shed blood of our martyrs, our martyrs who died for the sake of this homeland and the National Anthem.

S62: Our martyrs found our flag in their struggle to save our homeland and to save us. At the same time, they fought to protect our flag. For this reason, when the flag is mentioned, many people think of homeland, soldier, city, etc.

S43: (...) Our martyrs were martyred in the War of Independence and our flag was formed. Our martyrs became martyrs by going in front of the enemies for us.

Flag in terms of the Values it Represents

Another prevalent theme where metaphors were frequently produced was the flag, particularly in relation to the values it symbolises. Many students, associating the flag with independence and freedom, crafted metaphors reflecting these values. Apparently, *independence* (f=24) and *freedom* (f=12) were the most recurrent metaphors within this theme. However, some students opted for different elements symbolising these values as metaphors. For instance, metaphors like a *bird* (f=9) and *honesty* (f=3), which were more frequent in this theme, along with *sovereignty*, *key*, *shield*, *spirit*, *wind*, and *assurance*, were articulated by linking them to freedom and independence. Additionally, one student conveyed disagreement with associating the flag with independence, metaphorically referring to it as empty fabric.

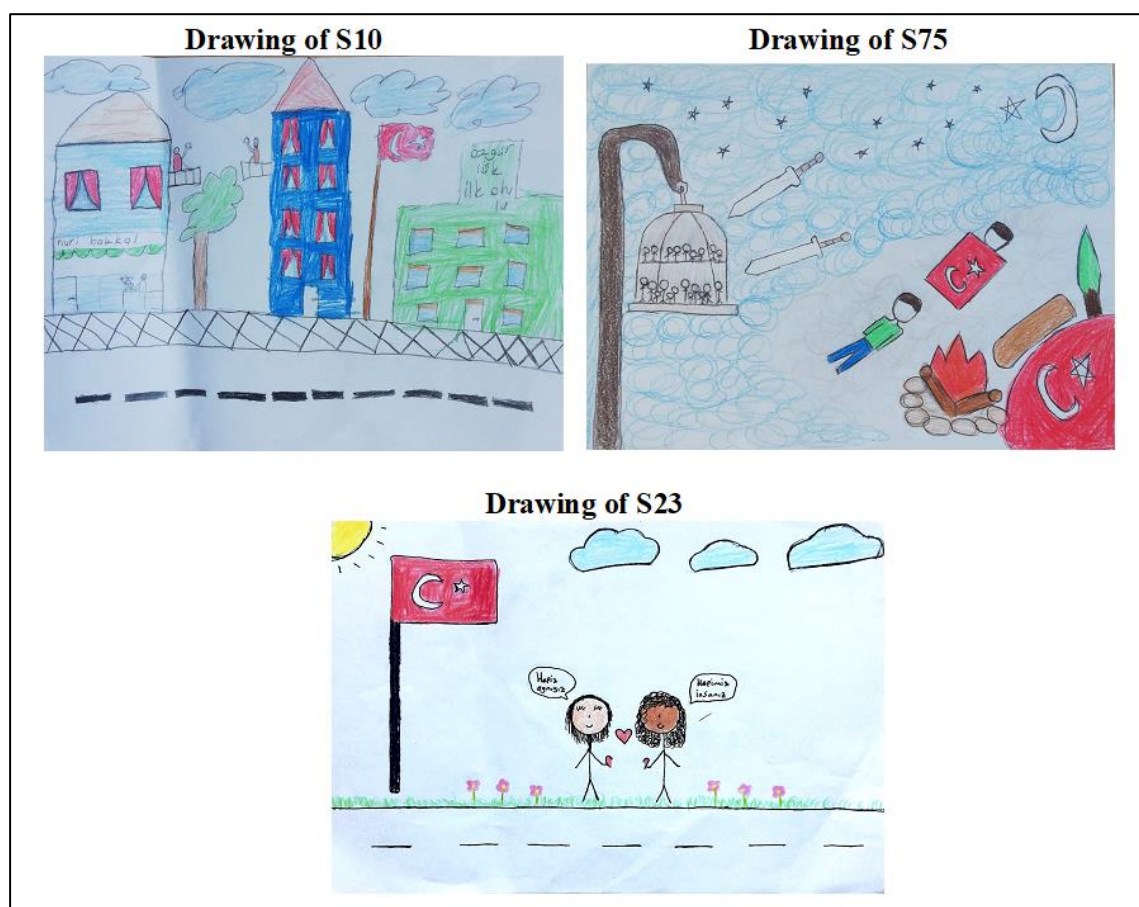
Table 3

Metaphors and Sample Student Extractions Related to Theme of Flag in terms of the Values it Represents

Metaphor	f	Student Number	Sample Extractions
Independence	24	77	The flag is proof of a country's independence.
Freedom	12	158	The places where our flag is located show me that Turks live there and they are free.
Bird	9	258	Because birds are always free, flags symbolise their country's independence and freedom.
Honour	3	211	A community that is not free cannot protect its honour, family values, and sanctities; to do all these, it needs to be a sovereign state. Therefore, the flag is also its honour as it is the symbol of the country's independence.
Sovereignty	2	174	Our flag is an indicator that people in our country have rights and that people can govern themselves.
Key	1	189	It is like the key to a locked dungeon. Without that key, you cannot reach your freedom.
Blank Canvas	1	234	Because national independence cannot be attributed to an object, if we can use all our rights freely, we do not need an object to indicate our independence.
Shield	1	147	It protects us from enemies. As long as it flutters, no one can touch us.
Eagle	1	200	Because the eagle represents freedom and independence.
Wolf	1	117	Countries with a flag are fond of their freedoms and do not easily let themselves be leashed like wolves.
Soul	1	275	The things I mentioned represent the individual himself; in this sense, the flag represents his homeland, his nation, his freedom, and his will.
Wind	1	118	It blows wherever it wants; it is free and independent.
Assurance	1	232	Flags are the guarantors of nationalism and national independence
Total	58		

Figure 2

Sample Drawings Related to Theme of Flag in terms of the Values it Represents



In some student drawings, the values identified with the flag have been attempted to be depicted. However, compared to metaphors, the number of drawings related to this theme is more limited ($f=20$). Like metaphors, primarily, *independence* and *freedom* have been highlighted in student drawings. Only one student has associated the flag with the value of *equality*. For example, in S10's drawing, the name given to the school, "*Freedom Primary School*," can be seen as a detail reflecting the image of the flag in the student's mind. Also, S10 has used the phrase "*The flag allows us to live freely*" in the explanation. Similarly, the emphasis on people in a birdcage in S75's drawing indicates that the flag is associated with freedom and independence. S75 explained the drawing as "*What I want to say in this picture; when our country was occupied, people's freedom was restricted as if they were put in a cage (...). Under the leadership of our great leader Atatürk, our country has gained its independence.*" S23 has associated the flag with the value of equality with the statement,

“When I see our flag, it comes to my mind that there is no racism in our country and every person is equal.”

Flag as a Representation of the Country/Homeland

As a representation of the *country/homeland*, the flag is another theme for which many students (f=45) have created metaphors. The highest frequencies belong directly to the metaphors of *homeland* (f=14) and *Türkiye/our country* (f=5). The metaphors of *nation* (f=3), *national anthem* (f=2), *key* (f=2), *whole/unity* (f=2), *character* (f=2), *surname* (f=2), and *symbol* (f=2) have also been created by more than one student. When all metaphors are examined, it is seen that some students think that the flag represents a country, the homeland, and the people living in it in every aspect. According to the students, every country has its own unique flag; a country without a flag is unthinkable, and the flag represents that country on different platforms. Table 4 provides all the metaphors created by the students and related example expressions.

Table 4

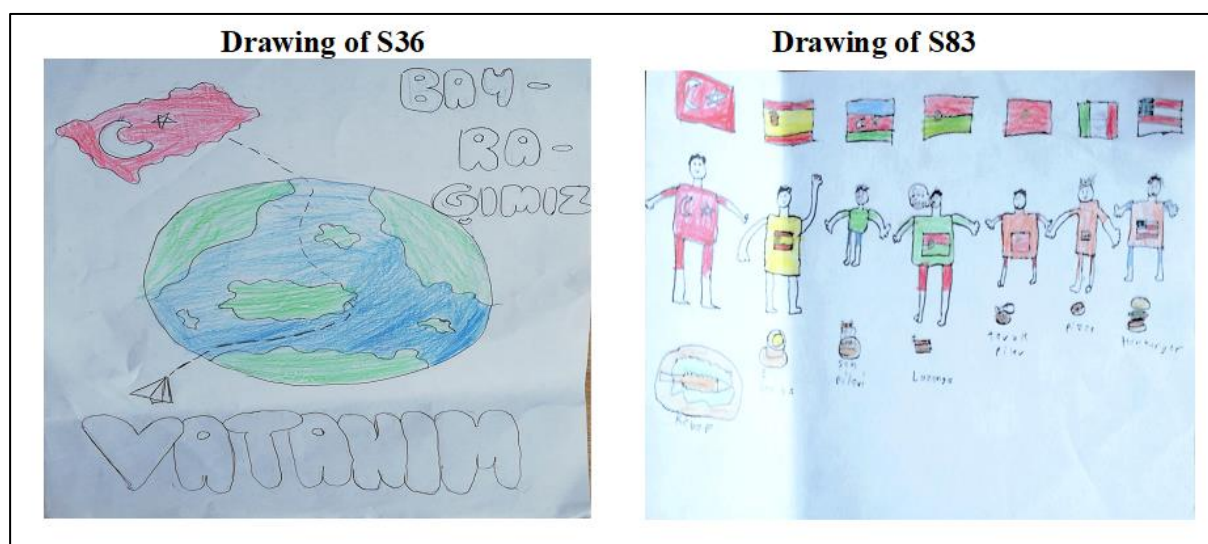
Metaphors and Sample Extractions regarding the Theme of Flag as a Representation of Country/Homeland

Metaphor	f	Student Number	Sample Extractions
Homeland	14	205	The flag shows us the beliefs, values and history of the homeland in which it is located with the symbols on it.
Türkiye/Our Country	5	248	Because it is the first symbol of our country that comes to mind and stands out, even if our name is not written in institutions and organisations and NATO etc. If the flag is hanging, this shows that we are a member.
Nation	3	60	There cannot be a nation without a flag.
National Anthem	2	11	When the flag was mentioned, I thought of different national poems of each country, such as our national anthem.
Key	2	210	Because each nation represents itself uniquely itself and opens itself.
Whole/Unity	2	191	Because I think it represents unity and solidarity and every community has a flag and it is like their logo.
Character	2	215	Since people reflect their characters, I made such an analogy because I think that flags reflect their countries.
Surname	2	176	Because it determines our lineage or culture, so I liken it to a surname.
Symbol	2	220	Because every country has a different flag that represents that country.
Main Hero	1	208	Because it is the main thing that represents a nation.
Leading Role	1	82	If we think of a country as a film, the flag is the leading role of the film. If there is no flag, there is no excitement, there is no enthusiasm, there is no public security, and most importantly, if there is no flag, there is no country.
Source of Faith	1	10	Without our flag, there is no homeland, and our faith ends.
Cat	1	198	Because it cannot be separated from its owners.
Clothing	1	31	If you take off a person's clothes, the situation he falls into is the same as a nation taking down its flag.

Commander	1	236	Because the flag is a head that carries everything of that country.
Flower	1	165	Every country has its own flag, but in my eyes, there is no flag like our flag.
Originality	1	254	Because each flag is different and each flag represents its own country.
Conscience	1	276	The things I have mentioned represent the person himself, and the flag represents his homeland, nation, freedom and will in this sense.
Puzzle Piece	1	237	In fact, although it looks as small and simple as a piece of fabric, it is a perfect symbol representing all countries. It is a part of us that completes and represents us.
Food/Meal	1	161	Just as food cannot be without salt and oil, the flag, homeland and nation cannot be in the state. The flag is the freedom, happiness and peace of the nation.
Total	45		

Figure 3

Sample Drawings Related to Theme of Flag as a Representation of the Country/Homeland



Considering the metaphors, it can be said that fewer students ($f=17$) made drawings within the scope of this theme. In the related drawings, the students included elements and explanations emphasising that the flag represents countries and homelands. For example, S36 “*The flag reminds me that I belong to this country. In other words, it reminds me of Türkiye.*” S83 stated that each country has its own flag, representing the characteristics of those countries.

The Flag in terms of the Feelings it Evokes

This theme of the flag consists of metaphors and student drawings expressing the intense emotions students feel when they think about, see, or hear about their national flags. As seen in Table 5, the *flower* ($f=4$) is the metaphor with the highest frequency. Students have expressed that they see the flag sometimes as a flower of unreachable beauty on the top of a

mountain and sometimes as a rare flower in the world, being impressed by its beauty, or as seen in the example given in the table, they have expressed the protective instinct they feel while watering a flower. In this context, through some metaphors, students have emphasised the beauty of the flag (e.g. painting, phoenix, poplar tree, corn poppy), expressed enthusiasm towards the flag (e.g. phoenix, wave, sacred artifact), intense love, commitment (e.g. love, life/soul, courage, honour, infinity, music genre), trust, peace, happiness, and pride (e.g. book, freedom/liberty, light, sun, sea).

