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SENSE OF SCHOOL BELONGING AMONG ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to investigate elementary school students' sense of school belonging. The Psychological Sense of School Membership Scale was administrated to 364 (174 female and 190 male) students, attending sixth-, seventh- and eighth-grade in Adana, Turkey. To analyze the gathered data, descriptive statistics were investigated and, one-way analysis of variance and t-test were performed. The findings indicated that female students had significantly higher sense of school belonging and a lower feeling of rejection in school and, significant differences were found in favor of the students who have higher academic achievement. It is also found that students who were attending to the schools that have middle and high socio-economic status have higher sense of school membership.

Keywords: *Elementary school, sense of school belonging, Psychological Sense of School Membership Scale (PSSM)*

INTRODUCTION

In almost all countries, school is one of the most important learning environments for children and adolescents. Optimizing the learning context in the school depends on the extent to which schools are able to create a positive emotional environment for their students. Positive emotional environment helps students to feel themselves as a part of their school community. A community exists when its members experience a sense of belonging or personal relatedness (Booker, 2004). In a school community, students, teachers, administrators and other members should value their group and feel that their group is valuing them. Students' feeling of being personally accepted, respected, included, and supported by others in the school called school belonging, school attachment, school commitment or school connection in the literature (Finn, 1989; Goodenow, 1993a; Goodenow and Grady, 1993). School belonging refers to students' sense of belonging or psychological membership in the school or classroom. The concept of school belonging involves support and respect for personal autonomy and for the student as an individual (Goodenow, 1993b).

Research studies show that sense of school belonging is related to numerous academic and psychological aspects of students' educational experiences (Booker, 2004). According to Osterman (2000) who emphasized the importance of belongingness in the school, students who experience acceptance are more highly motivated and engaged in learning and more committed to school. School engagement is also seen as an antidote to students' alienation from school (Fredericks, Blumenfeld and Paris, 2004). Being accepted, included, or welcomed leads to positive emotions, such as happiness, elation, contentment, and calm, while being rejected, excluded, or ignored leads to often intense negative feelings of anxiety, depression, grief,

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jealousy, and loneliness (Osterman, 2000). According to Goodenow and Grady (1993), Gutman and Midgley (2000), and Booker (2004), although feeling of school membership is important for all students, it may be an important factor in supporting academic achievement especially of disadvantaged students. When students feel themselves as an important part of their school environment, they may become less likely to dropout (Archambault, Janosz, Fallu and Pagani, 2009; Bond, Butler, Thomas, Carlin, Glover, Bowes and Patton, 2007; Finn, 1989). Sense of belonging to and acceptance in school leads students to be more likely to participate in both curricular and extracurricular activities in the classroom (Adelabu, 2007). Students who feel that they are accepted members of the school community feel a stronger social connection and, as a result, performed better academically (Booker, 2004). Sirin and Rogers-Sirin (2004) found that school engagement is one of the factors that have the strongest relation to academic performance. Israelashvili (1997) found a significant relationship between students' school membership and their future expectations. In the related literature it is also emphasized that there are reciprocal relationships between perceptions of school belonging and various educational outcomes. For example, Uwah, McMahon and Forlow (2008) stated that students who feel themselves as valued members of their school community may have more confidence in their ability to succeed in academics and, when students feel more confident and successful, they are more accepted and, subsequently, they have a higher sense of belonging to their school.

In short, a literature review show that, as stated by Anderman (2002), there is a general consensus among researchers in the field that students' sense of belonging is one of the basic psychological needs and that when this need is met, positive educational outcomes occur. However, despite of its value, very few studies about students' sense of school belonging are available in Turkish educational context. Those are Arastaman's (2006) and, Ekşioğlu, Sürücü and Arastaman's (2009) studies at high school level, and Cemalcılar's (2010) and, Özdemir, Sezgin, Şirin, Karip and Erkan's (2010) studies at elementary level. However, despite of many reform initiatives, it is still hard to say that Turkish educational system reached the level of aimed quality. Some international benchmarking studies (PISA and PIRLS) results show that Turkey's means were significantly lower than the average of the OECD countries (Akşit 2007; Alacacı and Erbaş 2010). To meet the challenges of educational settings it is essential to do many research studies in all levels of education and to consider results of these studies to improve outcomes of schooling on students' cognitive, affective, and physical domains. In fact, Turkey has a considerable body of research regarding schooling. However, even though there are many studies, in which outcomes of the schooling related to students' social and emotional developments have been investigated, by focusing mainly on high-level academic achievement and some cognitive variables, most of the research studies appears to neglect the numerous personal and social variables that influence students' learning. In this study, the main purpose is to investigate elementary school students' sense of school membership which is considered as an important predictor of school attainment and academic achievement. In this direction, the mean differences between students' psychological sense of school membership were investigated in terms of gender, grade, perceived academic achievement and schools' socio-economic status.

METHOD

Participants
Participants of the study consisted of 364 students in three elementary schools located in Adana, Turkey. While 127 students (34.9%) were at 6th grade, 101 students (27.7%) were at 7th grade and 136 students (37.4%) were at 8th grade; 174 (47.8%) of them were female and 190 (52.2%) of them were male students. The age range of the students was 11 to 16 years,

with a mean of 13.06 years, and a standard deviation of 1.10. The three schools selected for this study were at high, middle and high socio-economic status (SES) and, while 117 (32.1%) of the students were from the school with low SES, 121 (33.2%) of them were from the school with middle SES and 126 (34.6%) of them were from the school with high SES. After obtaining an official permission from the local Ministry of Education and from the administrators of each school, students were asked for their consent to take part in the study and their questionnaire returns were anonymous.

Instruments

Psychological Sense of School Membership Scale (PSSM) (Goodenow, 1993a) was used as data collection instrument in the study. This scale was developed for use specifically with early- and mid-adolescent students as a measure of their subjective sense of school membership. It assesses the extent to which students feel like an accepted, respected, and valued part of their school context. PSSM consists of 18 items that are answered on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = not at all true to 5 = completely true). Negatively worded five items (items 3, 6, 9, 12, and 16) are reverse scored. The item scores are summed and then divided by 18 to yield an average item score. The PSSM includes items that involve not only perceived liking, personal acceptance, and inclusion (e.g., "Most teachers at this school are interested in me", "I feel like a real part of this school") but also respect and encouragement for participation (e.g., "People here notice when I'm good at something", "Other students in this school take my opinions seriously") (Goodenow and Grady, 1993). Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients of the scale were ranging from .77 to .88 for different samples (Goodenow, 1993a). The PSSM scale was found to be reliable for other cultures and languages as much as the original English version. For example alpha values ranged from .71 to .94 for English versions; alpha value was .77 for Spanish version and it was .89 for Chinese version (Cheung, 2004).

The Turkish version of the PSSM scale was also found to be reliable. In adaptation of PSSM to Turkish (Sarı, in pres), similar to Chinese version's results (Cheung, 2004), while 13 positive items made up a factor (school belonging, with alpha value of .84), five negative items (feelings of rejection, with alpha value of .78) made another factor in the structure. However, these five negative items can be changed to positive and the PSSM can be used as a global factor – subjective sense of belonging in school, with Cronbach alpha value of .84 (Sarı, 2011). These two factors explained 38.49% of the total variance. In the current study Cronbach alpha of the scale was re-examined and it was found to be .81. In the related literature, while few researchers used the PSSM with its multiple-factorial structure (Adelabu, 2007; Hagborg, 1994; Uwah, McMahon and Furlow, 2008), many researchers used it as a single global factor (Mcmahon, Parnes, Keys and Viola, 2008; Israelashvili, 1997; Booker, 2004; Nichols, 2008; Tao, Iong and Wu, 2008). In this study, both total and sub-scale scores of the PSSM for the students were calculated.

Data Analysis

To investigate students' psychological sense of school membership levels, descriptive statistics were used. In addition to that, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for multi-comparisons depending on the characteristics of the independent variable. For pair-comparisons, t-test was performed. The comparisons were done on the base of both sub-scales and PSSM-total scores. When the PSSM total scores were calculated, the five negative items of the Feeling of Rejection sub-scale were reversed and the general sense of school membership of the students was calculated. While a higher score meant a higher sense of belonging for the School Belonging sub-scale and for the PSSM-total scores; a higher score meant a higher sense of rejection for the Feeling of Rejection sub-scale.

RESULTS

Sense of School Belonging in Terms Students' Gender

The mean points of the 364 students' scores obtained from the PSSM scale was found to be 3.73 (SD=0.65) for School belonging sub-scale; it was found to be 2.18 (SD=0.76) for Feeling of rejection sub-scale; and it was found to be 3.75 (SD=0.58) for the total scores of the PSSM. The t-test was applied in order to determine whether a significant difference exists between the students' sense of school belonging in terms of their genders. The descriptive statistics results obtained from different genders are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics and t-test Results of Students' PSSM Scores by Gender

Categories	Total N=364		Female n= 174		Male n= 190		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD		
School Belonging	3.73	.65	3.83	.67	3.64	.62	2.853	.005
Feeling of Rejection	2.18	.76	2.04	.75	2.31	.74	-3.485	.001
PSSM-Total Scores	3.75	.58	3.87	.59	3.65	.54	3.600	.000

As can be seen in Table 1, there were significant differences between female and male students' scores in both Sense of school belonging (M=3.83, SD=.67; M=3.64, SD=.62 for female and male students respectively) and Feeling of rejection (M=2.04, SD=.75; M=2.31, SD=.74 for female and male students respectively) subscales, and total scores of the PSSM scale (M=3.87, SD=.59; M=3.65, SD=.54 for female and male students respectively). When an independent sample t-test was run between the scores of female and male students, it was found that the female students had significantly higher sense of school belonging in terms of both school belonging subscale [t(362) = 2.853, p<.005], and total scores of the PSSM [t(362) = 3.600, p<.001]. On the other hand, male students have significantly higher level of feeling of rejection from their school [t (362) = -3.485, p<.001].

Sense of School Belonging in Terms of Students' Grade Levels

One-way analysis of variance (based on a 5% level of significance) was conducted in order to see whether students' PSSM scores differ significantly according to their grades. Table 2 shows the means, the standard deviations of the PSSM scores and one-way analysis of variance results based on students' grade levels.

Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results for PSSM Scores by Grade Level

Scale	Grade	n	M	SD	df	F	p	Description (Scheffe)
School Belonging	6	127	3.80	.57				
	7	101	3.81	.56	2	3.648	.027	6 > 8
	8	136	3.61	.75				7 > 8
Feeling of Rejection	6	127	2.16	.75				
	7	101	2.17	.72	2	.097	.908	-
	8	136	2.20	.81				
Total Score of the PSSM	6	127	3.81	.52				
	7	101	3.81	.48	2	2.736	.066	-
	8	136	3.66	.67				

ANOVA results shown that while the means of School Belonging sub-scale were 3.80 for the 6th graders, 3.81 for the 7th graders, and 3.61 for the 8th graders; the means of Feeling of Rejection sub-scale were 2.16 for the 6th graders, 2.17 for the 7th graders, and 2.20 for the 8th graders. Table 2 illustrates that the mean of the total scores of the PSSM for the 6th graders was 3.81; for the 7th graders, it was 3.81, and for the 8th graders, it was 3.66. ANOVA did not reveal any statistical differences between the Feeling of Rejection sub-scale [$F(2, 361) = .097$, $p = .908$], and PSSM total scores [$F(2, 361) = 2.736$, $p = .066$] of the students in terms of their grade levels. However, the difference between School Belonging sub-scale's scores of the students was statistically significant at .05 level regarding the students' grade levels. Scheffe test that performed to see the rationale of this difference shown that there were statistically significant differences between the scores of 6th and 8th graders, and between 7th and 8th graders in favor of the 6th and 7th graders.

Sense of School Belonging in Terms of Students' Academic Achievement Level
One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted in order to see whether students' PSSM scale scores differ significantly according to their perceived grade point average (GPA). Table 3 shows the means and the standard deviations of the PSSM scores and one-way analysis of variance results based on students' perceived GPA.

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results for PSSM Scores by GPA

Scale	Achievement	n	M	SD	df	F	p	Description (Scheffe)
School Belonging	Low	37	3.53	.60	3	12.931	.000	High > Low
	Average	79	3.49	.62				High > Average
	Upper Average	160	3.73	.60				High > Upper average
	High	88	4.05	.65				
Feeling of Rejection	Low	37	2.25	.78	3	2.766	.042	Average > High
	Average	79	2.29	.83				Upper average > High
	Upper Average	160	2.22	.69				
	High	88	1.98	.78				
Total Score of the PSSM	Low	37	3.58	.57	3	12.398	.000	High > Low
	Average	79	3.55	.55				High > Average
	Upper Average	160	3.74	.52				High > Upper average
	High	88	4.04	.60				

Table 3 reveals that the mean of School Belonging sub-scale for the students who have low GPA was 3.53; for the students who have average GPA, it was 3.49; for the students who have upper average GPA, it was 3.73; and for the students who have a high GPA, it was 4.05. In addition, Table 3 illustrates that the mean of Feeling of Rejection sub-scale for the low-achievers was 2.25; for the average-achievers, it was 2.29; for the upper-average-achievers, it was 2.22 and finally, for the high-achievers, it was 1.98. In terms of the self-reported GPAs, the mean of the PSSM total scores for the low-achievers was 3.58; for the average-achievers, it was 3.55, for upper-average-achievers, it was 3.74 and for the high-achievers, it was 4.04.

According to the results of the ANOVA, the differences between students' scores were statistically significant for both sub-scales and total scores of the PSSM regarding the participants' self-reported grade point average. In order to see the rationale of these differences Scheffe test was performed. For both School Belonging sub-scale and PSSM total scores, this analysis indicated a statistically significant difference between the scores of high-level achiever students and the low-, average- and upper-average–achiever students' scores in favor of the high-achiever students [for School Belonging sub-scale $F(3, 360) = 12.931$, $p < .001$; for the total scores $F(3, 360) = 12.398$, $p < .001$]. Scheffe test also shown that, students who had

average- and upper-average level of academic achievement also had significantly higher level of feeling of rejection from their school compared with high achiever-students [F(3, 360) =2.766, p <.05].

Students' Sense of School Belonging in Terms of Their Schools' Socio-economic Status
Table 4 illustrates the means, the standard deviations, and one-way analysis of variance results of students' PSSM Scores based on their school's socio-economic status (SES).

Table 4. Means, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results for Students' PSSM Scores by Schools' SES

Scale	SES	n	M	SD	df	F	p	Description (Scheffe)
School Belonging	Low	117	3.55	.50	2	7.173	.001	Middle > Low High > Low
	Middle	121	3.78	.67				
	High	126	3.85	.71				
Feeling of Rejection	Low	117	2.31	.67	2	2.496	.084	--
	Middle	121	2.14	.79				
	High	126	2.10	.80				
Total Score of the PSSM	Low	117	3.59	.44	2	7.599	.001	Middle > Low High > Low
	Middle	121	3.80	.60				
	High	126	3.86	.63				

According to Table 4, the lowest mean (3.55) of School Belonging sub-scale belongs to students whose school has low SES; whereas, the highest mean (3.85) belongs to students whose school has high SES. As for Feeling of Rejection sub-scale, the lowest mean (2.10) belongs to students who attend to the high SES school; whereas, the highest mean (2.31) belongs to students who attend to the low SES school. Next, for the total scores of the PSSM, the lowest mean (3.59) pertains to students who were at low SES school while the the highest mean (3.86) pertains to students who were attend to the high SES school.

According to the results of the ANOVA, the difference between students' scores at Feeling of rejection sub-scale was not statistically significant [F(2, 361) =2.496, p > .05]. However, the differences between School Belonging sub-scale's scores and PSSM total scores were statistically significant at .001 level regarding the schools' SES. Scheffe test performed to see the rationale of these differences indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the students' scores in favor of students who were attending to the schools that have middle and high SES [for School Belonging sub-scale F(2, 361) =7.171, p <.001; for the total scores F(2, 361) =7.599, p <.001].

DISCUSSION

Results demonstrated that students had an upper-average sense of school belonging (mean=3.75). This result is consistent with the results found by other researcher in different countries. For example in a study on Israeli students (Israelashvili, 1997), the mean of the PSSM found to be 3.74 for five-seven graders and 3.45 for eight-nine graders. While Hagborg (1994) found a 3.54 mean for middle and high school students in New York; Adelabu (2007) found the PSSM sub-scales means as 3.80 for School Belonging and as 3.52 for School Acceptance in a study done on African American Adolescents. However the Turkish students' mean was slightly lower than the Hong Kong and Mainland students' means (ranged from 3.99 to 4.36) found in Cheung and Hui's study (2003), and it was lower than the means found in

Cheung's (2004) study (the mean for Hong Kong students was 4.21 and for Shanghai Students it was 5.39). Considering that in the Chinese version of the PSSM, each item was rated on a six-point agreement scale, it can be said that the Turkish students' PSSM scores were similar to the scores of their counterparts in other countries. Interestingly, Turkish students' sense of rejection was also found to be lower than the means of students in other countries. For example, a comparison of Turkish students' Feeling of Rejection means (2.18) with Hong Kong, Mainland and Shangai students' means which found by Cheung and Hui (2003) and Cheung (2004), showed that Turkish students' have a lower sense of rejection in school than the students in Hong Kong. In addition, Adelabu (2007) found the mean of School rejection sub-scale as 2.52 for African American Adolescents. These results may be considered as evidence of that; Turkish students have positive feelings toward their school in general. Even though, it is obvious that Turkish students do not have a high sense of school membership.

In this study, statistically significant differences were found across gender. The differences between two groups' scores were found to be significant in favor of girls in both sub-scales of the PSSM and the total scores. This result is consistent with what others have reported in that girls felt more as they belonged to school than did boys (Adelabu, 2007; Arastaman, 2006; Cheung, 2004; Cheung and Hui, 2003; Goodenow, 1992; Goodenow and Grady, 1993; Hagborg, 1994; Nichols, 2006). Also, according to literature, girls' perceptions of quality of life in their schools are more positive than the boys. For example, Majeed, Fraser and Aldridge (2002) found that, girls perceive the quality of life of their schools more positively than boys do. In addition, Uwah, McMahon and Forlow (2008) stated that, general feelings of belonging may have greater importance for females, who tend to be more interpersonally oriented. In addition, the results found in this study may also be influenced by the traditional structure of Turkish culture. According to Sakalli and Beydogan (2002), Turkish society is accepted as highly patriarchal with clear-cut gender role differences. Therefore, the continuing perception among traditional Turkish people of education as a privilege for girls also may increases its perceived value for girls. In many areas in Turkey, education is seen as the unique opportunity to have better lives for women.

Results showed that despite of the differences between students' scores obtained from the school belonging sub-scale, there were no statistically significant differences in the total scores of the PSSM among students in terms of their grade-level. This result is also consistent with results of the studies in other countries (Anderman, 2002; Cheung, 2004; Cheung and Hui, 2003; Goodenow, 1992; Goodenow, 1993b; Hagborg, 1994; Israelashvili, 1997). Elementary education is compulsory in Turkey and most of the students attend to a single school for their eight-year elementary education. Thus, most of the students in the sample of this study had been in their school for at least six years. The result that there was no difference in students' sense of school membership in terms of grade-level might be arising from their similar long history in the school.

In this study, significant differences were found in favor of the students who have higher academic achievement. While this result was inconsistent with some result in the literature (Adelabu 2007; Booker 2004; Nichols 2008; Uwah et al., 2008), it was consistent with what others have reported (Goodenow, 1992; Hagborg, 1998a; Tao, Iong and Wu, 2008). For example, Booker (2004) found that while relationships with peers, teachers, and involvement in extracurricular activities tended to influence students' belongingness; a hierarchical linear regression analysis results showed that there was no statistically significant relationship between the sense of school belonging and academic achievement. In addition, according to Adelabu (2007), the absence of a significant relationship between school membership and academic achievement suggests a disconnection between doing well academically and feeling a

sense of belonging in the school community. On the other hand, in Hagborg's study (1998), students who have higher sense of school membership reported higher grades, more time spent on homework, and greater school motivation than did the students who have low sense of school membership. According to Uwah, McMahon and Forlow (2008), as students feel themselves to be valued members of the school environment, they may have more confidence in their ability to succeed in academics and vise versa. As stated by Cheung and Hui (2003), it may be expected that when students find themselves to be full and valued members of their school, they will put more effort and commitment into the aims and goals of the school. In addition, findings in the literature have shown that students who like school have higher academic achievement and a lower incidence of disciplinary problems, absenteeism, truancy, and dropping out of school than do those who dislike school (Hallinan, 2008). However, Osterman (2000) stated that there is little evidence demonstrating that the sense of belonging is directly related to achievement, but there is substantial evidence showing or suggesting that the sense of belonging influences achievement through its effects on engagement. She concluded the importance of the students' sense of belonging by emphasized that students who experience acceptance are more highly motivated and engaged in learning. Thus, it is quite consistent with those explanations in the field that Turkish students who have higher sense of school belonging also found to be having higher academic achievement, even with a direct or indirect relationship between these two variables. However further investigations are needed to examine more closely the nature of the relationships between students' sense of school membership and their academic achievement and related variables such as engagement, motivation, involvement in extracurricular activities, etc.

Results of the study showed that students in the school with high SES have the highest scores for school belonging sub-scale and total scores of the PSSM while they have the lowest scores for feeling of rejection sub-scale. According to Anderman (2002), although belonging is affected by school characteristics; there is a lack of studies that have examined school-level differences in perceived belonging among students. Results in Anderman's (2002) study indicated that students' perceived sense of belonging was lower in urban schools than in suburban schools where school size and student-teacher ratios are relatively low and the student population is more homogenous. According to results of a study done by Cemalcılar (2010) on Turkish students, although there were no significant differences in students' sense of school belonging by their school's SES, the analysis revealed that perceived quality of the physical environment in the school was strongly associated with the students' positive feelings towards their school. In addition, students in schools with better conditions perceive the quality of life in their school more positively (Bilgiç, 2009; Durmaz, 2008; Sarı, 2007). Thus, it can be said that, better educational conditions and resources in high SES schools may lead students to feel more positive toward their schools and to feel more satisfied with the provided opportunities. Because of these positive feelings, students may have a higher sense of school belonging than students in low SES schools do.

To conclude, elementary school students' sense of school belonging was investigated, and it was found that students' sense of school membership was upper average. In addition, it was found that female students had significantly higher sense of school belonging and a lower feeling of rejection in school and also significant differences were found in favor of students who have higher academic achievement. Based on these results of the study, it is recommended some precautions to increase the sense of school belonging in adolescent term, which is a critical period for young students should be taken. Also, it would be beneficial to carry out a series of research in which the psychological sense of school belonging is widely investigated for students in all levels of education. In addition, since this study shown that students in high SES school have higher sense of school belonging, it is recommended that school facilities

should be developed, and educational and social activities should be planned to help students feel as a valued member of and more attached to their schools. A literature review shown that, students' sense of school membership has been widely investigated in other countries. However, although school belonging appears to play a critical role in academic and psychosocial outcomes of schooling, few studies are done in the Turkish educational landscape. Therefore, it is clear that further studies in which students' sense of school belonging and related variables such as academic achievement, motivation, engagement in − and out − of class activities, provided resources in school, students' demographic and individual characteristics, and hidden curriculum of the school, etc. are deeply investigated are urgently needed in Turkish educational context.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS, ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

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ABSTRACT

This paper examined the relationships between the school administrators' leadership behavior and teachers' perceptions of organizational trust, and organizational justice. The sample of the survey model study consists of 271 high school teachers that working in the province of Kütahya in Turkey. Data is collected by "Organizational Trust Scale", "Organizational Justice Scale" and "Leadership Behavior Scale". Data is analyzed through descriptive statistics and Regression Analysis. The research findings show that teachers have positive perceptions about organizational trust, organizational justice and school administrators' leadership behaviors. There is a high correlation between school administrators' supportive leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of organizational justice and perceptions of trust to administrator. There is a moderate positive correlation between school administrators' supportive leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of organizational justice and trust in colleagues and trust in stakeholders. Supportive leadership and organizational justice are significant predictors of teachers' perceptions of organizational trust. Supportive leadership and organizational justice explain nearly two thirds of perception of trust to administrator, nearly one third of perception of trust in colleagues and nearly one fifth of perception of trust in stakeholders.

Keywords: Leadership, organizational justice, organizational trust

INTRODUCTION

Parallel with the developments of theories of administration, vital importance of human resources for organizations is gradually understood and the number of relevant studies are constantly increasing. Instead of human values in administration, which were once ignored or given secondary importance, human-centered contemporary theories to account employees' feelings, views, values, culture and needs were developed (Bursalıoğlu, 2003). According to these theories, employees' perceptions of organizational life are crucial and must be evaluated, because organizations and employees are in mutual need. In organizational life, as in social life, individuals expect their needs to be met in return for their contributions to organizations.

One of the most important needs of employees is need for trust, because trust is a binding power in interpersonal relationships. Maslow, known as the father of hierarchy of needs theory in motivation, suggests trust is the second most essential need after physiological needs, which confirms such a claim. Trust, which could be defined as individuals' beliefs in those in mutual interaction without any fear, hesitation or doubt (Lewicki, and Bunker, 1996; Meyerson, Weick, and Kramer, 1996; Mishra, 1996; Hoy, and Miskel, 2010), is an indispensible part of

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organizational life. Particularly in educational organizations, administrator-teacher, teacher-teacher, teacher-parent, teacher-student mutual trust or mistrust perception appears to have positive or negative impacts on organizational functioning. A safe environment contributes much for organizational development and brings increased effectiveness (Lewicki, and Bunker, 1996; Cooper, and Sawaf, 1997; Tschannen-Moran, and Hoy, 1998; Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

Trust is the basis of intraorganizational interaction and guides interpersonal relationships. In a safe environment, individuals make sure that they will not suffer even in daily interactions (Özdil, 2005; Memduhoğlu, and Zengin, 2010). As a result, employees do not refrain from risk taking and new ideas and behaviors (Cooper, and Sawaf, 1997; Lewicki, McAllister, and Bies, 1998). In organizations with high trust levels, an explicit organizational climate occurs, fears and uncertainties disappear, responsibilities are shared, employees tend to collaborate, conflicts and turnover rates decrease (Asanakutlu, 2007; Polat, 2009; Memduhoğlu, and Zengin, 2010). At the same time, relationships between school administrators, teachers, parents and students based on trust increase student achievement (Hoy, Tarter, and Witkoskie, 1992; Hoy, and Miskel, 2010). Employees' organizational trust is shaped according to behaviors of other individuals or groups with who they are in direct or indirect interaction in organizations.

When the related literature is reviewed, it is clear that there are different classifications of dimensions of organizational trust. In this research, dimensions of organizational trust are defined as "trust in administrator", "trust in colleagues", and " trust in stakeholders" since the purpose of research is to determine teachers' trust levels (Hoy, and Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Yılmaz, 2004, 2006, 2009; Samancı-Kalaycı, 2007). These dimensions are briefly summarized below (Yılmaz, 2009):

Trust in administrator: This dimension associates with behaviors such as teachers' trust in school administrators' honesty, fulfillment of promises by school administrators, steady teacher-administrator relationships, concerns with problems of employees and confidentiality of employees' personal and private information. *Trust in colleagues:* This dimension associates with teachers' trust in other colleagues, teachers' obvious, steady behaviors with certain commitment, teachers' beliefs in statements of colleagues and confidentiality in conversations. *Trust in stakeholders:* This dimension associates with teachers' beliefs in students, parents, work of students, support of parents, and statements of students and parents and so on.

Employees' organizational trust levels are influenced by various variables and affect many variables (Polat, 2007). The purpose of research examined the relationships between the school administrators' leadership behavior and teachers' perceptions of organizational trust, and organizational justice. Specifically, the study examined whether, and to what extent, school administrators' leadership behavior and organizational justice predict variation in the organizational trust levels of teachers.

The term organizational justice associates with employees' perceptions of organizational justice (Greenberg, 1990, 1996; Moorman, 1991; Eskew, 1993; Altınkurt, 2010; Karademir, and Çoban, 2010). As organizational justice is employees' perception of justice in organizational distribution, procedure, and interaction, they have certain criteria in defining such a perception and use these criteria to see justice in behaviors towards them. In the literature, organizational justice is generally taken under the dimensions of "distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice". *Distributive justice* reflects employees' perceptions of distribution of sources in organizational life. *Procedural justice* is employees' perception of justice in procedures included in source distribution. *Interactional justice* highlights the quality of interpersonal relationships in organizations. Still, over the past years,

there has been a holistic approach in organizational justice studies, instead of analysis based on dimensions (Yılmaz, 2010). Colquitt, Greenberg, and Zapata-Phelan (2005) suggest that today's researchers tend to develop models or theories which attempt to discuss organizational justice in all aspects with a holistic approach. Besides, in meta analysis studies, it is highlighted that correlations between the sub-dimensions of organizational justice are not defined by research (Colquitt et al., 2001). Therefore, a holistic approach is preferred in the present study.

One of the fit factors of employees' organizational trust level is administrators' leadership behaviors. A leader is the person who affects organizational members through power and influence (Başaran, 1992; Çelik, 2003). Hence, the way leaders manage organizations or leadership behaviors absolutely affect employees' positive or negative organizational perceptions. According to House and Evans's Path-Goal theory, there are four main types of leadership behavior (Çelik, 2003). These are namely "directive leadership, supportive leadership, participative leadership and representative leadership". In Path-Goal Theory of Leadership, directive and supportive leadership behavior levels displayed by administrators show the type of leadership. In *directive leadership*, a high level of directive behavior is observed as well as a low level supportive behavior. In *supportive leadership*, a high level of supportive behavior is observed as well as a low level of directive behavior. In *representative leadership*, a low level of supportive behavior is observed as well as a low level of directive behavior. Finally, in *participative leadership*, a high level of directive behavior is observed as well as a high level of supportive behavior (Hodgetts, and Kuratko, 1999).

Directive leadership might be considered as autocratic leadership. Leaders with such behaviors tend to observe anything that teachers do, control their activities, make decisions on their own, closely monitor teachers (Turan, 1998) and use rather legal power. Supportive leadership behavior includes creating a warm environment and considering employees' needs and preferences (Hoy, and Miskel, 2010). Supportive leadership includes task appreciation, support employees, constructive criticism, support and engagement in new ideas, and employee involvement in decision making (Yılmaz, 2002).

When the studies in the literature are reviewed, it is apparent that the relationship between organizational trust and various variables is examined. These variables are *organizational justice* (Alexander, and Ruderman, 1987; Niehoff, and Moorman, 1993; Cohen-Charash, and Spector, 2001; Günaydın, 2001; İşbaşı, 2001; Polat, 2007; Polat, and Celep, 2008; Yılmaz, Karaköse, and Altınkurt, 2009), *leadership behaviors* (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter 1990; Padsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer, 1996; Hoy, and Sabo, 1998; Pillai, Scandura, and Williams, 1999; Francisco, 2000; Arslantaş, and Pekdemir, 2007), and *organizational citizenship* (De Luga, 1995; İşbaşı, 2001; Kamer, 2001; Samancı-Kalaycı, 2007; Yılmaz, 2009). The purpose of research examined the relationships between the school administrators' leadership behavior and teachers' perceptions of organizational trust, and organizational justice. Specifically, the study examined whether, and to what extent, school administrators' leadership behavior and organizational justice predict variation in the organizational trust levels of teachers. To this end, the following questions were answered:

1. What are high school teachers' perceptions about high school administrators' leadership behaviors, organizational justice and organizational trust?
2. Are school administrators' leadership behaviors and organizational justice significant predictors of organizational trust levels of teachers?

METHOD

The research was a survey model. The research attempted to define the current relationship between the school administrators' leadership behaviors and teachers' perception of organizational justice and organizational trust.