Table 5

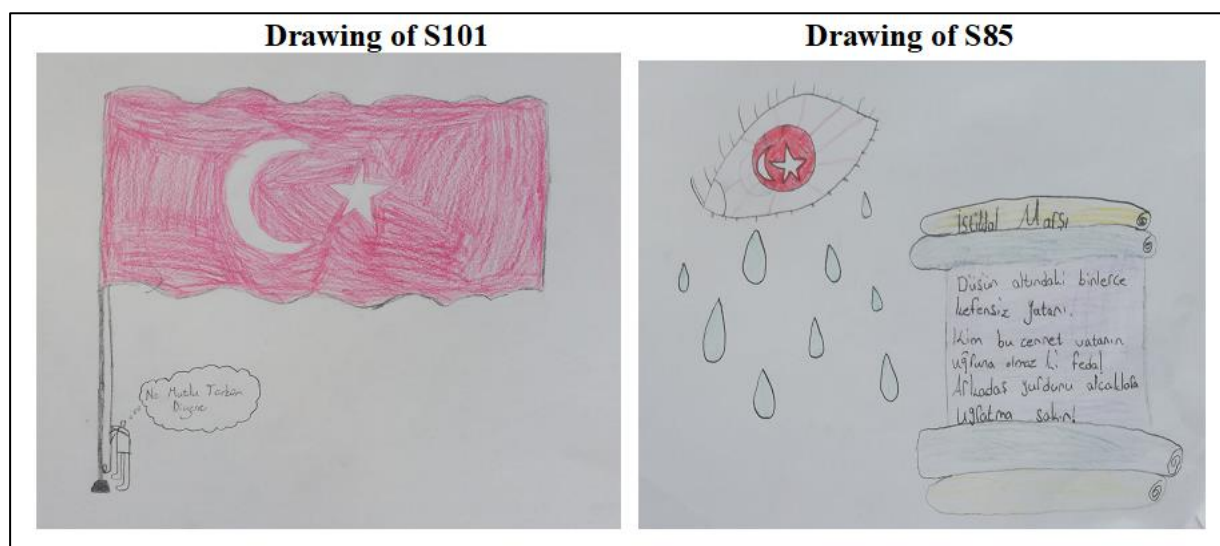
Metaphors and Sample Extractions Regarding the Flag Theme in Terms of Feelings What it Evokes

Metaphor	f	Student Number	Sample Extractions
Flower	4	143	We protect our flag as we grow and protect it by watering it, and no one can tear it away from us.
Wave	2	152	Our flag waves in the sky with the wind and makes us proud every time it waves.
Sacred artifact	2	69	When we look at it, we get excited and show respect.
Bird	2	126	When the flag waves in the sky, it looks like a bird, it spreads its wings like a bird and soars.
Star	2	194	Because it shines like that.
Hawk	2	124	The flag rises as high as it wants in the sky and fascinates those who look at it.
Homeland	2	231	When I look at our flag, I remember how much our martyrs loved our nation our society and I am touched.
Phoenix	1	150	It is uniquely beautiful and floats freely in the air.
Love	1	219	Even if there are millions of stars in the sky, we love only one of them and give them a value that no one else can give them. (...) Isn't that what love is all about? Not seeing its flaws, not seeing anyone else but it and putting it in the most important place. (...) It is in our hearts forever.
Courage	1	105	Every nation that has a flag is willing to risk sacrificing itself for it.
Sea	1	239	It is full of peace.
Soldier	1	76	When I look at it, I feel as confident as I feel when I look at soldiers.
Corn Poppy	1	136	It shows itself with its red colour in the fields and greenery. It is like our red flag in the deep blue sky.
Sun	1	128	It illuminates and gives peace wherever it is.
Trust	1	201	Because you feel safe in the shadow of your flag.
Light	1	29	The moon and stars on the flag symbolise the bright future of the Turks.
Picture/Symbol	1	231	It tells more than one emotion, thought and experience with a single visual; flags...
Poplar Tree	1	94	Like the leaves of the poplar tree, it flutters freely in the sky without any obstacle.
Book	1	121	Living under this flag gives me happiness. Just like when I read books that give me happiness.
Freedom/Liberty	1	230	It makes me feel fresh.

Honour	1	54	The flag is not a piece of cloth and cannot be trampled underfoot.
Painting	1	182	Our flag suits the sky very well and like a painting, you can stand in front of it and watch it for hours.
Turkish	1	70	Like the Turks, it flies bravely in the sky and no one can take it down.
Flower	1	57	We protect our flag as we protect it by watering it and no one can tear it away from us.
Heart	1	92	I can't live without a heart.
Music Genre	1	145	Once you choose one, it is hard to part with it.
Organ	1	150	The flag is a part of our nation. A part of our nation is a part of the people.
Infinity	1	175	The meaning of our flag for our nation is very great and will exist forever, the inseparable part of this nation will exist forever in the flag.
Total	37		

Figure 4

Sample Drawings Related to the Flag Theme in Terms of Feelings What it Evokes



In some student drawings, feelings about the flag were attempted to be depicted (f=21). However, the related drawings were mostly distinguished by the students' explanations. Consistent with the metaphors, the emotions that the students portrayed about the flag were listed as love, respect, happiness, loyalty, sadness, pride, enthusiasm, excitement, joy, and longing. Some sample drawings are given below. For example, S101 drew a picture of themselves raising the flag in their drawing and made an explanation as follows: *"The Turkish flag teaches love, respect, teaches respectful posture, teaches love for the homeland, teaches dependence, makes you feel proud."* S85 explained their drawing as *"I tried to depict people crying for it."* S35 said, *"My feelings while drawing this picture are pride, love for homeland, happiness, respect, and independence."* As can be seen in the

sample explanations, the feelings expressed are not only for the flag but also for the values and elements it represents.

Flag as a Unifying/Protective Element

Some students have expressed that the flag has a structure that brings people together in a country and protects them. In this context, the metaphors with the highest frequency in this theme are *house* (f=3), *family* (f=2), and *shield* (f=3). The related metaphors for this theme and sample student explanations are given in Table 5.

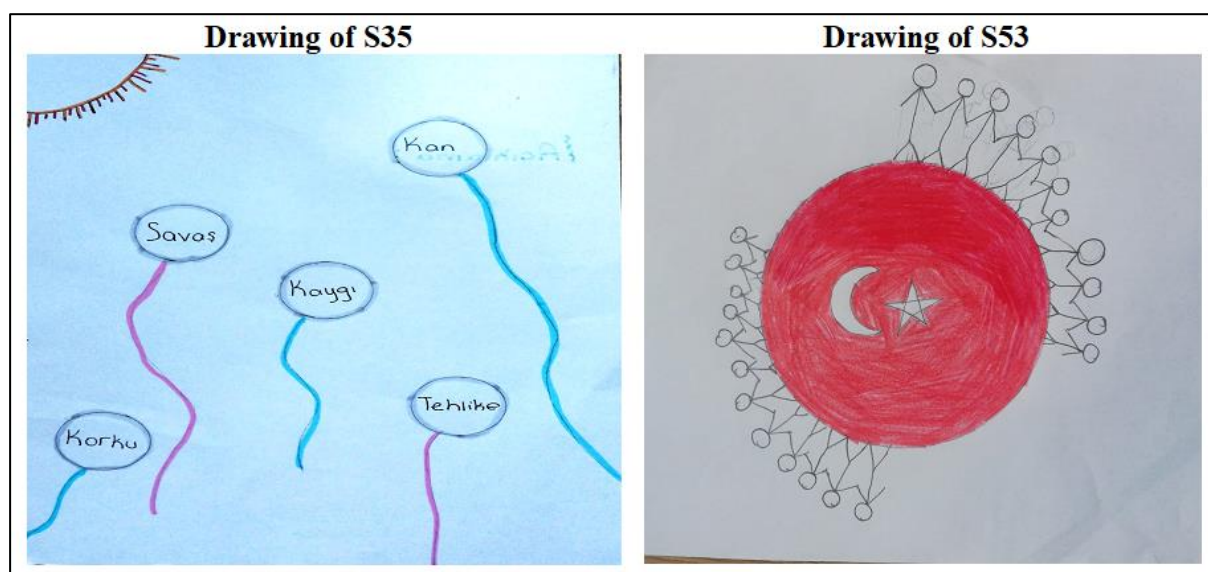
Table 5

Metaphors and Sample Extractions Regarding the Theme of Flag as a Unifying/Protective Element

Metaphor	f	Student Number	Sample Extractions
House	3	53	It enables a nation to live a happy life in unity and solidarity under the same roof.
Family	2	99	It keeps everyone together.
Shield	2	190	It is like a shield to protect the country at the beginning of the country.
Castle	1	181	Castles protect the people living in them from enemies and no one can easily enter it. Our flag protects us and our homeland from enemies and allows us to live safely.
Mother	1	2	It protects us like our mother.
Father	1	1	Without our flag, we would be left in the middle.
Plane Tree	1	270	A whole nation lives in its shadow.
Friendship	1	63	The flag is just like friendship. It connects the people of the country to which it belongs and creates a bond between people.
Roof of the House	1	122	Just as circles become whole under a roof, nations become whole under the flag.
Ozone Layer	1	142	The flag protects us from enemies as the sun protects us from harmful rays.
Immortality	1	138	It carries the blood of our martyrs and they will protect us forever. As long as they are there, this flag will never come down.
Passion	1	205	Because it unites us and keeps us united and keeps us united.
Armor	1	111	It protects us from enemies.
Total	17		

Figure 5

Sample Drawings Related to the Theme of Flag as a Unifying/Protective



In the drawings of 15 students, it was highlighted that the flag brings together the citizens of a country and has a protective feature. For example, S53 drew people gathering around the flag and stated that the flag symbolised unity and solidarity. S35, on the other hand, symbolised the negativities that disappeared with the presence of the flag with the balloons flying away in the drawing. According to S35, the flag, which makes these feelings disappear, has a protective feature. The student said, *“I think that when a country has no flag, there is no security in that country. As long as the flag of a country exists, blood does not flow, and tears do not flow; our mothers do not wait anxiously. In other words, in a country with a flag, there is no war, worry or fear. The nation would be under security.”*

Flag in terms of Reminding Place, Person, and Elements

Some students associated the flag with various places, individuals, or physical elements that are reminiscent to them. Two students who created the related metaphors compared the flag physically to a carpet, and one student likened it to a soldier as they observed flags wherever soldiers were present (Table 6). Moreover, this theme emerged more in student drawings ($f=27$).

In the drawings, the school environment was predominantly utilised. For example, S77 stated that they thought of school and the National Anthem when they thought of the flag. In

addition to these, *soldiers*, *Atatürk*, *Anıtkabir*, and *national holidays* were depicted as they reminded students of the flag.

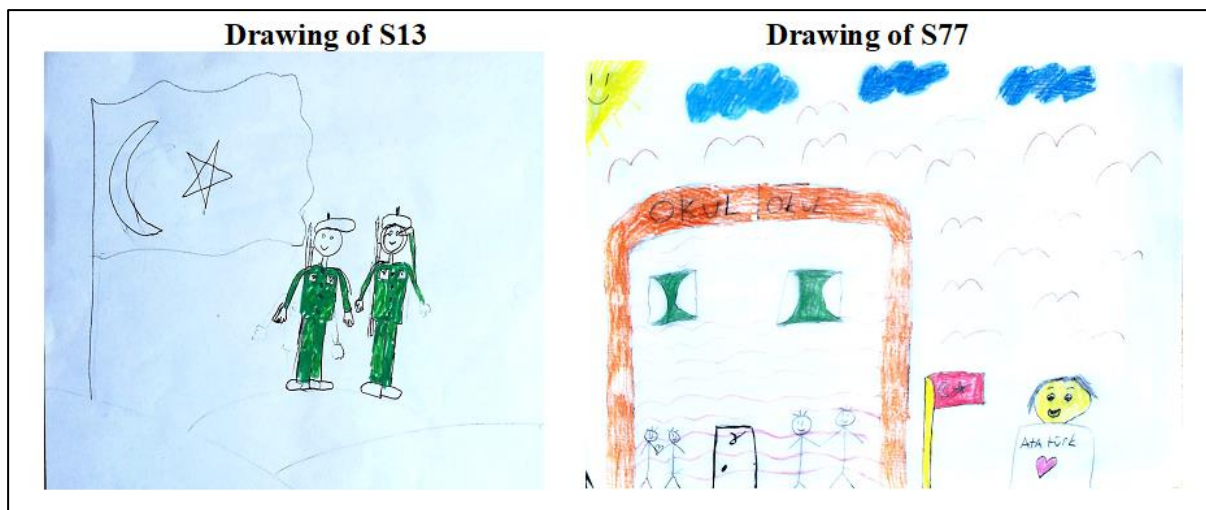
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Metaphors and Sample Extractions for the Flag Theme in Terms of Reminding Place, Person, and Elements

Metaphor	f	Student Number	Sample Extractions
Carpet	2	228	Because the flag and the carpet are similar
Soldier	1	36	It is everywhere where there are soldiers (battalion, school, uniform).
Total	3		

Figure 5

Sample Drawings Related to the Flag Theme in Terms of Reminding Place, Person, and Elements



Discussion and Results

This study aimed to reveal the perception of the flag in the minds of secondary school students. Metaphors and student drawings were used together to provide a richer data source. As a result of the research, it was determined that students produced 87 valid metaphors about the flag. However, students associated the flag more with metaphors such as homeland,

independence, blood, martyrs, freedom, bird and soldier. Similarly, in the study conducted by Özcel and Çelebi Öncü (2021), students explained the meaning of the flag with the concepts of homeland, nation, independence, freedom, and martyr's blood. In Kılıç and Demir's (2017) study, Afghan secondary school students mostly used the words freedom, independence, red colour, blood of martyrs, and crescent star to describe the Turkish flag. The fact that immigrant children in Türkiye have the same perceptions of the national flag may be due to socio-cultural similarities or the reflection of the education given in schools and courses.