Participants

The population of the study consisted of 663 high school teachers in the province of Kütahya in the 2009–2010 academic year. Cohran's sample size formula was used to calculate the sample size and it was found that 243 individuals were needed for a 95% trust level. It was decided to receive 300 teachers' perceptions, taking a lower expected rate of return into account. The participants were randomly chosen. 280 questionnaires were returned. The rate of return for the data collection tools was 93.33%. 271 eligible data collection tools were used for analysis. Thus the sample of study consists 271 high school teachers that working in the province of Kütahya. 43.9% (n=119) of the participants were female, 56.1% (n=152) were male. The participants' ages ranged from 25 to 56. The percentage of those in the age range of 30 years and below was 15.1 (n=41), those in the age range of 31–35 years was 31.5 (n=85), those in the age range of 36–40 years was 25.5 (n=69) and those in the age range of 41 years and above was 28 (n=76). Because of the variety of branch, the participants were divided into two groups: culture course teachers (n=239) and vocational course teachers (n=32). The branch of all of teachers was considered as culture, except for those at vocational schools. The percentage of those in the experience range of 1–10 years was 36.2 (n=98), those in the experience range of 11–20 years was 43.9 (n=119), those in the experience range of 21 years and above was 19.9 (n=54). 23.6 (n=64) of the teachers were from general high schools, 30.3% (n=82) of them were from vocational high schools, and 46.1% (n=125) of them were from Anatolian-Science high schools.

Instruments

"Leadership Behavior Scale", "Organizational Justice Scale" and "Organizational Trust Scale" were used for data collection. *Leadership Behavior Scale* was a 14 item scale which consisted of two sub-dimensions: Supportive Leadership Behavior Subscale and Directive Leadership Behavior Subscale. Leadership Behavior Scale was developed by Yılmaz (2002) and reliability and validity studies were carried out. Reliability coefficients of the scale were as follows: 0.79 for Supportive Leadership Behavior Subscale and 0.78 for Directive Leadership Behavior Subscale. The 14 items in "Leadership Behavior Scale" collectively explained 55% of total variance. The answer sheet of the scale was as follows: 1-I totally disagree, 2-I disagree, 3-I moderately agree, 4-I agree and 5-I totally agree. Increases in the subscale scores showed that administrators highly displayed leadership behavior in the related dimension.

The initial form of *Organizational Justice Scale* was developed by Hoy and Tarter (2004) and it was adapted to Turkish language by Taşdan and Yılmaz (2008). The scale was used by Yılmaz (2010) on high school teachers and reliability and validity studies were carried out again. Accordingly, the scale was a 10-item Likert type scale and it had a single dimension. Total variance explained by that single dimension was 53. Factor loadings of the scale items ranged from 0.39 to 0.87. A factor loading at least of 0.30 was taken as a criterion for factor analysis. Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was 0.88 (Yılmaz, 2010). The answer sheet of the scale was as follows: 1-I totally disagree, 2-I disagree, 3-I moderately agree, 4-I agree and 5-I totally agree. High scale scores showed positive perceptions of organizational justice (Hoy, and Tarter, 2004).

Organizational Trust Scale was developed by Yılmaz (2006) and reliability and validity studies were carried out. The scale consisted of three sub-dimensions (trust in administrator, trust in colleagues and trust in stakeholders) and totally 22 items. Reliability coefficients of the scale were found respectively as follows: 0.89 for Trust to Administrator Subscale, 0.87 for Trust in Colleagues Subscale, and 0.82 for Trust in Stakeholders Subscale. Total variance explained by the whole scale was 45.31% and Cronbach-Alpha reliability coefficient was 0.92. The answer sheet of the scale was as follows: 1-Never, 2-Rarely, 3-Sometimes, 4-Mostly and 5-Always. Total scale scores showed the level of participants' perceptions about organizational trust at high schools. A high score from each factor showed a high feeling of trust, and a low score showed a low feeling of trust.

Data Analysis
Descriptive statistics were used to explain the teachers' perceptions. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis was used to determine whether administrators' leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of organizational justice significantly predicted teachers' organizational trust. A correlation coefficient as an absolute value ranging from 0.70 to 1.00 was considered as a high correlation, a correlation value ranging from 0.69 to 0.30 was considered as a moderate correlation, a correlation value ranging from 0.29 to 0.00 was considered as a low correlation (Büyüköztürk, 2002).

RESULTS

In this section, the high school teachers' perceptions about school administrators' leadership behaviors, organizational justice, and organizational trust levels were taken. Then, specifically, the study examined whether, and to what extent, school administrators' leadership behavior and organizational justice predict variation in the organizational trust levels of teachers.

The high school teachers' perceptions about school administrators' leadership behaviors were closer to "I agree" ($\bar{x}$=3.83, S=0.72) in the dimension of supportive leadership and to "I moderately agree" ($\bar{x}$=3.18, S=0.55) in the dimension of directive leadership. The most agreed item in the dimension of supportive leadership was "School administrators set examples for the staff because of their hard work" ($\bar{x}$=3.98, S=0.81) and the least agreed item was "School administrators are open to teachers in need after school" ($\bar{x}$=3.68, S=0.97). The most agreed item in the dimension of directive leadership was "School administrators closely control teachers' activities" ($\bar{x}$=3.79, S=0.84) and the least agreed item was "School administrators are self opinionated leaders" ($\bar{x}$=2.39, S=1.24).

The participants' perceptions of organizational justice were high. The participants perceptions (n=258, $\bar{x}$=3.89, S=0.81) were closer to "I agree". The most agreed item was "School administrators respect and appreciate everyone" ($\bar{x}$=4.09, S=0.86) and the least agreed item was "There is no preferential treatment at school" ($\bar{x}$=3.64, S=1.08).

The teachers' perceptions about organizational trust were closer to "mostly" in the dimensions of trust in colleagues ($\bar{x}$=3.85, S=0.66), trust in administrator ($\bar{x}$=3.81, S=0.55), and to "sometimes" ($\bar{x}$=3.54, S=0.66) in the dimension of trust in stakeholders. When total trust scores were considered, the teachers' perceptions were closer to "mostly" ($\bar{x}$=3.74, S=0.52). The most agreed item in the dimension of trust to administrator was "I trust school administrator's honesty" ($\bar{x}$=4.21, S=0.76) and the least agreed item was "School administrators share personal information with teachers" ($\bar{x}$=2.49, S=1.06). The most agreed item in the dimension of trust in colleagues was "I trust other teachers at school" ($\bar{x}$=4.08, S=0.76) and the least agreed item was "I believe conversations in teachers' room are

confidential" ($\overline{x}$=3.54, S=1.01). The most agreed item in the dimension of trust in stakeholders was "I trust what students do" ($\overline{x}$=43.72, S=0.784) and the least agreed item was "Students do not cheat teachers even when they have a chance" ($\overline{x}$=3.26, S=1.06).

The secondary purpose of research was to examine whether, and to what extent, school administrators' leadership behavior and organizational justice predict variation in the organizational trust levels of teachers. In the study, the sub-dimensions of organizational trust were taken as the predicted variable. Within this framework, hierarchical regression analysis was applied. In the analysis, the variables were involved in regression analysis in three groups. In the first model, the impact of school administrators' leadership behaviors was examined, and in the second model, the impact of organizational justice perceptions was tested. In the third model, all of the variables in both models were involved in the analysis. Hierarchical regression analysis results of predictive variables of organizational trust perception are given in the tables below.

Table 1. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results of Predictive Factors of Perception of Trust in Administrator

Model	Inconstant	B	Standard Error	β	T	p	Zero-order r	Partial r
1	Constant	1.766	0.148	-	11.938	0.00	-	-
	Supportive leadership	0.613	0.029	0.807	21.127	0.00	0.79	0.79
	Directive leadership	-0.095	0.038	-0.095	-2.495	0.01	0.07	-0.15
	$R=0.79$, $R^2=0.63$, $F_{(2-268)}= 225.3$, $p=0.00$							
2	Constant	1.554	0.122	-	12.786	0.00	-	-
	Organizational justice	0.579	0.031	0.756	18.919	0.00	0.76	0.76
	$R=0.76$, $R^2=0.57$, $F_{(1-269)}=357.9$, $p=0.00$							
3	Constant	1.326	0.154	-	8.621	0.00	-	-
	Supportive leadership	0.394	0.143	0.519	9.088	0.00	0.79	0.32
	Directive leadership	-0.032	0.037	-0.032	-0.854	0.394	0.07	-0.03
	Organizational justice	0.276	0.043	0.360	6.454	0.00	0.76	0.22
	$R=0.82$, $R^2=0.68$, $F_{(3-267)}=186.9$, $p=0.00$							

As it is clear from Table 1, Model 1 ($R=0.79$, $R^2=0.63$, $p<0.01$) and Model 2 ($R=0.76$, $R^2=0.57$, $p<0.01$) were important predictors of the perception of trust in administrator. Model 1 individually explained 63% of the perception of trust to administrator, and Model 2 explained 57% of the perception of trust in administrator. Model 3, which was designed to see the predictive power of school administrators' leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of organizational justice on trust to administrator was also significant ($R=0.82$, $R^2=0.68$, $p<0.01$). The first and the second model together explained 68% of the perception of trust to administrator. Involving organizational justice in regression analysis made a contribution of 5% to explained variance. According to the standardized regression coefficient (β), relative order of importance of the predictive variables on trust to administrator was as follows: supportive leadership and organizational justice. When t test results of significance of regression analysis coefficients were considered, it was seen that both supportive leadership and organizational justice were predictors of teachers' perception of organizational trust. However, directive leadership behavior did not have an important influence on the perception of trust to administrator. According to the obtained findings, regression equation of trust to administrator was as follows:

Perception of Trust to Administrator = 1.326 + 0.39 Supportive Leadership - 0.03 Directive Leadership + 0.28 Perception of Organizational Justice

In Table 2, Hierarchical Regression Analysis results of predictive factors of perception of trust in colleagues are presented.

Table 2. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results of Predictive Factors of Perception of Trust in Colleagues

Model	Inconstant	B	Standard Error	β	T	p	Zero-order r	Partial r
1	Constant	2.061	0.250	-	8.237	0.00	-	-
	Supportive Leadership	0.445	0.049	0.492	9.066	0.00	0.48	0.48
	Directive Leadership	0.028	0.065	0.023	0.428	0.67	0.13	0.02
	$R=0.50$, $R^2=0.25$, $F_{(2-268)}=44.0$, $p=0.00$							
2	Constant	1.967	0.187	-	10.504	0.00	-	-
	Organizational Justice	0.484	0.047	0.531	10.268	0.00	0.53	0.53
	$R=0.53$, $R^2=0.28$, $F_{(1-269)}=105.4$, $p=0.00$							
3	Constant	1.478	0.268	-	5.516	0.00	-	-
	Supportive Leadership	0.155	0.076	0.171	2.048	0.04	0.50	0.12
	Directive Leadership	0.112	0.064	0.094	1.744	0.08	0.13	0.11
	Organizational Justice	0.366	0.074	0.401	4.915	0.00	0.53	0.29
	$R=0.58$, $R^2=0.31$, $F_{(3-267)}=12.3$, $p=0.00$							

As it is clear from Table 2, Model 1 ($R=0.50$, $R^2=0.25$, $p<0.01$) and Model 2 ($R=0.53$, $R^2=0.28$, $p<0.01$) were important predictors of the perception of trust in colleagues. Model 1 explained 25% of the perception of trust in colleagues and Model 2 explained 28% of the perception of trust in colleagues. Model 3, which was designed to see the predictive power of school administrators' leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of organizational justice on trust in colleagues was also significant ($R=0.58$, $R^2=0.31$, $p<0.01$).

The first and the second model together explained 31% of the perception of trust to administrator. Involving organizational justice in regression analysis made a contribution of 6% to explained variance. According to the standardized regression coefficient (β), relative order of importance of the predictive variables on trust in colleagues was as follows: organizational justice and supportive leadership. When t test results of significance of regression analysis coefficients were considered, it was seen that both supportive leadership and organizational justice were predictors of teachers' perception of trust in colleagues. However, directive leadership behavior did not have an important influence on the perception of trust in colleagues. According to the obtained findings, regression equation of trust in colleagues was as follows:

Perception of Trust in Colleagues = 1.478 + 0.16 Supportive Leadership + 0.11 Directive Leadership + 0.37 Perception of Organizational Justice

In Table 3, Hierarchical Regression Analysis results of predictive factors of perception of trust in stakeholders are presented.

Table 3. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results of Predictive Factors of Perception of Trust in Stakeholders

Model	Inconstant	B	Standard Error	β	T	p	Zero-order r	Partial r
1	Constant	2.220	0.258	-	8.612	0.00	-	-
	Supportive Leadership	0.421	0.051	0.464	8.323	0.00	0.45	0.45
	Directive Leadership	-0.092	0.067	-0.077	-1.381	0.17	0.02	-0.08
	R=0.45, R^2=0.21, $F_{(2-268)}$= 34.7, p=0.00							
2	Constant	2.120	0.203	-	10.431	0.00	-	-
	Organizational Justice	0.364	0.051	0.398	7.115	0.00	0.40	0.40
	R=0.40, R^2=0.16, $F_{(1-269)}$=50.6, p=0.00							
3	Constant	2.055	0.287	-	7.155	0.00	-	-
	Supportive Leadership	0.339	0.081	0.373	4.183	0.00	0.45	0.25
	Directive Leadership	-0.068	0.069	-0.057	-0.986	0.32	0.02	-0.06
	Organizational Justice	0.103	0.080	0.113	1.294	0.19	0.40	0.08
	R=0.46, R^2=0.21, $F_{(3-267)}$=23.761, p=0.00							

As it is clear from Table 3, 2, Model 1 (*R=0.45, R^2=0.21, p<0.01*) and Model 2 (*R=0.40, R^2=0.16, p<0.01) were* important predictors of the perception of trust in stakeholders. Model 1 explained 21% of the perception of trust in colleagues and Model 2 explained 16% of the perception of trust in stakeholders. Model 3, which was designed to see the predictive power of school administrators' leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of organizational justice on trust in stakeholders was also significant (*R=0.46, R^2=0.21, p<0.01).* The first and the second model together explained 21% of the perception of trust in stakeholders. According to the standardized regression coefficient (β), relative order of importance of the predictive variables on trust in stakeholders was as follows: organizational justice and supportive leadership. When t test results of significance of regression analysis coefficients were considered, it was seen that both supportive leadership and organizational justice were predictors of teachers' perception of trust in stakeholders. However, directive leadership behavior did not have an important influence on the perception of trust in colleagues. According to the obtained findings, regression equation of trust in colleagues was as follows:

Perception of Trust in Colleagues = 1.478 + 0.16 Supportive Leadership + 0.11 Directive Leadership + 0.37 Perception of Organizational Justice

DISCUSSION

The perceptions of the high school teachers included in the study about school administrators' leadership behaviors were closer to "I agree" in the dimension of supportive leadership, and to "I moderately agree" in the dimension of directive leadership. The teachers thought that school administrators displayed supportive leadership behaviors more than directive leadership behaviors. Yet, there was not a big difference between the perceptions of directive leadership behaviors and supportive leadership behaviors. Thus, they saw school administrators as neither supportive nor directive leaders. This finding was parallel to the previous research results (Yılmaz, 2002, 2004; Çankaya, and Aküzüm, 2010).

It was found that the teachers included in the study had positive perceptions about organizational justice. Similar results were obtained from the previous studies in Turkey (Ünal, 2003; Atalay, 2005; Polat, 2007; Polat, and Celep, 2008; Yılmaz, and Taşdan, 2009; Yılmaz et. al., 2009; Titrek, 2009; Yılmaz, 2010). Therefore, the research findings were similar to those from the previous studies. A positive perception of organizational justice is crucial for

organizations and employees because such a positive perception makes employees feel that they are respectable and valuable members of the organization, helps them establish compatible relationships based on trust with other employees, while injustice brings negative behaviors which hinder goal attainment (Folger, and Konovski, 1989; Beugre, 2002; Özmen, Arbak, and Özer, 2007; Tansky, 1993; Balay, 2000; İşbaşı, 2001).

The teachers included in the study had positive perceptions about organizational trust, as well. The high school teachers trusted their colleagues the most. Next, they trusted their administrators. They trusted stakeholders the least. Trust in colleagues and trust to administrator levels were high, whereas trust in stakeholders was almost moderate. The research findings were similar to those of the studies in the literature (Arslan, 2009; Çokluk, and Yılmaz, 2008; Yılmaz, 2006; Polat, 2007; Polat, and Celep, 2008; Özer et al., 2006; Samancı-Kalaycı, 2007; Yılmaz, 2009), but a study by Yılmaz (2009) was different from the others because Yılmaz (2009) attempted to define levels of organizational trust perceptions of teachers at private teaching institutions. Private teaching institutions are one of the most problematic educational organizations in Turkey (Gök, 2005). In the other studies, trust in colleagues and trust to administrator levels were generally close to one another, while in Yılmaz's (2009) study, trust in colleagues was the lowest at a moderate level. Yılmaz (2009) explained that mistrust in colleagues was caused by teachers' contract status at private teaching institutions which led to a competitive environment. It was found in the research that teachers in state high schools did not suffer from such a competitive environment and they trusted one another because of their job security in state schools. As a result, it might be suggested that job loss risk is an important factor of employees' trust perceptions. Employees' high trust to administrator is a pretty positive factor because the ways employees perceive administrators affect organizational perceptions. They may tend to generalize administrators' behaviors to organizations. Hence, trust or mistrust to administrator affects organizational trust or mistrust (Deluga, 1994; Konovsky, and Pugh, 1994; Tan, and Tan, 2000; Galford, and Drapeau, 2003; Polat, 2007; Yılmaz, 2009; Hoy, and Miskel, 2010). In this sense, school administrators have important responsibilities for creating, maintaining and improving an environment of trust in organizations. They particularly need to work through trust in stakeholders observed at lower levels because the research concluded that teachers did not always trust students and parents. This mistrust might be caused by inefficient school-parent interactions. Attempts by school administrators to involve parents in education process will contribute to improved organizational trust levels.

The research also examined the relationships between teachers' perceptions of organizational trust and school administrators' leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of organizational justice. In the study, the sub-dimensions of organizational trust were taken as the predicted variable. There was a high correlation between school administrators' supportive leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of organizational justice and trust to administrator. There was a moderate positive correlation between school administrators' supportive leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of organizational justice and trust in colleagues and trust in stakeholders. Supportive leadership and organizational justice were important predictors of teachers' perceptions of organizational trust. Supportive leadership and organizational justice explained nearly two thirds of the perception of trust to administrator, nearly one third of the perception of trust in colleagues and nearly one fifth of the perception of trust in stakeholders. When the literature is reviewed, it is accepted that there is an important relationship between supportive leadership and trust (Padsakoff et al., 1996; Francisco, 2000; Yılmaz, 2004) and between organizational justice and trust (Alexander, and Ruderman, 1987; Greenberg, 1990; Pillai et al., 1999; Cohen-Charash, and Spector, 2001; Hoy, and Tarter, 2004; Polat, 2007). In the study, relative order of importance of the predictive variables on trust to

administrator was as follows: supportive leadership and organizational justice. The order of on trust in colleagues and trust in stakeholders was as follows: organizational justice and supportive leadership. However, directive leadership behavior did not have an important influence on organizational trust perceptions. Generally, teachers do not want school administrators to display authoritative behaviors. Authoritative behaviors of administrators do not affect teachers' perceptions of organizational trust in a positive way. On the other hand, supportive leadership behaviors increase employees' organizational trust and commitment (Bennis, 1999; Kolamaz, 2007) Educational organizations, by nature, are organizations where administrators need to display supportive leadership behaviors. Such organizations are loose organizations and employees' educational backgrounds are high and similar. Supportive leadership behaviors are eligible for those with high educational backgrounds. It is a fact that directive leadership behavior is not effective in these organizations (Çelik, 2003), which is also confirmed by the research results. In addition, role-model behaviors of teachers and administrators in interactions based on democratic values in these organizations which aim to attain desirable behaviors are needed. In particular, school administrators, as supportive leaders, need to become leaders who appreciate efforts, help teachers, explain reasons of criticisms and make constructive criticisms (Yılmaz, 2002, 2004). Increases in school administrators' such behaviors will contribute to improved organizational justice perceptions and bring higher organizational trust because employees' perceptions of organizational trust are rather affected by administrators' behaviors (Hoy, and Tarter, 2004; Polat, 2007) and followers of leaders contribute to organizations when and if they trust administrators (Hoy, and Miskel, 2010).

In order to generalize the research results, similar studies in different countries, provinces and regions are needed. Consequently, the obtained findings could be compared to those of further research. Also, further studies on relationships between leadership behaviors rather than supportive leadership behaviors and directive leadership behaviors and organizational trust, organizational citizenship, organizational justice and organizational culture are needed.

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THE EFFECT OF WEB BASED INSTRUCTION ON STUDENTS' WEB PEDAGOGICAL CONTENT KNOWLEDGE, COURSE ACHIEVEMENT AND GENERAL COURSE SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

The main aim of this research is to determine the effect of web based instruction on students' web pedagogical content knowledge, academic achievement and the general satisfaction of the course. The study was planned and completed according to pre test and post test with control group experimental design. The study was carried out on 29 students. The web content knowledge of the students in both group showed significant change after the experimental procedure. The web pedagogical content knowledge and the attitudes towards web based instruction of the experiment group were found to be higher than control group after the course. Also the academic achievement of experiment group was higher than control group and there was no difference in course satisfaction.

Keywords*: Web Based Instruction, Web Pedagogical Content Knowledge, Achievement, General Course Satisfaction.*

INTRODUCTION

Internet has become one of the most popular means of communication today. So that according to the data obtained on 31 March 2011, 30.2% percent of the whole world, 58.3% of Europe and 44.4% of Turkey are actively using the internet. The number of total internet users in the World is 2,095,006,005. This number is 476,213,935 in Europe and 35,000,000 in Turkey. The increase in the number of internet users between 2000 and 2011 is 480.4% (Internet World Stats, 2011). As seen from the data the use of internet is increasing every day. Internet is used in every walk of life which eases the everyday life to a great extent. In other word internet has become one of the indispensable tools of human life.

Today internet facilitates the new knowledge to be acquired by the investigation and application of its rich and multiple media. Internet enables to learn both cultural and individual knowledge in both conceptual and applied forms (Holmes & Gardner, 2006).

One of the most widely used applications of internet is web based instruction (WBI). WBI was first applied in the colleges, universities and the big companies of the US in 1997 and within two years time 10% of whole colleges and universities and %25 of the firms put their courses on internet. In 2001 these ratios reached to 80% for the colleges and the universities and 60 % for the firms (Lynch, 2002). In 2005 the number of students following courses on WBI reached to 3.6 million which marked an increase of 360,000 people compared to the previous

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year. 2.6 million of these come from non graduate universities (Allen & Seaman, 2006). This number reached to 4.6 million in 2008 (Allen & Seaman, 2010). In Turkey 10 universities apply this procedure. These developments show that WBI is a very strong medium for teaching and learning and it is more likely to be used in much wider fashion in future.

This widespread use of WBI is largely due to effective use of web tools which support the learning process. Among these tools are the www pages, e-mails, forum etc. (Horton, 2000). WBI provides everyone the learning opportunity at everywhere and at anytime. This is especially useful for those young and old people who wish to pursue a lifelong learning process or those who wish to develop themselves.

In WBI there are so many opportunities for both the teachers and the learners (Aggarwal, 2000). The ease of WBI applications has brought the idea that it may be much more effective than conventional learning process. When we examine the research carried out on WBI it is seen that they largely dwelled upon the their effectiveness as regards to success rate, rate of dropping the course and the attitudes and the skill of the tools used compared to the conventional face to face instruction (Bekele, 2010; Bekele & Menchaca, 2008; Finlay, Desmet & Evans, 2004; Jung, Seonghee, Lim & Leem, 2002; Moore & Kearsley, 1996; Simonson, Smaldino, Albright & Zvacek, 2006).

These comparisons are not limited to WBI. Verduin & Clark (1994) investigated the studies carried out the success and satisfaction up to 1990. They approximately investigated 50 studies and it was seen that they were mainly related to the comparison of the traditional education to those distance education with TV, computer, video and mail. The success and the course satisfaction are the two important parameters in these studies. Bekele's (2010) study where investigated the studies carried out on WBI, found that the effect of WBI on success and satisfaction were not clearly demonstrated or insufficiently addressed. Therefore there was an urgent need of the investigation of WBI as regards to success and satisfaction.

The students and the teachers who participated in to the WBI are supposed to have computational skills. The teachers must have additional skill of using these tools in the education. It is therefore necessary that the pre-service teachers should be furnished with pedagogically constructed knowledge of web and its technological use (Cox, 2008; Mishra & Kohler, 2006, 2007, 2009; Mishra, Koehler & Kereluik, 2009; Schmidt et al., 2009a; 2009b; 2009c). The biggest difference in web use is that it includes some other technologies so it should be constructed differently. Lee & Tsai, (2010) and Lee, Tsai & Chang (2008) described the web technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPCK-W). The TPCK-W was developed by the use of Shulman's (1986) pedagogical content and Mishra & Koehler's (2006) technological pedagogical content knowledge.

The TPCK-W was established by joining the pedagogical content which the teachers are supposed to have and the knowledge of web use. It has four main components as web knowledge, web content knowledge, web pedagogical knowledge and web pedagogical content knowledge (Lee & Tsai, 2010; Lee Tsai & Chang, 2008).

There are three main components in TPCK-W namely content, pedagogy and web knowledge. The content and pedagogy knowledge are the same as the technology content knowledge. The web knowledge includes the general knowledge such as the use of web tools and web based communication. As result of the interaction of the content, pedagogy and the web there are four components. The first one is the pedagogical content knowledge which is as same as technological pedagogical content knowledge. The web content knowledge is the necessary

knowledge to understand the advantages of the web use and its properties. The web content knowledge does not only include the knowledge of the pure content but also covers the integration to the applications. The knowledge of web pedagogy includes the web facilities and their components that the teachers use in their teaching media. The TPCK-W means the knowledge of WBI (Lee & Tsai, 2010). In the realization of WBI the courses of the TPCK-W and the investigation of the effect of these courses are of utmost importance (Lee & Tsai, 2010; Lee, Tsai & Chang, 2008; Schmidt et al., 2009b; 2009c). Lee & Tsai found in their study they carried out in 2010 that the TPCK-W of the participant is closely related to their previous web and the web application experiences. All these findings constituted the base of the assumption that WBI will increase the TPCK-W of the students.

The literature review revealed that there was often contradictory data related to the comparison of WBI with face to face instruction regarding to success and satisfaction and there were very little studies on TPCK-W. The purpose of this study is that to reveal whether there was any difference between the success rate and the general satisfaction of the students who take the course of internet aided education (IAE), which was directed to increase the computational skills of the pre-service teachers, though internet or face to face instruction.

METHOD

Model

The research was based upon pre-post test with control group experimental design model (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). In the model there is one randomly choose control and one randomly choose experiment group. The measurements are made before and after the experimental procedure.

Participants

The research was conducted by 32 out of 40 students who were studying in the third year of Computer and Instructional Technologies Department of The Education Faculty of Sakarya University in the 2010–2011 academic years who regularly attended the IAE selective course. The attending students were randomly divided into two groups of 16 students as control and experiment groups. The students in the experiment group were able to follow the content through internet while the students in the control group were subjected to a face to face instruction. Two students in the experiment and one student in the control group were discarded from the study since they were not able to attend one week of the four week activities. Therefore the study was carried out by 29 students.

Instruments

In the research a success test, TPCK-W and a general satisfaction scale were used. The success test was developed by the researcher. There were 20 multiple questions. The test was the final exam of the previous year. The tests' data obtained final exam and were used in the analyses. After the analysis the item difficulty index of the test was found to be 0.47 and the average item discriminating index was determined as 0.43. The KR-21 value by the use of formulas was .67.

TPCK-W was developed by Lee, Tsai and Chang (2008) and adapted to Turkish by Horzum (2011). Both the original and the adapted scale were consisted of 5 factor containing 30 items. The "web general" factor of the scale contain 5, "web communicative" factor has 4, "web content knowledge" factor was formed by 5 , "web pedagogical content knowledge" factor was made by 8 and "the attitude toward the web-based instruction" factor included 6 items.

The 30 items scale was found to have an Eigen value of 22.75, the total variance which it can explain of 75.8 and Cronbach Alfa internal consistence value of .94.

The general course satisfaction scale was based upon on 5 Likert with 14 items after discussing with the experts and investigating the literature (Askar, Dönmez, Kızılkaya, Çevik, and Gültekin, 2005; Gunawerdana and Zittle, 1997; Johnston, Killion, & Oomen, 2005; Mellema, Smart, Shull & Salmona, 2009). The validity of the scale was confirmed by the three experts working in the computer and instructional technologies department. According to their suggestion the number of items was decreased to 10. Then this ten item scale was applied to the 70 students who were taught through internet or subjected to a face to face instruction. The data obtained were subjected to exploratory factor analysis for the confirmation of construct validity. During the exploratory factor analysis the care was taken for the Eigen values to be 1 and load factor of the articles to be at least .30 and it should be a single factor entity (Büyüköztürk, 2009).

Before the exploratory factor analysis the samples were first subjected to KMO test which tests the adequacy of the sample. The KMO value was found to be .78. According to Green and Salkind (2005) if this value is above .70 the size of the sample is adequate. Secondly the result of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($\chi^2 = 2308.43$, p.=.000) showed that the data obtained are suitable for the factor analysis. Therefore all these 10 items were subjected to a principal component analysis. After the factor analysis it was determined that the 10 items scale had a single factor structure. The load values in the scale ranges between 0.58-0.76 and explain the 56 % of the variance. The item 4 as "*I was very glad to make the necessary studies for this course*" and the item 5 "*I was very glad to choose such a course*" are the examples of these scale items. The internal consistency coefficient of this scale is .88. The data obtained confirm that it can be used without any trouble.

Materials

The samples were divided into control and experiment groups at the beginning of the study. The control group was taught face to face for four weeks and the experiment group was taught by WBI. The course contents consist of web design procedure, the learning activities in Web, cognitive load theory in WBI and content development tools for WBI on weekly basis. The examples given by internet are shown in Figure 1. The contents were divided into smaller pieces to ease of the browsing. The information was animated and the web tools were used in order to facilitate the communication of the students to the teacher. In order to increase the efficiency of the learning with WBI the knowledge was provided by the shows, exercises and independent application as suggested by Alessi & Trollip (2001).
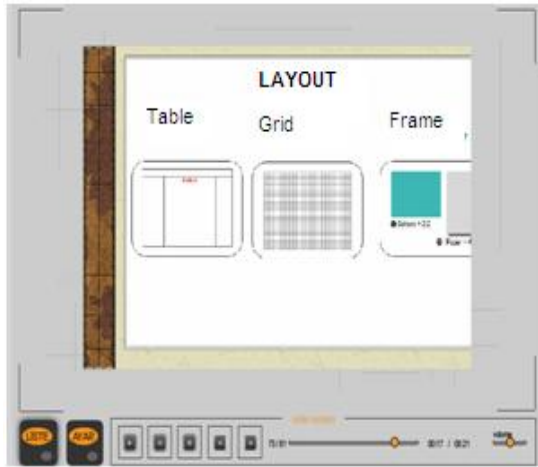
The screen layout of the learning components of the WBI: In this screen the activities such as placing the information in table, grids and frames are explained.

The WBI learning activities example screen: In this screen there is cyber laboratory information one of the important learning activities in WBI.
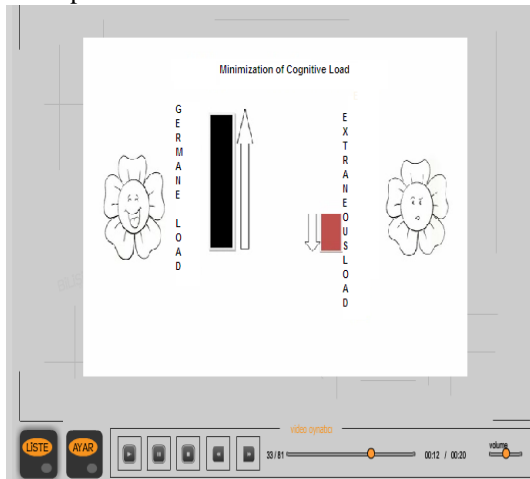
The cognitive load theory in WBI example screen: This screen shows what to do in order to decrease the cognitive load in WBI.
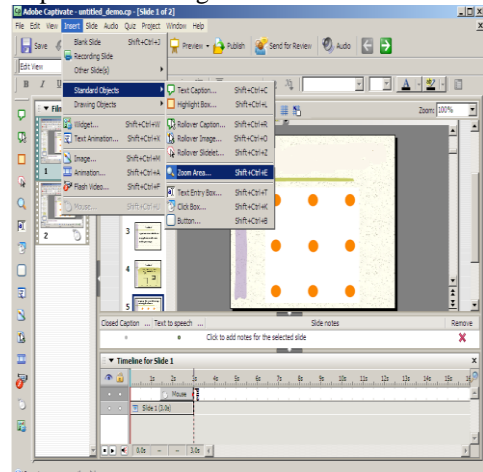
The screen for the designing and the application of teaching materials by the use of Adobe Captivate

Figure 1. Some Examples of the Teaching Material Screens.