The results of the study showed that the students' perceptions of the flag reflected in their metaphors and drawings were grouped under six themes: "flag as a historical heritage", "flag in terms of the values it represents", "flag as a representation of the country/homeland", "the flag in terms of the feelings it evokes", "flag as a unifying/protective element" and "the flag in terms of reminding place, person, and elements". It was determined that the theme of the flag as a historical relic was more prominent in both metaphors and student drawings and that students mostly saw the flag as a national value symbolising a long historical process and the struggle for liberation. Metaphors with higher frequencies, such as blood, homeland, martyr, and soldier, were included in this theme. Students consider martyrdom in the War of Independence and even in the more recent 15th of July and terrorist incidents as a sacrifice that was and should be made for the sake of the homeland and flag. According to them, the flag is, therefore, a trust that needs to be protected. There are supportive research results in the literature. For example, it was determined that primary school students at an earlier age similarly regarded the flag and the National Anthem as an important cultural heritage (Tuncel & Altuntaş, 2020). In Özcel and Çelebi Öncü's (2021) study, according to primary school students, the flag and the National Anthem are vital because they are the product of difficult struggles in the past. Students associated the flag and the National Anthem with martyrs. There are similar perspectives in the international literature. For example, the American flag is associated with meanings and values such as freedom, solidarity, and selfless sacrifice (Kemmelmeier & Winter, 2008).

In the study, students created many metaphors related to the values they thought the flag represented. Similarly, some students reflected the elements symbolising the related values in their drawings. The two main values that students reflected in their metaphors and drawings were independence and freedom. In addition, in only one student's drawing, the flag was associated with the value of equality. Also, in the studies conducted in different samples on the concepts of independence and freedom in the literature (Çapraz & Özkal, 2021; Ulu

Kalın & Koçoğlu, 2017), participants associated these concepts with the flag. The fact that students see the flag as a representation of these values is consistent with the social studies course outcomes. The curriculum (MoNE, 2018, p.19) has an outcome directly related to the flag: “Values our flag and the National Anthem, which are symbols of national sovereignty and independence.” When the outcome is examined, it is seen that the flag is handled as a symbol of independence and freedom. In addition, it is stated that the values of independence and freedom should be provided to the students in the learning area where the relevant outcome is located. Accordingly, it can be said that students’ perceptions coincide with what is conveyed in the lessons. In the study conducted by Kılıç and Demir (2017), it was concluded that the source of information about the flag was mostly Social Studies and Turkish lessons. Aydemir Ustaoglu and Çelik (2023) tried to determine students’ perceptions of social studies with emblem and logo design. As a result of the research, it was determined that the most frequently used element in the emblems and logos prepared by the students was the flag after people and trees. These findings can be accepted as evidence of the place of the social studies course in learning about the flag.

The flag is assumed to be one of the best symbolic expressions of a country and national identity in the literature (e.g. Guéguen et al., 2017; Nesiba, 2022; Schatz & Lavine, 2007; Skitka, 2005). National symbols have functions such as signalling group membership and evoking emotions and thoughts associated with the nation (Becker et al., 2017; Butz, 2009; Schatz & Lavine, 2007). They help to embody the nation and the nation-state (Kemmelmeyer & Winter, 2008). In the research, students reflected perceptions in this direction. The third theme in which students produced the most metaphors was the theme of the flag as a representation of country/state. In addition, some students made related drawings. Some studies in the literature revealed overlapping results. For example, in the study of Özkan and Taşkın (2014) and Er Türküresin (2018), the flag was among the most frequently produced metaphors for the concept of homeland. In addition, pre-service teachers evaluated the flag as a value reflecting loyalty to the homeland, a symbol of the existence of societies and proof of the existence of countries (Demir Atalay & Fırat Durdukoca, 2018). In the study of Türkcan and Bozkurt (2015), it was observed that the majority of the students explained the concept of citizenship with belonging to a place and conveyed this situation in their drawings with the flag scheme. While describing the concept of citizenship with their drawings, the most preferred images were themes such as the Turkish flag, Atatürk, the national anthem, unity and solidarity. In this study, some students created drawings and metaphors belonging

to the flag theme as a unity/protective element. It was observed that the students considered the flag as an element that brings people living in that country together and protects the existence of a country. This study result supports the belief that the flag symbolises a country's existence and its inhabitants' membership to that country. Therefore, the flag has a meaning that reflects citizenship identity, as revealed in Türkcan and Bozkurt's (2015) study.

In the study, many students made metaphors and drawings reflecting their intense feelings about the flag. These students created metaphors, emphasising that they were especially impressed by the beauty of the flag. In addition, emotions such as enthusiasm, intense love, respect, loyalty, trust, peace, happiness, pride and instinct to protect the flag were reflected in drawings and metaphors. This result of the study can be seen as a reflection of the traditional understanding of patriotism because it is frequently emphasised in the literature (e.g. Butz, 2009; Çolak, 2022; Skitka, 2005; Wolf, 2007) that there is an interchangeable relationship between loyalty to the national flag, patriotism and patriotism. In some studies in Türkiye, it was concluded that participants at different age levels (e.g. Göksu, 2020; Nazıroğlu & Göksu, 2018) had similar views. In a study conducted by Becker et al. (2017) in 11 countries, including Türkiye, it was determined that there is a relationship between nationalism, patriotism and positive feelings and associations towards the flag in all countries. In the study, the more nationalistic and patriotic people felt about their country, the more they associated positive emotions with their flag. Skitka (2005) states that research shows that attachment to the national flag increases more, especially when national security is threatened. Therefore, the strong historical and emotional attachments to the flag that emerged in this study can be explained by the current and historical developments that threaten national security in Türkiye. For example, some students reflected the source of attachment to the flag as the 15th of July and terrorist incidents in their drawings.

The last theme reflecting the students' perceptions of the flag in the study includes some places, people or physical elements that remind the flag. Despite the small number of metaphors belonging to the related theme, many student drawings included elements that physically resemble the flag, places where it is frequently seen and people with whom it is associated. Consistent with the other themes, Atatürk and soldiers were reflected in the drawings as reminders. However, the most common element in the drawings was the school. As is known, the flag is an integral part of many public spaces in Türkiye. In this regard, it is usual for students to reflect the school environment, where they frequently see the flag, have experiences related to it and which constitutes an integral part of their lives, in their drawings.

In line with this finding, in the study conducted by Alan et al. (2021), the figure of the Turkish flag was prominent in children's school drawings.

Considering the results of the study in general, in conclusion, it can be said that secondary school students have a strong emotional attachment to the national flag as a national value. This attachment is largely due to its historical background and the values and concepts it is thought to represent. All these results can be said to reflect the widely accepted and expected patriotic understanding of students in Türkiye. On the other hand, more comprehensive studies on patriotism mention different dimensions of patriotism. The results of this study show that symbolic (Huddy & Khatip, 2007; Parker, 2009) and blind patriotism (Schatz et al., 1999), which are emphasised in the literature, are more prominent among students. Blind patriotism or uncritical patriotism is a commitment that respects and unconditionally supports authority figures (Schatz et al., 1999). Symbolic patriotism is closely related to emotional attachment to flags, symbols and national anthems. This form of patriotism, which can also be seen as a part of blind patriotism, has some structural differences. Blind citizenship has a more cognitive structure (such as ideology) in the relations between individuals and the state. It tends to support the laws and practices of the state unconditionally. Symbolic patriotism creates a relatively concrete and affective dimension to the country and its core values through symbols (Parker, 2009). This can be explained by the fact that they receive messages in the relevant direction more intensively in educational environments and their social lives. Ersoy and Öztürk's (2015) study supports this interpretation. In the related study, pre-service teachers stated that they received more blind patriotism messages in the pre-university education process.

Recommendations

The study basically showed that the students expressed a strong emotional attachment to the national flag. Accordingly, it can be said that students have widely accepted patriotic values. However, such requirements and intense interest in national symbolism are associated with reflections of blind patriotism, including intense emotional identification with the nation, solid national loyalty and rejection of national criticism (Schatz et al., 1999). It can also lead to the adoption of the extremes of blind patriotism. Therefore, it can be suggested that teachers should include practices that support critical and constructive patriotism and active citizenship in their lessons.

The research also has some methodological limitations. The study was conducted with students from middle socio-economic level schools in only one province in Türkiye. Although it coincides with the results of other studies in the literature, it cannot be said that it reflects the cultural diversity in Türkiye. For this reason, similar studies can be conducted with larger, more diverse or different samples. In addition, no other studies in the literature examine students' perceptions directly with the flag in detail. This research has original value in this respect. However, it is limited to metaphors and drawings selected as data collection methods. Therefore, different data collection tools can reveal perceptions about the flag. Qualitative research strategies such as case studies and mixed research approaches can be used to obtain more in-depth and holistic data.

Ethics Committee Approval

Name of the Committee that Made the Ethical Evaluation: Kütahya Dumlupınar University Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee

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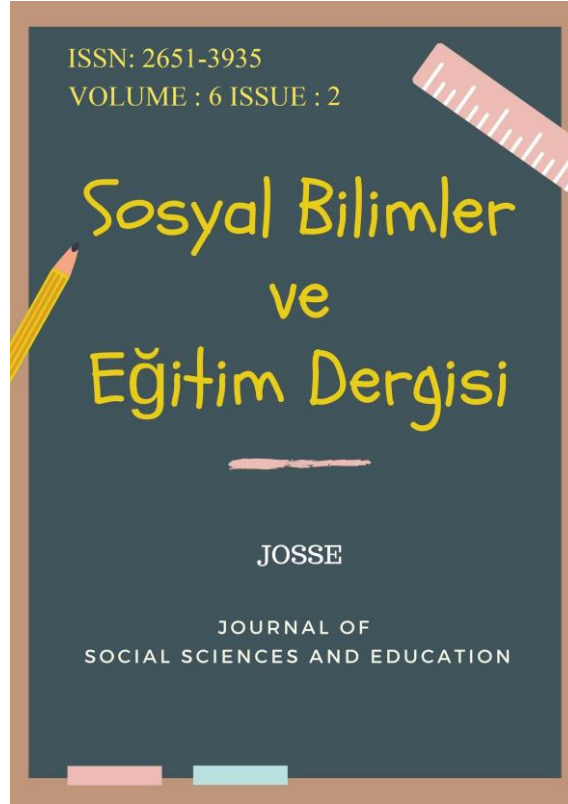
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**Content Analysis of Articles on the Technological Pedagogical Content
Knowledge of Secondary School Science Teachers in Türkiye**

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Content Analysis of Articles on the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge of Secondary School Science Teachers in Türkiye

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Abstract

In this study, it is aimed to examine the trends of the studies on technological pedagogical content competencies and technology integration of science teachers in Türkiye in the last 10 years in terms of purpose, year of publication, journal of publication, method, sample selection, data collection tools, data analysis and remarkable results of the studies. In this direction, content analysis method was used in the research. A total of twenty-one academic articles accessed from Web of Science, EBSCOHOST and Google Scholar databases including Türkiye index were analyzed in August 2023. The data were analyzed by content analysis. The analyzed data were presented in the form of tables and graphs with the help of percentages and frequencies. As a result of the research, it was determined that the most common purpose of the studies was "determining TPACK levels and examining them in terms of various variables", the most publications were in 2016 and 2019, the related studies were mostly published in "Education and Science", "Education and Information Technologies" and "Gazi University Journal of Gazi Educational Faculty" journals, the most frequently used method was quantitative, the most frequently used sample group was convenient sampling / easily accessible sampling, the most frequently used data collection tool was scale and the most frequently used data analysis was Anavo-Ancova. Among the remarkable results of the studies, it was determined that "Teachers' TPACK levels are high". It is recommended that more in-depth and detailed qualitative research be conducted on TPACK for science teachers.

Keywords: Technological pedagogy, technology integration, technological pedagogical content knowledge, science teachers, content analysis

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Introduction

Technology is generally the application of knowledge and science for a specific purpose. Technology also has different meanings in different disciplines. In today's modern technology age, the place of technology in human life is undeniable. Because technology makes people's lives easier. Every situation undertaken by humanity is dependent on the development of science and technology. In this sense, technology has a facilitating effect in meeting the current life needs of humanity. Technology is used in multiple disciplines such as engineering, design, industry, and education. Perhaps the most important use of technology in terms of directly touching human life is its use in education. Therefore, based on the progress in science and technology, technology has entered the modern understanding of education and lifestyle (Banta, 2009; Gershon, 2017; Sudarsana et al., 2019). Today, such an integration of technology into lifestyles has triggered its use in teacher education. Simulations, virtual laboratories, mobile devices, technological games, creative and artistic activities are some of the areas where technology is used in teacher education (Adedokun et al. 2012; Anderson & Barnett 2013; Leonard et al. 2016; Pierson & Clark, 2018; Scalise & Clarke-Midura 2018; Voyles, Fossum & Haller 2008; Weintrop et al. 2016; Scalise et al. 2011).

Education is recognized as one of the most fundamental elements in the development and progress of societies. With the rapid advancement of technology, there are transformations in the field of education (Akyıldız & Altun, 2018). In this digital age where students can easily access information, technology-supported education methods have gained significant importance in addition to traditional teaching approaches. Technology can be used to enrich students' learning experiences, improve the quality of education, and enable teachers to guide students more effectively. At this point, educational technology and technological pedagogy content knowledge come to the fore (Dündar & Ünaldı, 2023). Technological pedagogy is an interdisciplinary concept that aims to increase the effectiveness of teaching and learning processes by combining the use of technology and pedagogical processes in the field of education. This approach integrates technological tools and methods into education to transform traditional education models in accordance with the needs of the age (Açıkgül & Aslaner, 2015; Güler & Bilici, 2016). In technological pedagogy, a student-centered teaching approach is adopted in which technology is included in the education service, as opposed to traditional teaching methods in which information is transferred and the student is passive (Taskin Ekici & Dereli, 2022).