Application, Data Collection and Analyses

First the students taking part in this study were randomly divided into two groups. Both groups were then subjected to TPCK-W scale before the experimental procedure. The students in the experiment group were given the name of the web site, the user name and password to enter the internet by the researcher. The experiment group was then subjected to an adaptation process. After the adaptation period the experimental procedure were started which took for four weeks. After the application of the experimental procedure both groups were given a success test and two scales. The data obtained in the study were then analyzed statistically by the use of SPSS 13.0 software. As the data has not distributed normally, they were analyzed by the use of the Mann Whitney U and Wilcoxon Signed Ranks non-parametric tests.

RESULTS

Since the scale from which the data related to the TPCK-W had five factors. Since the scale was applied before and after the experimental procedure the related data were comparable to each other. Table 1 and 2 shows the data related to the first factor of the self-efficacy of the students in knowledge of general web applications.

Table 1. The Comparison of Self-Efficacy of Experiment and Control Group Students in General Web Knowledge

Group	Ranks	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Experiment	Negative	0	0	0		
(Post-Pre)	Positive	4	2.5	10.0	-1.89	.060
	Ties	10				
Control	Negative	1	2.00	2.00		
(Post-Pre)	Positive	3	2.67	8.00	-1.14	.257
	Ties	11				

When look at the Table 1, there was no a statistically significant difference between the pre and post experiment group scores of the self-efficacy of general web knowledge (Z=-1.89, p>.05). Same goes for the students in the control group (Z=-1.14, p>.05).

Table 2 shows the data related to the fact that the whether the students were in the experiment or the control group causes any difference in their self-efficacy of their general web knowledge.

Table 2. The Comparison of the Self-Efficacy Control and Experiment Group Students in General Web Knowledge.

Test	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Pretest	Experiment	14	13.75	192.50	87.50	.451
	Control	15	16.17	242.50		
Posttest	Experiment	14	14.07	197.00	92.00	.591
	Control	15	15.87	238.00		

As we examined the Table 2, there was no statistically significant difference (p>.05) between the self-efficacy of the students before (U=87.50) and after (U=92.00) the experimental procedure according to the group they are in (experiment or control).

The findings related to the second factor of the scale, Web communication knowledge are listed in Table 3 and 4.

Table 3. The Comparison of the Self-Efficacy Experiment and the Control Group Student in Web Communication Knowledge.

Test	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Pretest	Experiment	14	12.64	177.00	72.00	.158
	Control	15	17.20	258.00		
Posttest	Experiment	14	12.86	180.00	75.00	.201
	Control	15	17.00	255.00		

Table 3 shows that there was no any statistically significant difference between the self-efficacy of the students before (U=72.00) and after (U=75.00) the experimental procedure according to the group they are in (experimental or control).

Table 4 lists the fact that whether the self-efficacy levels of the students in the experiment and control groups varies before and after the experimental procedure.

Table 4. The Comparison of the Self-Efficacy of Students to Web Communication Knowledge Before and After the Course.

Group	Ranks	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Experiment	Negative	1	1.0	1.0		
(Post-Pre)	Positive	1	2.0	2.0	-.45	.655
	Ties	12				
Control	Negative	2	1.5	3.0		
(Post-Pre)	Positive	1	3.0	3.0	0.00	1.00
	Ties	12				

According to Table 4 both the self-efficacy of the experiment (Z=-.45, p>.05) and the control (Z= 0.00, p>.05) groups in web communication showed no statistically significant difference before and after the experimental procedure. This may be due to the fact that students had already possessed high self-efficacy of general web applications; one of the most commonly used communication and research tools today before the experimental procedure. The data obtained for the web content knowledge (WCK) are tabulated in Table 5.

Table 5. The Comparison of the Experiment and the Control Groups According to WCK.

Test	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Pretest	Experiment	14	15.57	218.00	97.00	.747
	Control	15	14.47	217.00		
Posttest	Experiment	14	16.50	231.00	84.00	.377
	Control	15	13.60	204.00		

Table 5 shows that the WCK of the students in both the experiment and the control groups showed no statistically significant difference before (U=97.00) and after (U=84.00) the experimental procedure (p>.05).

Table 6 compares the WCK of the students of the experimental and the control groups before and after the experimental procedure.

Table 6. The Comparison of WCK Self-Efficacy Before and After Experimental Procedure.

Group	Ranks	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Experiment	Negative	0	0	0		
(Post-Pre)	Positive	14	7.5	105.0	-3.31	.001
	Ties	0				
Control	Negative	0	0	0		
(Post-Pre)	Positive	13	7.0	91.0	-3.20	.001
	Ties	2				

Table 6 shows that the WCK levels of both the experiment (Z=-3.31, p<.05) and the control (Z=-3.20, p<.05) groups showed statistically significant difference after the experimental procedure. It was seen that the both the WBI and face to face instruction caused a significant changes in the WCK self-efficacy of the participants. The data obtained for the fourth factor of the scale WPCK are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. The Comparison of the WPCK Self-Efficacy Experiment and Control Group Students Before and After the Study.

Test	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Pretest	Experiment	14	16.75	234.50	80.50	.290
	Control	15	13.37	200.50		
Posttest	Experiment	14	18.61	260.50	54.50	.026
	Control	15	11.63	174.50		

Table 7 showed that the control and experiment groups WPCK self-efficacy did not show any statistically significant difference before the experimental procedure (U=80.50, p>.05). However the difference was found to be statistically significant after experimental procedures (U=54.50, p<.05). This finding showed that WPCK self-efficacy of experiment group (WBI) has increased more than those taught with control group (face to face instruction).

Table 8 shows the comparison of the WPCK values of the students in the experiment and the control groups before to after the study.

Table 8. The Comparison of the WPCK Self-Efficacy Experiment and the Control Group Students Before to After the Study.

Group	Ranks	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Experiment	Negative	0	0	0		
(Post-Pre)	Positive	14	7.5	105.0	-3.30	.001
	Ties	0				
Control	Negative	1	1.0	1.0		
(Post-Pre)	Positive	13	8	104.0	-3.24	.002
	Ties	1				

Table 8 shows that the WPCK levels of the experiment (Z=-3.30, p<.05) and the control (Z=-3.24, p<.05) groups showed statistically significant difference between the pre and post test values. This finding showed that WPCK self-efficacy of experiment and control groups have

increased by the effect of experimental procedures. The data related to the attitude toward the WBI, are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. The Comparison of the Attitudes of the Students in the Experiment and the Control Groups Toward the WBI.

Test	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Pretest	Experiment	14	14.46	202.50	97.50	.747
	Control	15	15.50	232.50		
Posttest	Experiment	14	20.89	292.50	22.50	.000
	Control	15	90.50	142.50		

Table 9 shows that the attitudes of the students in the experiment and the control groups showed no statistically significant difference toward the WBI before the experimental procedure (U=97.50, p>.05) but there was statistically significant change after experimental procedures (U=22.50, p<.05). This shows that the attitude toward WBI of those taught by WBI has increased more than those who were subjected to face to face instruction.

Table 10 shows the fact that whether there was any change in the attitudes of the students according to their groups towards the WBI before and after the experimental procedure.

Table 10. The Comparison of the Experiment and the Control Group Students Toward WBI Before and After the Course.

Group	Ranks	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Experiment	Negative	0	0	0		
(Post-Pre)	Positive	14	7.5	105.0	-3.31	.001
	Ties	0				
Control	Negative	0	0	0		
(Post-Pre)	Positive	12	6.5	78.0	-3.07	.002
	Ties	3				

Table 10 shows that the attitudes of the experiment group students towards WBI showed statistically significant difference before and after they took the IAE course (Z=-3.31, p<.05). The students subjected to WBI were found to have a statistically significant increase towards it after its application. It was also observed that the attitudes of the control group students towards the WBI showed a statistically significant increase after the experimental procedure (Z=-3.07, p<.05). This finding showed that the attitudes of the students who were subjected to the face to face instruction towards WBI showed statistically significant increase after the application.

The second dependent variable of the research is the achievement in the IAE course. The data related to the achievement of the students in the experiment and the control groups were tabulated in Table 11.

Table 11. The Comparison of the Course Achievement of the Students in the Experiment and the Control Groups.

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Experiment	14	18.64	261	54.00	.026
Control	15	11.60	174		

Table 11 shows that the course achievement of the students in the control and the experiment group was statistically different each other (U=54.00, p<.05). The line average achievement scores of the students in the experiment group was higher (MR= 18.64) than the student in the control group (MR= 11.60). This showed that the WBI has much more positive effect than to the face to face instruction in the academic achievement of the students. Finally the data related to the general course satisfaction was presented in Table 12.

Table 12. The Comparison of the General Course Satisfaction of the Students in the Experiment and the Control Groups.

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Experiment	14	14.71	206	101.00	.880
Control	15	15.27	229		

When table 12 is examined it is seen that that there was no statistically significant difference as regards to general course satisfaction between the experiment and the control groups (U=101.00, p>.05). This shows that taking the course by WBI or by face to face instruction does not make any difference for the general course satisfaction. In other words WBI is as effective as FTF instruction.

DISCUSSION

The main aim of study is to show whether there were any difference arises by giving the IAE selective course with WBI or face to face instruction manner in TPCK-W, academic achievement and the general course satisfaction.

The self-efficacy in the general web and web communicative skills of the students in both the experiment and the control groups was found to show no statistically significant difference before and after the experimental procedure. This can be attributed that the students had already taken so many related courses for the last three years and the fact that they had already been using the common internet communication tools such as e-mail, facebook and MSN. Atav, Akkoyunlu & Sağlam (2006) showed that 86.9 % of the pre-service teachers are using internet and they were reported to use it for learning, browsing or simply seeing something new (Akkoyunlu & Yılmaz 2005; Atav, Akkoyunlu & Sağlam, 2006; Duggan et al., 2001; Scherer, 1997) or for communicative purposes (Lubans, 2000; Luan, Fung, Nawawi & Hong, 2005; Scherer, 1997). These data in the literature show that the pre-service teachers are commonly using the internet for general or communicative purposes which compiles well with the data obtained in this research.

The WCK values of the all students were found to increase after the experimental procedure. However this increase showed no difference between the experiment and control groups. WCK represents the information related to web technology and the advantages of the use of internet (Lee & Tsai, 2010; Lee, Tsai & Chang, 2008; Mishra & Koehler, 2006). WCK

teaches the pre-service teachers to know how much to teach and the ways to integrate the web content into education activities. Chou & Tsai (2002) reviewed so many sites related to WCK content and emphasized the need of connecting them. In this way WCK needs information more than application and may make no difference in the results of the study.

While the WPCK and attitudes towards WBI did not differ between the experiment and the control groups before the experimental procedure, the students who were subjected to a WBI showed a statistically significant difference after experimental procedures. This can be explained by the fact that the WBI application gives them the practice of WPCK (Lee & Tsai, 2010; Lee, Tsai & Chang, 2008). The fact that the experiment group who was subjected to WBI application has the higher computational skills is an expected outcome. This result was consistent with literature (Frederickson et al., 2000; Hiltz, 1997; Hislop, 2000; Hong, Ridzuan & Kuek, 2003; Howland & Moore, 2002; Kai-ming, Yiu-sing, Pak-hung & Kwok-leung, 2002; Mitra & Steffensmeier, 2000; Richardson & Price, 2003).

The ones who were subjected to WBI application were more successful than the others. This was consistent with the studies of Ferguson & DeFelice (2010), Finlay, Desmet & Evans (2004), Gagné & Shepherd (2001), Lim, Morris & Kupritz (2006), Manathunga (2002), Manuel (2001), Matuga (2001), Ryan (2000), Sener & Stover (2000), Serban (2000), Wegner, Holloway & Gordon (1999). However they contradict to those of Carswell (2000), Collins (2000), Hong, Lai & Holton (2003), Kearsley (2000), Ostiguy & Haffer (2001), Wegner, Holloway & Gordon (1999) who says that there was no difference between the WBI and the face to face instruction. This contradiction may be attributed to search for the data equal to the face to face instruction. This causes the distant education modes such as WBI be regarded as a second class education. So much that there were new concepts developed for the equality of the face to face instruction named as "equality" (Simonson, 1999; Simonson & Schlosser, 1995; Schlosser & Simonson, 2002).

Staring from this concept the studies investigating whether there were any changes in achievement and other variables between WBI and the face to face instruction have become very popular (Simonson, Smaldino, Albright & Zvacek, 2006; Simonson, Schlosser & Hanson, 1999). Due to the fact that these studies focuses solely on the equality of the concepts the result came out equal as regards to success may be the reason behind the different data.

There was not a statistically significant change as regards to the general course satisfaction between the experiment and control groups. This finding is in accordance with the studies of Allen, Bourhis, Burrell & Mabry (2002), Ferguson & DeFelice (2010), Lim, Morris & Kupritz (2006), Ocker & Yaverbaum (2004), Stein & Wanstreet (2003). However it contradicts with the studies such as Collins (2000), Fredericksen et al. (2000), Hislop (2000), Motiwalla & Tello (2000), Richardson & Price (2003), Shapely (1999), and Swan et al. (2000) which say that WBI increases the general course satisfaction.

There were also contradictory data with the literature regarding to the dependent variables of the study such achievement and general course satisfaction. Regarding to success the WBI were found to be superior than the face to face instruction. However there was not any statistically significant difference as regards to the general satisfaction of the course. The reason for the contradiction of these data are explained by Oliver & Omari (2001) as the duration of the course in WBI is too long and forces the students a lot. The students who spend much longer time on WBI are more successful but have a lower satisfaction level. The study carried out by Ferguson & DeFelice (2010) was able to show the origin of this difference. In this study the students were separated into two groups. Both groups were subjected to WBI

but one for five weeks and the second one for whole term. The achievement rate of the groups which were subjected to a five weeks procedure had a higher achievement rate but the ones who had longer application had much higher satisfaction. Since our findings cover a period of only 4 week it may not be enough to monitor any significant change in the satisfaction. However our findings are in good accordance to data of Ferguson & DeFelice (2010).

The study showed that the IAE course has been beneficial for both WBI and the face to face instruction as regards to internet application. It is important that internet tools should be used in the schools by the teachers assigned there. The teaching of this course by WBI was found to cause a significant increase in their academic achievement and their attitudes towards WBI as well as furnish them with permanent learning and the skills. The pre-service teachers may continue their courses with WBI in order to increase their skills and attitudes.

There were two elective courses in the university where the study was carried out. When the quota of one course was filled up then the students had no option but to choose the other course. This had a very adverse effect on motivation and the satisfaction towards the course. The data were analyzed by the use of non-parametric test due to the fact that the number of the students who attend the study was not simply sufficient. The lack of participant may result that the WBI much more successful and satisfactory than it actually is. One can search whether the sufficient number of participant is the cause of these differing results. The duration of the study can be extended and the data may be modified accordingly. The satisfaction of the application can be measure instead of the satisfaction of the course. The dependent variables were taken as academic achievement and satisfaction of the course in this study. These parameters can be changed to self-confidence levels, fear or anxiety against WBI. The success rate was measured by the use of multiple tests. The future studies can be based upon rubric evaluation.

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ENRICHING A PRESERVICE TEACHER'S CLASSROOM EXPERIENCES
THROUGH CYCLES OF TEACHING AND REFLECTION

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ABSTRACT

This study adds momentum to the ongoing teacher education discussion by observing a preservice teacher's development and implementation of a lesson plan in a high school classroom. The consequences of his lack of teaching experience and incomplete content knowledge on his pedagogical content knowledge were observed during his planning and teaching of a lesson to a group of high school students. Although his experience in this study did not substantially alter his content and pedagogical content knowledge, he gained experience in preparing and teaching a lesson. The results indicate that preservice teachers benefit from multiple cycles of planning, implementing, and reflecting on their teaching, in stages of increasing awareness, under the supervision of their professors and experienced teachers.

Keywords: *Preservice teacher, reflection, content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge.*

INTRODUCTION

The discussion regarding teachers' content knowledge and the roles of critical feedback and reflection are ongoing within mathematics communities (e.g., Ball 1990; Ball, Lubienski & Mewborn, 2001; Even, 1989; Sanchez & Llinares, 2003). Over the past decade, researchers have investigated preservice teachers' content knowledge and their views about teaching mathematics in microteaching situations based on the successful Japanese lesson study (e.g., Fernandez, 2005). In addition to examining a preservice teacher's content and pedagogical content knowledge of functions, this research extends these previous studies by observing a preservice secondary teacher's development and implementation of a lesson plan in an actual classroom. Because of this implementation of his lesson plan in a high school mathematics classroom, we were able to examine his limited perspective about teaching and learning.

According to Ball (1990), content knowledge of mathematics includes both knowledge *of* mathematics and knowledge *about* mathematics:

> Understanding of the nature of knowledge in the discipline: where it comes from, how it changes, and how truth is established; the relative centrality of different ideas as well as what it is conventional or socially agreed upon in mathematics versus what is necessary or logical. (p. 6)

Teachers' content knowledge influences their ways of teaching, and teachers with strong mathematical knowledge are more competent to help their students attain meaningful understanding of the subject matter (Even, 1990). Teachers ask questions, stimulate discussions, and suggest different points of views to students, and these activities and decisions

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require teachers to have adequate content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and teaching experience (Even, 1989). When preservice teachers have misconceptions or limited content knowledge, they may pass on these misconceptions to their students or may fail to challenge them (Ball & McDiarmid, 1990). Their conceptions might limit their ability to present subject matter in appropriate ways, give helpful explanations, and conduct discussions (Even & Tirosh, 1995). Even (1993) found that many of the preservice secondary teachers had a limited understanding of functions influencing their pedagogical thinking. Researchers have shown that it is difficult to change preservice teachers' perspectives about teaching and learning. For example, Wilson (1994) examined a preservice teacher's understanding of the concept of function with extensive materials including functions, non-functions, and real life applications of functions in multiple representations: however, her perspectives of mathematics and mathematics teaching remained relatively narrow at the end of the study.

Teacher education programs have been a significant focus of research (Frykholm, 1998; Guyton and McIntyre, 1990; Artzt, 1999; Blanton et al., 2001). In particular, the supervision process of student teachers and interactions among the triad (i.e., student teacher, cooperating teacher, and university supervisor) has received considerable research attention. In examining the problems associated with developing mathematical knowledge for teaching, Ball, Lubienski, and Mewborn (2001) describe inadequate opportunities for teachers to develop the necessary content knowledge and the ability to use it in practice as a major source of problems in mathematics education. Research indicates that student teaching and supervision of student teachers, which are formative and significant components of preservice teacher preparation process, are mainly guided and influenced by cooperating teachers (e.g., Zahorik, 1988, Slick, 1997; Blanton, Berenson, & Norwood, 2001).

Despite the importance given university supervision in teacher preparation programs, results of the research on supervision of student teachers are questionable; that is, researchers (e.g., Bowman, 1979) suggests discontinuing supervision, whereas others (e.g., Blanton, Berenson, & Norwood, 2001; Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Frykholm, 1996) found the role of university supervisors quite effective and influential on student teaching. In an attempt to describe the roles of the supervisor and the cooperating teacher, researchers put forward models of student teacher supervision (e.g., Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Slick, 1997). For instance, Frykholm (1998) engaged in an important study in which preservice teachers were paired with doctoral student mentors for the student teaching experience. Having considered the role of university supervisors in the student teaching experience and preservice teachers' lack of experience with a reform-based philosophy and pedagogy as learner, Frykholm claimed that university supervisors too must be active learners in this process and participate in growth and active reflection.

A typical student teaching program, requiring university supervisors to visit a student teacher a few times in a semester, does not provide sufficient interactions between the university supervisors and the student teachers. During these visits, university supervisors observe student teaching and reflect on their teaching practices and lessons. As a result, preservice teachers rarely have the opportunity to receive continuing feedback from their university supervisors during their student teaching and generally work with their cooperating teachers. Moreover, the fact that many cooperating teachers utilize teaching strategies inconsistent with the NCTM standards (2000) amplifies the role of a university supervisor in improving the supervision process and enhancing preservice teachers' teaching, evaluation, and reflection.

This study proposes a model involving cycles of teaching and reflecting. With this model, I did not intend to claim that I am resolving the issues raised above; instead, I am describing a

alternative model, which might be helpful in identifying weaknesses and strengths of preservice teachers' teaching and lesson plans and enriching preservice teachers' classroom experiences. Moreover, through analysis of his written work, interviews, and observations of his teaching, I also sought to understand the extent to which his perspectives about teaching and learning changed as he prepared and implemented a lesson plan on exponential functions and evaluated and reflected on his teaching.

Theoretical Framework

This study was framed by the research of Even's (1989) and Wilson, Shulman, and Richert (1987). Even identifies seven aspects of content knowledge for teaching functions. With Even's framework providing a general overview, I began the examination of the preservice teacher's content and pedagogical content knowledge of functions through the analysis of his responses to tasks presented in this study.

Shulman (1986) introduced the term, pedagogical content knowledge, which includes "how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction" (p. 8). According to Wilson, Shulman, and Richert (1987) "pedagogical content knowledge emerges and grows as teachers transform their content knowledge for the purposes of teaching" (p. 118). Wilson and his colleagues suggest a model that describes the process of pedagogical reasoning through six aspects of the teaching act: Comprehension, Transformation, Instruction, Evaluation, Reflection, and New Comprehension. Following their model, I organized the sequence of the tasks in my study to examine changes in Jack's perspectives about teaching and learning.

This model for pedagogical reasoning begins with *Comprehension*, which refers to teachers' critical understanding of a set of ideas or content. To examine Jack's understanding of functions, I administered a function questionnaire and an activity, which will be described in the next section. The second aspect, *Transformation* process, involves four sub-processes: *Critical Interpretation*, *Representation*, *Adaptation*, and *Tailoring*. *Critical Interpretation* for preparation involves reviewing instructional materials. A *Representational* repertoire consisting of metaphors, analogies, illustrations, activities, assignments, and examples helps teachers transform the content for instruction. *Adaptation* and *Tailoring* involve respectively fitting the material to the characteristics of students in general or to the needs of specific students. In order to help Jack through this transformation process, since he had limited teaching experience, I prepared and videotaped an experienced teacher teaching in an actual classroom two different lessons, one of which was teacher-centered and one of which was student-centered. I asked Jack to watch and analyze videotapes of these two lesson plans.

For the third aspect, *Instruction*, I asked Jack to prepare and teach a lesson on exponential functions in a high school classroom which I videotaped. He was asked to use this video as a tool for his *Evaluation* and *Reflection*, the fourth and fifth aspects of this model. When Jack evaluated and reflected on his teaching, this presumably would lead to the sixth aspect of this model, *New Comprehension*. Jack was able to benefit by the model from Wilson and his colleagues for experienced teachers despite his lack of teaching experience and I was able to determine the need of critically guided cycles of reflection because I asked him to prepare and implement a lesson in a high school classroom.

METHOD

A case study design was adopted to examine a preservice secondary mathematics teacher's content and pedagogical content knowledge as well as changes in his perspectives about teaching and learning as he participated in tasks, culminating, developing, and implementing a lesson in a high school classroom, during six–weeks of data collection. The data were collected through three stages and clinical interviews were conducted with Jack after each stage of the study: 1) a function questionnaire and a function sorting activity, designed to diagnose his content knowledge, 2) analyses of two video-taped mathematics lessons, and 3) preparing and implementing a lesson on exponential functions in a real classroom. The tasks and the preservice teacher's work can be found in Haciomeroglu's (2006) study.

The function questionnaire was adapted from the studies of Even (1989) and Wilson (1992). The questionnaire includes fourteen items addressing different aspects of content knowledge, such as examples of functions and non-functions, different representations of functions and five items focusing on analyses of students' incorrect solutions. I used the function questionnaire to gather information about Jack's general knowledge of functions and possible approaches for teaching the topic.

The function sorting activity (Cooney, 1996) includes twenty-eight different examples of seven types of functions given in four different representations (i.e., tables, graphs, equations, and verbal descriptions): linear, quadratic, polynomial, exponential, logarithmic, trigonometric, and rational functions. The function sorting activity comprised twenty-eight different examples each of which was written on a separate index card. Jack was presented seven tasks in which he was given different arrangements of subsets of the entire set of twenty-eight examples of functions, and asked to sort them into piles using either different representations or different types of functions. I used this activity to examine how well Jack understood the relationships among different types of functions and how he utilized different representations to translate a function from one representation to another. Jack revealed his knowledge about four different representations of seven types of functions in this activity.

I administered the function questionnaire (Even, 1989; Wilson, 1992) and the function sorting activity (Cooney, 1996) to thirty-three preservice teachers enrolled in a secondary methods course during the study at a university in the southeastern United States. After the analyses of their written responses, Jack was selected for the study because I inferred that his understanding was more robust than the understanding presented by the other thirty-two preservice teachers. During this selection process, in an attempt to describe the nature of his understanding of functions using seven aspects of content knowledge for teaching functions posited by Even (1989), I also conducted two sixty-minute interviews in which Jack was asked to elaborate on his responses to the tasks on the questionnaire and the activity.

Since Jack was a preservice secondary teacher without teaching experience in an actual classroom, I asked him to analyze two videotaped mathematics lessons, one of which was student-centered and one of which was teacher-centered. By discussing these lessons, my goal was to encourage him to consider issues necessary for planning or teaching.

Mr. Middleton, a doctoral candidate in mathematics education at a university in the southeastern United States, agreed to participate in this study. He prepared and taught two lessons in a high school classroom, which were video–taped for Jack as an aid in his analyses of the two different lessons. His first lesson was teacher-centered; that is, throughout the lesson, Mr. Middleton told students what to do and what the results would be. His teaching in

the second lesson was student-centered; that is, Mr. Middleton presented real-life applications of the concept and asked his students to work on the problems in cooperative groups. Throughout the teaching of this lesson, groups of students shared and discussed their findings with the whole class. Later, I conducted an interview with Mr. Middleton to discuss the lessons he had taught for the study and his reflections on the lessons.

After Jack watched and analyzed the videos of those lessons and Mr. Middleton's reflections, I conducted a sixty-minute interview with Jack to discuss what he thought about the lessons and Mr. Middleton's implementations of the lessons. I asked him to reflect on which lesson he thought better and why he thought it was better.

I provided a lesson plan guideline with objectives and asked Jack to prepare a 40-minute lesson plan on graphing exponential functions and identifying exponential data. After examining his lesson plan, I conducted another sixty-minute interview with Jack to discuss his preparation of the lesson plan and how he selected representations, examples, activities, questions, and explanations to implement his lesson plan. At this point, through examination of the written lesson plan that Jack had prepared, it appeared that he had selected an appropriate sequence of activities and examples. Thus, I continued the study by videotaping his class while he taught his lesson to a group of high school seniors. Having watched his teaching and analyzed the video, I conducted an additional sixty-minute interview with Jack and asked him evaluate and reflect on his teaching of the lesson.

At the time of the study, there were 23 high school students enrolled in mathematics course at a high school in the southeastern United States, and six students who volunteered were asked by the instructor to participate in the teaching experiment. The school is a laboratory school that provides research and development opportunities for educators and represents state's population demographics.

RESULTS

In the next section, under "Function Questionnaire and Function Sorting Activity," I will describe my inferences of his understanding of exponential and logarithmic functions based on his written work and responses. I then discuss Jack's reflections of Mr. Middleton's lessons, his descriptions of his lesson plan, his discussion and implementation of his lesson, and his reflection in this study.

Function Questionnaire

In this activity, I discussed 19 tasks such as examples of functions and non-functions, different representations of functions, and analyses of students' incorrect solutions. I will discuss his responses to the question about exponential functions and their inverses and present difficulties that he encountered for these functions. When I observed his experiences with students, several issues emerged and will be discussed below. The question in Figure 1 was presented to Jack. Jack struggled with the concept of inverse function and assumed that logarithmic function and root function were equivalent and inverses of $f(x) = 10^x$.

A student said that there are 2 different inverse functions for the function $f(x) = 10^x$.
One is the root function and the other is the log function.
Is the student right? Explain.

Figure 1. The function question

In his response to this question, he wrote the following statement indicating that root and logarithmic functions were equivalent expressions:

> The student is correct in that there exist two different methods of defining the inverse. However, because of the definition of inverses (and in this case the ability to show the equality of the two inverse equations), the two equations must be equivalent. Thus, for all purposes, these two equations are both the same function.

Figure 2. Jack's solution for the function question

In his solution in Figure 2, after interchanging the variables in the equation, $y = 10^x$, and taking the logarithm of both sides to determine the inverse function, Jack, without considering the graph or the domain of the root function, tried to find equivalent inverse function by interchanging the variables in the equation, $y = 10^x$, and taking the yth root of both sides. However, he could not reduce the expression, $x^{(1/y)} = 10$ to the form of $\log x = y$ in Figure 2. In frustration, he drew a line through his work as seen in Figure 2. To explore his thinking further I discussed his solutions to the question in my follow up interview:

> I was able to find one inverse, and the other one, I think I messed up somewhere and I wasn't able to find the second one. In order for that equation to have two inverses, those two inverses have to equal each other. This is the two ways of representing the same data or the relationship between the two sets of data that are representing two different equations.

From his responses, I inferred that Jack still thought that an exponential function had two equivalent inverses; that is, taking the logarithm or the yth root of both sides of $y = 10^x$ would

produce equivalent equations, which were the inverse of the exponential function $f(x)=10^x$. His responses to this task revealed his incomplete understanding of exponential, root, and logarithmic functions.

Function Sorting Activity
In the card sorting activity, on which the functions were written on index cards, Jack was able to sort functions according to four different representations. He was able to recognize functions presented as equations or graphs; however, he had difficulty translating functions given in tables or verbal representations. At this point, I concluded that his understanding of the relationship between logarithmic and exponential functions was incomplete. For instance, I observed that Jack was able to recognize exponential and logarithmic functions given as an equation or a graph, but he had difficulty determining exponential and logarithmic functions given in tables and relied on a point-wise approach; that is, he plotted to points to determine the functions given in tables.

Jack's Analyses of Mr. Middleton's Lessons and Reflections
In this section, I discuss Jack's analyses of Mr. Middleton's videotaped lessons and his reflections. In the interview with Jack, he was asked to compare and explain which of the two lessons he thought was better. Jack noticed that the teacher provided definitions and formulas in the first lesson without allowing the students to explore the concept. In describing his thinking, Jack said:

> In the first one, it was kind of general by the book definition represented to the class and then work's done. I did not like giving the definitions. He [the teacher] did go into asking them kind of what they thought probability was. He did try to get to students develop a definition for themselves…Just giving; it isn't necessarily the most advantageous method for teaching that certain lesson.

Jack said that the second lesson was better because the lesson was discovery-based: the students investigated the concept through the real life problems in groups and were involved in solving problems. He noticed that the students were asked to discuss their findings in small cooperative groups and then share with their classmates. Consider the following excerpt from the interview:

> I definitely like the second one better in the way that material was presented. It wasn't just stating definitions. I believe it was more kind of discovery type learning. I think that's probably not nearly as time efficient as giving them information and having them work with the information, but I think there are a lot more advantages for the students' understanding.