As a result of the intertwining of technology and education, "Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK)" becomes more important for teachers' professional development. TPACK covers the whole set of knowledge and skills necessary for teachers to use technology by integrating it into education in line with educational goals and to create effective learning. (Karakuyu & Karakuyu, 2016). Therefore, teachers' technological pedagogical content competencies play a critical role in supporting and guiding students in the most effective way in accordance with the teaching and learning needs of the age (Dođru & Aydın, 2018). In today's conditions, it is thought that teachers will participate more actively in educational processes thanks to technology pedagogy. Thanks to teachers' technological pedagogical content knowledge, technology-supported educational materials such as interactive content, virtual experiences and digital tools can be implemented in classrooms. As a result, teachers can make the course content more effective and attractive by using technology more effectively, increase students' interest in the course by providing them with a unique and creative learning experience, and provide students with personalized learning opportunities. This enables students to understand the lesson more effectively and learn the information in a more permanent way (Akgündüz & Bađdiken, 2018; Ünal Çoban et al., 2022). Teachers' technological pedagogical content knowledge can have a direct impact on students' academic achievement and learning motivation. While the use of technology-supported education methods attracts students' attention, it can also improve their skills such as "critical thinking", "problem solving" and "creativity" (Balçın & Ergün, 2018; Bıçak & Şeker, 2022). Technology can contribute to equality of opportunity in education by democratizing access to information. Especially in rural areas or disadvantaged students can be offered educational opportunities in big cities with technology-supported education (Kırındı & Durmuş, 2019). Of course, teachers have a key role here and contribute to equality of opportunity when they have the ability to use technology effectively and adapt educational materials appropriately to students (Akyıldız & Altun, 2018).

Today, science education is one of the fields responsible for raising science literate individuals and developing critical thinking skills and 21st century skills. Science education is therefore considered to be the most integral part of education today. In recent years, advances in information and technology have had a complex but positive impact on science teaching and learning (Kalogiannakis, Papadakis & Zourmpakis, 2021). In this sense, science educators agree that the use of technology in education has a strong and positive impact on teaching and learning. They also advocate the promotion of technology in education to

improve students' understanding of science, actively engage them in the learning process, and prepare them for the needs of the current workforce in accordance with the requirements of the 21st century. With the increasing accessibility of technology, science teachers have started to use technology more in science teaching to demonstrate science concepts and reveal the relationship between concepts, to promote students' learning, and to develop their problem solving skills (Lee et al., 2011; Pringle, Dawson & Ritzhaupt, 2015). In line with the objectives of the science curriculum, science teachers will be able to provide students with active and permanent learning through the integration of technology (Timur & Erzengin, 2019). For these to be realized, science teachers should have competence in TPACK.

The roles of secondary school science teachers have transformed significantly with changes in technology and pedagogical fields. While traditional teacher roles emphasized knowledge transfer and disciplinary instruction in the classroom, technological developments and changing trends in education have required teachers to assume more effective and multifaceted roles (Meriç, 2014). At the same time, the widespread use of technology has changed students' interests and learning processes. Students now have instant access to information and can conduct research using online tools. At the same time, students can be overwhelmed by information pollution and sometimes have difficulties in understanding what is right and what is wrong. Therefore, the role of teachers has evolved to be not only a provider of information, but also a guide in the process of developing the ability to critically evaluate information and to distinguish correct information (Yalçın & Kutluca, 2023). With this change, the professional roles of teachers have also expanded. Technological pedagogy requires teachers to continuously focus on their own professional development and increase their TPACK. For the teachers to develop skills such as using technology tools effectively, evaluating digital content and guiding students on online platforms is important for teaching processes. Moreover, teachers with technological pedagogical knowledge are responsible for increasing students' digital literacy levels and guiding them to navigate the digital world safely (Tatlı et al., 2016). This change and development in the roles of secondary school science teachers has become more important with the using increasingly technology in education and the adoption of student-centered teaching approaches (Cesur Özkara et al., 2018).

It is not surprising that the field of science education worldwide has seen a significant increase in recent years in research aimed at analytically examining the pedagogical use of modern technologies. Although such a trend has led to the emergence of the Journal of

Science Education and Technology specifically, such research is scattered across a wide range of educational journals. Our main objectives were to summarize the current state of research on teachers who are familiar with modern technologies and can blend them with science education (i.e., have technological pedagogical content knowledge) and to identify themes and gaps in this research base.

It is natural that there are studies in recent years aiming to examine the use of new technologies in science education, which are increasing in the world. Although the emergence of such studies is in the "Journal of Science Education and Technology", such studies are also included in different journals. In this study, TPACK was examined in the field of science education by reviewing the literature in a limited and purposeful way. The main goal here is to examine the studies on TPACK with science teachers. To summarize, the recent use of 3D printers, nanotechnology, cell phones, augmented reality in science classrooms and their effects on science teachers have made the study more interesting and increased the importance of the study. Here, the study was limited to middle school science teachers. Therefore, the aim of the study is to examine the recent trends of the articles on TPACK and technology integration of secondary school science teachers in Türkiye in terms of subject, year of publication, methodology, journal of publication, and salient results of the studies. This study provides suggestions for the development of technological pedagogical content knowledge of secondary school science teachers in Türkiye and the content, methods, and results of teacher training programs. It is thought that this study will shed light on future research in this field. Because, thanks to the content analysis on TPACK for science teachers, researchers will be able to look at this field holistically, such as where there are deficiencies, which purposes and methods have been studied more, which ones have been studied less, what are the remarkable results of the research, and construct their research accordingly. This study will give a big clue to see the big picture. This case reveals the importance of this study. Within the scope of the research, answers to the following questions about TPACK for science teachers in Türkiye were sought:

1. What is the purpose of the studies?
2. In which years were the studies conducted?
3. In which journals were the studies published?
4. Which method was used in the studies?
5. Which sample selection was preferred in the studies?
6. What are the data collection tools used in the studies?

7. What are the data analysis methods used in the studies?
8. What kind of results were obtained in the studies?

Method

Model

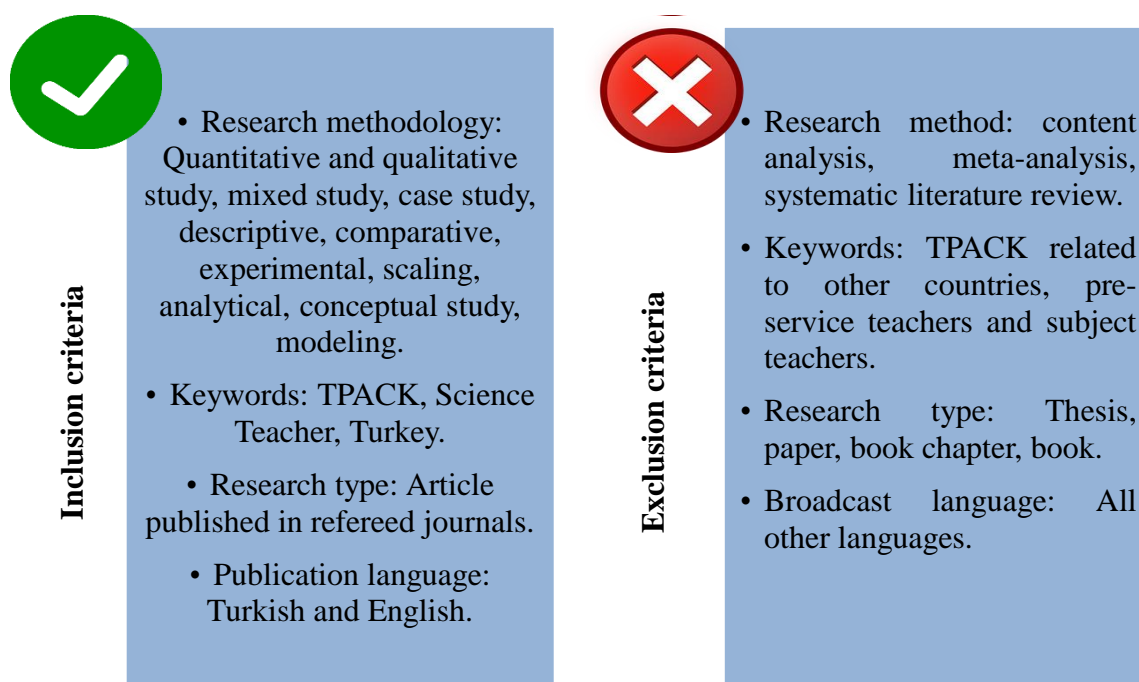
In this study, "systematic literature review" was used as appropriate for the purpose. A systematic literature review is a comprehensive synthesis of a large number of studies conducted for transparency and accountability to reveal important connections and patterns of studies in a subject or field. Systematic literature review is a scientific process and will shed light on future educational research (Dixon-Woods, 2011; Minner, Levuy & Century, 2010). In accordance with the method of the research, firstly, the criteria for selecting scientific publications were determined by the screening method and screening was carried out. The data obtained as a result of screening were included in the analysis process (Karaçam, 2013).

Data Collection Tools

In this study, secondary data analysis was used as a data collection method. Secondary data analysis is the process of using and analyzing the data previously collected for another research or study (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). In this context, "Technological pedagogical content knowledge" or "TPACK" and "Science Teacher" from Web of Science, EBSCOHOST and GOOGLE ACADEMIC databases including Türkiye index, "Technological pedagogical content knowledge" or "TPACK" and "Science Teacher" and "Türkiye" and "Technological pedagogical content knowledge" or "TPACK" and "Science Teacher" and "Türkiye" were used as keywords. Since TPACK-related research was introduced to the literature in 2005, the date in the search criteria was limited to 2005-2023. The criteria for the inclusion and exclusion of studies in the systematic literature review are presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria



According to the criteria determined as a result of Figure 1, quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods studies were selected. In addition, the research is limited to TPACK for science teachers in Türkiye. It was paid attention that the scientific studies should be articles published in refereed journals and the language should be Turkish or English. As a result of the search within these criteria, 21 scientific articles were reached.

Collection of Data and Analysis

In the study, the collected data were analyzed by content analysis method. Content analysis is an analysis technique used to identify and make sense of concepts and themes in texts (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). The data obtained from the literature review were coded and analyzed within the framework of themes and subheadings determined in line with the aims of the study. Through this analysis, percentages and frequencies were used to analyze the trends of the articles published on technological pedagogy on secondary school science teachers in Türkiye in terms of purpose, year of publication, journal, method, sample selection, data collection tools, data analysis, and salient results of the studies.

Findings

A total of 21 academic articles on technological pedagogical content competencies of secondary school science teachers were accessed. In this context, the frequency distribution of the main purposes of the articles analyzed in the study is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Data on the Main Purposes of Articles Published for Secondary School Science Teachers

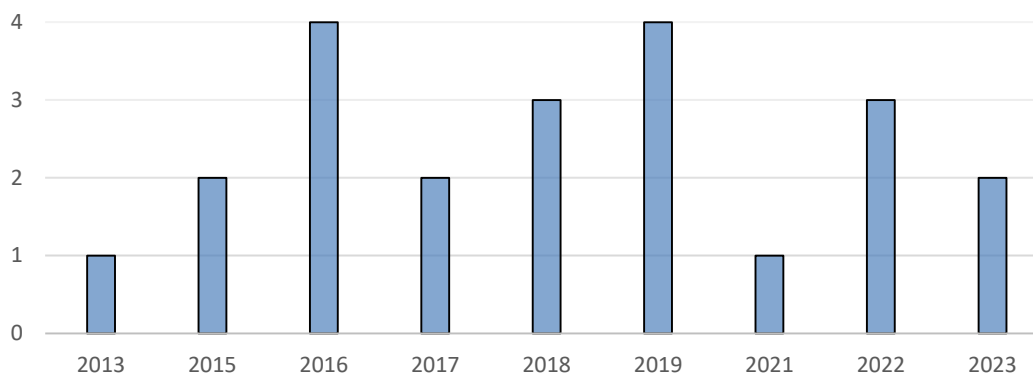
Objective	f
Determining TPACK levels and examining them in terms of various variables.	5
Examining the thoughts/competencies/levels about TPACK.	4
Revealing other dimensions related to TPACK according to the structural equation model.	3
Determining TPACK self-confidence levels and examining them in terms of various variables.	3
Examining TPACK development through argumentation.	3
To adapt the TPACK scale/survey into Turkish and test its validity and reliability.	1
Examining TPACK self-confidence perceptions.	1
Examining the effect of in-service training courses on TPACK self-confidence development.	1
Examining the effect of the program prepared for gaining TPACK on self-efficacy levels towards TPACK.	1
Determining the extent to which (TPACK) is effective in individual teaching processes by addressing the context/environment in which they are located.	1
Determining to what extent TPACK is effective in individual teaching processes.	1

According to Table 1, it is seen that the purpose of a significant part of the analyzed studies is "Determining TPACK levels and examining them in terms of various variables and examining thoughts/competencies/levels about TPACK". After that, it was determined that the highest objectives were "revealing other dimensions related to TPACK according to the structural equation model", "determining TPACK self-confidence levels and examining them in terms of various variables" and "examining TPACK development through argumentation". It was determined that there was 1 study on other objectives.

The numerical distribution of the articles published in Türkiye on technological pedagogical content knowledge of secondary school science teachers according to years is presented in Graph 1.

Graph 1

Numerical Distribution of Science Teachers' Articles on TPACK According to Years



When Graph 1 is examined, it is determined that the studies on technological pedagogical content knowledge and technology integration of secondary school science teachers in Türkiye started in 2013, with the highest number of studies in 2016 and 2019, 3 studies in 2018 and 2022, 2 studies in 2015, 2017 and 2023, and 1 study in 2013 and 2021.

The numerical distribution of articles on technological pedagogical content knowledge of secondary school science teachers in Türkiye according to the journals in which they were published is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Distribution of Studies according to the Journals in which They Were Published

Published in Journal	f
“Education and Science”	2
“Education and Information Technologies”	2
“Gazi University Journal of Gazi Educational Faculty”	2
“Ahi Evran University Journal of Kırşehir Education Faculty”	1
“Journal of Social Sciences of Mus Alparslan University”	1
“Educational Academic Research”	1
“Journal of Educational Technology Theory and Practice”	1
“European Journal of Education Studies”	1
“International Journal of Human Sciences”	1
“Elementary Education Online”	1
“Journal of Social and Humanities Sciences Research”	1
“The Journal of Theoretical Educational Science”	1
“Necatibey Faculty of Education, Electronic Journal of Science and Mathematics Education”	1
“Trakya University Journal of Social”	1
“The Journal of Turkish Educational Sciences”	1
“Turkish Scientific Researches Journal”	1
“Journal of Uludag University Faculty of Education”	1
“VanYüzüncü Yıl University Journal of Education”	1

When Table 2 is examined, it is determined that the articles on technological pedagogical content knowledge of secondary school science teachers in Türkiye were mostly published in "Education and Science", "Education and Information Technologies" and "Gazi University Journal of Gazi Educational Faculty" journals, respectively. In other journals, only 1 study was published about the field in question. The distribution of the studies varies according to the journals in which they were published.

Table 3 presents the numerical distribution of the articles published in Türkiye on TPACK knowledge of secondary school science teachers according to their methods.

Table 3

Distribution of Studies According to Methods

Method	f	%
Quantitative: Survey (9), experimental (3), scale adaptation and development (1), modeling (1)	14	66.7
Mixed	5	23.8
Qualitative: Case study (2)	2	9.5

According to Table 3, the most frequently preferred methods in the 21 studies were quantitative, mixed and qualitative research methods, respectively. In quantitative research methods, survey and experimental methods were mostly used.

Table 4 presents the distribution of the articles published in Türkiye on secondary school science teachers' TPACK according to the sample selection.

Table 4

Distribution of Articles According to Sample Selection

Sample selection	f
Convenience sampling	9
Purposive sampling	8
Simple random sampling	2
Cluster sampling	2
Stratification sampling	1

According to Table 4, it was determined that the most frequently preferred sample selection in the 21 studies examined were convenience sampling, purposive sampling, simple random sampling, cluster sampling, and stratification sampling, respectively.

Table 5 presents the distribution of articles published in Türkiye on technological pedagogical content knowledge of secondary school science teachers according to data collection tools.

Table 5

Distribution of Articles According to Data Collection Tools

Data collection tools	f
Scale	16
Interview form	6
Survey	1
Achievement test	1
Open-ended questions	1
Observation form	1
Evaluation form	1

According to Table 5, it was determined that the most frequently preferred data collection tools in the 21 studies examined were scale and interview form, respectively. In addition, questionnaires, achievement tests, open-ended questions, observation, and evaluation forms were used to collect data.

Table 6 presents the distribution of the published articles on technological pedagogical content knowledge of secondary school science teachers in Türkiye according to data analysis.

Table 6

Distribution of Articles According to Data Analysis

Data Analysis	f	
Predictive (31)	Anova-Ancova	13
	t-testi	8
	Non-parametric analysis	5
	Correlation	2
	Structural equation modeling	2
	Regression	1
Qualitative (11)	Content analysis	8
	Qualitative descriptive	3
Descriptive (6)	Percentage and frequency	4
	Measures of central tendency	2

When Table 6 is examined, it is determined that the most frequently used analysis in the articles published in Türkiye on technological pedagogical content knowledge of secondary school science teachers is Anova-Ancova, one of the predictive analysis methods. In addition, t-test, one of the predictive analysis methods, content analysis, one of the qualitative analysis methods, and percentage and frequency, one of the descriptive analysis methods, are other frequently used analysis methods.

The remarkable results of the articles published in Türkiye on technological pedagogical content knowledge of secondary school science teachers are presented in Table 7.

When Table 7 is examined, among the remarkable results of the studies conducted with TPACK for secondary school science teachers in Türkiye; TPACK levels of teachers are high (f:5), there is no significant difference between TPACK self-confidence and gender (f:4), educational status (f:2), branch (f:2), there is a significant difference between TPACK and TPACK self-efficacy and gender (f: 2), between TPACK and TPACK self-efficacy and gender (f: 2), between TPACK and professional experience (f: 2), between TPACK self-confidence and length of service, frequency of technology use, in-service and training on educational technologies (f: 2), and there is a positive relationship between TPACK and TPACK competencies and technology attitudes. In addition, other results of the study are less common.

Table 7

Noteworthy Results of the Published Males on Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Category	Results	f
Quantitative study: There is a significant difference	“There is a significant difference between TPACK and TPACK self-efficacy and gender”.	2
	“There is a significant difference between TPACK and professional experience.”	2
	“There is a significant difference between TPACK self-confidence and length of service, frequency of technology use, in-service and training on educational technologies.”	2
	“There is a significant difference between TPACK and educational status, branch, school type, working place, availability of interactive whiteboard, computer, interactive whiteboard and other instructional technology usage competence and usage time, participation in interactive whiteboard usage course.”	1
	“There is a significant difference between TPACK self-confidence levels, and the type of faculty graduated from, branch, access to technology, average daily computer usage time, adequacy of the education given in the university on instructional technologies, voluntary participation in in-service training.”	1
	“There is a significant difference between TPACK and branch and length of service.”	1
	“TPACK development was realized through argumentation.”	1
	“Content Knowledge (CK), Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK) and	1

	Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) have direct and positive effects on TPACK.”	
	“While the educational practices aimed at gaining TPACK had a statistically significant positive effect on self-efficacy towards TPACK, it did not have a statistically significant effect on retention.”	1
Quantitative study: There is not a significant difference	“There is no significant difference between TPACK self-confidence and gender.”	4
	“There is no significant difference between TPACK self-confidence and educational status and branch.”	2
	“There is no significant difference between TPACK and educational status, length of service, institution of employment, taking technology course and gender.”	1
	“There is no significant difference between TPACK self-confidence and school type, having a tablet, institution of employment, attending a technological training, receiving in-service training online or face-to-face.”	1
	“There is no significant difference between TPACK self-confidence and gender.”	1
	“There is no significant difference between TPACK self-confidence and educational status and branch.”	1
	“There is no significant difference between TPACK and educational status, length of service, institution, taking technology course and gender.”	1
	“There is no significant difference between TPACK self-confidence and school type, having a tablet, institution of employment, attending a technological training, receiving in-service training online or face-to-face.”	1
	“Teachers’ TPACK levels are high.”	5
	“Teachers’ TPACK self-confidence levels and self-efficacy beliefs are high. “	1
“Teachers’ TPACK self-confidence levels are above the middle level.”	1	
“Teachers have opinions about supporting the use of technological, field, and pedagogical knowledge together.”	1	
“Teachers consider themselves competent in ethics, application, design, and specialization sub-dimensions of techno pedagogical education competence scale.”	1	
“Teachers perform differently in different subject areas in terms of teaching practices with technology.”	1	
Survey and Qualitative Studies	“Teachers’ use of TPACK-based argumentation practices in lessons is successful.	1
	Some of the teachers have difficulty in adapting to the technology.”	1
	“TPACK is directly/indirectly affected by professional development, teachers’ beliefs and attitudes, administrative support, student influence, technological infrastructure and support, colleague interaction, educational technology experience and lack of time.”	1
	“It provides evidence that TPACK-based argumentation training positively affects science teachers’ general understanding of scientific knowledge and their understanding of scientific knowledge in the themes of hypothesis commitment, justification, and reliability.”	1
	“Teachers lack knowledge about TPACK.”	1
	“Teachers perform differently in different subject areas in terms of teaching practices with technology.”	1
Relational Survey	“There is a positive relationship between TPACK and TPACK competencies and technology attitudes.”	2
	“There is a positive relationship between TPACK self-efficacy and access to instructional technologies, frequency of use, adequacy of the education given in the university on instructional technologies, and the status of receiving education.”	1
The Scale	“A reliable TPACK scale adaptation was developed for secondary school teachers.”	1

Discussion and Results

Today, technology has an impact in every field including education. Especially the need for technological tools such as computers, interactive whiteboards, printers, and augmented realities used in the field of education has gradually increased. The increase in technological tools in the educational environment has revealed the need for their use. In this

respect, Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) has become one of the most important characteristics that teachers should have (Korucu, Usta & Atun, 2017). Therefore, in this study, studies on the technological pedagogical content competencies of secondary school science teachers in Türkiye were examined in terms of the year of publication, the journal in which it was published, method, sample selection, data collection tools, data analysis and the remarkable results of the studies. It is thought that understanding the trends of recent studies conducted with science teachers on TPACK will both guide new researchers, be a source of data, and contribute to the effective dissemination of technology use in education.

Among the aims of the studies on technological pedagogical content knowledge and technology integration of secondary school science teachers in Türkiye, it is determined that the most important aim is to determine the status of teachers in terms of TPACK and to examine them in terms of various variables. After this purpose, the most common aims are to reveal the dimensions of teachers' TPACK and the relationship between the dimensions according to the structural equation model, and to examine the development of TPACK with the method based on Argumentations, in-service training or applications. There are also results parallel to these findings in the literature (Devran, Öztay & Tarkın-Çelikkıran, 2021; Dikmen & Demirer, 2016; Kaleli Yılmaz, 2015). When the articles on TPACK for science teachers in Türkiye are examined, it is seen that the data are collected and analyzed from teachers in a short time with a few measurement tools. The most used method in the articles is survey. Therefore, conducting a large number of survey studies for science teachers and having similar objectives and sample groups may not contribute much to the field. It is thought that it is more important to conduct such studies with many types and numbers of data collection tools in a long process, to examine the TPACK development of science teachers, to examine the decrease or increase in TPACKs, and to reveal what science teachers experience in the process by collecting qualitative data.

In Türkiye, studies on technological pedagogical content knowledge and technology integration of secondary school science teachers started in 2013. It was determined that the most studies related to the field were conducted in 2016 and 2019. Although the year 2023 has not yet been completed, it is seen that there are 2 studies. The fact that there were no studies in 2020 and only one study in 2021 may be due to the negative effect of covid 19. On the other hand, the fact that there are 3 studies in 2022 and 2 studies in 2023, despite the fact that it has not yet been completed, may give the impression that the study on the field will

increase in recent years. Korucu, Usta & Atun (2017) examined the trends of studies on technological pedagogical content knowledge. As a result of the research, it was stated that the studies have increased over the years. In Yıldızay & Çetin's (2019) content analysis of studies on the use of educational technologies in science education, it was determined that these studies started in 2010 and increased significantly in 2013-2017. In Saykal & Uluçınar Sağır's (2021) content analysis study on teacher competencies and TPACK in Türkiye, it was stated that the most studies were conducted in 2015 and 2019. In the literature, there are also studies on the increase in the number of studies on TPACK over the years (Devran, Öztay & Tarkın-Çelikkıran, 2021; Dikmen & Demirer, 2016; Rosenberg & Koehler, 2015).

It was determined that the articles on teachers' technological pedagogical content knowledge were mostly published in "Education and Science", "Education and Information Technologies" and "Gazi University Journal of Gazi Educational Faculty", respectively. It was determined that TPACK studies on teachers were published in different journals. Articles published in other journals are less common. In Dikmen and Demirer's (2016) study on determining TPACK tendencies in Türkiye, TPACK studies were published in "Education and Science", "International Journal of Human Sciences", "Necatibey Faculty of Education, Electronic Journal of Science and Mathematics Education", "Elementary Education Online" and "Ahi Evran University Journal of Kırşehir Education Faculty".

In TPACK articles for secondary school science teachers in Türkiye, the most frequently preferred methods are quantitative, mixed, and qualitative research methods, respectively. In quantitative research methods, survey and experimental methods were mostly used. The most frequently preferred sample selection is convenience sampling. This is followed by purposive sampling, simple random sampling, cluster sampling and stratification sampling. It was determined that the most preferred data collection tool was scale. The use of scales in the studies may be an indication that the studies were conducted with quantitative methods. In the studies, data were also collected mostly by interview form, achievement test, open-ended questions, observation, and evaluation form, respectively. There are studies similar to this result in the literature (Dikmen & Demirer, 2016; Korucu, Usta & Atun, 2017; Yıldızay & Çetin, 2019). On the other hand, in Devran, Öztay & Tarkın-Çelikkıran's (2021) study on TPACK, it was determined that the most frequently used methods were qualitative, quantitative, and mixed, the most frequently used data collection tools were questionnaire/scale, interview and observation, and the most frequently used sample selection was purposive and convenience sampling. In Saykal & Uluçınar Sağır's (2021) content

analysis study on teacher competencies and TPACK in Türkiye, it was stated that the most frequently used methods were quantitative, qualitative, and mixed, and the most frequently used data collection tools were scale, questionnaire, interview/interview. In this study, when the method, sample selection and data collection tool of TPACK studies for science teachers are taken into consideration, it is aimed to reveal the process as it exists and to examine it with various variables instead of observing the change in the process. However, the frequency of using experimental methods, case, and action research in which changes in the process are observed is extremely low. Therefore, the use of both quantitative and qualitative studies can increase the quality of the studies more.

It was determined that the most Türkiye was Anova-Ancova, one of the predictive analysis methods. In addition, t-test among predictive analysis methods, content analysis among qualitative analysis methods, and percentage and frequency among descriptive analysis methods are other frequently used analysis methods. In Dikmen and Demirer's (2016) study on the determination of TPACK dispositions in Türkiye, the most frequently used analyses in the study were descriptive and predictive analysis from quantitative analysis, and content and descriptive analysis from qualitative research, respectively. Devran, Öztay & Tarkin-Çelikkıran (2021) stated that the most frequently used analyses in their study on TPACK were content analysis, t-test, Anova, descriptive analysis, frequency percentage and nonparametric tests.