Jack's Lesson Plan
Jack was given a lesson plan guideline with lesson objectives and asked to prepare a lesson that he would later teach to a small group of senior high school students. By the end of a forty-minute lesson, Jack wrote that he expected students to graph exponential functions and to identify data that display exponential behavior. To introduce the idea of exponential growth to the students, he wanted to begin with an activity that he had found online, Light in the Ocean (NCTM, 2007). In this lesson, he planned to ask the students to make a conjecture about how the intensity of light changes as a function of the depth of the ocean. Jack thought this activity, in which light dims as one goes deeper in the ocean, helped them understand functions. Jack explained why he chose this activity:

> They have to understand it [exponential functions] in a real world application. So, my first instinct was in order to motivate the students to get them into the lesson was to

have an opening sort of problem where in groups they will be able to discuss it, maybe come to some sort of consensus and then kind of start the lesson there. So, I was looking for possible problems and then I found the one about the light versus the water depth. I thought that would be a good starting point.

Jack stated that he planned to have the students draw possible graphs depicting how the light intensity decreases as the water depth in the ocean increases. After discussing the activity and possible graphs that represent light intensity versus depth of the water, Jack planned to revisit their thoughts and graphs later in the lesson.

I wanted them to reassess their ideas about the light versus water depth and see if information [generated during class discussion] affected their ideas about the situation given.

After the class discussion of the opening activity, Jack planned to draw and compare different exponential functions: $y = 3^x$, $y = 3^{x+2}$, $y = 3^{x-2}$, $y = 2^x$, $y = 2^x + 2$, and $y = 2^x - 2$; that is, he planned to illustrate the graphical effects of changing the exponents or bases by having the students make a table and draw exponential graphs. When I asked Jack to explain his goals for presenting and discussing these functions, changing the parameters such as the bases and the exponents, he said he wanted the students to make generalizations about the graphs.

I want them to have a table, have them plug in values, and then graph the values. Take those points and put into a coordinate system. I was hoping with each of these different sections they will be able to make a generalization that if you change one parameter, then this is what happens graphically to a function. I hope from the generalizations by just looking at the equation, they know how it would affect the data graphically.

Jack's Implementation of the Lesson Plan

I observed Jack's implementation of his lesson in a high school classroom. He began his lesson by writing a question on the board: "Have you ever noticed how the amount of light decreases the further you are under water? Consider how the light intensity changes from the surface of the water to the bottom of the ocean." Then, Jack asked the students to work in groups and draw possible graphs representing the relationship between decreasing light intensity and increasing water depth. Jack walked among the students working groups and made comments about the graphs they were creating. After he let the students work on the activity for a few minutes in their groups, in the absence of any meaningful dialogue about possible graphs modeling this phenomenon among his students, he resorted to posing functions out of context about a square function, $y = x^2$, and an exponential function, $y = 2^x$.

Jack asked them how they would graph the equations $y = x^2$ and $y = 2^x$ on the interval [– 4, 4]. Jack noticed that the students had difficulty calculating the value of negative exponents and explained how to calculate these values with an example. Jack substituted values for x to make tables and draw the graphs so that the students could see the values of these functions and determine which function would rise faster. Then, he asked students to make a table and draw the graph of $y = 4^x$. While students were working on this task, he determined the graph of the function $y = 4^x$ with a graphing calculator and drew this graph on the same coordinate plane on the board. He asked students to compare the graphs of $y = 2^x$ and $y = 4^x$. Without

discussing these exponential functions with different bases, Jack used the exponential functions, $y = 4^x + 2$ and $y = 4^x - 2$, to discuss the concept of horizontal asymptotes. Without making any connections between these exponential functions and his beginning activity, Jack returned to the light-versus-water-depth activity and asked them if anyone wanted to alter their graphs. There was no response from the students. Moreover, he was unable to connect these examples of functions to the activity with which he started the lesson. The class discussion was not fruitful, and Jack ended the lesson.

Jack's Reflection on his Teaching
When I asked him to evaluate and reflect on his experience in the classroom while watching the video of his teaching, Jack said that the lesson did not go as well as he had expected. He indicated that it was difficult for him to motivate them with the material and emphasized the importance of engaging students in tasks. He made the following comments.

> I think it was a moderate success in some ways. I felt like it was hard to connect to the students and motivate them with the material because I didn't know their names. I know I wasn't able to go over everything that I planned to go over. I've ended up not necessarily working out everything.

When I asked why he wanted to introduce the light-versus-water-depth activity at the beginning of the lesson, Jack responded as follows:

> Throughout the lesson, they possibly come to reassess their initial thoughts by the end of the lesson, maybe change the original conclusions. I thought it would be more interesting for the students. Because it's not only just kind of either expect them to know what is coming in a lesson or expect them to regurgitate what's going on in the lesson. I think it's more engaging for the students that way.

Jack had a good idea to introduce exponential functions with what he thought was a real life activity. However, this was not a context familiar to the students, and he brought in no data or other supporting material. Jack attributed lack of success of the activity to the fact that he experienced difficulties calling on the students as the following excerpt indicates:

> I saw him [a student] draw a straight line at the beginning of the class. I knew he had a different answer. By the end of the class, I was asking them if they had any graph that didn't look like this [graph]. I didn't specifically know his name and I felt like it would be out of place to ask him to show it [his answer] at the board. Especially when would be in front of the kids who had the same thing at certain time. I thought it could have opened up for a nice discussion. At that particular time point, I just had a problem with calling on him.

When I asked Jack what he would change in his lesson if he were asked to teach it again, he said that he would use technology to draw and compare the graphs of exponential functions more efficiently. However, he did not indicate how this would enrich his light-versus-water-depth activity.

> It would possibly include some sort of technology. Have them use their own graphing calculators, get them into groups and give them a list of equations, ask them how they would change. This would be after they work a couple of problems by themselves, by hand.

CONCLUSION

In this study, I observed the consequences of Jack's lack of teaching experience and incomplete content knowledge of mathematical functions on his pedagogical content knowledge during his planning and teaching of the lesson. This lack of experience and his incomplete content knowledge prevented him from choosing and presenting an appropriate

context for exponential functions, and he was unable to recognize the source of the students' difficulties.

As a result of his participation in the extensive activities of this study, Jack gained experience in preparing and teaching a lesson; however, since I completed only one cycle of teaching and reflection with Jack, his experience in this study did not substantially enrich his content and pedagogical content knowledge of functions. His views about teaching and learning of functions changed insignificantly due to his incomplete content knowledge and lack of experience in mathematics classrooms. By analyzing, evaluating, and reflecting on his teaching, he began a process of identifying weaknesses and strengths of his teaching and lesson plan. During the first cycle of his reflection, Jack was not able to see why his lesson was not successful. In addition his first round of reflection indicated that simply asking students to explore and compare more functions with technology or a graphing calculator was what he needed to improve his lesson. However, he did not indicate how he would use technology to implement the activity successfully.

I believe that preservice teachers benefit from multiple cycles of planning, implementing, and reflecting on their teaching. I was able to observe his difficulties only after observing him attempting to implement a lesson in an actual classroom. These difficulties likely would not have been diagnosed in microteaching (Fernandez, 2005) conditions in which preservice teachers, playing the role of students, do not provide the quality of feedback I found in actual classrooms. I conclude that this is a result of two factors: 1) classmates in these microteaching situations focused on the strength of the lessons due to their lack of willingness to criticize their classmates playing the role of teacher, and 2) preservice teachers, playing of the role of students in a microteaching conditions, do not experience the same difficulties that can be diagnosed in mathematics classrooms comprising of high school students.

I agree with Ball (1990) that content knowledge should be a central focus of teacher education in order to teach mathematics effectively. I suggest preservice teachers prepare lesson plans, videotape their lessons, and evaluate and reflect on their teaching in high school mathematics classrooms, in stages of increasing awareness, under the supervision of their professors and experienced teachers, because "knowledge is developed through cycles of planning, implementing, and reflecting on lessons (Fernandez, 2005, p. 38)." Building on the model of Wilson, Shulman and Richert (1987), experience of the preparation and analyses of lesson plans and teaching episodes in high school mathematics classrooms holds potential in teacher education courses. The model of this study may be followed in methods courses for preservice teachers. I believe that only by teaching in an actual classroom under the supervision of experienced professionals who lead them in structured reflections and evaluations of their teaching episodes, it is possible for preservice teachers to enhance their teaching of mathematics and their own professional growth. I believe this study will help mathematics educators better understand ways of incorporating these experiences in the professional development of teachers.

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CYBER BULLYING, CYBER VICTIMIZATION AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS: A STUDY IN ADOLESCENTS

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ABSTRACT

In this study, the relationship between cyber bullying, cyber victimization and psychological symptoms was investigated in adolescents. The sample of the study consisted of 300 high school student adolescents who attend different types of high schools in Trabzon in 2009-2010 academic years. In the study, demographic data form, The Scale of Cyber bullying and Brief Symptom Inventory were used as data collection instruments. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients, One-Way ANOVA and independent samples *t* test were conducted to analyze the data. The results of the study showed that there were significant relationships between cyber bullying, cyber victimization and some psychological symptoms. Furthermore, significant differences were found in cyber bullying and cyber victimization in terms of school type and gender variables. These results were discussed in light of relevant literature and some recommendations were made.

Keywords: Cyber bullying, psychological symptoms, adolescents.

INTRODUCTION

During the adolescence period, relationships among youngsters become more of an issue and these relationships have an important place in social and psychological development of youngsters (Espelage and Swearer, 2003). Positive relationships lead up to advance a successful identity of youngsters and to live in perfect harmony with society. At the same time, negative relations cause youngsters confront a host of problems during adolescence. An individual's exposure to bullying and aggression from his/her peers harms individual's emotional, social and psychological development.

In recent years, the effects of rapid developing technology has also effected schools as every institution of community and at an equal rate students has possessed new technological products such as computers, mobile phones. In parallel with this development, various problems have come into existence about the use of these products by youngsters. Research in this field demonstrate that today we face with cyber bullying behavior which is a new form of violence (Bendixen, Endresen and Olweus, 2003; Breivik and Olweus, 2006; Özen, 2006; Solberg, Olweus and Endresen 2007). Cyber bullying behavior, literally, is described as a kind of violence, including the usage of internet and mobile phones (Vandebsch and Cleemput, 2008). Similarly, Li (2007) described cyber bullying as a kind of bullying behavior involving the inclination as hacking personal websites and damaging information given through the use of information and communication technology such as email, mobile phone and sending

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messages . In a study which investigated the effects of cyber bullying on adolescents, cyber bullying behaviors was defined as deliberate bullying behaviors against a person or a group via internet and mobile phone (Williams and Guerra, 2007). Bullying has been increasing at online environments like others. Researchers imply that cyber bullying behaviors grew as a result of increasing online shared social life among modern youngsters and children (Campell, 2005; Dehue, Bolman and Vollink, 2008). There are some studies about intensity of cyber bullying behaviors and the using of this behavior by which type of gender and age groups. According to a study conducted on 1498 regular internet user ages between 10 and 17, 19% of participants have been exposed to aggression and aggressive behaviors as online, 84% of them have exposed to bullying by others, 31% of them performed bullying to others (Ybarra and Mitchell, 2004). A similar study shows that 23% of 177 secondary school students in Canada have been exposed to bullying via e-mail, 41 % of them via telephone message, 35 % of them via chat rooms, 32 % of them have been exposed by friends they know in school, 11 % of them have been exposed to it by students in school they do not know, 16% of them have been exposed by both people they know and people they do not know in the school (Shariff, 2005).

There are also other studies which investigates the relationships between being cyber victim and changes in psychological situations of individuals. It has been found that people who have not performed any bullying and not exposed to bullying show lower psychiatric symptoms than target victims and bullying victims. It was concluded that hostile feelings and psychological symptoms are two basic variables which predict cyber bullying meaningfully (Cappadocia, 2008; Tynes and Giang, 2009). In the light of this background, it is seen that the studies on cyber bullying have been intensifying in the related literature in the recent years. This study dwells on determination of emotions and views of students about performing cyber bullying, exposing to it and cyber bullying during their adolescence period as they try hard to gain personal identities.

Aim of The Study
It is known that technological developments affect individuals in many ways, so that reason it is likely that there is an interaction between some psychological characteristics of individuals and being cyber bully, cyber victim. Accordingly, the aim of this study is to answer following questions;

1. Is there a relationship between high school students' being cyber bully or cyber victim statues and various psychological symptoms such as interpersonal sensibility, anxiety disorder, hostility?

2. Is there a significant difference in high school students' being cyber bully or cyber victim statues in terms of gender?

3. Is there a significant difference in high school students' being cyber bully or cyber victim statues in terms of school type?

METHOD

The current study is a field survey within the descriptive method. Survey models are research approaches which aim to describe past or present situations as it is (Karasar, 2007).

Study Group
The sample of study determined through random sampling. The study group consists of 300 students who attend different types of high schools in Trabzon in 2009-2010 academic years.

142 (47,3 %) of students were male; and 158 (52,7%) of students were female in the study group. Their age range changed between 15 and 19.

Instruments

The Scale of Cyberbullying (SCB): The scale developed by Topçu (2008) consists of two parallel forms in likert type which is made up of 26 items in order to determine the cyber bullies and cyber victims. Cronbach alpha reliability co-efficiency was calculated as .86. Analyses were made through total scores obtained from the scale.

Brief Symptom Inventory (KSE): This scale developed by Derogatis and Lazorus is made up of 53 items of which distinguishing the highest of 90 items of Symptom designation list. It provides reliable scan of various psychiatric signs. KSE is applied to the adolescents and matures and there is no time limit in application. In the inventory for each item there are choices as "a bit", "some", "normal", "much", "very". Marks between 0-4 are given to the answers and the points are between 0-212. The height of the total points taken from scale shows the frequency of the symptoms of the person (Savaşır and Şahin, 1997).

Data Analysis

The data gathered during the study were analyzed through Pearson's Correlation Coefficients, independent samples *t* test and One-Way ANOVA statistical methods.

RESULTS

The Relationship Between Being Cyber bully, Cyber victim and Psychological Symptoms

According to the results, it has been determined that there is a positive meaningful relationship between being cyber victim and the level of interpersonal sensitiveness of students (r=0.142, n=299, p<0.01). Also, it was found that that there is a positive meaningful relationship between the being cyber bully and cyber victim and the hostility scores of students (r=0.258, n=299, p<0.05; r=0.293, n=299, p<0.05). Finally, it was found that there is a positive meaningful relationship between being cyber victim and level of anxiety disorder of students.

Table 1. Correlation Matrix of the Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5
1.Interpersonal Sensitiveness	1				
2.Hostility	.515(**)	1			
3.Anxiety	.473(**)	.546(**)	1		
4.Total bullies	.025	.258(**)	.061	1	
5.Total victims	.142(*)	.293(**)	.138(*)	.518(**)	1
Mean	3.973	5.933	1.545	.102	.137
Ss	3.374	4.558	.498	.229	.284

**p<0.01 *p<0.05

Examination of Being Cyber Bully and Cyber Victim in Terms of Gender Variable

Data analysis illustrated that male students perform more cyber bullying behaviors compare to females (t=4.710, p<0.05). In parallel to this, it was also determined that males students become cyber victims more than females (t=2.228, p<0.05).

Table 2. Independent Samples *t* test summary for Gender Differences

	Gender	N	$\overline{X}$	S	df	*t*	p
Cyber bullying	Male	141	.166	.298	297	4.710	.000*
	Female	158	.045	.118			
Cyber victimization	Male	141	.176	.306	297	2.228	.027*
	Female	158	.103	.259			

*p<0.05

Examination of Being Cyber bully and Cyber Victim in Terms of School Type Variable
According to results of data analysis, meaningful differences were found between being cyber bully and school type variable (F=5.826, p<0,05). In order to find out the source of these differences Tukey Post Hoc statistical method was utilized. According to the analysis, individuals who attend to general highs schools perform more cyber bullying behaviors compared to individuals who attend to Science High Schools.

Table 3. One -way ANOVA Summary for School Type

		ss	df	ms	F	p
Cyber bullying	Between groups	0.597	2	.298	5.826	.003*
	In groups	15.158	296	.051		
	Total	15.754	298			
Cyber victimization	Between groups	.367	2	.183	2.287	.103
	In groups	23.735	296	.080		
	Total	24.102	298			

*p<0.05

DISCUSSION

The results of the study illustrated that there is a meaningful relationship between being cyber bully and cyber victim and some psychological symptoms. It can be seen that there is a meaningful and positive relationship between being cyber bully and hostility. Hostility is seen high on bullies and victims than people who never experienced such situations (Ireland and Archer, 2004; Palmer and Thakordas, 2005). In addition in various studies it has been demonstrated that hostile sense is an important variable which can be used as a predictor for cyber bullying (Arıcak, 2009). Both performing cyber bullying behavior and being exposed to this behavior demonstrates that the individual is psychologically having important adjustment problems (Nansel, Overpeck, Pilla et al., 2001). Adjustment is both inner and environmental process and problems occurred throughout this process causes individuals to perceive social environment as a threat for him/herself and perform hostile and bullying behaviors. Individuals who exposed to bullying also develop hostile senses due to the need for self defense as a result of perceived threat and tension created by bullying behaviors.

One of the other important finding of the study is that there is a positive relationship between being cyber victim and interpersonal sensitivity. Interpersonal sensitivity is defined as the adequacy of an individual in knowing other individuals (Hall and Bernieri, 2001). It can be stated that the people who are sensitive in their relations become more able in knowing others. If this situation is evaluated from the perspective of becoming a victim, it is expected that the people whose level of interpersonal sensitivity is high can perceives and knows about others easily and avoid of the people whose level of bullying potential is high. Even though an

individual is sensitive in his/her relationships in daily life, the communication style in cyber environments is different from daily life. Not having a face to face or close communication and interaction may cause people, who are sensitive in their relations, not be able to realize the cyber bully in a short time and to be a cyber victim. In this research, the result which showed the positive relationship between the interpersonal sensitivity and becoming a cyber victim is linked as a parallel idea to the argument made above.

Being cyber victim may cause the person to have psychological function deficiency and some problematic situations, such as depressive symptoms, anxiety disorder, and to be unsocial (Cappadocia, 2008; Mitchel, Ybarra and Finkelhor, 2007; Tynes and Giang, 2009). The positive relation between becoming a cyber victim and anxiety in this study is a finding which support the findings in related literature. Unsocial people and the people who experience anxiety escape from social relations and use cyber environments and express themselves in this way. This may cause them to be a candidate of cyber victim. Also, being exposed to cyber bully may cause an increase in nonfunctional behaviors and the level of depressive symptoms and anxiety.

In the study it is found that there are meaningful differences between being cyber bully and cyber victim on the basis of gender variable. Findings of the study show that boys are exposed to both cyber bullying and perform cyber bullying more than girls. When traditional bullying, cyber bullying and gender relationships are investigated, it can be seen that boys seem to be more cyber bullies and cyber victims than girls (Borg, 1999; Delfabbro, Winefield, Trainor at al. , 2006; Li, 2006; Nansel, Overpeck, Pilla et al. , 2001). In terms of this perspective it can be said that findings of the study support the previous studies' findings. It is thought that the males are more interested in the internet and computers and this can be seen an important factor at this point. Intensive internet usage and lengthy time spent in cyber environments may cause males to be under risk of being cyber bullies and cyber victims.

When changes in being cyber bully and cyber victim investigated in terms of school type, it is found that there is a meaningful difference in cyber bullying in terms of attended school type. The results of the study show that the students who get education in general high schools have more cyber bullying behaviors than the students who get education in science high schools. Schools could show difference in terms of ratio of bullying when gender and age characteristics not taken into account. The school factor may affect ratio of being exposed to cyber bullying (Rigby 2007). In the related literature no study has been found about the relationship between attended school type and bullying. In this research, ratio of cyber bullying behaviors of general high school students was found higher than students who attend to science high schools. The reason of this difference can be related to the difference between the sizes of the school (number of the students) and academic interest and achievements of the students in both types of schools. It is thought that the general high schools are more crowded and it is more difficult to monitor students' activities in cyber environments. In other ways, it is difficult to realize students who perform cyber bullying or exposed to it due to high number of students in the school. Academic interests and achievements of general high school students are lower than science high schools. When relevant literature is take into account, traditional bullying and cyber bullying can be seen as a factor related with low academic success (Li, 2007; Nansel, Overpack, Pilla et al, 2001). In this sense, it is thought that the reason of high cyber bullying level in general high school than in science high schools can be related to the low level of academic success in general high schools.

If technology is not used suitably, it causes various cyber bullying behaviors to emerge. Such behaviors cause some behaviors to emerge starting from nonfunctioning behaviors to the level

of clinical symptoms in both cyber bully and cyber victims. Such situations may cause problems for the students in their social lives, school successes and school attendance. Some psychological problems which are related to being cyber bully and cyber victim can show up itself with some symptoms. Especially parents and teachers should be sensitive to changes in students. It is also thought that parents and teachers should be knowledgeable about cyber bullying and types of it. This is very important in terms of both developing prevention services and intervention programs. The schools which are crowded and have low academic success are seen as risk factor for cyber bullying. In crowded schools, the cyber bullying events and the its effects on students and the emerged symptoms may not be realized. In these schools and as elsewhere, especially in technology lessons, problems which can be faced in cyber environments can be made a part of the lesson and students can be informed. Educators should discuss problems arising from the misuse of technology with their students and find ways on how to overcome these problems. In addition to this, as males' cyber bullying behaviors and exposure to cyber bullying is higher than females, then this information should be taken into account and in educational activities males should be informed more carefully about proper and profitable use of technology.

In the future, studies could examine changes in psychological symptoms of cyber bullies and cyber victims in terms of gender variable. In addition, demographic factors which affect being cyber bully/cyber victim of both male and female students could be examined widely. The school can be seen as a related factor being cyber bully, cyber victim and multiple comparisons between different schools can be conducted on the basis of academic achievement, number of students and socio-economical background variables.

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AN EVALUATION OF GERMAN STUDENT TEACHERS WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF LEARNER AUTONOMY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to evaluate German student teachers within the context of learner autonomy. A Likert-type questionnaire including 23 items is developed to gather data and carried out on the students in German Language Teaching (GLT) Department, in Education Faculty at Dicle University. Three different variances are discussed: learning strategies, learning styles, anxiety and expectations. According to the findings, the students learn better in teacher-based classrooms. They do not have enough knowledge and positive experience on the student-based activities such as group works and research papers. The students do not follow a proper schedule to study, they do not study daily regularly, and they only study hard when they have examinations. It is found out that studying alone is a common habit. Instead of the expectation of being trained well in their branches, most of the students attend lessons to get a faculty diploma. If an education notion which is based on learner autonomy is anticipated, first of all, it should be realized in teacher training programmes.

Keywords: *Learner autonomy, learner-centered instruction, student teacher, learning strategies, German teacher.*

INTRODUCTION

Learner-centered instruction is a concept which has been emphasized and accepted most in the education discussions recently. It has many reasons such as philosophy, psychology, sociology, etc. Today, with this approach, concept of learning gains much more importance than concept of teaching (Carneiro, 2007). Within this frame, lifelong learning, interactive teaching, communicative teaching, learner autonomy, etc. can be among the most valid concepts in the field of education. The common point of those concepts is that they bring students in the foreground. A learner's conditions, his motivation, his aims and expectations are considered to be main factors which influence the success of education (Wicke, 2004; Rampillon, 1994).

In the societies where traditional and authoritarian dispositions are considered important, there are normative values- whose absolute correctness are adopted beforehand- which should be given to an individual. Since, in the traditional methods, the activities that lead students to think or to a research are not presented; the opportunities to use knowledge, to solve problems, in short, to reconstruct knowledge are not given, the students graduate with knowledge that they have memorized. In such a learning environment where the students are passive, a teacher is active as a transmitter, and the content is important. However, the teacher assumes a guidance role since the notion is to train an individual who is a researcher and who has strong skills in solving problems in modern learning environments. The main point of education is to lead the students to think and to make a research. Therefore, the student should be active at

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every stage of education.

Education has acquired an international attribute in this era. So the countries should always renew their education policies and make the necessary reforms. Each country should pay attention to their own peculiar qualitative and quantitative conditions, and the factors that affect their education systems should be taken into account (Türkoğlu, 2005). In our country which pays too much effort in order to be a member of a modern world, the important reforms have been made recently in the field of education. The activities of education in Turkey have been adapted to the ones in European Union (EU) member countries since Turkey has been in the transition period to EU membership. Increasing the duration of compulsory primary education to eight years and even the preparations of planning to increase it to eleven years, revising teacher education, updating teaching programmes and lessons contents can be seen the positive improvements in the field of education. These arrangements which are called restructuring require a new understanding not only from the point of schools, teachers and programmes but also of learners.

The students are now considered to be an active element of the learning process. This understanding is denoted with some concepts such as learner autonomy, self-arrangement, independent learning, self-regulated learning and active learning. (Holec, 1988; Zimmerman, 1990; Smith, 2003)

The theoretical basis of learner autonomy is based on the construcktivism and the cognitivism (Bimmel and Rampillon, 2000; Açıkgöz, 2005). Both of them offer suggestions not for teaching process but for learning process. According to this understanding, learning is an active process through which a student gives a form to it and takes responsibility of it. In this process the student should make his own decisions and take the responsibilities. In order to develop these skills on the student, the strategies of structuring one's own learning process, awareness, and evaluation should be employed. Here it is emphasized that the student should take the responsibility of his own learning and make decisions concerning this process. One of the main purposes of education is to make the students acquire decision-making abilities for him. The student will be ready to learn for lifelong who makes correct decisions on how to realize learning, how much he has learned, what he lacks, how he will concentrate, when and from whom he asks for help, and how he will perceive, etc. Learner autonomy is not only an education vision but also a necessity in terms of learning psychology (Möller and Sappik, 2008). Because information is always renewed in our times, and it seems impossible to carry out a learned profession for lifelong without making any change. Therefore, the acquisition of the skills of information learning should be considered to be a general purpose of the education (Wolff, 1997; Apeltauer, 2010).

European Council Living Languages Department has adopted an education psychology which emphasizes learner autonomy, and which makes a learner contribute to education process while planning, application, and evaluation in foreign language learning. Learner autonomy does not mean that the learner controls everything in the education. However, it means that the teacher carries out a task through which he meets the learner's needs during inside and outside classroom activities. So, the learner will participate in the learning process actively and will be able to decide what, when, and how to learn. At the same time, it also enables to gather realistic data at the stage of evaluation. Independent learning concept plays an important role both in self-language learning and in learning in school within the context of developing strategies and applications (Tönshoff, 1997). This approach also enables to gather realistic data at the stage of evaluation. For this purpose, piloting has been made in many countries and the scientific

findings have been collected. Similarly, piloting have been started in Turkey as well and the preparations of "Language Development File" which promotes learner autonomy have been kept on (Demirel, 2005).

It is possible to encounter various problems in each country at the stage of adopting learner autonomy as an education psychology and arranging education system according to this understanding. Some educationalists make connections between the political structure of the countries and their education, and also advocate that each education notions may not achieve the same success in each country. For example, according to Bimmel and Rampillon (2000), the notion of learner autonomy can only be applied in the democratic societies. It is seen impossible for the learners to participate in the education process actively in non-democratic countries. Each country has its own peculiar education applications resulted from its own historical, cultural, geographical conditions, etc. It is not easy to change these applications. It is almost inevitable to experience the great difficulties during the times of education reforms. If some amendments are anticipated in a country's education system, it is necessary to know that country's peculiar education applications and its traditions of learning and teaching. Only in that way the possible issues can be overcome. We have already mentioned that the studies which promote learner autonomy in the foreign language learning in Turkey have been started. Within this context, it is necessary to determine the learning habits, study styles and expectations of Turkish students. The results which will be gathered will shed light on the future studies.

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to evaluate Turkish student teachers within the context of learner autonomy in parallel with the opinions given above. It is aimed to determine the student teachers' learning habits, study styles, and expectations in order to gather objective data about the educational applications in terms of the education notion in Turkey and learners. Within this context, it is aimed to find out answers to the following research questions: What are the learning habits of our students? Which learning strategies and styles do they prefer during the classroom studies and the individual studies? What kind of anxiety do they have in the educational environments? What kind of relation is there between teaching notion in the schools and the students' evaluations according to the findings which will be gathered, and is it necessary to make an amendment in teaching notion? How should the future teachers be educated in order to apply an education notion based on the learner autonomy?

METHOD

The method of this study is a descriptive survey model. It is predicted that the appropriate data gathering mean is applying a questionnaire in order to collect the students' opinions clearer, more concrete and statistically. In addition, by interviewing with the students their thought about the subject matter are collected in detail, and during the evaluating those data are benefited from. The population of the study includes 170 students attending GLT department in Ziya Gökalp Education Faculty at Dicle University in 2010-2011 academic year. The sample of the study comprises 150 students selected randomly. The sample constitutes the %88 of the population. A data gathering mean including 23 items is developed for this study. Before preparing the propositions on the data gathering mean, 10 students attending GLT department were asked to write their own opinions about their learning methods, studying styles, anxieties and expectations.. In order to determine the opinions of the students, at the end of the evaluation, a Likert-type scale was developed. Three various variables are taken into account. The propositions prepared for each variable are placed randomly in the questionnaire. The choices are presented in a fivefold rating (I totally agree, I usually agree, I agree, I agree a little, I never agree). In order to provide the reliability and the validity of the questionnaire

which is prepared in Turkish, the questionnaire, first of all, is polite to a group and some propositions are changed and clearer and more understandable. The final form of the scale is applied to the sample group in the classroom. The data are analyzed with SPSS 12.0 programme and are evaluated with the frequency and the percentage.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings of the study are given statically in tables and the evaluations are made according to the data in those tables.

Table 1. Students' Perceptions and Opinions on Learning Styles

	I totally agree		I usually agree		I agree		I agree a little		I never agree	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
I learn lesson subjects better in classroom	51	34,0	49	32,7	23	15,3	21	14,0	6	4,0
I learn a lesson better when a teacher teaches it	59	39,3	55	36,7	26	17,3	10	6,7	0	0,00
I learn better in a group work	23	15,3	33	22,0	43	28,7	39	26,0	12	8,0
I learn better when I study on my own	40	26,7	33	22,0	37	24,7	30	20,0	10	6,7
I learn better when only a foreign tongue is used	16	10,7	24	16,0	39	26,0	39	26,0	32	21,3
I learn better when explanations are made in Turkish	73	48,7	28	18,7	26	17,3	16	10,7	7	4,7
I learn better if I prepare a research paper concerning lesson subject	35	23,3	39	26,0	38	25,3	24	16,0	14	9,3
I learn better if a lesson is associated with actual topics	92	61,3	34	22,7	15	10,0	6	4,0	3	2,0

When Table 1 is examined, it is seen that traditional classroom environment is predominant in learning styles. While the percentage of the ones who think that they learn subjects better in classroom environment is 67%, the opponents' percentage is 18%. As a result of an understanding of a teacher-based teaching, the percentage of the ones who think that they learn better when a teacher   is 76%, however, the percentage of the ones who do not agree with it is 6.7%. As known, in a teacher-based instruction concept students become passive, they do not join the preparations of lessons and the teaching process, they only memorize given subjects and available information and then they reproduce the same in the examinations. However, the evaluation related to group works which require more participation of students is considered to be negative. Only 37.3% of the students say that they learn better in group works. Here, another important issue is what kind of experience the

students have concerning group works. Students may naturally prefer a model in which a teacher is active if teachers do not guide students in group work activities and if students who do not have any experience cannot carry out hard tasks. It can be said that in our schools group works are not carried out as they should be. It does not become a successful and purposeful activity to let students have all responsibility after assigning subjects to them. These activities are not break times for teachers but they are the activities in which students can benefit from various experiences to show their creativeness. For this reason, in order to reproduce standard lesson plans, preparing activities which are unique to group work keep teachers busy as well. Group works necessitate to make more preparations for teachers. Clarity and comfort of traditional teacher attitude, teachers' not having enough knowledge and experience on group work, not being able to provide appropriate physical conditions in schools make it difficult to surrender traditional classroom activities.