The above trends also emphasize the increasingly technological nature of science education. Science teaching and learning in secondary school classrooms in our country is known to be driven more than ever by modern technologies that also shape how teachers experience the natural or physical world (Verbeek, 2001). As "naked" perception (human-world) gives way to mediated perception (human-technology-world), increasingly, students' and teachers' scientific perceptions and understandings are increasingly populated by technologies that mediate, enrich and simulate the natural world. Science educators ensure that students see technological tools as transparent and unbiased instruments that simply "show the reality that exists" and reveal what is "really" there (e.g., telescopes, microscopes). In addition, people try to understand and master nature through direct engagement with technology itself (e.g., robots, automated machines). Instead of humans relating to the world through technology, nature relates only to technology itself, imperceptibly, relegating human experience to the background.

The literature reviewed above also suggests that the field of science education will in the future focus exclusively on the pedagogical aspects of technology (cognitive processes and conceptual issues). Regarding the pedagogical use of technology, science education researchers have prioritized conceptualization, focusing on issues related to students' cognitive development and using modern technologies effectively to encourage students to acquire more sophisticated understandings of science. A shortcoming of the research is that much less attention has been paid to the sociocultural aspects of technological innovations in science classrooms with increasing technological advances, such as the impact of technological innovations on existing school culture or the emergence of new identities, cultural values, and interactional processes in the science classroom.

Among the noteworthy results of the studies conducted with TPACK for secondary school science teachers in Türkiye; it was determined that teachers' TPACK levels were high, there was no significant difference between TPACK self-confidence and gender, educational status and branch, there was a significant difference between TPACK and TPACK self-efficacy and gender, between TPACK and professional experience, between TPACK self-confidence and length of service, frequency of technology use, in-service and training on educational technologies, and there was a positive relationship between TPACK and TPACK competencies and technology attitudes. In addition, other results of the study are less common. In the study, TPACK levels of science teachers were found to be high at most. However, Kaya & Kaya (2013) stated that only applying a scale to individuals related to TPACK will reveal not their TPACK but their perceived or thought knowledge, self-confidence and competence levels related to TPACK. Therefore, it can be said that examining lesson plans, conducting interviews and observations in addition to quantitative methods and data in TPACK studies for science teachers will increase the quality of the studies more. Teachers can learn technology, but they are limited in putting what they have learned into practice (Jen, Yeh, Hsu, Wu & Chen, 2016). Therefore, teachers should be trained in the practical application of technology rather than theoretical training.

In this study, TPACK studies for science teachers were systematically examined by content analysis and a holistic evaluation was made in this way. A content analysis study conducted in a certain field provides researchers with the opportunity to look at it from a holistic perspective. Thanks to the analysis of TPACK studies for science teachers, it is possible to obtain information about this field, to determine the positive, strong, deficient, and weak aspects of scientific publications and to evaluate the performance of publications.

Recommendations

It is recommended that quantitative and qualitative methods should be used together in the studies on science teachers and that the studies should be carried out over a long period of time in order to monitor the process by collecting a large number and variety of qualitative data. In this way, the real TPACKs of science teachers can be determined and their TPACK development can be monitored.

It is recommended to implement educational contents that will support the TPACK development of science teachers in the Faculties of Education before they graduate and to support the TPACK development of science teachers with in-service training.

It is recommended to conduct scientific studies that examine the TPACK development of science teachers and support their TPACK development and to increase the number of these studies.

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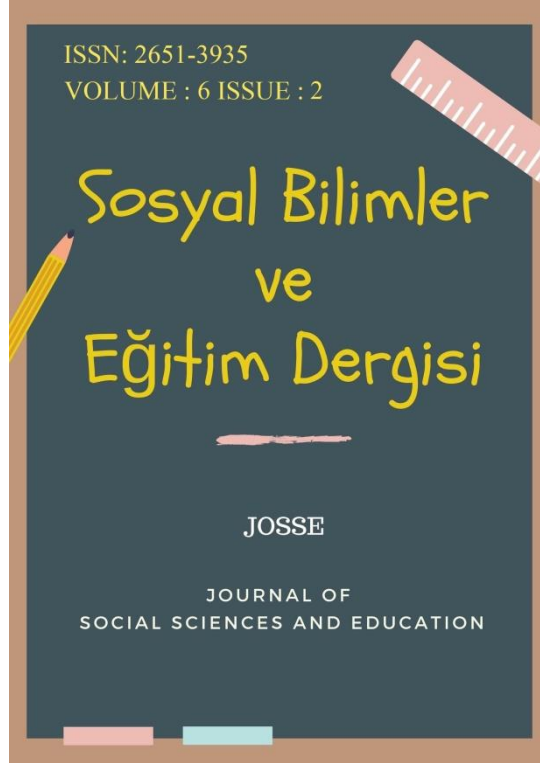
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Neighborhood Councils as A Local Participation Practice: The Case of France

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Neighborhood Councils as A Local Participation Practice: The Case of France

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Abstract

In local governments, which are accepted as the cradle of democracy, the different needs and different solutions of different local units, the fact that the compatriots are affected by administrative decisions rather than political ones, has led to the need for active participation of the compatriots in the decisions of local governments and has led to the emergence of several methods and practices related to administrative participation. Neighborhood councils are one of the practices that ensure the active participation of citizens in the social life created in 2002, by the Law of "Démocratie de Proximité" (proximity democracy) in France. The aim of this study is to examine and describe the neighborhood councils, one of the participation tools that enable its citizens to participate actively in community life. The quantitative analysis method was used as the research method in the study, and in this context, a literature review and document analysis were used. In the first part of the study, a conceptual framework was created over the concepts of neighborhood and participation and examples of neighborhood participation in the world were presented. Then, the decentralization reforms carried out in France since 1982 and the arrangements made to increase local participation in these reforms were examined. In the second part of the study, the tools of local participation and local democracy in France were examined, and then the neighborhood councils formed by the "Proximity Democracy" law created in 2002 were evaluated.

Keywords: Local democracy, neighborhood, participation, France

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Introduction

Especially rapidly increasing urbanization in Türkiye, after the 1980s, and technological, economic, political and sociological changes and transformations in recent years, the number of cities and the number of people living in cities has increased, urban societies have emerged (Gül; 2019) and urban problems have increased rapidly. The participation of urban dwellers in the solution of urban problems and the management of the city is important to ensure a sustainable quality of life. In today's understanding of governance, the participatory approach to the decision-making processes of city governments and the development of effective participation channels are considered very important in terms of local democracy and sustainable city governments.

The fact that citizens are affected by administrative decisions rather than political decisions in local governments, which are expressed as the school/source of democracy, and that different local units have different needs and different solutions has led to the need for active participation of citizens in the decisions of local governments and has led to the emergence of several methods and practices related to administrative participation. As a result of this, new political forms are emerging in which citizen participation in urban development is integrated into public action without questioning the foundations of representative democracy, where final decision-making authority is vested in elected administrators.

The gradual loss of power of representative democracy has brought participatory democracy to the forefront in recent years. Participatory democracy takes place first and foremost at the neighborhood level, mainly in the form of neighborhood assemblies. Participation at this level is a matter of involving citizens as users of urban spaces in discussions on everyday issues and living environments that require their experience and expertise. However there are, In developed countries, participation has spread beyond the local scale to the smallest forms of governance, which have so far been rarely questioned.

Although not considered a constitutional unit of local government today, neighborhood governments have historically been very important for city governments. As the smallest nucleus of urban governance, neighborhood governments are a unit that should be given importance in the context of localization, one of the trending concepts of the last quarter century. In terms of urban participation, neighborhood administrations, where social unity and closeness are seen intensely, constitute an important step in urban participation.

Today's administrative structure was inherited from the Ottoman Empire, and the Ottoman Empire was influenced by the French rigid centralized administrative system while creating its administrative structure. The French administrative system, which has influenced the administrative system of many states in the world with its centralized administrative structure, reveals the basic character of the administrative structure of our country. In addition to the decentralization reforms in 1982, France made a significant development in terms of increasing and strengthening urban participation with the "démocratie de proximité" law in 2003, which can be translated into Turkish as "democracy of proximity".

It is important to examine the developments in France, whose administrative system we take as an example, to investigate new participation mechanisms for increasing participation in neighborhood administrations inherited from the Ottoman Empire and not reformed in our country.

In this study, the neighborhood councils, which were established in France with the 2003 regulation to increase local participation, are evaluated structurally and functionally. In the first part of the study, a conceptual framework on urbanization, urban participation and neighborhood governments is drawn, followed by a discussion of local democracy and urban participation in Turkey and the importance of neighborhood governments in urban participation. In the second part, the issue of city governments and urban participation in France is discussed and neighborhood councils and advisory committees in France are examined as a model of local participation.

Participatory Democracy and Local Participation

The concept of democracy as a tool of governance for some and as a way of life, a virtue and a goal for others is being exploited and used by a wide range of people, from despotic dictators to terrorist groups. The concept of democracy, which essentially refers to a political style of government rather than an ideology (Bozan, 2016), emerged in Ancient Greece. As a combination of the Greek words "demos" and "kratos", the concept of democracy is defined as the sovereignty, power or government of the people (Gözler, 2010; Öztekin, 2003; Gözübüyük, 2003).

Defined as "government of the people, by the people, for the people" in the words of the 16th President of the United States, A. Lincoln, democracy, is a political system of governance in which no authority is accepted above or outside the people and in which sovereignty is based directly on the people, has been tried to be explained in different ways

and with different concepts since its existence, and these discourses have led to the emptying of the concept and moving away from its essence (Kocaoğlu, 2015; Yaman, 2018). While the concept of democracy, which emerged in city-states in Ancient Greece, was realized in the form of direct democracy; over time, due to the increase in population and the difficulty of direct democracy practices, representative democracy practices began to develop/become widespread. During the Roman Empire, the old Indian caste system, the civil war in England and the Glorious Revolution, the participation of all or part of the people in government through elected representatives emerged as examples of representative democracy practices. However, representative democracy gained importance as concepts such as nation-state, national sovereignty and popular sovereignty gained importance after the French Revolution (Bozan, 2016).

In its simplest definition, representative democracy, which is expressed as a political form of government in which citizens exercise their sovereignty rights through elected representatives, has become more problematic in the information age we live in, with the effect of globalization (Hopyar, 2016). With the impact of globalization and the information age, the legitimacy crisis that emerged in the relations between the ruler and the ruled and the representative democracy practices, which are limited to the election of democratic representatives and the delegation of decision-making and implementation authority to the elected on behalf of the ruled, are no longer considered sufficient (Yaman, 2018). For this reason, although it is the most widely practiced model of democracy today, representative democracy has been harshly criticized (Tekeli, 1999; Yeğen, 2001; Şinik, 2009). To overcome the deficiencies of representative democracy, the need for citizens to participate in governance through various means other than elections and the need to create new mechanisms through which the public can control the system comes to the agenda. These criticisms have led to the emergence of pluralist democracy practices, which, although they carry some differences, do not represent a serious break from representative democracy; over time, participatory democracy practices, which are closer to classical democracy, have emerged (Hopyar, 2016).

Although participatory democracy practices have been developed to overcome the inadequacies of representative democracy and pluralist democracy practices, they are not against representative democracy; on the contrary, they have emerged as an effort that helps the operation of representative democracy, tries to bring representative democracy closer to direct democracy, and accepts new participation mechanisms that help the people to convey

their demands to the governments. The intellectual foundations of participatory democracy practices are based on direct democracy and emphasize the inclusion of values such as consensus, common good, active participation, participatory citizenship, which have gained value in direct democracy, into representative democracy by reinterpreting them according to today's conditions (Yaman, 2018).

Direct democracy, which emulates direct democracy, envisages that the public should have a permanent say in the policies that concern them and participate in governance in the widest possible way through different means. According to Eryılmaz (2013), not only voting is not seen as a sufficient condition for democracy, but citizens should also have the opportunity to participate in governance to influence, control and direct the decisions of administrators by taking part in participation mechanisms in decisions that concern them. At this point, citizens should have influence not only on inputs but also on outputs in participatory democracy (Almond and Verba, 1980). To ensure the effective participation of the people in governance, principles such as ensuring equality in the participation of citizens, establishing a culture of participation among citizens, the existence of accessible accurate information and the right to information, the existence of intra-party democracy in political parties, the strengthening of local governments and civil society organizations should be implemented (Yaman, 2018).

The theory of participatory democracy attaches importance not only to the high rate of participation for the improvement of democracy but also to the creation of an appropriate administrative structure to increase participation. Based on the fact that democracy emerged in small-scale communities such as the Ancient Greek polis, it is accepted that participatory democracy is primarily suitable for local governments (Yaman, 2018). In this context, strengthening democracy and increasing the rate of participation will be easier in decentralized governments, which are considered as the cradle of democracy. Participation at the local level means that people living in cities, i.e. citizens who are affected by decisions, somehow influence and contribute to decision-making processes and evaluate local service outputs (Çetintürk, 2021; Çelik and Usta, 2011; Palabıyık and Görün, 2004).

As a result of technological, economic, political and sociological changes and transformations in recent years, the number of cities and the number of people living in cities has increased, urban societies have emerged and urban problems have increased rapidly. Today, when more than half of the world's population and almost 90% of our country's population live in cities (although this data is controversial due to the metropolitan system), it

is important to develop participatory democracy practices in the decision-making processes of city governments in terms of sustainable urban governance. In terms of local democracy to be established in cities, it is necessary to ensure the administrative and financial autonomy of local administrations, to enable citizens to participate effectively and actively in administrative decisions concerning them individually or in an organized manner, and to have clear and functioning mechanisms to facilitate participation (Gül, 2017). Given the importance of the local level in the creation of participatory democracy, the neighborhood, which points to an important social and spatial identity in cities, is considered an important "intermediate institution" where solutions to local problems can be developed (Wills, 2016; Çılgın and Yirmibeşoğlu, 2019; Bulut, 2001).