The 39% of the students claim that "they learn better when they study on their own." While these students prefer being taught by teachers, they particularly study for the examinations alone. Because this study style which means memorizing knowledge does not include activities such as evaluation, interpretations, discussion, etc. Besides, these data also show that the students do not have any study habits except for the lessons. The question of whether a foreign language lesson should be carried out only in the target language or benefited from the other previously learned languages has always been a discussion topic for many teaching methods. Today it is emphasized that students should make benefit from their whole background knowledge while acquiring new knowledge. Within this context, the opinion of benefiting from the mother tongue in foreign language lessons is supported according to the data. The 68% of the students state that " I learn better if the explanations are made in Turkish" whereas approximately the other 27% advocate that they learn better when only a foreign language is spoken in a lesson. Typically, this situation may change according to the content of a lesson. For example, various applications can be used while teaching German Grammar, German Speaking or German Literature lessons. However, if comparative studies are included, then using two languages in a lesson makes it more meaningful and useful. Otherwise, despite the fact that using only a mother tongue in a foreign language lesson enable learners to understand the explanations better, it may also hinder to develop some language skills such as listening-comprehension, pronunciation, and speaking.

Activities such as preparing research papers are not common in schools where the traditional teaching is dominant. It cannot be said that this activity is carried out as important as it should be in Turkey. However, half of the students claim that they learn better when they prepare research papers. The percentage of the hesitant is relatively high. It can be said that since this application is not used so common, it is not easy to decide. Research studies provide students with some skills such as studying independently, make up their own minds, and organizing their own studies.

Associating a lesson with actual topics not only promotes students' motivations but also facilitates learning. 84% of the students share this idea as well. Particularly, in foreign language lessons the importance of the actual topics increases. Because learning a foreign language means learning different worlds, and conveying feelings and opinions to others. Since the actual topics associate a lesson with world, it facilitates learning much more.

According to the data in Table 1, it can be said that our students are familiar with a teacher-based classroom environment and their habits also become distinctive in that way. However, they are also aware of some student-based activities such as group works and research papers. In other words, it is anticipated that there will be no difficulty in case of employing a

student-based teaching, on the contrary, an increase in success can be achieved.

Table 2. Learning Strategies Employed By The Students

	I totally agree		I usually agree		I agree		I agree a little		I never agree	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
I cannot concentrate on a topic when studying alone	14	9,3	7	4,7	21	14,0	33	22	75	50,0
I reproduce the learned subjects periodically	29	15,3	32	21,3	36	24	45	30	8	5,3
I ask others for a subject that I do not understand	75	50	35	23,3	26	17,3	7	4,7	7	4,7
I study regularly............ hours a day. (Write a number)	39	26	27	18	15	10	6	4,0	1	0,7
I usually prefer to study examination times	37	24,7	37	24,7	28	18,7	25	16,7	23	15,3
It cannot be said that I have a correct daily study schedule	36	24	28	18,7	37	24,7	27	18	22	14,7
I am not in need of studying more since I understand lessons well	5	3,3	15	10	18	12	33	22	79	52,7
I make research in a library and on the internet concerning lesson subjects	28	18,7	33	22	34	22,7	32	21,3	23	15,3
I think it is good enough to use only lesson book for studying	6	4	9	6	24	16	30	20	81	54

In Table 2 it is aimed to determine the students' studying styles and learning strategies. 72% of the students think that studying alone motivates them more. The percentage of the ones who say that they cannot motivate while studying alone is only 14%. Memorizing only standard knowledge and carrying out no group work activities in classrooms prevent the students from cooperative learning. The students who study alone think that they can ask the others only for the parts that they do not understand. That is why, approximately 75% of the students employ the strategy of asking others.

Reproducing the learned subjects periodically is realized by only 36.6% of the students. Because the percentage of the ones who state that they have a daily study schedule is 32.7%. The distribution of daily study hours can given in the following order: 1 hour (27%), 2 hours

(18%), 3 hours and more (14.6%), and the rest 40% never studies. The students usually prefer studying when they have examinations instead of making a study schedule and studying daily regularly. While 49.4% state that they only study during the examination period, the percentage of the ones who have no idea about it is 18.7%. In other words, the percentage of the ones who do not limit themselves to examination times is approximately 30. It is also possible to determine it with our experience in educational practices. It is observed that students try to study hard for long hours in the terms of examinations, however, those efforts usually turn out be useless and ineffective studies since too many subjects are to be studied. It can be said that among the main reasons of this common habit are not being able to make students active in teaching process and to give responsibilities to them. Besides, examinations are usually made to measure the standard knowledge. Almost all of the examinations that students have to take until they are placed in a university are tests and they mostly measure the memorized knowledge. Since creative measure means are not employed, such as interpretation, evaluation, problem solving, etc., it is considered enough to study only examination times for the purpose of memorizing the given knowledge. The students do not claim that their reason for not studying regularly is not that they understand lessons well. 74.7% of the participants do not share this idea. Of course, in a concept of education through which subjects and knowledge are determined beforehand, a lesson book will have an absolute dominance. Many students can get high grades just by memorizing a lesson book in the examinations. However, the percentage of the students who think that it is not enough to study only with a lesson book is 74%. Also, 40.7% of these students make research concerning lesson subjects on the internet and in the libraries. It is seen that the students do not limit themselves despite the fact that the lesson book is given too much in this education concept. The reason of it can be various such as wanting to get rid of monotony of the lesson book and considering the other knowledge instruments more entertaining and attractive. Whatever the reason is, the evaluation of the future teachers on this topic is hopeful for a better education.

According to the data gathered from the sample, our students do not follow a regular study schedule. They do not study daily regularly, only the examination times they try to study hard. It is found out that habit of studying alone is common. It may be said that they do not have any definite learning strategies according to these findings. Almost none of the cognitive and social strategies are employed. It is necessary to make the students conscious of this subject.

Table 3. Students' Affective Opinions Such As Motivation and Anxiety

	I totally agree		I usually agree		I agree		I agree a little		I never agree	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
I study subjects more carefully which will be useful for daily life	73	48,7	41	27,3	22	14,7	12	8,0	2	1,3
I would study harder if I was appointed in my field	95	63,3	18	12	14	9,3	9	6,0	14	9,3
I do not have any anxiety like 'What will I become when I graduate'	24	16,0	9	6,0	13	8,7	21	14	83	55,3
Any successful student can find a job in a field related to a foreign language after graduation	60	40	34	22,7	30	20	21	14	5	3,3
Knowing that, after graduation, I won't be able to find a job in my field hinders my success	66	44	26	17,3	20	13,3	22	14,7	16	10,7
I chose this department since I especially wanted to be a German language teacher	22	14,7	11	7,3	29	19,3	24	16,0	64	42,7

Affective features like motivation and anxiety are the main factors that affect learning environment. These factors play important roles in students' success level in a definite subject or in a field. A strong relation can be made between students' motivation in a subject and their expectations from it. A subject that cannot meet the expectations causes problems in motivation. This opinion is shared by 76% of the students.

The common point of the propositions in Table 3 is related to the anxiety which will appear after graduation. As known, the graduates of German language department are appointed to be teachers in their field. This reality also affects interest in lessons in the department negatively. According to the data, 75.3% of the participants advocated that they would study harder if they were appointed to be teachers in their field. In addition, 75% of them have anxiety on what they will do after graduation. In the past almost all of the graduates used to find a job in the governmental institutions. Having a diploma was enough to get a job. However, just having a diploma has not been enough to find a job in the recent years because of an increase in the number of the universities, privatizing due to globalization, and pursuing new economic policies. The university graduates are subjected to various examinations to be chosen. While these developments occur very fast, it is seen that habits and expectations in the society change more slowly. In other words, it is right to say that a transition period has been being experienced in order to establish the new concept. Our students have to prepare themselves for this new situation.

The proposition of 'knowing that, after graduation, I won't be able to find a job in my field hinders my successes is agreed by 61.3% of the participants. A decrease is seen here when compared to others. The students are aware that there are a lot of factors that influence their

success and they also know that giving all responsibility to anxiety of finding a job after graduation is an easy way. Therefore, this can be evaluated as an important factor, however, it may also be considered to be an escape from responsibility by focusing on this factor. Because only 22% of the students selected this department especially in order to be a German language teacher. That is to say, the majority of the students attend a university in order not to have a good profession but to have a university diploma. On the other hand, giving a 40-credit-English lesson in the department, and appointing the old graduates as English language teachers affect German lessons negatively. It is emphasized that this situation should be evaluated since it is in contradiction with the departments' aims.

When the data are examined in Table 3, it is seen that students' affective features like motivation and anxiety are very complex. It is clear that they do not adopt the programme in which they are educated and that they do not have any expectations from this field. It is almost impossible to carry out the teaching programme with such a negative motivation and anxiety level. Therefore, it can be seen a must to take some precautions which will influence their inner and outer motivation about their professional field.

CONCLUSION

It can be said that student teachers are used to traditional classroom environment and, therefore, their learning habits take shape according to it. They do not have enough knowledge and experience on group works and preparing research papers. If an education concept which is based on learner autonomy is anticipated, first of all, student teachers should be educated according to this concept.

The students do not stick to a regular study schedule, do not study daily regularly, and only during the examination times they try to study hard. It is determined that studying alone is very common. It can be said that the students do not have definite learning strategies according to the findings. Almost none of the cognitive and social strategies are employed. The awareness of the students should be increased on that subject.

Lesson subjects are learned better if they are taught by teachers in the classroom. The students prefer the techniques which do not require much effort and which they are familiar with. As a result of it, a group of students appears who do not want to take any responsibility in learning and who do not participate in forming the lessons. Any teaching environment, which does not cause the students to prepare themselves and also in which the students reach the subjects easily without any effort, can be evaluated as laziness. But the worse is to carry this laziness to professional life and even to the all sides of life.

Most of the students attend a university only to get a university diploma instead of the expectation of being educated well in their field. A lot of problems result from this reality during the teaching process and after graduation. It is inevitable to change the concept which is common in the society on this matter.

It is observed that the foreign language learners develop their perceptive and reproductive skills, however, they do not develop productive skills. As a result, a group of students are encountered who memorize the subjects and reproduce them exactly and, therefore, become successful in written examinations, however, they do not express their feelings and opinions in the target language with their own sentences. It is seen that the students who are not only successful on the exams but also have good grades prevent from communicating with the others, and that they cannot use what they have learned. It is not denied that the main reason

of it is the traditional way of teaching. Pursuing a concept which is based on learner autonomy in foreign language teaching may solve the problems mentioned above.

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THE ROLE OF TEACHER ATTITUDE IN PRESCHOOL LANGUAGE EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Children seem to be motivated to get new things into their lives. However, it may sometimes be meaningless for a child to be interested in learning a foreign language for its own sake. The fact that they catch new things with no consciousness is undisputable but there is a crucial point that in a learning atmosphere, they need to be strongly motivated to learn the language. Based on this premise, this study aims to discuss the importance of motivation in teaching English to very young learners, the reasons of demotivation and as to what teachers could do to increase motivation and keep students motivated in classrooms of 5-6 year-old learners. The participants consisted of 45 children studying in two difference classrooms. The study aims to seek answers to the following questions: *What factors lead to preschool children's motivation in language classrooms*? *What factors lead to preschool children's demotivation in language classrooms?* The data of the study gathered throughout video recordings, observation notes, protocols and a questionnaire was applied to find out children's feelings about the most appropriate attitudes of language teachers. The study may have significant implications for English teachers, second language researchers, preschool language teachers, teacher trainees who focus on importance of motivation in EFL learners' performance in language classes.

Keywords: *Motivation, English language teaching, young learners, classroom language activities, teacher attitude.*

INTRODUCTION

Role of motivation for young learners in foreign language education has been studied extensively so far. It has been consistently stated so far that the effectiveness of learning and teaching process is measured according to the level of motivation of learners during that process. Albert Einstein states 'the most important motive for work in the school and in life is the pleasure in work, pleasure in its result and the knowledge of the value of the result to the community (Wlodkowski, 1990).

It is strongly essential to know the language for communication. At this age, the English language is the only language that most can understand. To express it in another way, it has become the ideal choice to express our feelings. In a situation where English is regarded as the lingua franca of the world, the teaching of this language has gained considerable significance starting from childhood.

Most adults find foreign language learning quite difficult. They struggle a lot to make even small achievements in their abilities in a foreign language. However, a child seems to just pick new things up without any conscious effort in a foreign language. They learn new languages very easily. They are given a magical innate capability to learn languages. This magic, however, may start to disappear year by year. It can be concluded from this fact that language education in childhood is a matter of the utmost importance.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Children seem to be motivated to get new things into their lives. However, since everything has a reason of existence on earth, a child cannot be expected to learn a language without any reason to do so. That is, it is not that likely for a child to be interested in learning a foreign language for its own sake. The fact that they catch new things with no consciousness is undisputable, however, there is a crucial point and at the same time a subtle distinction here: in a learning atmosphere, they need to be strongly motivated to learn the language. Role of motivation for young learners in foreign language education has been studied extensively so far (ex. Gardner's, 1982; Norris-Holt, 2001; Chambers, 1999; Falk, 1978; Cameron, 2001). Researchers have put forth theories about the reasons of demotivation of young learners in classroom settings. Besides, it is a common fact that it is impossible for learners to go on with their learning process effectively if they feel unmotivated or demotivated. Demotivated learners may have poor concentration and low self-esteem. They often make little or no effort to learn. They may occasionally distract other pupils, shout out with no reasons, and fail to bring their materials to classes (Chambers, 1999). Unmotivated learners however do not have any motivation to learn from the very beginning so it may be very struggling for the teacher to make them eager to learn. Thus, it can be inferred that they are different from demotivated learners in that they do not lose their enthusiasm since they had none in the first place.

So far, people have suggested a variety of techniques and strategies in order to motivate students. For instance, Dornyei (2001a,b) states that 'teacher skills in *motivating* learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness'. Thus, the value of the result of the learning and teaching process is measured according to the level of motivation of learners during that process. Teacher's behavior and the relationship between the teacher and the student affect the student's motivation towards the lesson. Teacher behavior is a "motivational tool". The key point is to establish a relationship of mutual trust and respect with learners. This situation may lead to enthusiasm (Thanasoulas, 2002). As at the age of five or six kids are very vulnerable and sensible, it is very important to know as to how one should approach them. They can sometimes consider the teacher as a mother or a father. The most crucial thing is how to motivate them for the lesson; for this, the teacher should be careful in their way they treat them. Below are cited some tips for teachers aiming to motivate students:
Keep yourself motivated: The very first thing for the teacher to do is to keep herself motivated. If the teacher seems to be bored, without any energy, then students will often lose interest in the lesson (Westwood & Arnold, 2004). The teacher should be enthusiastic enough in order for students to be excited for the lesson. Kids become motivated when they see the teacher energetic, jumping, and/or walking around the classroom. Also, the students get motivated and excited when they have a funny teacher. Being funny and happy, which is a sign of motivation, is very appealing for the young children. They love playing with language sounds, imitating, and making funny noises.
Encourage your students: If students do not feel encouraged, they will also not feel motivated to learn. When you see them demotivated and unwilling, a few sentences such as "I know this is very easy for you; you have done more difficult things and it is a piece of cake for you" will

be enough to motivate them again. Dornyei (2001a) presents three strategies about encouraging students to trigger motivation:

- Promoting attributions to effort rather than to ability,
- Providing motivational feedback,
- Increasing learner satisfaction and the question of rewards.

İnceçay (2010) states that the features of the teacher's language use facilitate learner involvement and construct potential for learning. According to her, teacher's talk should include content feedback which consists of both negative and positive feedback. However, there is an important point that even though it is right to give negative feedback from time to time, there shouldn't appear obstruction in the involvement.

Be a caring teacher: A caring teacher always tries to develop a good relationship with students. When students know that you are not going to get angry, you are supportive and understanding and the reason you are trying so hard is because it is important for you that students learn well, and then the reaction from your students will be nice and effective in turn in terms of motivation (Lile, 2002). Increased parental awareness is crucial to a child's motivation (Bantjes, 1994)). As they are so young, they sometimes want you to hug and kiss them like their mothers. Even doing this motivates them and provides them with positive feelings towards your lesson.

Give proper and comprehensible instructions and use a few words in their mother tongue to make the statements much clearer to them: Proper and comprehensible explanation is needed, so that students can well understand what is expected of them. As these 5-6 year-old learners are not proficient even in their mother tongue, as teachers, we cannot expect them to fully understand the instructions given in target language so it is inevitable for the teacher to use their native language in these sessions. As the explanation part is very important for them to complete the task, if they do not understand it properly, they feel demotivated from the very beginning.

It is believed that communication breakdown is a common feature of L2 classrooms of young learners. It often occurs because of the fact that learners do not know a particular word or phrase or do not recall the necessary information. İnceçay (2010) mentions an important issue called "repairing", which is teacher's role of intervening and providing missing language. That is, the teacher scaffolds the learners when they cannot remember the pieces of language that they have learned before both by the help of students' native language and some key words.
Iit is necessary for the teacher to use L1 for complicated directions for activities. It is better to make a difficult expression comprehensible by translating it into L1.

Avoid talking for long periods of time: Kids get bored very quickly, if the teacher does not know when to stop talking. So, it is better to make short and clear explanations because learners want to go into the activity very immediately. They understand by experiencing so it will have no sense for them to explain it for a long period of time. When they put the things into practice, they enjoy what they deal with.

Therefore, in accordance with all previous studies and researches, it can be inferred that motivation, which moves learners to act has the most crucial role for an effective outcome of foreign language education and teacher attitude and behavior do play a very crucial role to attain motivation in young learners language learning classrooms.

METHOD

It is a descriptive study in design because it aims to identify attitudes of learners in terms of motivation through three aspects which are teacher's attitude towards the students, suitability of the activities and lastly, the classroom atmosphere. First of all, the study intends to observe the causes of students' demotivation in some situations and then how they become motivated again towards the lesson. In general, in this descriptive study the main concern is to identify the most appropriate teacher behavior, the most suitable activities and the best classroom atmosphere to enhance students' motivation for English Language Learning. The aim of this particular study is to discuss the importance of motivation in teaching English to very young learners, the reasons of demotivation and as to what teachers could do to increase motivation and keep students motivated in classrooms of 5-6 year-old learners at Bilfen College in Adana, Turkey.

Participants

The participants of the study are forty-five young learners who are at the age of five or six. There are two classrooms and in each there are about twenty-two students. The research was conducted at the pre-school section of Çukurova Bilfen Private School complex located in Adana, Turkey. Students come from families living in the centre of the city. Also, as it is a private school, the social and economic conditions of families are considered fit middle-class family standards.

Since the target group taking place in the study is already an existing group, there was no need to implement any sampling methods. That is, the sampling was done for convenience.
All students are at the age of five and six and they speak Turkish as their mother tongue. Also, the fact that almost all of them start to learn English in this year is a very important aspect which needs to be taken into consideration.

Instruments

In order to validate the study, triangulation was used. Specifically, observation notes, video recordings, interviews, and questionnaires led to more valid and reliable analysis.

Observation and Video Recording

The data was collected with the help of regular classroom observations. In each classroom, the observations were applied equally. The researcher was the observer of each classroom. The goal was to evaluate the students' motivation in terms of three aspects mentioned above; classroom atmosphere, activities and materials, and teacher attitude.

All lesson sessions were recorded in order to have the opportunity to analyze each section in detail after observation sessions. During these observations, an observation checklist which describes the characteristics of motivated and unmotivated learners was used. Also, through the recordings, each case was examined in terms of the situation, action and the consequence of it. That is, learners' actions, verbal or nonverbal, which were resulted from some situations or cases, were examined with the consequences clear from students' signs of motivation and demotivation.

Protocols and Interviews

After each section, both observed and recorded, the researcher had protocols with some specific students whose behaviors were recorded as the signs of motivation or demotivation. Through these sessions of protocols, the researcher aims to identify some underlying causes of learners' motivation and demotivation by asking them some key questions which were related to particular situations.

Questionnaire

After this process was completed, the researcher applied a questionnaire for each student involved in the study. As the learners have not learned how to read and write even in their native language yet, the researcher again had protocols with each student one by one to complete the questionnaires. Also, as they do not have proficiency in English, these protocols were held in their mother tongue to have more reliable results. Also, to help them understand the questions better, the researcher gave an example for each question. In order to triangulate the data, quotations were excerpted from the interviews between class teacher and the students (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1990).

When necessary, paraphrases of the statements in the questionnaires were used to clarify them. The statements were about teacher's attitudes towards students. The aim was to describe what kind of a teacher the learners like or dislike in that age.

DATA ANALYSIS

Analysis of the Video Recordings and Observation

Findings show that how the teacher approaches to their students has a significant contribution to their motivation towards the English lesson. As the pre-school children are just five or six year-old learners, they need affection and parental care.

In one of the lessons, the teacher began the lesson in a very friendly and sincere way with a warm welcoming. Seeing their teacher in front of the door with a smiling and positive face, the students moved out of their seats to hug her. The students gave the impression that they really would like to have that English lesson. They started to listen to their teacher with great care and attention. It has been verified once more that if the students like their teacher and feel closer to her, they also like the lesson and become more willing to do the activities.
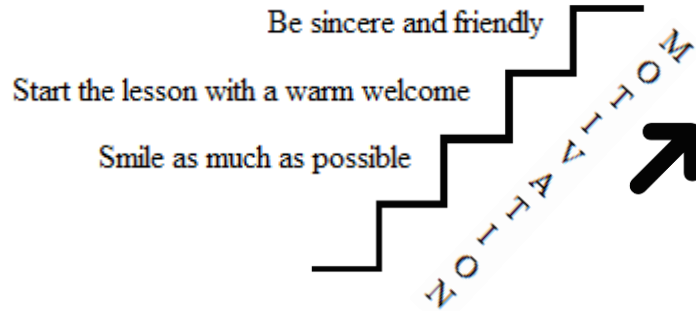
Figure 1. Appropriate teacher attitude

In one of the speaking and listening activities, the teacher became a bird whose name was *Birdy* and a student became *Tiggy*. They started to chat on a few pictures. In this activity, the teacher changed her tone of voice and talked just like a parrot which was very appealing and funny for the students. As the teacher's miming and body language attracted the learners' attention, almost all of them were eager to be involved in that activity.

During such motivating activities, it may sometimes be difficult for the teacher to cope with each student and let them participate in the activity equally. In that session, there was a highly-motivated child who insistently wanted to be *Tiggy*. His endless insistency to perform the

activity made it clear that his motivation level was higher than the other participants. It was also apparent that he was trying to attract teacher's attention. While presenting the characteristics of very young learners Reiley & Ward (1997) state that small children try hard to get the teacher's individual attention as much as possible. He was shouting and jumping to be *Tiggy* but the teacher ignored his willingness. She did not let him participate at the very beginning maybe because of the fact that he was shouting very loudly and in a disturbing manner. He went on struggling but the teacher was also persistent to ignore him. Seeing that none of his attempts ended in participation, he gave up shouting. It was apparently seen that he just became demotivated because of being ignored for a long time by the teacher. After a few more students did the activity, the teacher noticing student's demotivation decided to give him the chance to re-motivate him. Luckily, she was successful in her effort to gain the student's motivation and enthusiasm towards the lesson again. However, she may not have been so lucky if the student had been more sensitive and touchy. Instead of persistently ignoring that highly motivated learner, she could have given him the opportunity to participate in the activity by reminding him the fact that he didn't need to shout to be involved in the lesson as they all would do the activities equally.

In such a case it is pretty significant to make the students aware of the fact that there are some rules which they are supposed to obey and not shouting to be involved in the activities is one of them. It is known that in that age they tend to imitate their friends very easily so the teacher should take some precautions against this tendency.
Conversation between the students and the teacher below presents how teacher's ignorance affects students' motivation in class.

T: This is your friend, *Birdy*, you know and this is *Tiggy*.
(*Tiggy* and *Birdy* say "Hello!")
Now, close your eyes everybody, close your eyes!
OK, good. *Tiggy* is coming to…... *Tiggy* is coming to ……
S1: Öğretmenim *Tiggy*'i bana verin lütfen. Öğretmenim, *Tiggy*'i bana!
(Teacher! Give Tiggy to me, please! To me, please!)
(Teacher ignores.)
T: *Tiggy* is coming to … Mert!
(Teacher talks with Mert who has got the *Tiggy*.)
T: Hello, *Tiggy*. How are you?
S2: I am fine How are you?
T: Thank you. What is this, *Tiggy*?
S2: Lemonade!
T: Right, well done! Next question…
S1: Öğretmenim *Tiggy*'i bana!
(Teacher! To me, please!)
(Teacher ignores.)
T: What is this, *Tiggy*?
S2: Lollipop.
T: Right! Do you like banana?
S2: Yes yummy!
T: OK, well done *Tiggy*. Kisses… Thank you!
Now, close your eyes again, close your eyes! *Tiggy* flies to … *Tiggy* flies to…
S1: (stands up and runs towards the teacher) Öğretmenim bana! Öğretmenin *Tiggy*'i bana verin!
(Teacher! To me, please! Give Tiggy to me, please!)
(Teacher ignores.)

T: *Tiggy* flies to … İpek!
S1: (seems to be unhappy, bored and tired of shouting to be involved in the activity) Offf!!!
(Teacher has the same conversation with İpek and then she flies *Tiggy* to Atalay, Perihan, Erdal and then lastly, Arda.)
T: *Tiggy* is coming to… *Tiggy* is coming to…
S1: (stands up and runs to the teacher by shouting) Öğretmenim bana!
(Teacher! To me, please!)
T: Sshhh! Sit down! *Tiggy* is coming to …, *Tiggy* is coming to … you, Arda!
(Arda sits down getting very happy and excited).
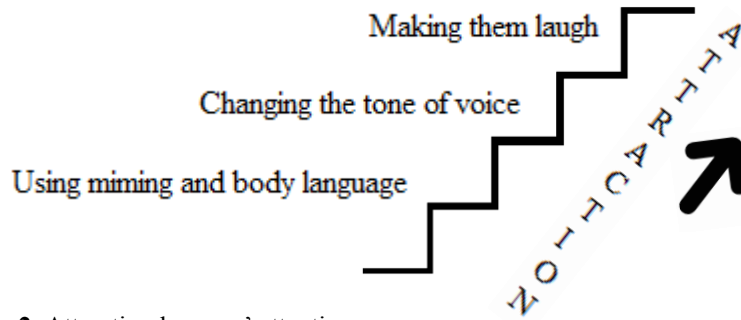
Figure 2. Attracting learners' attention
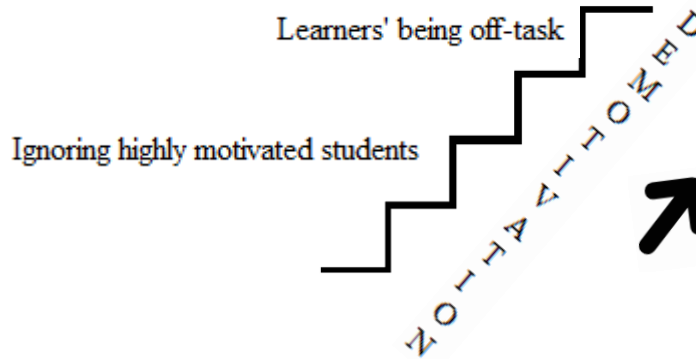
Figure 3. Leading to demotivation

In another activity, the students played a game in which they moved around the classroom without stopping. It was recorded that the teacher also moved and changed her location with the students; that is, she played the game herself with the students. Feeling that their teacher became a student enjoying the lesson made them much more motivated and energetic. Based on the recordings when the teacher also acted the role as a participant, students were more motivated and willing than the role of being an organizer or the teacher.

In another session, the teacher decided to have a competition activity which was a bit over-challenging for the students to get the rules. Being aware of the fact that the students had difficulty in understanding the activity, the teacher told a few sentences in Turkish and all the students comprehended what to do. Before that instruction told in their mother tongue, they were feeling very uneasy and stressed. However, after knowing the routes, they felt safer. This suggests that the teacher should switch to mother tongue when necessary. Especially, while

giving instructions, it is important to be sure that all the learners understand it well. Not knowing what to do next in an activity always makes students nervous and anxious.

Also, in another lesson, during a drawing and coloring activity, feeling that it was necessary to use mother tongue to help the students comprehend what they are supposed to do, she gave some key points to students in Turkish and it was seen that the students felt better and got motivated. The conversation between the teacher and the students during this activity is below;

T: What can you see in a fire station? Böyle kocaman iki tane ne olur?
(What are two things very big?)
Class: Fire truck!
T: Yes, fire truck. Peki, fire çıktığı zaman ne ile söndürürüz?
(Well, how can we put out fire?)
A few students: Hortumla.
(With a fire hose.)
T: Peki ne çıkar hortumdan?
(Then, what is it in that fire hose?)
Class: Water!
T: Very good! Şimdi fire station'a kocaman bir red fire truck çizelim. Oradan hortumuyla water fışkırtsın fire'in üzerine.
(Now, let's draw a very big red fire truck which is blowing water on the fire.)
(The students start drawing and the teacher wanders around)
T: Bengisu, beautiful!
S1: Öğretmenim ben çizemiyorum.
(Teacher! I cannot draw)
T: Peki ben buraya bir tane fire truck çizeyim. Çizmekte zorlananlar buraya baksın.
(Ok, I am going to draw my own truck here, if you have difficulty, look at mine and then try again)
(draws a fire truck) Look at me. Fire truck'ın aşağıda iki tane circle'ı olur. Here comes the water. Şuraya da fire çizelim. That's good. Look at this.
The point to be inferred from this dialog is that teacher's reinforcement and praising for the students' work make them feel satisfied, confident and more motivated.

Feeling uneasy, nervous and stressed

Having difficulty in comprehending what to do

Using the target language even in difficult instructions

MOTIVATION DEMO
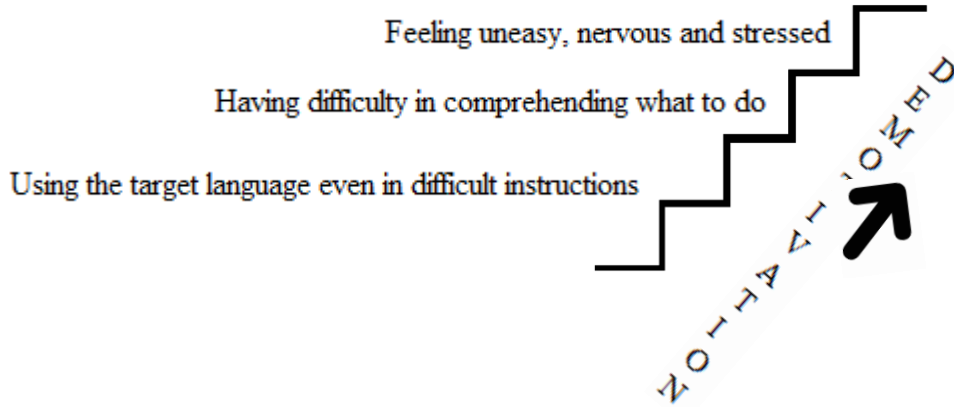
Figure 4. Effect of using only target language
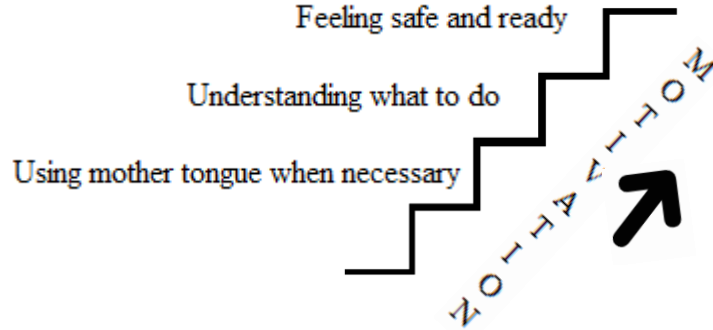
Figure 5. Effect of mother tongue usage when necessary

In another session, the teacher involved the students into a game. In this activity, the teacher was holding a few pictures without looking at them. She was just showing the pictures to the students and trying to guess the picture according to students' guidance. She was guessing and the students were saying "yes" or "no" by looking at the pictures. She could also get some clues from the students by asking some questions such as "what color is it?" when she needed. However, the recordings show that a few students were a bit unclear about what they were expected to do. When the teacher showed the picture, they said the word directly, but it was the teacher's role to guess it. Here is a conversation script below taken from that lesson;

T: (shows a picture of a post office) This is a hospital.

Class: No!

T: This is a fire station.

Class: No!

T: This is an ambulance.