Neighborhood Management in Terms of Local Participation

Developing and nurturing citizen participation in centralized structures is a significant challenge, as the overarching administrative ethos of the centralized state creates barriers to citizen participation (Kathi and Cooper, 2005). To realize and improve the manageability of sustainable urban life, local participation is an important, multi-dimensional and complex action that can be organized, individual or institutional. In this context, local participation may include the behaviors of participating in elections, identifying local problems, producing solutions to these problems, participating in planning processes for the formulation of local policies, not implementing the decisions taken by local governments, and influencing, directing or obstructing in different stages and ways from the implementation of services to their supervision (Gül, 2017).

Citizen participation is the active, voluntary involvement of individuals and groups in changing problem areas in communities and influencing policies and programs that affect their quality of life and the lives of other residents (Ohmer, 2007). Neighborhood administration as a sub-unit of local governments in terms of local participation is briefly defined by TDK as a basic sub-region into which cities, towns and villages are divided. Neighborhood residents, who reside with their families in this region, come together in physical spaces such as schools, places of worship, parks, and shopping areas they share, and some social relations emerge, which transforms the neighborhood into a sub-region as defined by TDK, as well as a settlement unit where the consciousness of common living and political, administrative, historical and social belonging are formed among the residents (Erdagöz, 2012).

The neighborhood has long been a topic of debate in urban politics. Democratic theorists from Tocqueville (1840) to Dahl (1970) have argued that small units of political participation foster citizens' sense of political efficacy and identification with the form of government. Because urban political elites and residents often see the neighborhood as the smallest unit of political participation, neighborhoods have significant potential for enacting citizenship rights and making political demands. In the industrialized world, city governments, civil society organizations, political parties and other representatives often use neighborhoods to mobilize participation, organize political processes and address policy issues (Horak and Blokland, 2012).

Neighborhood administrations, which should be taken into account in the context of decentralization of powers and responsibilities and which are considered to have a high level of social cohesion and sense of belonging, can assume roles that can improve local participation in conveying the demands, requests and complaints of neighborhood residents to higher institutions, voicing neighborhood problems, planning, implementing or preventing the implementation of services to be provided to the neighborhood. Neighborhood administrations stand out from other administrative units in terms of participation since it is much easier for residents to voice their problems to neighborhood administrations since they are physically the closest place to them. Neighborhood governance is considered as a component of local governance that facilitates the establishment of relations between residents, provincial institutions of the central government and local governments, and emphasizes horizontal cooperation as opposed to hierarchical and bureaucratic models.

Neighborhood administrations have had different administrative structures according to different periods, countries, cultures, social dynamics and paradigms (Çılgın and Yirmibeşoğlu, 2019). Some researchers believe that neighborhoods are an ancient phenomenon that applies only to urban settings or to an earlier period when neighbors interacted more frequently and had more in common than they do today (Leighninger, 2008). Especially with the increase in localization trends after 1980, the issues of local democracy and local participation have gained importance and important steps have started to be taken on new participation mechanisms to bring local participation as close as possible to direct democracy. Neighborhood administrations, which are the most basic urban space that is sustainable, livable and manageable regardless of its characteristics, constitute one of the most important units in terms of increasing local participation (Gül, 2017). The neighborhood is an important component of multilevel and multi-actor governance, as it is considered to

contribute significantly to the decision-making processes of central and local governments, particularly in urban planning (Wagenaar, 2007; Lowndes and Sullivan, 2008).

Multi-actor/stakeholder governance has been intensively debated by researchers since the 1980s, with the particularity that more effective and efficient decisions can be made by freeing the potential of different levels of society and governance, i.e. by enabling their participation in managerial decisions. The concept of multi-level/stakeholder/actor governance, first used by Gary Marks in 1993, refers to the process of negotiations between actors operating in a chain, so to speak, as intertwined links at many levels of governance within a country. According to Marks, the concept of governance refers to the increasing interdependence of actors operating at various levels of governance in decision-making processes, while governance refers to the increasing interdependence between governments and non-governmental actors (Marks, 1993; Çetintürk, 2021). Most problems at the neighborhood level are related to public safety, traffic problems, street crime, garbage on the streets and quality of life. Therefore, increasing neighborhood participation will contribute significantly to the creation of livable and sustainable neighborhoods. Encouraging residents to take responsibility for the development of their neighborhoods will also contribute significantly to the development of residents' sense of belonging and improve social integration and cohesion (Hosseini et al., 2017).

Establishing direct relations between neighborhood residents and administrators at different levels, building healthy relationships, and ensuring that the demands of the people reach the addressee without intermediaries will increase the effectiveness of services and contribute significantly to effective participation in urban governance. Participation at the neighborhood level is a means by which residents can influence external social systems and work with neighbors and civil society organizations to improve their neighborhoods (Ohmer, 2007). This tool, which can encompass several factors such as oversight of regulations by public institutions and organizations, democratic authority, easy financing, empowerment, resource coordination and access, has led to successes in planning, implementing and activating neighborhoods (Edling and Rydgren, 2012).

In the context of urban redevelopment plans, orientations to neighborhood democracy combine notions of local knowledge, local rights and local power. The emphasis on local knowledge is based on the recognition that residents represent sources of information and insight that are not available to outside professionals, and that harnessing this knowledge may be essential to inform more viable and sustainable policies. Second, the emphasis on local

rights is based on the fundamental assumption that in democratic societies, individuals have a meaningful say in the issues that affect them, and finally, the emphasis on local power is based on the assumption that both local knowledge and rights will be channeled in meaningful ways into deliberative and decision-making forums and that participation in such forums will further enhance the capacity of community members to become active, effective citizens (Chaskin and Joseph, 2012).

Residents' participation and cooperation cover different areas related to people of different age groups. Increasing participation at the neighborhood level is primarily a matter of preparing residents. The first and most important step for this is to inform residents, raise their awareness about the problems in the neighborhood, then try to explain how the problems will be addressed and try to address them with models based on their participation (Hosseini et al., 2017).

Participation mechanisms to be established in the neighborhood can involve residents in policy-making and program planning for the neighborhood and the city, or defend local interests through representation in administrative institutions. Through small group discussions, critical consciousness can be raised and the services provided by local governments to the neighborhood can be improved or the quality of services can be increased through neighborhood policy development (Bulut and Akın, 2019).

Residents' participation in government decisions can lead to more resources for the neighborhood, better decision-making, vocational training, a responsible environment, fulfillment of public needs, and lasting, sustainable development (Hosseini et al., 2017). The idea that increasing participation in neighborhood governments would increase the efficiency and quality of services provided to neighborhoods in particular and cities in general led all developed societies, starting with the USA in the 1960s, to think about new local participation mechanisms (Fagotto and Fung, 2006).

Neighborhood Participation Practices in The World

Theories of participatory democracy, efforts to involve citizens in policy formulation and implementation, and calls to strengthen civil society have proliferated over the last half-century. Pluralist assumptions are widely voiced that formal democratic governance mechanisms operating in the context of fragmented power and the active participation of interest groups in governance can govern effectively, legitimately and without systematically or permanently excluding minor groups. In the examples of neighborhood

councils/assemblies "Neighbourhood Councils" that emerged in developed Western countries such as the USA, Sweden, the UK, the Netherlands, Italy and France, as well as neighborhood forums "Neighbourhood Forums" in the UK, the main aim of the governments is to strengthen local democracy by increasing local participation (Wills, 2016; Wagenaar, 2007; Leighninger, 2008).

Many urban researchers see neighborhoods as an important resource for political participation, as places where civic skills can be developed and put into practice. This understanding of neighborhoods is particularly evident in the United States, where Jefferson's ideal of grassroots democracy has a deep and enduring place (Horak and Blokland, 2012). In the US, citizen participation in local decision-making gained momentum as a mainstream policy approach in both national and state programs after policies in the 1950s and 1960s revitalized community participation in neighborhood planning (Fagotto and Fung, 2006). In this context, although several new programs were launched in the 1960s and 1970s to increase citizen participation, these programs were generally inadequate and ineffective as they were top-down approaches (Kathi and Cooper, 2005).

Advocates of neighborhood-based participation in the US have argued that "there is no better way to ensure the long-term success of public participation than to institutionalize a decision-making role for that participation" (Thomas, 1995). Beginning in the early 1970s, local governments in places such as Portland, Oregon, Dayton, Ohio, and Saint Paul, Minnesota, established neighborhood council systems as a way of involving residents in public decision-making and problem-solving processes. In a study conducted in Orlando, Leighninger (2008) lists the strengths and weaknesses of neighborhood councils as follows. Advantages;

- Neighborhood councils give a legitimate voice to a much wider audience in public decisions taken at neighborhood and local levels;
- Neighborhood councils tend to have strong roles in policy-making, sometimes formal, sometimes informal, and some receive various funding from City Hall.
- Although they are a legitimate part of the local policy-making process, most neighborhood councils can develop policy proposals independently of the process and City Hall as a formally recognized community organizing vehicle.
- Neighborhood councils can provide accessible "ramps" for people who may not see themselves as participants in decision-making processes.

- Many neighborhood councils are engines of "public work": In cooperation with the town hall and other groups, as well as with their voluntary efforts and energies, they have produced all kinds of concrete results.
- Many neighborhood assemblies ask residents to help city councils make smarter policies, often defusing controversies before they arise.
- Some neighborhood councils build links between leaders from different neighborhoods and create opportunities for them to work together on decisions or projects that affect the whole community.
- Participation in neighborhood councils changes the culture of the community and helps to make dialogue and cooperation a strong public habit.
- According to Leighninger (2008), its weaknesses are;
- The group of people on the typical neighborhood council is usually not as diverse - in terms of age, race, income or other demographic variables - as the neighborhood they represent.
- Neighborhood assemblies can create another barrier to participation unless they are designed and operated with the sole purpose of increasing rather than managing participation.
- Most neighborhood councils find it particularly difficult to attract people to regular monthly meetings and rely on a very small core of volunteers.
- Expectations about how local authorities will use the inputs they receive and the lines of accountability between them are often unclear.
- In most cases, this inter-neighborhood cooperation is limited to a smaller number of neighborhood leaders.
- Cultural differences between neighborhoods sometimes make communication and cooperation difficult.

Neighborhood councils, like neighborhood assemblies, are local citizen organizations, an attempt to allow citizens to form bottom-up structures within a government framework (Kathi and Cooper, 2005). In the USA, participation mechanisms such as "the Neighborhood Revitalization Program" and "Learning and Design Forums" have been established for neighborhood-oriented participation (Fagotto and Fung, 2006). In essence, the main purpose of these approaches, which envisage the participation of neighborhood residents in the planning and delivery of local services and are based on negotiation, is to enable city managers and neighborhood leaders to develop a new partnership in the planning and delivery

of city services, to design new processes to improve service delivery at every step and to identify local needs to ensure the effectiveness and efficiency of services (Kathi and Cooper, 2005).

These neighborhood-oriented participation mechanisms, which have been implemented in the USA since the 1960s, are similar in European countries. States such as France, the Netherlands, Sweden and the UK have established neighborhood participation mechanisms to encourage residents to take responsibility for their neighborhoods to improve the quality of life, social integration, and "connectedness" of their neighborhoods. Wagenaar (2007), in his research conducted in the Netherlands, states that even if residents do not believe that their lives have improved much thanks to the neighborhood councils, they believe that the neighborhood will get worse if the neighborhood councils are abolished. The author states that residents particularly like the councils as social meeting places and that many residents have become more interested in neighborhood issues since attending council meetings (Wagenaar, 2007).

Starting with neighborhood committees in Sweden in the early 1980s (Bäck, 2003), neighborhood-focused participation in the UK has been implemented through neighborhood forums as well as neighborhood councils. The neighborhood forum, which was created to ensure the participation of residents in important decisions about the neighborhood, encouraged small community representatives and city council officials to work together to consult local people and try to develop a plan (Wills, 2016).

One of the mechanisms of neighborhood-oriented participation is neighborhood associations. As a unique form of civil society organization that acts as a bridge between residents and the larger institutions of public life, neighborhood associations can make citizens better negotiators of the common good. Neighborhood associations, which have different structures in different countries, are volunteer-based in the UK and the USA, local community-based in France, Japan and Sweden, and public-based in Thailand and Korea (Bäck, 2003).

Finally, the "Residents' Committee" in China is another example of neighborhood-based participation. With this practice, a nationwide community-building campaign was launched in the 1990s and a district-based social institution (the Residents' Committee or *juwei* in Chinese) was established as a local quasi-governmental institution to carry out the social management of urban neighborhoods. This committee has a wide range of responsibilities, from providing social services and linking various organizations and

neighborhoods, to organizing security patrols and organizing social and cultural programs (Zhu, 2020).

Local Participation in France

In the political organization of France, which can be considered the first model of the nation-state, the "Jacobin logic" plays an important role. This understanding, which owes its name to the Jacobinists who eliminated the decentralized character of the revolutionary will after the French Revolution, is best summarised by the expression 'L'une et indivisible République', 'one and indivisible Republic', which represents the tendency towards centralization and uniformity (Edwards and Hupe, 2000). In the rigidly centralized administrative system established after the Revolution, all settlements in the country were defined as administrative units at the same time, and as a result, even the smallest settlement received the status of a commune.

Although it is interpreted as Americanism in French society, significant changes focused on privatization and decentralization have occurred in the rigidly centralized French public administration system under the influence of globalization after the 1980s (Çetintürk, 2021). Adopted in 1982, the "Law on the Rights and Freedoms of Municipalities, Provinces and Regions", also known as the "Deffere Law", is considered a milestone in decentralization reforms by many researchers (Kayıkçı, 2003). It is possible to mention four main results of these reforms:

1. The territory was transformed into a new sub-national government,
2. Some powers have been transferred from the state to local governments,
3. In departments and regions, an elected official became the chief administrator instead of the state-appointed governor,
4. State control over subnational governments was reduced, giving more freedom to subnational authorities (Edwards and Hupe, 2000).