Class: No!

T: Post office?

Class: Yes!

T: Ohh, post office! Yes!

OK, another one. Fire truck?

Class: No!

T: Fire station?

Class: No!

T: Ambulance?

Class: No!

T: What is the color of it? The color?

Class: No!

T: The color?

(A student called Seray raises her hand.)

Seray?

S1: Böyle zıplanan bişe.

(It is something you jump on it)

T: Ohh, fine. It is a jungle gym.

Class: Yes.

T: Another one. It is a restaurant.

Class: No!

T: What is the color of it?

(Derin raises his hand.)

Yes, Derin?
S2: Yenen bişe.
(Something to eat)
T: OK, I see it is a food. But what is the color of it?
(Mert raises his hand)
Yes Mert?
S3: Chicken.
T: No, Mert! The color.
It is a chicken, OK.
S2: Ya Mert, niye söyledin?
(Hey Mert! Why did you tell it!)
T: Derin, sshh! It's OK.
(shows another picture.)
S4: Banana!
T: Ohhh! Who is this? Kim söyledi çocuklar? Don't tell it. Eğer söylerseniz heyecanı kalmaz. Unutmayın benim bilmem gerekiyor.
(Who told it? If you tell, then there is no excitement. Don't forget that I am going to guess it)
(shows another one) the next one. Banana?
Class: No!
T: Lemonade?
Class: No!
T: What is the color of it?
(A student called Nil raises her hand)
Yes, Nil?
S5: Red.
T: Fire Station?
Class: No!
S6: Yenen bişe, öğretmenim.
(Something to eat)
T: Nasıl yenir? Show me…
(Show me how it is eaten)
(Most of the students show how it is eaten.)
S7: Circle.
T: Ohh, circle. I see. It is an apple.
Class: Yes!
The conversation shows that giving the instructions in a very clear way even in their mother tongue if necessary before beginning the activity has a significant role. They sometimes find things very complicated even when the teacher explains the activity in mother tongue. Also, pre-school children have difficulty in comprehending things even when they are familiar with it. Although they played that specific game a few times in the previous lessons, they needed to be reminded the rules of that game again to perform it in the right way.

Another inference is that understanding the questions of the teacher may be challenging for them from time to time. In that activity, the students could not get the question of "what is the color of it?" Noticing this, the teacher repeated that question insistently for a few times to make them remember it. Finally, one of the students could answer it correctly. In such cases, exemplifying the question may work. To illustrate, the teacher may have given them some guidance by showing them an object and telling its color like "this is red" and then asking the question of "what is the color of it?" again. As they are at the age of 5 or 6, they may always need sample statements to understand something better. Another conversation confirming this point of view is presented below;

T: (pointing the screen on which there are a father and a daughter in the zoo) Where is it?
Class: Father!
T: (pointing the father and the girl) OK, this is father and this is girl.
(Pointing the zoo) But where are they? Where is it?
Class: Hayvanat bahçesi! Zoo!
T: Zoo, right. Thank you.

Encouraging and praising also has great contribution to the issue of motivation of very young learners. It is made clear from the recordings that children aged 5 and 6 always need to be reinforced by the teacher. Keeping the idea that they will get a "well done", if they do it well in mind, they do their best to accomplish it. However, if they do not gain anything at the end of their struggle, they may feel that their efforts are in vain.

Video recordings presents that one of the teachers of those pre-school children was always praising the students participating the activities. She had a puppet friend in her hand and she used it as a reinforcement tool. For instance, when a student performed an activity correctly, the puppet was moving towards and kissing him/her and saying well done to that student. It was great pleasure and source of confidence for them and they made strenuous effort to be kissed and praised by their puppet friend. Also, the same teacher had a very motivating habit that she was giving lovely stickers to top five students each day. This consideration of the possibility of being chosen as one of the top five students triggered their motivation a lot. They value being rewarded so much, so they did their best to have more stickers than everyone in class.
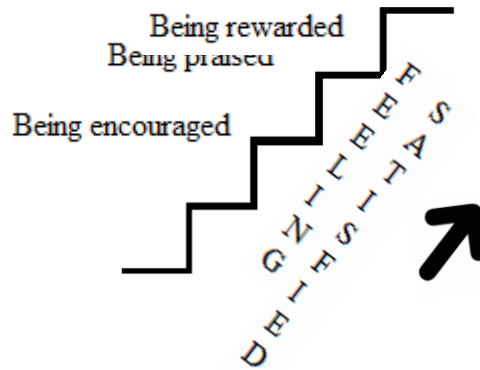
Figure 6. Positive feedback

Another activity was a coloring activity in which the children were told the number of the pictures and the colors to paint them. However, they were also allowed to choose the color of one of the pictures by themselves, which made them very enthusiastic. It is apparent that children in this study became motivated and happy because of being given a few chances to make decisions. Providing the students with the right of making a few simple decisions during the lesson is something very easy to do for the teacher. Another way to make the students feel excited is to give them choices in an activity. It is shown that students feel more responsible and sometimes even more important when their opinions are valued.
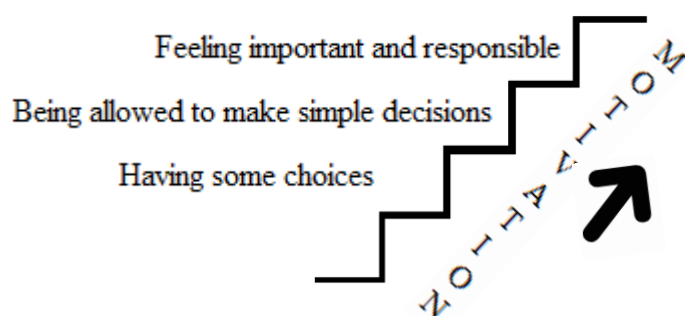
Figure 7. Making decisions

Another sign of motivation was seen in one of the recordings during a song activity in which the children were singing the song and at the same time imitating their teacher who was doing the actions of the song. After a few practices, it was time to choose a student to do actions like a teacher for their friends. A student came to the board and acted like her teacher. Having the role of the teacher was a great pleasure for that student and also reinforcement to the others who struggled a lot to do the actions without any mistakes to be chosen as the teacher. This proves that children at this age enjoy being given some different roles and duties in class. In this way they feel very talented and precious.
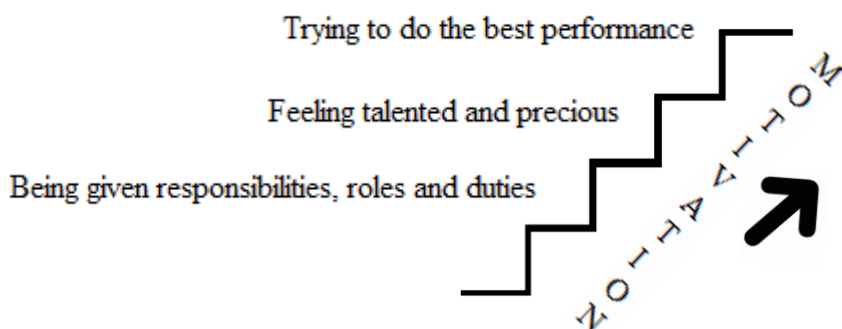
Figure 8. Having responsibilities

In another session, the teacher decided on an activity and started to give the instructions. As she thought that it was a different activity and they may have difficulty in comprehending, she tried to explain it in detail. While she was trying to explain the activity, the students got bored and started to make noise because the teacher had been talking for more than 5 minutes. The learners wanted to begin the activity immediately so they did not want to listen to those long instructions. Actually, they were right in their reaction because it is known that that age group learns by doing. Sometimes, very long instructions and explanations may be meaningless for them. They may get the point when they find themselves in the activity. At the end, they did not keep silent for a while so they lost their concentration and started to deal with some other things.

During this instruction process, one of the students was holding a piece of plastic in his hand and playing with it. The teacher who was trying to draw the learners' attention again noticed that student and took the plastic out of his hand and suddenly threw it to the bin. The student trying to explain that that piece of plastic belonged to his pencil case and was very important for him seemed to be very anxious and unhappy. The teacher was also angry and anxious

because of the disturbing noisy atmosphere in class so she did not listen to the child explaining his excuse. She only told him to sit down. The student went straightly to his seat and sat down. Unfortunately, after that event, he put his head on the desk and stopped participating in the lesson.

In the following activity, all the students were expected to get out of their seats to sing their song. As they love singing and moving around the class, they jumped out of their seats however; he was still sitting with his head on the desk. The teacher called him for a few times but he ignored his teacher and everything happening around him. This was an evidence for the assumption that the children at that age may be very sensitive. The things having no value for us may sometimes be very precious for them. Losing that piece of plastic made the little boy very unhappy. Also, not being cared by the teacher while trying to explain something offended him a lot. Because of that event which may seem to be a trivial one caused him to lose his enthusiasm for the coming sections.
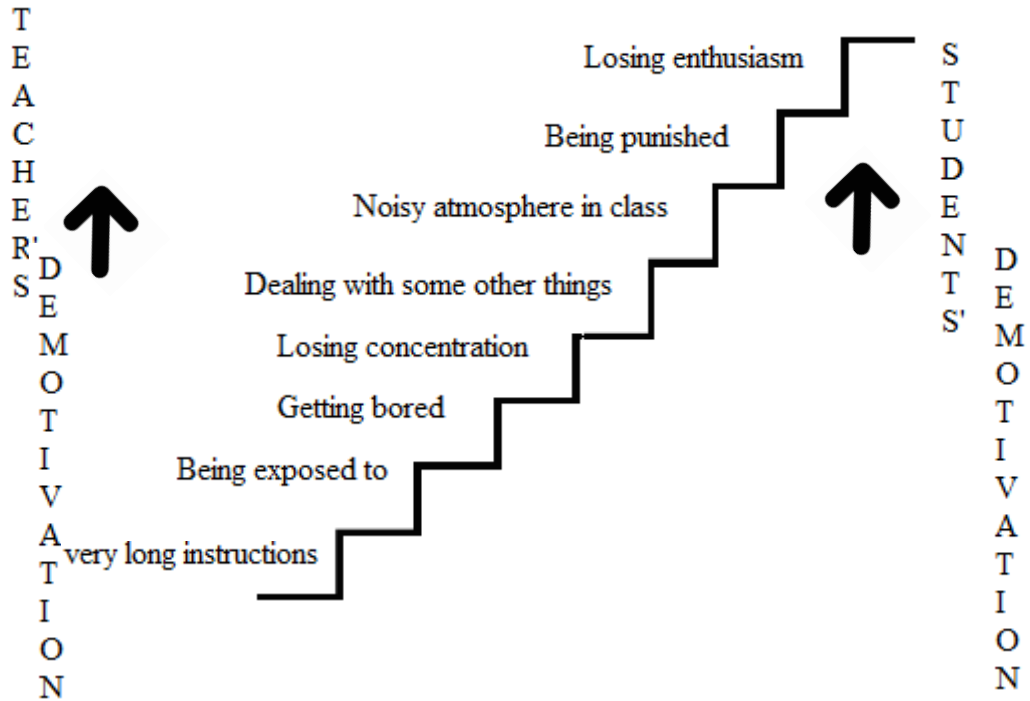
Figure 9. Losing enthusiasm

In another class, there was a misbehaving student ignoring the teacher and the activities during the lesson. He was just trying to attract other pupils' attention by disturbing them. This inevitably spoiled the classroom atmosphere. He was lying on the floor or running between the desks in spite of the teacher's warnings. The teacher noticing that some other students were being affected by the behaviors of that child and started to imitate those wrong behaviors punished the misbehaving child. She took the child to the back seat of the classroom and also he was deprived of the following activities. It was an adequate punishment and it helped the student be aware of his mistakes. Also, the other students witnessing such an event became more conscious as they inferred that they may be punished when they misbehave during the lesson. They tried to be well-behaved students for the rest of the lesson. Pre-school children tend to imitate each other's behaviors without considering whether they are right or not. Thus,

teachers' one of the major roles is to make the students be aware of the classroom rules and some adequate punishments.
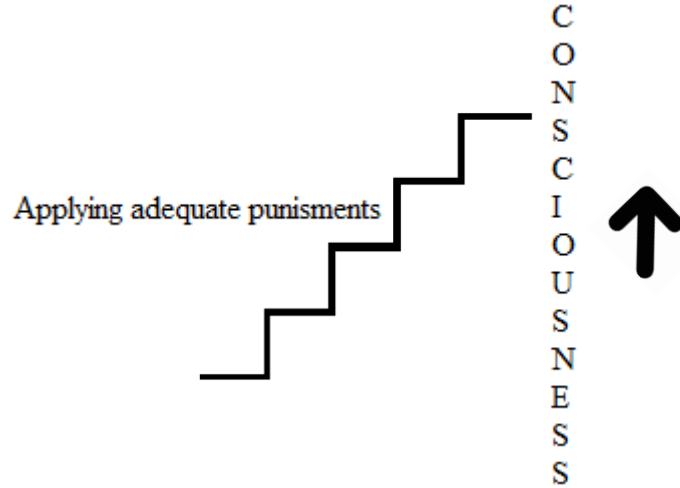
Figure 10. Effect of adequate punishments

Here is a dialog between the teacher and a student having behaving inappropriately during the lesson and teacher's punishment;
(During a game activity, one of the students insistently tried to kiss his friend although his friend does not let him do it.)
T: (goes towards the student) Umut! Ne yapıyorsun? Kalkar mısın? Gel buraya!
(Umut! What are you doing? Please, stand up! Come here!)
(takes the student to the back of the class)
 Burada oturacaksın sen. Ben sana izinsiz kimseyi öpmemen gerektiğini söylemedim mi? Cezalısın burada oturacaksın. Bu oyunu oynayamazsın.
(You are going to sit here. I told you not to kiss anyone without permission. You are punished so you cannot play this game.)
(Umut sits down at the back of the class until the end of the game)

Analysis of the Questionnaire
This questionnaire consists of *agree* and *disagree* statements (See Appendix 1). The intention of this data tool is to identify the most appropriate teachers' attitudes to increase motivation of very young learners towards learning English in a classroom setting.
Table 1 below, illustrates the descriptive analysis of this questionnaire and chi-square results.

Table.1. Analysis of Appropriate Teacher Attitudes Questionnaire

Items	A f/%	D f/%	chi – square χ^2
1	44/97.8	1/2.2	.000
2	44/97.8	1/2.2	.000
3	45/100	0/0.0	.000
4	30/66.7	15/33.3	.025
5	44/97.8	1/2.2	.000
6	44/97.8	1/2.2	.000
7	44/97.8	1/2.2	.000
8	8/17.8	37/82.2	.000
9	38.84.4	7/15.6	.000
10	43/95.6	2/4.4	.000
11	5/11.1	40/88.9	.000
12	36/80.0	9/20.0	.000
13	3/6.7	42/93.3	.000

Table 1 presents that the students strongly agreed with the following statements regarding the attitudes of the teacher; *I like my English teacher when she is friendly* (item 1: 97.8%) *and funny* (item 2: 97.8%). All the students are also in the same opinion about another statement which is that *I like my English teacher when she smiles during the lesson* (item 3: 100.0%). The results of these three items indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between *agree* and *disagree* statements.

Item 4 proves that 66.7% of the students expect their teacher to help them during the activities while 33.3% of the students disagree with this idea. The results of both the questionnaire and recordings indicate that these learners who are at the age of 5 or 6 sometimes need help from their teacher to feel safe and motivated, however, it is an also inevitable fact according to the findings that these very young learners may sometimes have very high self-esteem and they desire to do the things alone. They feel very satisfied and confident when they prove that they are able to do a task on their own. When they were asked whether they need help from their teacher or not, 15 (33.3%) out of 45 students told that they do not need any help as they have the talent and capacity to do the things alone. These 15 students said that they know how to do everything.

According to the results of item 5, 6, and 7, 97.8% of the students are in agreement that they love being encouraged, praised and rewarded by the teacher. Accordingly, the chi-square results of these three items indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between *agree* and *disagree* statements.

Item 8 proposes that the students strongly disagree with the statement that they like their teacher when she sits on her chair and teaches there. Item 9 indicates that 84.2% of the students prefer a classroom in which the teacher moves around.
Item 10 illustrates that 43 (95.6%) out of 45 students states that they like their English teacher when she uses her body language. The observations and recordings prove the fact that the teacher attracted the attention of the learners in this study when she used her body language. Seeing their teacher so energetic and motivated, they had great fun. According to Arıkan and Ulaş-Taraf (2010) it can be stated that teachers should create learning environments in which children get aural support in meaningful contexts.

In Item 11, 40 (88.9%) out of 45 students disagree the statement that they get pleasure from the lesson when their teacher talks for long periods of time. During the interviews conducted to fill in the questionnaires, the students insistently said that they got bored when they were expected to listen to their teacher for a long time. They told that they immediately want to start the task instead of listening to their teacher. Thorkildsen (2002) asserts that young children at the age of 5 to 7 need physical involvement in learning, do not sit and listen well, and remember information best when presented in a meaningful context through action.

Item 12 shows that 80.0% of the students want their teacher to show them how to do the task instead of explaining and giving instructions. Cameron (2003) states that young children are motivated to find meaning in action and interaction. Their developmental growth requires them to have some concrete examples as they are not able to conceive the abstract concepts yet.
According to Item 13, 93.3% (43 out of 45) of the students state that they do not have fun in English lessons when they are forced to complete a task when they do not desire to do so.

CONCLUSION

This study focuses on the importance of motivation in EFL learners' performance especially with young learners. Since there is strong difference between 5-7 and 8-10 year old group, the techniques for developing motivation of students highly differ. Teachers of young learners do possess different and appropriate techniques to improve their students' performance in language classes.
When the overall results are evaluated, it is observed that teacher's attitude towards the learners has a great role on students' feelings about the lesson. In accordance with the findings, it is concluded that all the potential motivating factors are available; the internal factors of the young children are activated. All these positive external reinforcements enable the young children to feel excited, happy, safe, confident and very positive towards the lesson.
Although the motivation in class has been much discussed, teachers tend to neglect its effect in most of the situations and activities. Such studies indicate that motivation is very influential in students' current success and future attitude towards language and its culture. In order to benefit much from language classes, langue teachers should be exposed to psychological training courses or in-service training concerning raising motivational elements in formal settings. Moreover, teachers may follow latest trend in language classes underlining the high importance of motivation of their students so that they can imply the positive effects of motivation and transfer such knowledge and application to their current language classes.

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THE APPLICATION OF PORTFOLIO TECHNIQUE IN ENGLISH LESSON AT THE STUDENT CENTERED EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to evaluate both the usefulness (practicalness) of portfolio study in English preparatory classes and the retention of learning by considering extra-class activities while preparing portfolio. Fifty students and two teachers took part in this study. Special state method was used in this study. During the application, control group students continued their lessons with traditional teaching methods. At the end of the application, posttest was implemented to experimental and control group to test students' academic success. Approximately two months later the test which was applied to experimental and control group students as a posttest was applied again as a retention test. According to the results of the research, it seemed that experimental group which was applied portfolio was more successful than the control group in terms of academic success level, retention level and creativity.

Keywords: *Portfolio, learning, retention, student centered education*

INTRODUCTION

The reason of the knowledge explosion is the increase of information sharing and so shared information obtains new needs. In that sense people's learning needs and satisfying style have also changed. People began to organize their own learning with the question of *how do I learn.* In this context; instructors also try to obtain retention of learning more with the following questions: *How do I have to teach? How do I have to construct the learning and teaching process?* As learning is a process, it is essential to evaluate the process effectively to realize perpetual learning and student has to stuff this process with learning activities and teacher's guidance.

Students are able to develop the critical thinking, problem solving, researching, investigation, creative thinking, communication, constructing the information and using good language skills. Besides during the process they can take feedback from the results of both products and studies with the help of activities. According to these feedback student can direct himself and correct his mistakes with the guidance of teacher.

Students are able to practice their new knowledge and they exhibit their examples. Application of new knowledge and re-present them organizedly is crucial, especially in foreign language teaching.

Measuring and evaluating whether students' get these skills with traditional techniques is a conflict while using modern teaching methods. For that reason, portfolio plays a very important

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role as it gives students opportunity to be able to determine their own performance, practice their new knowledge and exhibit their studies. So, they can show their learning experiences to themselves, their parents, teachers and friends.

Paulo, Paulson and Meyer (1991) define portfolio as a combination of student studies that reflects learner's effort, development and achievement. In this context; learner actively participates in selecting the content and determining the selection of criterions (Tezci ve Dikici, 2002). Portfolio is useful for facilitating student-centered learning in the workplace and it is both valid and reliable when program goals are clearly aligned with classroom activities (Brown, 2002).

Portfolio shows similarity with one of the modern teaching models Winnetka System in which students' studies are got together, student's knowledge level is traced and is evaluated with testing whether student reaches his aim or not (Ergün ve Özdaş, 1997:34). Portfolio is completely student's special, own study. Student can add products from his studies prepared during the learning process; photographs, his own drawings or any study which he wants to add in this file. Portfolio is a living, growing and developing collection of student studies. Student should be able to explain logically why he preferred to add a product to his collection (MEB, 2004). It can be said that portfolio is a material of both the process of learning-teaching and evaluation.

As the part of the portfolio process, students are asked to think about their needs, goals, weaknesses and strengths in language learning. They are often asked to select their best work and to explain why the work is valuable to them (Barootchi and Keshavarz, 2002).

It doesn't mean that portfolio includes every study of the student. Student begins to manifest criterions of a good study showing what he has to put in his file study with a good guidance and samples. It's expected from students collecting and selecting the products and suggesting opinions for his file (Gibbs, 2004). Students express themselves better and studies which they prepared obtain more meaningful for their learning with this study.

Portfolio, which is combined together with classroom activities, is an evaluation method for both teacher and student. It consists of reflection. It improves student's self-discipline and responsibility and it helps students to gain self-evaluation skill (http://programlar.meb.gov.tr). Such assessments tell students and their instructors how well they are developing their skills and knowledge and what they need to do to develop them further (Barootchi and Keshavarz, 2002).

Students who are evaluated with portfolio have opportunity to study and review in larger time without examination period limitation and manifest sufficiency degrees according to criterions. Students are encouraged to study in cooperation (http://earged.meb.gov.tr).

Portfolio gives opportunity to revise and improve his study. This revision and improvement submit prepared studies in evaluation to get more qualified result. It obtains opportunity to take positive criticism for both present and future studies (Erbil ve Demirezen, 2004). Student is able to improve his file reviewing his previous studies as well as evaluating feedbacks from his teacher. Before evaluation of the files (portfolio), some criterions are definite and the teacher evaluates the files.

As it is seen; portfolio is used for both student's assessment and his active participation to learning-teaching process. Using a language effectively is also necessary in foreign language

teaching. Language learning becomes permanent by usage of language. Portfolio is also beneficial to be able to obtain retention of learning and assessment of improving in foreign language teaching.

Purpose of Study

Student centered education applications are organized to obtain permanent learning in foreign language teaching like entire instructional fields. Student has to learn language with using it directly in the learning process to obtain permanent learning. Student's activities, learning materials, exercises, stories which are built up when he is preparing his file obtains student to use language actively.

In this regard; the purpose of this study is to increase the usability of portfolio study in teaching English as a foreign language and to obtain academic success and retention of using English in extra-class activities with portfolio file. Under this general propose, answers are tried to find out to following questions.

Problem

What is the affecting level of portfolio on the students' academic success, retention and creativity in student-centered education?

> *Sub-problems*
> 1. What is the affecting level of portfolio on students' academic success?
> 2. What is the affecting level of portfolio on retention of learning?
> 3. What is the affecting level of portfolio on creativity?

Assumptions

The experimental group students who joined the portfolio study prepared the file rigorously with comprehending the qualification of file, content and aim. On the contrary, traditional teaching was used in control group's lessons.

Limitations

The study is restricted with experimental (25) and control (25) groups students. Portfolio studies prepared by students are restricted with English lesson.

Definitions

Portfolio: It is an individual developing file in which student collects his favorite studies and presents his field of interest, his skills and his special studies to his teacher, parents and friends.

Traditional Education: It is a way of teaching which teacher is active, students are passive and usually lecture and question-answer methods are used.

Student Centered Education: It is a way of teaching which students actively participate in the lesson, teacher guides the students and encourages them to interrogate and research.

METHOD

In this research, 50 students from two different classes and 2 English teachers took part in application from İsçehisar Anatolian High School in Afyonkarahisar. The study was implemented to two preparatory class students in second term of 2005-2006 academic year. In

this study, practicability of portfolio is researched for English lesson and pretest-posttest assignment with the randomized matching control group design is used.

Before the application to select students whose levels are close to each other; pretest (reliability(α)=.63) was implicated to experimental and control group students and 50 students whose points close to each other are selected. These selected 50 students are divided in two groups of twenty-five as an experimental and control groups.

At the beginning of the application informative cards were given out to students about portfolio's content, aim, assessment style and the process of application and students took responsibility. Teacher guided students in necessary situations about portfolio studies. During the study, student and teacher examined the files together and then teacher gave feedback to students about the file. Portfolio included reading, writing, speaking, vocabulary and grammar subjects. Pictures, articles, projects, group-working studies, English short stories, records about the learned subject took place in portfolio. The aims of all prepared studies took place in the file.

During the application, control group students continued their lessons with traditional teaching methods (Lecture, question-answer and discussion techniques are used for all students with teacher's leadership during process). Attention was paid not to use the same methods between the control group and the experimental group. At the end of the application, posttest was implemented to experimental and control group students to test students' academic success.

Experimental group students exhibited their studies to friends and teachers. During the presentation, they stated why they selected these studies. Approximately two months later the test which was applied to experimental and control group students as a posttest was applied again as a retention test.

Arithmetic mean, standard deviation statistic processes were used for interpreting and analyzing of data received from posttest and retention test. Besides, t test was applied to compare each two group of students' answers' mean to 25 questions and data were analyzed on computer with 0,05 significance level.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings received from the research were arranged according to sub-problems given above:

What is the affecting level of portfolio on students' academic success?
At the end of the application, as a result of test with a view to measure experimental and control group students' academic success; experimental group's mean was 70,04 and its standard deviation was 10,26. However it was calculated that control group's mean was 57,4 and standard deviation was 4,74(Table 1).

The difference of results between the groups were significant for 0,05 level about academic success level ($p<0,05$). As an average, it is determined that this difference is in experimental group's favour. According to these results, experimental group students who prepared portfolio file are more successful than control group students who continued their lessons with traditional teaching methods considering academic success level in foreign language lesson.

Table 1. Comparison Between Experimental and Control Groups' Academic Success Level.

	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	df	t	p
Experimental	25	70,4	10,26				
Control	25	57,4	4,74	12,96	48	5,73	0,00

(p<0,05)

Some of the empirical studies conducted earlier reported that implementing portfolio assessment does appear to have salutary effects on instruction, student learning and attitudes. Portfolio assessment does contribute to EFL learners' achievement, because assessment instruments like portfolios provide feedback to both teachers and students (Barootchi and Keshavarz, 2002: 285).

Sub-problem; What is the effect level of portfolio on permanence of learning?
Approximately two months later, the posttest was applied again to students to test retention of learning at the end of the application. According to data of retention test; experimental group's mean is 73,76 and its standard deviation is 9,02. As a result of this test; control group's mean is 62,08 and its standard deviation is 15,04(Table 2).

Table 2. Comparison of Groups About Retention Level. (p<0,05)

	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	df	t	p
Experimental	25	73,76	9,02				
Control	25	62,08	5,04	11,68	48	5,64	0,00

(p<0,05)

So that difference between the groups for 0,05 level is significant in experimental group's favour about retention of learning (p<0,05). According to these results, experimental group students who prepared portfolio file are more successful than control group students who continued their lessons with traditional teaching methods at retention level in foreign language lesson.

Sub-problem: What is the level of affect of portfolio on creativity?
At the end of the study, in the test which was applied to students, there was a part to test students' creativity power and this part was assessed on a scale of 30 points. In this part, the students were asked to write a quatrain with using given key English words and completing the sentences appropriately according to given situations. So that the affect of portfolio study on experimental and control group students' creativity power was researched. As a result of this part's analysis; it was determined that experimental group's mean is 21,04 and its standard deviation is 3,27 however control group's mean is 16,32 and its standard deviation is 2,42 (Table 3). So that difference between the groups for 0,05 level is significant in experimental group's favour. Thus, it can be said that portfolio improves student's creativity power as well as students' academic success and retention level.

Table 3. Comparison of Groups About Creativity Power

	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	df	t	p
Experimental	25	21,04	3,27				
Control	25	16,32	2,42	4,72	48	5,79	0,00

(p<0,05)

It was observed that retention test mean was higher than success test (posttest) during application. Because of language learning continues in a life-long process, it was seen that the groups' students' language development continued in two month process. However, it was determined that success level mean was almost constant between the control and experimental groups.

As part of the portfolio process, students were asked to think about their needs, goals, weaknesses and strengths in language learning; they were often asked to select their best work and to explain why the work is valuable for them. Learner reflection in a portfolio makes an important contribution to the triangulation of information in the assessment process (Huerta-Macias, 1995).

At the end of the portfolio study, portfolio folder prepared giving information about the studies and explaining why these studies were chosen to make learning permanent. During these presentations, repetition of the items enabled both the presenters and the listeners to learn permanently. Students' exhibition of their own products and their active presentation help to increase their self-confidence. In addition, it improves student's feelings of responsibility by taking responsibility and continuing it to the end.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to findings which are obtained at the end of the analysis of research data, the experimental group students on who portfolio is applied are more successful than the control group students on who traditional education model was applied at academic success level, permanence level and the creativity. This result is the same works both in Turkey and other countries.

Learners go through their own work and base on criteria with which they have been familiarized, choose their best piece of work and explain why it is valuable. Therefore learner reflection in a portfolio makes an important contribution to the triangulation of information in the assessment process which leads to beneficial achievement (Barootchi and Keshavarz, 2002:285).

The parents, teachers and students became more aware of academic growth by preparing portfolio in the classroom. The students also felt more empowered in their own learning and became more reflective about their work (Koelper and Messerges, 2003:37). Because of the frequent feedbacks during preparation of portfolio, it gives students opportunity to evaluate themselves and it gives students auto-criticism. Moreover, it enables teacher to follow his student's development process easily with portfolio.

The selection of studies which were added in portfolio by the student, gives advantage for understanding of his abilities and his fields of interest. And it is rather important to review the studies for the following of improvement from the beginning of the process to end of it (Toper, 2004). Portfolio can provide a showcase of students' abilities, talents, interests and potentials. Portfolio was rather effective for determining students' field of interest during the application. With this aspect, portfolio guides to the teacher and students.

Students can see their self development reflections with portfolio. Portfolio enforces students to turn back and see which level they started and which level they finished it. It is easier to correct the mistakes with portfolio because students can turn back and look what they did and this gives opportunity to be successful (Koelper and Messerges, 2003).

It was determined that students' success increases their motivation by enabling them notice their own success and students continue their studies more attentively. During the preparation of portfolio it was observed that the teacher, student and parents shared the responsibility and students prepared their studies more easily. Students had a chance to show their special studies to their parents, friends and teacher and increased their self-confidence.

Communication is advanced among student, teacher and parents with these portfolio studies. It helps students to exhibit their best works which were prepared individually or cooperatively and to aware of their own learning without pressure and time limitation. It prevents individualism from being lost in a class in which students have different qualifications.

During the presentations students' usage of correct language, self expression and creating a good composition skill have developed. According to theory of multiple intelligences, students whose verbal-linguistic intelligence were dominant showed their skills during the presentation, students whose social intelligence were dominant took a good place in group works and students whose visual intelligence were dominant arranged and designed their files very attractively.

As a result of this study it was observed that students who prepared portfolio became more social, aware of their own learning and completed insufficiencies more easily with teacher's guidance and were more willingly to learn. Because of long process of preparation of portfolio in the case of preparing for different lessons at the same time, it causes problems for students. It can be appropriate to prepare portfolio in foreign language learning classes which doesn't cause similar problems.

Perhaps the study can not fulfill the aim appropriately when the necessary guidance isn't done by the teacher especially to the students who made this study for the first time. For that reason teachers have to give enough information both to students and parents about the study. Teachers have much more duties to include the parents in portfolio studies at schools where the rate of literacy is low and to include parents in some rural regions most of who do not give enough care to their children.