The Europeanisation approach, which progressed in parallel with globalization, led to the withdrawal of the state from its so-called core functions through privatization and decentralization reforms in France. To adapt to the multi-level governance system of Europeanisation, the most significant impact on the French administrative system has been the principle of subsidiarity and the delegation of authority to sub-national institutions and organizations. Following the Maastricht Treaty, the founding treaty of the European Union, the Europeanisation effects can be observed in the local government reforms carried out in

1992, the law on democracy of proximity enacted in 2002, and the constitutional amendment in 2003 (Çetintürk, 2021).

Today, in France, where the Constitution of the 5th Republic is in force, there are three different local government units: regions, provinces and municipalities. According to the 1958 Constitution of the 5th Republic, the councilors of all three local government units are elected and the mayors elected by the councilors govern these institutions. Although the fact that the mayors of local government units are elected by the councilors rather than directly by the people raises the argument that local participation in France is limited, there are other democratic instruments in France to increase the participation of the people in local decisions.

In France, there are important constitutional and legal guarantees for local participation. The concept of local democracy first appeared in the Law of 6 February 1992 on the Territorial Administration of the Republic. This law tried to change the information and participation of citizens as well as to strengthen the rights of elected officials in local assemblies. The law of 27 February 2002 on affinity democracy is also an important text for strengthening participatory democracy. Subsequently, the constitutional amendment of 28 March 2003 on the decentralized organization of the republic regulated the right to petition, closing an important gap in local participation (Gilia, 2013).

It can be said that significant developments have been achieved in France in terms of public participation in local decisions concerning them, especially with the regulations made after the 2000s. Today, in France, there are participation practices such as a local referendum, advisory committees, right to petition and neighborhood councils to ensure the active participation of the public in local decisions for the effective and efficient provision of local services and to create a negotiation environment between the administrators and the governed (Şinik, 2009).

Instruments of Local Democracy in France

After 1982, which is considered a milestone in terms of decentralization of the French administrative system, important participation mechanisms have been established to develop local democracy in France. One of the objectives of the localization policy of the socialist government in power just before the reform was to encourage participation. However, the reforms carried out under this government were not sufficient to raise participatory democracy at the local level, and efforts to improve local democracy were continued by subsequent governments.

The concept of local democracy first appeared in the Law on Territorial Administration of the Republic on 6 February 1992. This law seeks to change citizens' access to information and participation, as well as to strengthen the rights of elected officials in local assemblies. The law organizes consultative committees of local public services to increase citizen participation in the provision of local services. These committees are an important tool for users of public services to express their views on the services provided/to be provided (Gilia, 2013, 255).

Since 1992, several regulations on local participation have been introduced in France. A law enacted in 1992 authorized residents' consultation on a limited number of issues and allowed municipalities to organize consultative local referendums. Many extra-municipal commissions were initiated and the participation of residents was recommended. In 1995, the possibility to do so was extended; residents had the right to initiate a consultative referendum. With the regulation, one-fifth of the electorate could request the organization of a local consultation (Premat, 2009).

One of the most important instruments of participatory democracy in France is the local referendum. Although introduced with the 1982 Defferre Law, the local referendum was put into practice only in 1992. The regulation authorized municipalities to consult citizens through local referendums as a fundamental principle of local democracy, except under certain conditions. While in 1992 this consultation power was only in the form of receiving the opinions of the inhabitants of the city, it became binding with the constitutional amendment in 2003. The power to consult through a local referendum was granted to all local government units by the "Law on the Freedoms and Responsibilities of Local Authorities", which was enacted in 2003 and entered into force in 2005 (Şinik, 2009).

The referendum as an instrument of direct democracy was not used very often in the French system, with nine referendums organized during the 5th Republic. To get closer to the citizens, political decision-makers wanted to use the referendum to legitimize their future political actions. However, these referendums were an important opportunity for citizens to show their dissatisfaction with political decisions. In this sense, citizens targeted both the institutional organization of the state, such as the direct election of the president by popular vote and the creation of regional administrations and the European Union, such as the enlargement of Central and Eastern Europe and the Maastricht Treaty. The proposal to change the institutional organization of Corsica and the European Constitutional project was not

accepted by the citizens in the first referendums with dissenting votes but was accepted afterward (Hamon, 2012).

The law of 27 February 2002 on "démocratie de proximité" (democracy of proximity) is an important text for strengthening participatory democracy. The law aims to ensure a better citizen partnership in decision-making at the local level, thus strengthening participatory democracy and the rights of dissent in deliberative assemblies. One of the innovations introduced by the law in terms of participatory democracy is the consultation committees/advisory committees. According to the law, the municipal council may establish advisory committees on any matter of public interest, covering the whole or only part of the territory. Each committee is chaired by a member of the city council appointed by the mayor. The committees may be consulted by the mayor on any issue or project that is the subject of activity of the committee associations, about public services and means of proximity. These committees may be composed of persons outside the council, but representatives of local associations (Gilia, 2012).

Another participation mechanism of French local democracy is the right to petition. According to the current legislation, a voter can submit a petition to be placed on the agenda of the local council, requesting that an issue that falls under the jurisdiction of that local government unit be placed on the council's agenda. A voter can sign only one petition per year concerning the counseling organization. In such a case, the voter's petition is automatically added to the council agenda (Şinik, 2009; CoR, 2004; Gilia, 2012).

Another mechanism of participation in French local democracy is local consultation. Legislation regulates citizen consultation at both the communal and inter-communal levels. Residents of local authorities have the right to be informed about their affairs and to be consulted on decisions that concern them. The deliberative body or even citizens may have the initiative to be consulted. As far as citizen initiative is concerned, the law stipulates that 1 out of every 5 or 10 voters registered on the control list in a commune may ask to be consulted on a matter that is the subject of a decision to be taken by a deliberative body. This also applies to regional governments, which can consult their citizens on the decisions of the regional authorities (Premat, 2009; Gilia, 2012).

Between 1992 and 2003, different participatory instruments were created, such as the advisory council of local sages (conseils des aînés), local councils for children (conseils municipaux d'enfants), youth councils (conseils de jeunes), district councils (conseils de quartier), councils of foreign communities (conseils des communautés étrangères), urban

planning sessions (ateliers d'habitants) and various advisory councils (Bherer, 2010; Premat, 2009). During this period, the issue was discussed in depth between 2001 and 2003, in particular due to the law of 27 February 2002 and the second Local Government Act (Premat, 2009). The law of 27 February 2002 on "démocratie de proximité" (democracy of proximity) introduced a series of instruments designed to bring citizens closer to political decision-making into political/administrative life; among these instruments, neighborhood assemblies, on which this study focuses, are particularly noteworthy.

Neighborhood Councils / Assemblies in France

In France in the 1990s, the "neighborhood" was recognized as a crucial phenomenon against the backdrop of decentralization to mobilize local democratic renewal. Faced with a deep social crisis in underprivileged suburbs, urban authorities placed neighborhood participation at the center of urban policy to renew and strengthen the bonds of citizenship within a territorial framework (Bacqué and Sintomer, 2005). Since the mid-2000s, public authorities have seen the neighborhood as an appropriate and perfectly scaled lever to test and disseminate new sustainable urban practices. In this context, it was recognized that through neighborhood participation, residents should be integrated into the whole process by observing how they express their perspectives on quality of life and urban use practices (Gardesse and Zetlaoui-Leger, 2015).

French President Jacques Chirac, in his 2001 New Year message, on the need for increased citizen participation: "The participation of everyone in the life of their city is very limited. We need to open the city to everyone" (Le Monde, 4 January 2001). In 2007, the socialist presidential candidate Segol'e Royale introduced his program on participatory democracy by referring to the experience of participatory budgeting (Lefebvre, 2007). These recent discourses on participatory democracy by the President and the presidential candidate reflect the crisis of representative democracy in France and the need to rebuild social and political ties based on democracy. Neighborhood assemblies are an advisory body established by the law dated 27 February 2002, "Démocratie de Proximite" (Démocratie de Proximite), to find a solution to this crisis of representative democracy.

This national discourse on encouraging participation is based on an understanding of local democracy. According to this understanding, local democracy is primarily meant to counter increasing electoral absenteeism as a reflection of growing voter dissatisfaction and lack of trust in their representatives. The objectives of neighborhood councils, which are

complementary to representative democratic bodies to enhance local democracy, are to protect the right of citizens to participate, to allow residents to submit proposals and projects to elected officials, to enlighten the community with the traditional expertise of residents, and to strengthen the capacity of residents to inform, participate and intervene in all matters affecting their neighborhood, district, city or region. In neighborhoods, councils contribute to the improvement of the living environment, the implementation of local projects by residents and the development of active citizenship and act as an important factor in social cohesion, solidarity, deepening of citizenship and local democracy education.

According to Article L. 2143-1 of the "démocratie de proximité" law of 27 February 2002, which means "democracy of proximity" in Turkish, in municipalities with a population of 80,000 or more, the municipal council determines the perimeter of each of the neighborhoods that make up the municipality. These neighborhoods have a neighborhood council, the name, composition and working procedures of which are determined by the municipal council. According to the law, the neighborhood councils may be consulted by the mayor, and the council may make proposals to the mayor on any matter concerning the neighborhood or the city. The mayor may involve the neighborhood in the development, implementation and evaluation of activities concerning the neighborhood, in particular those carried out as part of city policy. The municipal council may allocate space and resources to neighborhood councils for their work. Municipalities with a population between 20,000 and 79,999 may also establish neighborhood councils on their initiative, applying these provisions.

According to the Law on Neighborhood Democracy, the objectives of neighborhood assemblies are: citizen participation in urban development and local public policies and their monitoring and evaluation, improvement of the living environment, implementation of local projects by residents, development of active citizenship and social connectivity and neighborhood development. The powers of the assemblies are to receive any question related to the area, to participate in projects carried out to improve the living environment and to formulate any proposal (idea, contribution, detailed project, etc.) related to the neighborhood and present it as a policy proposal.

One of the most important duties and responsibilities of neighborhood assemblies is to inform and raise awareness among the people of the neighborhood. For this purpose, neighborhood assemblies receive support from municipalities and each neighborhood assembly is allocated an information space in the municipal newspaper and website to provide

information about their activities. Neighborhood assemblies can also organize their communication tools (neighborhood newspaper, blog, etc.) and inform the neighborhood community about their activities. Anyone over the age of 16 who resides in the neighborhood can become a member of the neighborhood council voluntarily, there is no time limit for membership and registration is open throughout the year.

According to the law, the working procedures and forms of neighborhood councils are regulated by the municipal councils in which the neighborhoods are located. To give a general idea, according to the regulation established by the Lyon City Council, neighborhood councils have five organs: general assembly, president of the neighborhood council, office, thematic committees and elected representative of the neighborhood council (Ville de Lyon 2014).

General Assembly; The general assembly, consisting of all members of the neighborhood council, convenes at least twice a year and is open to all neighborhood residents.

The chairman of the Neighborhood Council; is elected for a two-year term from among the representatives of the residents who are members of the neighborhood, according to the conditions set out in the bylaws of the council. The chairperson is responsible for facilitating discussions within the office, respecting each opinion and ensuring the proper functioning of the neighborhood council together with the elected representative.

Neighborhood Council office/Office; The office should represent the diversity of the members of the neighborhood council. It was created for two years within the general assembly and its members regularly participate in commissions.

Thematic committees; The creation and operation of thematic committees is the responsibility of each neighborhood council.

Elected representative of the neighborhood council; to ensure the relationship between the neighborhood council, the municipal council and the mayor, to facilitate the activities of the neighborhood council and encourage its articulation with municipal council issues, and to keep the neighborhood council informed as a resource person.

Essentially, the role of the neighborhood councils is advisory, with the mayor being the person who decides whether they should be consulted on matters of community concern or city policy. Although French law provides for several instruments for citizens to actively participate in policy-making processes, the actual use and intensity of these instruments are debatable. However, it is possible to say that after the enactment of the regulation on the establishment of neighborhood assemblies, they have spread, at least quantitatively,

throughout the country. While there were only 292 neighborhood assemblies in 2002, this number increased to 982 in 2003 and 1305 in 2005. In this sense, it is obvious that neighborhood assemblies are important units for local participation in France.

Discussion and Results

Different local needs and different solution needs have led to the need for decentralization in the public and private sectors all over the world after the 1980s. In this context, policymakers' rapid implementation of decentralization reforms one after the other led to an evolution in administrative structures, and the French rigidly centralized administrative structure with a Jacobin approach to governance was also affected.

With the 1980s, in addition to localization trends, criticisms against representative democracy in the context of democracy and democratization have also intensified. Although it is the most widely applied democracy model today, representative democracy has been criticized quite harshly; to overcome the deficiencies of representative democracy, there has been a need for citizens to participate in governance in various ways other than elections and to create new mechanisms where the public can control the system. The theory of participatory democracy, which emerged at this point, aims to increase the rate and quality of participation to improve democracy.

As far as Turkey is concerned, the neighborhood is considered to be a neglected administrative unit in the local government reform that was accepted to have started in 2004. It is said that this structure, which has no legal personality and no budget due to the service provision of the municipality, has become dysfunctional as a result of the electronic service provision of the central state and municipalities. However, as a result of population density and the metropolitan municipality system, it is a fact that some provinces have crowded neighborhoods. The services that a neighborhood with a population of over 100,000 will receive from the district and metropolitan municipality, as well as from the district governorships and governorships as extensions of the center, only through the mukhtar and the council of elders, are due to its demographic power. The civil organization of this population for local, common needs and their participation in local politics/administration will lead to good governance.

In France, neighborhood assemblies are considered to increase local participation considerably, as in the other world examples briefly mentioned in the study. However, it

should be emphasized that no template should be universally imposed, as different local needs involve different contexts and solutions.

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