These sorts of studies should be widespread after application to different fields (according to application results). Portfolio has many facilities to provide students opportunities to develop an individual view of language education and it guides to the students. However, it isn't sufficient for general evaluations, competition exams and determining student's language success in a big group.

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THE EFFECT OF USE OF WEBQUEST IN SCIENCE EDUCATION ON PERSISTENCY AND ATTITUDE LEVELS FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY LESSON

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ABSTRACT

Effect of webquest method on science teaching was examined in this study as being one of the most important reflections of technology to the education and it was shown that students structured the knowledge in the coordination and enjoying with this method. The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of webquest-assisted teaching method for unit "The Structure and Properties of Matter" in the Science and Techonolgy lessons on attitude towards science lesson and retention of knowledge. Semi-experimental pattern with pre-test – post-test group was used in the study. Study group comprised of 30 students as 15-person control group, 15-person experimental group attending to a private school. "Academic Achievement Test of Science and Technology Lesson" and "Scale of Attitude Towards Science" were used in the study as a data collection tool. Data obtained were analyzed by Mann Whitney-U test and Wilcoxon test. At the end of the study, it was seen that web-assisted teaching technique did not affect attitudes of students towards science but had positive effect on level of remembering.

Keywords: *Web-assisted teaching, science and technology teaching, WebQuest, persistency, attitude towards science lesson*

INTRODUCTION

In the twenty first century when the science and technology progressed and developed continuously, also the information grew fast and this required the diversification of ways to access to information. Students are expected to be active individuals who can organize information access and internalize them during the learning process (Gülümbay, 2005).

Today the individuals acquaint with the technology in childhood before education life. Computer, internet, social study networks, mobile phones and video games surrounding them constitutes some part of this effect. Generations not benefiting from the returns of technology and science remain incapable of coping with the technology in the following stages of their lives and this inefficiency affects social even psychological development of the individual adversely (Prensky, 2001). Progress in this respect changes the world views, points of views of individuals today when technology is indispensable for the individual (Özüsağlam, 2007). Reflections of this effect in our lives are seen in school and incorporation of technology in education and increasing practice activities are considered as the purposes of education

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(Chang, 2002). Technology progressing in parallel with rate of increase of number of people introduces many opportunities for education similar to every field. When information technologies are used at schools permanently and included in curriculum and integration is achieved, learning will realize faster, more permanent and more deeply (Drew and Ausband, 2009).

Proliferation of computer that is considered as the most important and concrete product of technology, allows students to use their personal computers in their education lives therefore it also allows accessing to the information easily (Federico, 2000).

Use of computer in education increases academic success of students, motivation of lesson and at the same time it encourages students to study in cooperation (Glennan and Melmed, 1996). Moreover, technology is one of the most important assistant for the students to build confidence (Özden and Şengel, 2009). Progress of technology, the desire to follow the developing and changing world in the forefront has a considerable share in the competition of countries. To achieve this, individuals should obtain qualified education. Undoubtedly that science and technology lesson is one of the important steps to prepare the individual for the technology world (Kılıçer, 2008). For this reason, societies mainly developed countries try to increase quality of science and technology education. The fact that students are science and technology literates is related to the interaction between science and technology (MEB, 2005). Computer and internet is an assistant tool for both the student and the instructor to train individuals achieving it (Finlay, 2009). Methods and techniques used to teach terms of science are important in terms of persistency of learning. Students remember 90% of activities they participate actively. This is a high rate for the persistency of learning (Silbermen, 1996). Since science and technology includes abstract subjects in terms of content, these are the lessons that students have difficulty in understanding (Wang and Reeves, 2007). Internet and technology are the most important tools to increase motivation and capability of students to overcome subjects that they have difficulty (Halat, 2008).

Internet is used in two ways in education. These are internet-assisted and internet-based education. Internet-assisted education is of the quality to enable face to face education. Internet-based education is to realize teaching on internet directly. Responsibility of achievement belongs to mostly student for internet-based education. Student is active but teacher plays the role of guide in web-assisted education (Horzum and Çakır Balta, 2008). The reflection of internet shows itself in the field of education, too. Web-assisted learning strategy that emerged depending upon the development of internet is one of the applications in the field of education (Eşgi, 2006).

Web-assisted learning activities increase academic success and motivation of the student. At the same time, web-assisted teaching method is more efficient than traditional teaching method and its effect on attitude of student towards the lesson (Arıkan, 2006; Çetin, 2010; Hayes and Billy, 2003). Web-based teaching method offers the opportunity of more pleasing and permanent teaching to the student and makes positive contribution to internet use (Beard, Harper and Riley, 2004; Tüysüz and Aydın, 2007).

Webquest technique being one of the web-assisted teaching methods was used in this study. Webquest is a method that students performing research-based activities by organizing knowledge they have obtained by internet are in interaction with each other (Dodge, 1997). Purpose of webquest is to use technology during learning-teaching process and contribute to positive development of the student (Leahy and Twomey, 2005). Webquest being one of the roots of constructivist approach allows performance of research-based activities and enables

student to practice, brings high thinking ability (Lahaie, 2008). Many studies show that Webquest is highly efficient to develop the ability of problem-solving, high level thinking and creativeness, to increase motivation, critical thinking, active learning and to correlate with the content (Abu-Elwan, 2007; Lim and Hernandez, 2007). Webquest provides more efficient high cognitive thinking than some other activities and strategies (Kanuka, Rourke, and Lafiamme, 2007).

Moreover, webquest allows using the internet in an enjoyable way and improves attitude towards the lesson positively and it is a method that students are engaged in upper cognitive activities and persistency of learning activities are achieved (Kurtuluş and Kılıç, 2009).

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of Webquest-Assisted Teaching method on seventh grade students' attitude toward science and retention in learning "The Structure and Properties of Matter" unit in Science and Technology course. Answers of following questions were sought within this scope.

1- Is there a significant difference between attitude toward science of experimental group and control group before the practice?
2- Is there a significant difference between attitude toward science of experimental group and control group following the practice?
3- Is there a significant difference between post-test and persistency tests of experimental groups that Webquest-aided learning method is applied?
4- Is there a significant difference between post-test and persistency tests of control group?
5- Is there a significant difference between post- tests of experimental group and control group following the practice?
6- Is there a significant difference between persistency tests of experimental group and control group following the practice?

METHOD

Research Model
Present curriculum (constructivist approach) was applied to experimental group as webquest-assisted and present curriculum was applied to control group (constructivist approach) over an eight week-period during the second semester of 2010-2011. The research is semi-experimental study that is based on including experiment groups and control group. This model is a method that variables to be observe under the control of researcher to determine cause and effect relations (Karasar, 2009). One of two classes equivalent to each other was designated as the experimental and the other one was designated as the control group by objective assignment in the study. Measurements of experimental pre-procedure and experimental post-procedure were performed for both groups and efficiency of variables to be examined was searched. For this reason, pre-test–post-test control group pattern was adopted in the study (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel, 2010).

Research Group
This study was carried out a private school in Muratpasa, Antalya. Two classes of grade seven were ramdomly selected for the practice in the study. 15-person control group and 15-person experimental group was designated from the grades. Relation to ensuring the equality of the experimental and control group, independent t-test was conducted based on first semester success grade of students in science and technology lesson. Results of analysis were presented in Table 1 and it was determined that groups were equivalent. One of equivalent groups was

designated as experimental group and the other one was designated as the control group randomly.

Table 1. Results of Mann Whitney U-Test for Group Equality

Group	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
Experimental	15	13.63	204.50	84.500	.245
Control	15	17.37	260.50		

p>.05

Data Collection Tool

Academic achievement test of Science and technology lesson: Academic achievement test of science and technology lesson was prepared by the researcher to determine the level of remembering the concepts relating to "the structure and properties of matter" of students of grade 7. During the process of test preparation, questions were created to cover all acquisitions about the unit. Items were formed considering developmental characteristics of grade seven students. To ensure the validity of content, specialist opinion about the fit of items in terms of content and meaning, clear meaning, fit of grammatical rules and fit for cognitive behaviours and whether items were of the quality to measure the behaviours was employed. Corrections were made on items with the aid of specialist's opinions. 49-question items were applied to 156 grade eight students. In the end of pre-practice of the test, analyzes were carried out by means of Microsoft excel and Statistical program. While choosing the items, moderately hard items distinctiveness of which was high were chosen (Tekin, 1993). The best of two items measuring the same behaviour was chosen and academic test having 27 items was finalized. KR20 reliability coefficient of the test was found as 0.96.

Scale of Attitude Towards Science:
In this study the "Scale of Attitude Towards Science (SATS)" developed by Oğuz (2000) was employed to find out students' attitude towards science. It is a 5-point likert-type scale composed of 28 items. Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficiency of the scale was found as 0,86.

Analysis of Data
Data collected in the end of experimental process were analyzed statistically via SPSS 16.0 program. During the analysis, non-parametric test statics were used. To determine whether there was difference between experimental and control group, Mann-Whitney U test was applied. To determine the difference of pre-test and post-test of control group and pre-test and post-test of experimental group, Wilcoxon test was applied. 05 significance level was admitted for interpreting the results.

RESULTS

Results obtained by statistical analysis of data were presented in tables to test problem status for the study and interpretations about the results were presented.

Results of "Mann Whitney U Test" analysis of scores of pre-test "Scale of Attitude towards Science" of groups for the first sub-problem are seen in Table 2. While analyzing scores of pre-test "Scale of Attitude towards Science" of experimental and control group, Mann Whitney was found as U: 87.500, p>.05. No statistical difference was found between SATS scale pre-test scores of the groups. Accordingly, it can be concluded that attitudes of experimental and control group towards science are equivalent.

Table 2. Results of Mann Whitney U Test of SATS by Pre-Test Scores

Group	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
Experimental	15	17.17	257.50	87.500	.299
Control	15	13.89	207.50		

p>.05

Results of Mann-Whitney U test carried out to determine whether there was difference between SATS scale post-test of control group and experimental group getting webquest assisted teaching are seen in Table 3. Mann Whitney test abstracts for whether there was difference between SATS post-tests of experimental and control group or not can be seen in Table 3. It is seen that there is no significant difference between SATS post-test scores of control group and experimental group (U= 102.00, p>.05). Accordingly it is understood that attitudes of experimental and control group towards science are similar. In such a case, it can be concluded that webquest assisted teaching does not affect attitudes of students towards the lesson positively.

Table 3. Results of Mann Whitney U-test of SATS by Post-Test Scores

Group	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
Experimental	15	16.20	243.00	102.00	.663
Control	15	14.80	220.00		

p>.05

Results of Wilcoxon signed rank test for whether there was a significant difference between post-test of science and technology achievement about "structure and specifications of substance" of experimental group getting webquest-assisted teaching and test of persistency applied fifteen days after the test are presented in Table 4. Results of study show that there is no significant difference between scores of science achievement post-test and persistency test, $z=1.696$, p>.05. Based on this finding, it means that webquest-assisted teaching for experimental group has an effect on persistency. In other words, post-test scores of experimental group for achievement test and scores of persistency conducted 15 days later are equivalent. Students remember the knowledge they have learnt.

Table 4. Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test of Scores of Test of Persistency and Post-Test of Achievement Test of Experimental Group

Achievement test		n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	P
Directions	Negative Ranks	3	5.83	17.50	1.696[*]	.090
	Positive Ranks	9	6.72	60.50		
	Ties	3				
	Total	15				

*based on negative ranks

Results of Wilcoxon signed rank test conducted to demonstrate whether there was a difference between achievement test post-test and test of persistency conducted 15 days later during the experimental process of control group or not are presented in Table 5. Considering the analysis result, there is a significant difference between scores of post-test of achievement test and test of persistency of control group students not participating in any experimental process (z= 2.452, P<.05). It is seen that this difference is positive ranks in other words in favour of scores of persistency taking line totals of difference scores into consideration. Accordingly, it may be said that teaching with methods and techniques fit for "2005 primary school science and technology lesson program" has positive effects on level of remembering of students.

Table 5. Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test of Post-Test and Persistency Test Scores of Control Group for Achievement Test

Achievement test		n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	P
Directions	Negative Ranks	1	13.50	13.50	2.452[*]	.014
	Positive Ranks	13	7.4	91.50		
	Ties	1				
	Total	15				

*based on negative ranks

Findings about change of difference of achievement test pre-test scores of experimental and control group are presented in Table 6. In accordance with study findings, a significant difference is present between achievement test scale post-test scores of control group not getting Webquest-assisted teaching and experimental group getting Webquest assisted method (U= 55.50, p <.05). It can be concluded by means of ranks total in the Table that Webquest-assisted method increases achievement test of students.

Table 6. Results of "Man Whitney U-test" of Scores of Science and Technology Achievement Test Post-Test of Experimental and Control Group Students

Group	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
Experimental	15	19.30	289.50	55.50	.017[*]
Control	15	11.70	175.50		

*p< .05

Test results showing the significance of persistency academic success levels and post-test of control group instructed with present curriculum and experimental group instructed as webquest-assisted and present curriculum are shown in Table 7. It was found out that there was not a significant difference between persistency academic success levels and post-test scores of experimental and control group as a result of experimental study as per Table 7. U=110.50, p>.05.

Table 7. Results of "Man Whitney U-test" of Scores of Achievement Test Persistency Test of Experimental and Control Group

Group	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
Experimental	15	15.37	230.50	110.50	.931
Control	15	15.63	234.50		

p>.05

CONCLUSION

It is seen that analyzing the effect of webquest-assisted teaching method applied to experimental group within the scope of study towards science and technology lesson of students, this procedure does not affect attitude towards science. However, it is understood that it has positive effect on level of remembering of "science and technology academic success"of experimental group instructed by present curriculum and webquest-assisted teaching method. In addition to this, an increase is in question for persistency test applied fifteen days later to the control group that lesson was instructed in accordance with present curriculum.

DISCUSSION

It was determined based on findings of this study that webquest-assisted teaching method did not affect attitude towards science and technology lesson. When the literature is examined, it is expressed that the webquest application has a positive effect upon the attitude of students (Akçay, 2009; Çığrık, 2009; Halat, 2008; Kılıç, 2007; Tüysüz and Aydın, 2007). According to onother study attitude of internet network-based learning towards science was examined. It was seen that internet network-based learning had positive effect on attitude towards science as a result of experimental process (Özden and Şengel 2009).

On the other hand the reason of not discovering a significant difference between the points of attitudes of participants towards the lesson can be explained by teaching the lessons from the same curriculum, by being a private school and for this reason having the same social environment, by having a limited application time and by the necessity of a long time in the applications towards changing the behaviors such as attitude. In the study of Çepni, Taş and Köse (2006), it is said that computed-aided application did not change the attitude of students toward science and as a reason it is emphasized that it is hard to change the attitude toward science in a limited time. Similarly, Arıkan (2007), Şahin (2010) and Gökalp (2011) reached the conclusion that the webquest application did not change the attitude of students toward lesson.

It was determined by the findings of this study that webquest-assisted teaching method had positive effect on persistency of knowledge.

However, it is seen that it helps to the students of the control group in which constructivist approached lessons are thought, to remember the knowledge. So, it can be said that webquest application effects the level of storing the knowledge in a positive way. When the related literature is examined, it is seen that the webquest application is effective in being more successful and continuing it (Akçay, 2009; Çığrık, 2009; Börekçi, 2010; Gökalp, 2011; Kılıç, 2007; Kurtuluş and Kılıç, 2009; Zacharia, Xenofontons and Monoli, 2011).

In addition to this, the webquest application helps the students to combine the knowledge they are going to obtain with the old knowledge. For this reason, it also effecting storing the knowledge in a positive way. In the study of Halat (2007) and Smith and Robinson (2003), it was emphasized that the webquest application contributes to storing level. According to the study of Akpınar and Ergin (2005) teaching the science and technology lessons with a constructivist approach effects the academic success of the student in a positive way.

Hancer and Yalcin (2009) with seventh grade students in primary school, 29 experimental and 29 control group students being total 58 students, it was seen that constructive approach–based computer assisted teaching had positive effect on academic success and persistency of learning compared to teacher-centered method. Sanford, Townsend-Rocchiccioli, Trimm and Jacobs (2010) suggest that webquest allows creativeness and more efficient learning and contributes to persistency.

As a result it is seen that the webquest usage did not effect the attitude of students toward science and technology lessons but it effects the storing level in a positive way. In order to increase the effectiveness of this method, while preparing the webquest, degrees of students and their science and technology lessons acquisitions and individual and group working opportunities should be considered. In addition to this, parents should be aware of technology

and technologic developments and should encourage the teachers and the students in webquest usage.

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DIE FUNKTIONEN DER AUFFORDERUNGSSÄTZE IN DER TÜRKISCHEN ALLTAGSSPRACHE

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to explain the functions of imperative sentences in daily Turkish language within the framework of pragmatic theories. In this respect, the study first discusses the definitions and functions of imperative sentences in line with the studies about the functionality of imperative sentences in functional pragmatics. Then, the functions of imperative sentences in Turkish are explained. These explanations are based on the examples of sixteen different functions of imperative sentences in the Turkish language. The examples are selected from daily-language discourses. These examples are taken from speeches recorded and then transcribed. Each example shows a different function of imperative sentences. Before giving examples, the study briefly explains which imperatives refer to which acts with respect to pragmatic theories. The purpose of the study is to show that imperatives are used not only for commands or demands. The study reveals that the functions of imperative sentences are influenced by the status and age of a speaker in the interaction setting as well as the form and purpose of imperative sentences.

Keywords: *Imperative Sentences, Their Function, Daily Turkish Language, Daily Discourses*

EINLEITUNG

Ziel dieser Arbeit ist es, zu zeigen, welche Funktionen die Aufforderungssätze in der türkischen Alltagssprache haben. Aus diesem Grund werden in der Arbeit alltägliche Gespräche ausgesucht und bestimmte Teile dieser Gespräche als Beispiele angeführt. Die Thesen wurden aus der Funktionalen Pragmatik gewonnen.

1. Aufforderungssätze
Bevor ich mit den Funktionen der Aufforderungssätze in der türkischen Alltagssprache beginne, will ich zuerst diskutieren, was Aufforderungssätze sind und welche Funktionen sie haben. Wie man weiß, gehören die Aufforderungssätze zu den direktiven Sprechakten (mehr dazu: Glück, 1993, s. 67-68). „Mittels Aufforderungen werden notwendige Handlungen von einem Aktanten verlangt." (Rehbein, 1977, s. 111). Mit Searle (1979) kann man sagen, dass der Aufforderungssatz ein Versuch ist, den Hörer dazu zu bringen, etwas zu tun. (s. 101) Wenn es um die imperativischen Aufforderungen geht, ist es von der Interaktion abhängig, ob ein Sprecher die Grenzen des Hörers überschreitet oder nicht. Wenn der Sprecher die Grenzen des Hörers verletzt, wird der Hörer nicht tun, was der Sprecher von ihm verlangt. In einem solchen Fall wird den Aufforderungen entweder widersprochen oder sie werden abgelehnt. (Vgl. zu Auffordern, Widersprechen und Ablehnen Lüger, 2002). Dabei spielt auch die Position und das Alter des Sprechers eine wichtige Rolle. Damit ist gemeint, ob der Sprecher eine höhere Position hat oder ob er die gleiche Position wie der Hörer hat, und ob er älterer oder jüngerer

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ist. Die Konstellation, in der sich der Sprecher und der Hörer befinden, ist auch bestimmend. All diese Faktoren spielen eine große Rolle bei den Aufforderungssätzen, die je nach dem Gebrauch und dem Zweck des Sprechers ganz unterschiedliche Funktionen haben.

1.1 Funktionen der Aufforderungssätze in der türkischen Alltagssprache

In der Alltagssprache haben die Aufforderungssätze ganz verschiedene Funktionen. Für diese Funktionen beziehe ich mich auf Sarıçoban/Hişmanoğlu und will diese Funktionen zuerst auflisten und dann an Beispielen verdeutlichen.

Die Funktionen der Aufforderungssätze im Türkischen:

1) Befehlen	9) Flehen
2) Bitten	10) Anweisen
3) Wünschen	11) Verfluchen
4) Ratgeben	12) Drohen
5) Warnen	13) Erlauben
6) Vorschlagen	14) Verbieten
7) Anbieten	15) Versprechen
8) Einladen	16) Verwundern

1.1.1 Befehlen

Befehlen ist im türkischen Alltag ein viel verwendeter Akt. Dieser Akt zeigt nicht nur die überlegene Position des Sprechers dem Hörer gegenüber, sondern der Sprecher steuert den Hörer (mehr dazu vgl. Searle, 979, s. 101). Der Hörer befindet sich also im Kontrollfeld des Sprechers (Rehbein, 1977, s. 208). Die Befehle werden nicht nur in den Institutionen erteilt und befolgt, sondern auch in homileischen Diskursen. In einem homileischen Diskurs spielt aber nicht nur die überlegene Position des Sprechers gegenüber dem Hörer eine entscheidende Rolle, sondern die Interaktion und die Konstellation, denn die Aktanten in ebenbürtigen Positionen geben ebenso viele Befehle wie die Aktanten in einer Institution. Dazu ein Beispiel:

(B1) Befehl des Telefonierens

(233) (G)	Ben İstanbul'a geldiğimde yine uğrarım yanına.
	Wenn ich nach Istanbul komme, schaue ich wieder bei dir vorbei.
(234) (E)	Telefonumu biliyorsun zaten.
	Du kennst ja meine Telefonnummer.
(235) (G)	Hıhı.
	Hmhm.
(236)	Biliyorum.
	Ich weiß sie.
(237) (E)	Tamam.
	In Ordnung.
(238)	O zaman ulaş bana arada!
	Dann melde dich mal an bei mir!
(239) (G)	Tamam.
	In Ordnung.

G und E sind zwei Freundinnen. E lebt in İstanbul und G in Eskişehir. E und G treffen sich in der Wohnung von E in İstanbul. Sie haben gleiche Positionen, denn beide sind Studentinnen. Von einem Kontrollfeld ist auch nicht die Rede. Die Befehle von E in der Äußerung (238) "O zaman ulaş bana arada!" *(Dann melde dich mal an bei mir!)* ist ein Befehl. Und dieser Befehl

wird von G angenommen, in dem sie "Tamam" (*In Ordnung*) sagt. Solche Art von Befehlen haben mit den Beziehungen der Aktanten zu tun und dank dieser Beziehungen kooperiert der Hörer mit dem Sprecher. Diese Kooperation wird aus Gefälligkeit realisiert. Die Interaktion wird aufgrund der guten Beziehung beeinflusst und damit ist der Fortgang des Gesprächs gesichert.

1.1.2. Bitten

Wie man weiß, ist Bitten eine Unterform der Aufforderung, die mit der Höflichkeit zu tun hat. Der Sprecher mit seinem höflichen Handeln verlangt von dem Hörer, dass er etwas tut. Somit beeinflusst der Sprecher den Hörer und der Hörer realisiert generell, was der Sprecher von ihm verlangt, um nicht als unhöflich abgestempelt zu werden.

(B2) Bitten um Tee

(110) (O)	Meral?	
	Meral?	
(111)	Sen içer misin çay?	
	Trinkst du Tee?	
(112) (M)	Olur Hocam.	
	Ja, hocam.	
(113)	Alıyım ben de.	
	Ich nehme auch einen.	
(114)(O)	İki tane çay getirirseniz seviniriz.	
	Wenn Sie uns zwei Tee bringen würden, würde ich mich freuen.	
(115) (Ç)	Peki Hocam.	
	Gut, hocam.	

M ist die Studentin, O ist die Lehrkraft, Ç ist der Teeverkäufer an der Universität. Es muss hier erklärt werden, dass dieses Gespräch in dem Zimmer der Lehrkraft aufgenommen wurde. Die Lehrkraft steht wegen der Position an der Universität über der Studentin und über dem Teeverkäufer und wird mit „hocam" (*mein Lehrer*) angesprochen. In diesem Ausschnitt des Transkripts bittet die Lehrkraft (O) den Teeverkäufer um zwei Tassen Tee (114). Aus diesem Grund kann man sagen, dass Bitten nichts mit der Position zu tun hat, sondern mit der Höflichkeit der Aktanten.

1.1.3 Wünschen

Wenn ein Sprecher etwas wünscht, drückt er das direkte oder indirekte Mögen von etwas aus. Die Wünsche werden gegenüber einer zweiten oder aber auch einer dritten Person ausgedrückt, die nicht immer in der Sprechsituation involviert ist (Rehbein, 1999, s. 118).

(B3) Gute Besserung wünschen

(37) (A)	Annen fizik tedaviye gidiyormuş yaa noldu?	
	Deine Mutter bekommt Krankengymnastik, ja, was ist denn passiert?	
(98)	Geçmiş olsun!	
	Gute Besserung!	
(99)	Bi hastalık, bişey mi var?	
	Was hat sie denn, eine Krankheit?	
(100) (P)	Yaaa **…** rutin hastalığının dışında işte (bi) bu bel fıtığı tekrarladı annemin.	
	Jaaa, ... außer ihrer üblichen Krankheit hat meine Mutter (außerdem) wieder ihren Bandscheibenvorfall.	

A und P sind zwei Freundinnen, die sich in der Wohnung von A getroffen haben. Sie reden in diesem Teil des Gesprächs über die Krankheit von P's Mutter. A kennt die Vorgeschichte der Krankheit (97). Und dann kommt ein Wunsch vor, indem A „Geçmiş olsun!" *(Gute Besserung!)* gesagt wird.

1.1.4 Rat geben

Mit Rehbein (1977) kann man das Ratgeben als unterstützende Aufforderungen klassifizieren. Beim Rat geben bewertet der Sprecher eine der Handlungsalternativen des Hörers. Er teilt dem Hörer diese Handlungsbewertung mit.

(B4) Raten zum Zertifikat

(26) (P)		Yaaa patronlar da işine geldiği gibi davranıyo.
		Jaaa, Chefs benehmen sich, wie es ihnen passt.
(27)		Yani mühendis olup bi/bi buçuk milyar maaş vermektense ııı lise mezunu alıyo.
		Anstatt einem Ingenieur ein, eineinhalb Milliarden Gehalt zu zahlen, ääh, nehmen sie lieber einen Abiturienten.
(28)		Aynı işi ona yaptırıyo.
		Und lassen sie ihn die gleiche Arbeit machen.
(29)		Asgari ücrete çalıştırıyo.
		Sie lassen ihn für den Mindestlohn arbeiten.
(30)		Onlar da haklı kendince.
		Ihrer Meinung nach haben sie Recht.
(31) (A)		Yaa valla akıl vermek gibi olmasın da, yani hazır şu anda elindeyken bir sürü sertifika al yani sadece diploma yetmiyo.
		Na, es soll ja wirklich nicht wie belehrend klingen, aber du hast es jetzt in deiner Hand, mach eine Reihe von Zertifikaten, nur ein Diplom reicht nicht.
(32)		Çünkü diploması olan o kadar insan var ki, (yani) aralarından seçilmen için bir farkın olması gerekiyo.
		Denn es gibt so viele Personen mit Diplom, um (nämlich) unter ihnen ausgewählt zu werden, musst du dich von ihnen unterscheiden.
(33) (P)		Öyle yaa.
		So ist das.

A und P reden über die schlechten Bedingungen in der Arbeitswelt. P behauptet, dass die Arbeitgeber besonders die gut ausgebildeten Arbeitnehmer unterbezahlt arbeiten lassen (26, 27,28, 29, 30). In der Äußerung (31) kommt zuerst ein höflicher Ausdruck auf, in dem A behauptet, dass sie ihre Freundin P nicht belehren will, aber sie rät ihr, indem sie behauptet, dass das Diplom nicht ausreiche, sondern sie viele Zertifikate erlangen sollte. Wenn man diese Äußerung paraphrasiert, heißt es, dass P viele Zertifikate haben muss, wenn sie eine Arbeit finden und nicht in die Lage der anderen ausgebildeten Menschen geraten will.

1.1.5 Warnen

Beim Warnen handelt es sich darum, dass der Sprecher glaubt, dass ein Ereignis oder Zustand eintreten wird und es nicht im Interesse des Hörers ist (Vgl. dazu Searle, 1979, s. 104).

(B5)   **Warnen vor der Schnelle**

(135) (B)		Öğretim görevlisi olduğum gün bütün bunların hepsini bırakacam ama …
		An dem Tag, an dem ich Lehrkraft werde, werde ich aber all diese aufgeben...
(136) (T)		Canım, biraz yavaş ilerle!

		Meine Liebe, geh es langsam an!
(137)	(B)	Niye?
		Warum denn?
(138)	(T)	İnşallah o da olur da…
		Na, hoffentlich klappt das auch...
(139)	(B)	Bakalım…
		Schauen wir mal...

B und T sind zwei Studentinnen, die gut befreundet sind. B ist im letzten Semester ihres Studiums und besucht auch private Kurse, die ihr viel Zeit und Kraft kosten, damit sie die Bedingungen der Prüfungen erfüllen kann und Lehrkraft an der Universität wird. Aus diesem Grund behauptet sie, dass sie alle ihre Beschäftigungen aufgeben wird, falls sie Lehrkraft an einer Universität wird (135). Diese Behauptung ist für T nicht glaubhaft, aus diesem Grund warnt sie B, dass sie all diese nicht so schnell und leicht erreichen kann und sagt: „Canım, biraz yavaş ilerle!" (*Meine Liebe, geh es langsam an!).*

1.1.6 Vorschlagen
Vorschläge sind solche Äußerungen, mit denen man für oder gegen ein bestimmtes Handeln spricht oder entscheidet. Etwas jemandem vorschlagen ist eine Art Verpflichtung, mit der ein Sprecher einen Hörer dazu bringt, etwas zu tun (S. zu exerzitiven Äußerungen Austin, 1979, s. 173).

(B6) Vorschlagen Zusammenzugehen

(70)	(L)	Çok güzel oyunları, Brecht'i falan çok kötü oynayanlar vardı.
		Es gab sehr gute Theaterspiele, aber in Brechts Stücken haben sie sehr schlecht gespielt.
(71)	(S)	Evet.
		Ja.
(72)		Şey ama ya tiyatroya birlikte gidemedik ama sinema günleri var.
		Dings, ja aber ins Theater konnten wir nicht zusammen gehen, aber da sind die Kinotage.
(73)		Yine iki…
		Wieder zwei…
(74)	(L)	Evet.
		Ja.
(75)	(S)	On iki Mayısta ona …
		Sie am zwölften Mai…
(76)	(L)	( )
(77)	(S)	Hıhı.
		Hmhm.
(78)		Ona mutlaka birlikte ya…
		Wir sollten sie unbedingt gemeinsam…
(79)	(L)	Olur.
		Ok.

L und S sind zwei Frauen, die zuerst vom Theater reden. S behauptet, dass es gute Theaterspiele gab, aber die Darsteller die Theaterspiele von Brecht nicht gut gespielt hätten (70). Diese Äußerung wurde von S bejaht (71). In der Äußerung (71) bemerkt S, dass sie nicht zusammen ins Theater gehen konnten, aber es bestimmte Filmtage gäbe. Diese Tage beginnen am zwölften Mai. S schlägt vor, dass sie unbedingt zusammen gehen sollten (78). Dieser Vorschlag wird von S akzeptiert (79).

1.1.7 Anbieten
Wie das Vorschlagen kann man das Anbieten in unterstützende Aufforderungen einordnen. Ein Sprecher wünscht, dass der Hörer etwas tut. (Vgl. dazu Searle,1979, und Rehbein, 1977). Diese Wünsche werden von dem Hörer entweder erkannt oder zurückgestellt.

(B7) Süßigkeit Anbieten

(32) (E)	Şeker buyurun!	
	Süßigkeiten, bitte!	
(33) (M)	Yok ben almayayım kızım.	
	Nein, ich nehme keine, meine Tochter.	
(34)	Şekerim var da yiyemiyorum.	
	Ich habe ja Diabetes und kann sie nicht essen.	
(35) (E)	Bari lokum alsaydınız!	
	Dann hätten Sie Lokum nehmen sollen!	
(36) (M)	Sağol ben almayayım.	
	Danke, ich nehme es nicht.	

M besucht E in ihrer Wohnung. E bietet M Bonbons an, aber M lehnt dieses Angebot ab, indem sie angibt, Diabetes zu haben. E bietet ihr Lokum an, aber dieser Wunsch von E wird ebenfalls zurückgewiesen (32-33-34-35-36).

1.1.8 Einladen
Beim Einladen drückt der Sprecher nicht nur Wünsche aus, sondern auch seine Gefühle kommen vor und der Hörer reagiert auf das Handeln des Sprechers. (Vgl. dazu Austin, 1979, s. 178-179-180).

(B8) Ins Wohnzimmer bitten

(1) (E)	Merhaba	
	Hallo	
(2)	Hoşgeldiniz!	
	Herzlich Willkommen!	
(3) (M)	Hoşbulduk.	
	Danke.	
(4) (E)	Şöyle salona buyurun lütfen!	
	Kommen Sie doch bitte so ins Wohnzimmer!	
(5) (M)	Olur tabii ki.	
	Gerne natürlich.	

M besucht E beim Zuckerfest. E begrüßt ihren Gast (1-2) und M bittet ihren Gast in das Wohnzimmer. E folgt diesem Wunsch.

1.1.9 Flehen
Beim Flehen geht es um Forderungen des Sprechers an den Hörer und die Forderungen des Sprechers haben m. E. nicht nur mit seinen Wünschen zu tun sondern, auch er fordert den Hörer auf, etwas zu tun, indem er den Hörer mit seinen Emotionen beeinflusst. Wann diese Forderungen erfüllt werden, hat nicht immer mit dem freiwilligen Handeln des Hörers zu tun und er befindet sich irgendwie unter dem Druck des Sprechers.

(B9) Zu der Schwester flehen

(87)	(Ç)	Ooo 7 olmuş!
		Ooh, es ist schon 7!
		[Saatine bakıyor.
		[Schaut auf ihre Uhr
(88)		Ben çıkayım yaaa.
		Ich gehe dann mal.
(89)		Daha yemek yicem.
		Ich will noch essen.
(90)	(G)	Eee annemleri beklemicek misin?
		Also, willst du nicht auf unsere Eltern warten?
(91)	(Ç)	Beklersem geç kalırım.
		Wenn ich auf sie warte, verspäte ich mich.
(92)		Sen söylersin de mi?
		Du sagst es ihnen, nicht?
(93)	(G)	Tamam söylerim ben.
		In Ordnung, ich sag es ihnen.
(94)		Hadi sen çık!
		Los, dann geh!
(95)	(Ç)	Saol abla!
		Danke, Schwester!

Ç und G sind zwei Schwestern, die sich zu Hause über tägliche Ereignisse unterhalten. Ç ist Schülerin und G ist älter als Ç. Weil G die ältere Schwester ist, fleht Ç ihre ältere Schwester, etwas zu tun, das ihre Eltern eigentlich nicht erlauben. Ç will um 7 Uhr draußen essen gehen (87-88-89). Das erstaunt G und deswegen fragt sie „Eee annemleri beklemiyecek misin?" *(Äh, willst du nicht auf unsere Eltern warten?)* Auf die Frage antwortet Ç, dass sie sich verspäten würde, wenn sie auf sie warten würde (91). Dazu fordert sie von ihrer Schwester, dass diese es den Eltern sagt. Mit dieser Forderung (92) macht sie ihre Schwester verantwortlich. Aufgrund dieses Flehens akzeptiert G, was ihre Schwester Ç von ihr verlang hat (93-94).

1.1.10 Anweisen

Wenn ein Sprecher dem Hörer Anweisungen gibt, und diese Anweisungen von dem Hörer befolgt werden, steuert der Sprecher den Hörer (mehr dazu Rehbein, 1977, s. 134). Diese Steuerungen lassen den Hörer keinen Freiraum und begrenzen seine Handlungen.

(B10) Grüße anweisen

(79)	(M)	Bize müsaade kızım.
		Mit deiner Erlaubnis, meine Tochter.
(80)		Biz kalkalım.
		Wir stehen auf.
(81)		Daha gidecek çok yer var.
		Wir müssen noch zu einigen gehen.
(82)		Siz ilk kapısınız.
		Ihr seid die ersten.
(83)	(E)	Otursaydınız ya!
		Ihr hättet noch bleiben sollen!
(84)		Bizimkiler gelirlerdi birazdan.
		Unsere Eltern wären bald gekommen.
(85)	(M)	Olsun.
		Trotzdem.

(86)   Selam söylersin bizden!
                 Grüß sie von uns!
(87)   Bayramlarını da kutla annenle babanın!
                 Gratuliere deiner Mutter und deinem Vater zu den Feiertagen!
(88) (E)   Peki efendim.
                 Natürlich, efendim.

M ist zum Zuckerfest bei E zu Besuch. M ist die ehemalige Lehrerin von E. Die Festbesuche sind eigentlich kurz, denn man besucht nicht nur die Verwandten, sondern auch die Freunde, die Nachbarn etc. Aus diesem Grund will M jetzt gehen und erklärt, dass sie noch viele Besuche machen muss (79-80-81). Weil die Eltern von E auch zum Zuckerfest zu Besuch sind, erklärt sie, dass ihre Eltern in Kürze kommen werden und sie bittet M, dass sie noch bleiben solle (83-84), aber M will nicht auf E's Eltern warten (85). Dann kommen die Anweisenungen von M in den Äußerungen (86 und 87) „Selam söylersin bizden! Bayramlarını da kutla annenle babanın!" (*Grüß sie von uns! Gratuliere deiner Mutter und deinem Vater zu den Feiertagen!)*. Diesen Anweisungen werden von E befolgt (88).

1.1.11 Verfluchen
Verfluchen ist eine negative Wunschformel, aber es gibt negative und positive Verwendungen von Flüchen. Negativ ist, wenn man wünscht, dass jemand oder etwas in einen schlechten Zustand gerät oder aber in einem schlechten Zustand bleibt. Verfluchen sind Routineformeln, die mit negativen Gefühlen verbunden sind (Vgl. Duman, 2004).

(B11) Den Fußballspieler verfluchen
(1) (E)   Durun ikinci yarı başladı!
                 Wartet, die zweite Halbzeit hat angefangen!
(2)   Ses ver baba!
                 Stell mal lauter, Papa!
(3) (B)   Kim kim oynuyor yav?
                 Wer spielt denn?
(4) (E)   Galatasaray ile İstanbul Büyükşehir Belediye.
                 Galatasaray und Istanbul Büyükşehir Belediye.
(5)   Kendi evinde Galatasaray.
                 Ein Heimspiel für Galatasaray.
(6)   Aaa!
                 Ach so!
(7)   Bu şimdi faul mü Allah aşkına yaaa!
                 Ist das nun etwa ein Foul, um Gottes Willen?
(8) (Y)   Yaa…
                 Mann…
(9)   Yalandan atıyor kendini birden yaa!
                 Der wirft sich einfach absichtlich und grundlos hin, Mann!
(10) (B)   Adam yeterince geriye gitmedi ((Televizyon spikerinin sesi geliyor)).
                 Der ist nicht genug zurückgegangen ((Die Stimme des Moderators ist zu hören)).
(11) (Y)   Allah kahretmesin yaa!
                 Gott möge ihn nicht verfluchen, Mann!
(12) (B)   Tam çizgide tuttu topu.
                 Er hat den Ball genau auf der Linie gehalten.

Drei Männer (E, B und Y) schauen im Fernsehen ein Fußballspiel. E und Y sind Brüder und B ist der Vater. Dieser Teil des Transkripts zeigt die Phase, als die zweite Hälfte des Fußballspiels beginnt (1). Dieses Fußballspiel ist zwischen Galatasaray und İstanbul Büyükşehir Belediye (4). E behauptet, dass gerade kein Foul gewesen sei (7). Es ist für Y auch kein Foul (8). Wegen dieses Fouls ist Y verärgert und dann kommt eine positive Verwendung des Verfluchens, in dem er sagt: „Allah kahretmesin yaa!" (*Gott möge dich nicht vefluchen, Mann!*)

1.1.12 Drohen

Drohen kann man in die regulativen Aufforderungen einordnen. Der Sprecher steuert den Handlungsprozess des Hörers. „Der Sprecher ist der Inhaber der Sanktionsmacht selbst." (Rehbein 1977, s. 316 und s. 333).

(B12) Dem ältern Bruder drohen

(83) (Y)	Abi telefondan bir mesaj atabilir miyim?	
	Bruder, darf ich mal von deinem Handy eine sms schicken?	
(84) (A)	Yine mi lan?	
	Schon wieder, Mann?	
(85) (Y)	Ama bu seferki çok önemli.	
	Aber diese ist sehr wichtig.	
(86) (A)	Hadi ordan!	
	Ach, was!	
(87)	Her defasında aynı bahane.	
	Jedes Mal die gleiche Ausrede.	
(88)	Milletvekili gibsin ya!	
	Du bist wie ein Abgeordneter, ey!	
(89)	Telefonun hiç susmuyo.	
	Dein Telefon gibt nie Ruhe.	
(90)	Tabii buna kontür mü dayanır.	
	Natürlich würde dir kein Guthaben für dein Handy ausreichen.	
(91) (Y)	Sen şimdi telefonundan mesaj attırıyor musun attırmıyor musun?	
	Lässt du mich jetzt von deinem Handy eine sms versenden, oder nicht?	
(92) (A)	O ne demek öle?	
	Was soll das denn heißen?	
(93)	Beni tehdit mi ediyosun sen?	
	Drohst du mir etwa?	
(94) (Y)	Yaa abi ne alakası var?	
	Ey, Bruder, was soll das denn damit zu tun haben?	

Y und A sind Geschwister. Y ist jünger als A und sie sind zu Hause und reden in diesem Teil des Transkripts über die Verwendung des Handys von Y. Weil die Schwester A das Handy sehr häufig verwendet, will der ältere Bruder A ihr nicht sein Handy geben. Das kann man in seiner Frage sehen: „Yine mi lan?" (*Schon wieder, Mann?*) (84). Um das Handy von ihrem Bruder zu bekommen, behauptet Y, dass diese sms sehr wichtig für sie sei (85). A glaubt ihr nicht und sagt: „Hadi ordan!" *(Ach was!)* dann erklärt er, dass es eine Ausrede ist und beschwert sich auch, dass Y sich wie eine Abgeordnete verhalte und dass ihr Handy immer klingle und aus diesem Grund ihr Guthaben nicht ausreichen würde (86-87-88-89-90). Die Beschwerde von A macht Y nervös und dann kommt eine Drohung von Y, in dem sie sagt: „Sen şimdi telefonundan mesaj attırıyor musun attırmıyor musun?" *(Lässt du mich jetzt von deinem Handy eine sms versenden, oder nicht?)* A ist erstaunt und fragt, ob sie ihm drohe (92-93). Y aber erklärt, dass es keine Drohung sei.

1.1.13 Erlauben

Beim Erlauben sind die Handlungen des Sprechers von der Erlaubnis des Hörers abhängig. In dem Fall versucht der Sprecher die Ausführung einer sprachlichen Handlung und dieser Versuch wird entweder von dem Hörer akzeptiert oder aber nicht, was situationsabhängig ist. (Mehr dazu Rehbein, 1977, s. 208).

(B13) Erlauben das Kleid anzuprobieren

(8)	(Ö)	Yaaa dışarıda bi elbise dikkatimi çekti.
		Aaah, draußen ist mir ein Kleid aufgefallen.
(9)		Deneyebilir miyim?
		Kann ich das mal anprobieren?
(10)	(E)	Tabii canım hangisi?
		Natürlich, meine Liebe, welches denn?
(11)	(Ö)	Şu siyah.
		Das Schwarze.
(12)		Sırtı açık olan.
		Das mit dem tiefen Rücken.
(13)	(E)	Heee.
		Aaah.
(14)		Tamam tamam.
		Ok, ok.
(15)		Al bakalım!
		Hier nimm es mal!
		[Elbiseyi verir.
		[Gibt es ihr

E und Ö sind gute Bekannte. E besitzt einen Laden, in dem er Kleider verkauft. Ö ist eine junge Frau, die ihre Kleidungen bei E kauft. E ist ein junger Verkäufer und befindet sich während des Gesprächs im Laden von E. Ö hat im Schaufenster ein Kleid gesehen, das ihr gefällt, und fragt, ob sie dieses Kleid anprobieren darf. Ö akzeptiert es und fragt, welches Kleid es sei (9-10). Ö erklärt, welches Kleid es ist und E gibt Ö das Kleid, damit sie es anprobieren kann.

1.1.14 Verbieten

Verbieten ist ein sprachliches Handeln, das einen Sprecher dazu drängt, sich für ein bestimmtes Handeln zu entscheiden. Diese Entscheidung lässt keine Alternative. In dem Fall steht der Hörer im Kontrollfeld des Sprechers (Mehr dazu Austin, 1979, und Rehbein, 1977).

(B14) Verbieten das Fernsehen abzuschalten

(1)	(S)	Aaa abicim hoşgeldin.
		Ah, mein Bruder, herzlich Willkommen.
(2)	(R)	Hoşbulduk canım.
		Danke, mein Lieber.
(3)		Naber?
		Wie geht's?
(4)	(S)	İyidir abicim ya.
		Ganz gut, lieber Bruder.
(5)		Nolsun işte.
		Wie immer eben.
(6)	(R)	[Offf!
		[Ufff!

		[Koltuğa oturur.
		[Setzt sich aufs Sofa
(7)	(S)	Uff … çok sıkıldım ya.
		Oah... mir ist so langweilig.
(8)		Televizyonda da hiç bişi yok.
		Im Fernsehen läuft auch nichts.
(9)	(R)	Haberler başlar şimdi.
		Die Nachrichten fangen gleich an.
(10)		Kapatma!
		Schalt nicht ab!

S und R sind zwei Brüder, wobei R der ältere Bruder ist. R kommt nach Hause, wo S und die Eltern zusammen wohnen. S begrüßt seinen älteren Bruder R und fragt nach seinem Befinden. Sowohl S als auch R fühlen sich vom Fernsehprogramm gelangweilt (1-2-3-4-5-6-7-8). R möchte aber die Nachrichten sehen und verbietet seinem Bruder das Fernsehen abzuschalten.

1.1.15 Versprechen
Ein Sprecher verspricht einem Hörer, dass er etwas tut. Dazu müssen bestimmte Bedingungen erfüllt werden. Es gibt bestimmte Gelegenheiten oder Situationen, die zu einem Versprechen auffordern. (Siehe Searl, 1979, s. 88-113)

(B15) Versprechen süße Kicherbsen zu geben

(10)	(A)	[Bak sana leblebi şeker aldık, Batuhancığım.
		[Guck mal, wir haben dir süße Kichererbsen gekauft, Batuhanchen.
		[Torbayı gösterir.
		[zeigt die Tüte
(11)	(B)	Leblebi şeker yiyebilir miyim, anne?
		Darf ich die süßen Kichererbsen essen, Mama?
(12)	(A)	Neee!
		Waaas!
(13)		Yemeğini ye, sonra sana leblebi şeker vereyim.
		Iss erst mal dein Essen, dann gebe ich dir die süßen Kichererbsen.
(14)	(B)	Peki anne.
		Gut, Mama.

A ist die Mutter von dem Kind B. A ist von der Arbeit gekommen und will ihrem Kind B eine Freude machen und zeigt ihm süße Kichererbsen, die sie für ihn gekauft hat. (10). Das Kind will sie sofort essen und fragt seine Mutter, ob er sie essen darf. Seine Mutter ist zuerst erstaunt und sagt: „Neee!" (*Waaas!*) Dann verspricht sie ihrem Kind, dass sie ihm diese Kichererbsen geben wird, wenn er sein Essen aufisst.

1.1.16 Verwundern
Verwundern hat mit der Reaktion des Hörers auf das Gesagte des Sprechers zu tun. In dem Fall entspricht das sprachliche Handeln des Hörers nicht den Erwartungen des Sprechers.

(B16) Verwundern über das Frühlingsfest

(39)	(T)	Ondan sonraki haftaya bahar şenliği var.
		In der Woche danach ist das Frühlingsfest.
(40)		Biliyor musun?
		Weißt du das?
(41)	(B)	Vallaha?

	Wirklich?
(42)	Ne güzel!
	Wie schön!

T und B sind zwei Studentinnen, die gut befreundet sind. T und B kommen oft zusammen, um sich auszutauschen und um zusammen auszugehen. T berichtet von dem Frühlingsfest an der Universität und fragt B danach, ob sie Bescheid wisse (39-40). B glaubt T zuerst nicht (41). Dann zeigt sie ihre Verwunderung in dem sie „Ne güzel!" (*Wie schön*!) sagt.

2. Schluss
In dieser Arbeit wurden die Funktionen der Aufforderungssätze anhand von Beispielen aus alltäglichen Gesprächen gezeigt. Ich bemühte mich zu demonstrieren, dass die Aufforderungssätze in der türkischen Alltagssprache nicht nur Wünsche, Befehle und Anweisungen sind. Wir brauchen noch weitere wissenschaftliche Arbeiten, um zu beweisen, dass bestimmte Formen viele Funktionen haben können, wie es bei den Aufforderungssätzen der Fall ist.

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PROSPECTIVE EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND MISBEHAVIOUR

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this small scale study was to determine pre-service teachers' perceptions of classroom management, misbehaviour, and of their own ability to teach in relation to classroom management. Semi-structured interviews were conducted before and after teaching practice with eleven EFL (English as a Foreign Language) student teachers. Findings suggest that they have a narrow conception of classroom management, often focusing one aspect of it. Additionally, their confidence to teach seem to vary as well as their concerns about issues related to their teaching and class management.

Keywords: Classroom management; perceptions; pre-service teachers; misbehaviour; teaching concerns;

INTRODUCTION

One of the greatest challenges for any teacher – pre-service, beginning or experienced – is to maintain order in the classroom in order for effective teaching to occur. The term classroom management refers to the actions and strategies teachers use to establish order in classrooms (Doyle, 1986). Classroom management is "the most common concern cited by pre-service, beginning and experienced teachers as well as being the focus of media reports, professional literature and school staff room conversations" (McCormack, 1997: 102). Crow (1991: 2) also establishes that "the research history is clear and consistent, novice teachers are inundated by classroom management problems and concerns." It has also been established in the literature that pre-service teachers placed in the practicum for the first time often feel overwhelmed (Lanier and Little, 1986) and have a tendency to place classroom management at the centre of their practice, often at the expense of pupil learning (Hoy & Rees, 1977). Although classroom management and behaviour management aspect in particular appears to be one of the most problematic areas for teacher candidates, research shows that student teachers do not feel prepared enough to handle this component (Rickman & Hollowell, 1981).

In relation to this, present study investigated eleven student teachers' developing conceptions of classroom management before and after a sheltered 10-week field experience in Turkish secondary schools. More specifically, the study attempted to identify how they perceived classroom management and misbehaviour before their exposure to challenges in class and how their perceptions evolved over the period of their field experience.

Research on Classroom Management
In the late 1960s and early 70s, research focusing on student behaviour in classroom usually put the emphasis on discipline aspect (Jones & Jones, 1998). It was because in those days, the

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emphasis in psychology was on personal growth and awareness. It was important to understand students' problems. To achieve this, most of the methods focused on helping students understand themselves better and working cooperatively in class to develop more productive behaviour. After Kounin's (1970), Brophy and Evertson's (1976), and Emmer, Evertson, Anderson's (1980) influential works, there was a change in the approach to classroom management. The emphasis was not on what teachers did in response to student misconduct anymore but rather on how teachers presented or contributed to students' misbehaviours. As a result, research on classroom management after 1970s often focused on three aspects of classroom management, namely: (1) teachers' organisational and management skills, (2) instructional skills and (3) teacher-student relationship.

Due to its importance, classroom management has been the centre of interest of much research on pre-service teachers' learning to teach ranging in focus on student teachers' knowledge/perceptions of classroom management (Weinstein, 1989; Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Winitzky & Kauchack, 1995; Silvestri, 2001; Cothran, Kulinna, & Garrahy, 2003) to concerns, anxieties and confidence (Fuller, 1969; Hart, 1987; Pigge & Marso; 1988; O'Connor & Taylor, 1992; O'Connell, 1994; Mau, 1997) and to sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001; Friedman & Kass, 2002). There are also studies which aimed to identify the differences between novice and experienced teachers' beliefs in relation to classroom management (Martin & Baldwin, 1995; Irwin & Nucci, 2004).

It has been reported that teacher candidates go through some developmental stages (e.g. Bronfenbrenner, 2000) during which teaching concerns arise (Fuller, 1969; Kagan, 1992). Studies have shown that teacher candidates' concerns encompass a wide range of issues from meeting the needs of students to limitations and frustrations associated with teaching. Some researchers labelled these constraints as survival issues, teaching situation concerns, and concerns about pupils (Evans & Tribble, 1986; Fuller, 1969; Fuller and Brown, 1975; Pigge & Marso, 1997). Among the concerns identified, survival issues are claimed to emerge prior to teaching concerns and are pertained to one's adequacy as a teacher, classroom management, possessing sufficient and adequate knowledge, and meeting the expectations of parents and supervisors (Haritos, 2004). Examples of teaching situation concerns are methods, limitations, and frustrations associated with teaching, planning instruction, and teaching oversized classrooms. Concerns about pupils are related to meeting the cognitive, social and emotional needs of one's students. Although some studies have supported the notion that teaching concerns arise successively as developmental stages (Fuller, 1969; Kagan, 1992), others argue that the emergence of pre-service teachers' concerns is complex and cannot be reduced to a universal linear progression (Bullough, 1997), and such concerns are regarded as context specific (Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999).

Pre-service Teachers and Classroom Discipline
Although classroom management encompasses a wide range of teacher behaviours, research often focuses on pupil misbehaviour or classroom discipline aspect (Fernandez-Balboa, 1991; Brophy & McCaslin, 1992). This emphasis on misbehaviour (or behaviour problems), as explained above, can be justified by the research results showing that this aspect of classroom management is the prime cause for new teachers leaving the profession (Morton et. al., 1997) and that behaviour problems encountered not only appear to be related to the anxiety levels of student teachers (Hart, 1987). Among other types of causes of anxiety for student teachers, dealing with misbehaviour ranks quite high (Blasé, 1986; Morton et. al., 1997). Moreover, studies showed that misbehaviours and ways of dealing with them were often indicated among the most important problems by teachers and/or teacher candidates (e.g. Veenman, 1984; Elam, Rose and Gallup, 1993; Edwards, 1993; Brock and Grady, 1996).

Additionally, discussion on misbehaviour in the literature has ranged from such areas as types and/or causes of misbehaviours (Markham, 1987; Wheldall & Merrett, 1988; Johnson, Oswald & Adey, 1993; Evertson et al., 1997), to teacher strategies/approaches in dealing with misbehaviour (Brophy & Rohrkemper, 1981; Rosen et al., 1990; Atici, 1999) and to those of preventive (proactive) strategies (Gettinger, 1988).

Turkish Studies on Classroom Management and Misbehaviour
Majority of the studies conducted in Turkish context mainly focused on, behaviour management (or more specifically misbehaviour) component of classroom management. In a study by Akkök et al. (1995), for example, primary school teachers were asked to report on disciplinary problems in and outside of the classrooms. While speaking out of turn, being extremely noisy and complaining about friends to teachers unnecessarily were mentioned as the most frequently occurring misbehaviours, verbal and physical punishment were reported as the most widely used strategies along with discussing the problem with the misbehaving child and using signals. In a survey study, Mahiroğlu and Buluç (2003) attempted to establish the existence and level of corporal punishment applications in secondary schools. Data were gathered via questionnaires from 200 graduates of secondary schools attending a faculty in a Turkish university. In spite of the fact that physical punishment banned at all levels of Turkish National Education system, the findings of the study revealed the widespread use of corporal punishment at schools which participants of the study attended to. The researchers claimed that the use of corporal punishment was the result of lack of effective classroom and teaching management.

In relation to misbehaviours, Sadık (2000) also identified the disruptive behaviours observed by primary school teachers in their classrooms. The results showed that the most common problems encountered were failing to complete the tasks, eating some food during the lessons, and not doing the task given by the teacher. It was also found that although the teachers claimed that they spent too much time handling these problems, they still encountered misbehaviours in their classrooms majority of which, they thought, were due to family background, friends, and overcrowded classrooms.

In the context of English Language Teacher (ELT) education, Demirden (1994) conducted a survey study with various groups of people such as teachers, counsellors working in schools, misbehaving students, and administrative people. Along with many other important findings, the researcher determined the inadequacy of emphasis on classroom management in teacher education programmes.

Another study by Turanlı and Yıldırım (2000) investigated how English learning students expected their teachers to manage the classes. The findings of the study suggested a set of classroom management behaviours that teachers should display in relation to emotional, instructional and managerial dimensions.

A qualitative study was conducted by Daloğlu (2002) to identify the perceptions of TEFL (Teaching of English as a Foreign Language) teachers with different amount of experience on such aspects of classroom management as lesson planning, time management, beginning the lesson, motivating the students and student behaviours. Findings showed that novice teachers appeared to have difficulty in instructional management aspect with regard to motivating students to participate in the lessons. A correlation between the amount of teaching experience and the difficulty in coping with student misbehaviours was also identified.

In a comparative study of decision-making skills of cooperating teachers and student teachers of English, Osam and Balbay (2004) found that while timing and classroom management were major motives for student teachers to make changes in their plans, cooperating teachers were more concerned about discipline problems. Especially in relation to classroom management, student teachers were found to make instant decisions more often.

Other examples of studies are comparison of teachers' and primary school students' views on misbehaviours, (Dağdelen, 1999) and views of classroom teachers on types and causes of misbehaviours encountered and strategies they use (Sayın, 2001).

Importance of Research into Pre-service Teachers' Conceptions of Classroom Management and Misbehaviour

Studies on social-cognitive aspect of student teacher learning suggest that "teachers are active thinkers, decision makers, reflective practitioners, information processors, problems solvers, and rational human beings" (Pintrich, 1990: 827). Research findings also show that classrooms are complex organisational contexts and that teachers' (novice or expert) beliefs, values and preconceptions inform and influence what they say and do in classrooms (Brown & Cooney, 1982; Munby, 1982; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Clark & Yinger, 1987; Guillame & Rudney, 1993; Johnson, 1994). Moreover, those beliefs, preconceptions, and values play a crucial role in student teachers' learning to teach. In other words, those beliefs act as a "filter" through which instructional judgments and decisions are made (Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Pajares, 1992; Chant 2002; Chant et al. 2004). In relation to this, Clandinin and Connelly (1986) suggest that teachers develop practical strategies by integrating their preconceptions (in other words their personal biographies) with their interpretations of classroom situations. It is also established in the literature that understanding student teacher and teacher beliefs is crucial for improving teaching practices and teacher education programmes (Kagan, 1992) as studies report significant relationship between teacher personality factors and their orientation to classroom management (Halpin, Halpin, & Harris, 1982). Finally, Doyle (1995: 33) maintains "research on how pre-service teachers learn to manage classrooms is less well-developed than research on classroom practices."

Within this background of concern for pre-service teachers' ability to manage classrooms, importance and role of understanding pre-service teachers' beliefs, perceptions and values, and the relative scarcity of research in the field of English language teaching especially in relation to student teacher learning, the present study examined pre-service teachers' (1) perceptions of classroom management, misbehaviour and its causes, (2) perceptions of their own ability to teach in relation to classroom management.

THE STUDY

Participants and Context

Eleven student teachers in their fourth and last year of education in the English Language Teaching Department of Cukurova University volunteered to participate in the study. Four were female and seven were male. Their ages ranged between 28 and 22. All the participants had some teaching experience either as private tutor or kindergarten teacher, ranging in duration from 3 months to 3 years. The programme they attended was a four-year programme including courses on language improvement, English literature, linguistics, and professional education and English Language Teaching methodology. In their final year, students were placed in schools for the field expeirence during which they were expected to perform some observation tasks and practice teaching.

Design

In order to collect data, semi-structured, open-ended interviews were conducted. Each participant was interviewed twice. First set of interviews were conducted at the beginning of teaching practice period, at the time when they had the opportunity to make some observations in real classroom settings. Second set of interviews were carried out on the completion of the practice teaching, after they had the chance to practice their teaching skills in a real classroom atmosphere. All interviews were digitally recorded. The in-depth interviews elicited student teachers' perceptions of classroom management, misbehaviour, and own ability in relation to class management. During the interviews, the following aspects of language teaching were addressed: classroom management and factors that influence it; misbehaviour and its causes; types of misbehaviours observed and experienced during teaching practice; strategies observed and used when dealing with misbehaviour during teaching practice; degree of readiness, motivation and confidence to teach and perceived sense of efficacy. In line with these, the study addressed the following research questions:

1. How do student teachers perceive classroom management, misbehaviour and its causes?
2. How do student teachers feel about their classroom management skills and starting to teach before and after teaching practice?
3. What strategies do student teachers use when dealing with misbehaviours during teaching practice?
4. Are there any changes in confidence and readiness to teach and in their perceived sense of efficacy in relation to classroom management before and after teaching practice? And if so, what are the changes?

Analysis

A total of 13 hours and 40 minutes interviews were carried out with the participants and were recorded. Verbatim transcriptions were made and analysed by systematic observation of data as described by Miles and Huberman (1994). After getting familiar with the data by repeated readings of transcriptions and highlighting of all sections relevant to the research questions, recurring themes, issues and topics were arranged, labels were assigned to, and the most meaningful parts of the data were extracted (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). Later, the codes that went together were clustered (Miles & Huberman, 1994), and relevant excerpts were retrieved and re-organised. To preserve the anonymity of the participants, they were given a code number (for example, ST3) and were referred to by that. Finally, a constant and recursive process of testing was employed according to the applicability of codes to the data, their level of specificity or abstraction, and their ability to clearly identify the attributes which distinguished one category of data from another (Patton, 1990). The analysis process was a complex and recursive series of segmentation, categorisation and interpretation, with frequent back-tracking and re-definition of categories of analysis (ibid.).

FINDINGS

Student Teachers' Perceptions of Classroom Management

The interview data revealed that majority of the student teachers viewed classroom management as a set of behaviours (both verbal and nonverbal) and approaches used by the teacher in order to organise the classroom, to deliver the lesson content, to create a harmony in the classroom. For example, one student teacher indicated: "to me, classroom management comprises of the whole set of methods employed by teachers in order to be able to give what students need from the teacher, to make them open to input and to ensure and maintain harmony of the class." (ST3)

When looked at the definitions of classroom management made by student teachers, two main themes emerged: classroom management as *prevention/organisation strategies* and classroom management as *strategies dealing with misbehaviours* (reactive or corrective strategies).

Students whose definitions fell into the category of *prevention/organisation strategies*, considered classroom management as a set of procedures applied by the teacher to ensure the continuation of lesson in harmony.

With regards to the second theme, classroom management as *strategies dealing with misbehaviour*, some students indicated that they viewed classroom management as strategies used by teachers to deal with breakdown of class order and discipline. An example as such is as follows:

> "I view class management as a set of planned and careful reactions given by the teacher to unwanted student behaviours." (ST8, Interview I)

Student Teachers' Perceptions of Misbehaviour and its' Causes and Their Future Plans for Dealing with Misbehaviour

As to the student teacher perceptions of misbehaviour, all of the participants gave similar explanations. What was common in their definitions was: *behaviours hindering flow of lesson* or *behaviours spoiling order of lesson*. Participants gave the following examples for misbehaviours likely to occur in classes: "talking out of turn when not supposed to talk", "indifference towards lesson", "breakdowns/interruptions", and "lack of concentration".

As to the causes of misbehaviours, almost all of the participants emphasised student related factors: "students' personal/health problems", "unsuccessful students", "students may not like the lesson", "know-it-all students", "lack of concentration" and so on. In addition to these, some of the participants were also aware that teacher related factors could also cause misbehaviours in class. Among the participants, five student teachers mentioned such teacher related factors as "psychology of teacher", "teachers who do not like teaching", "teachers who are not competent at teaching", "teachers' injustice", and "teachers who treat students badly."

In addition to definition and causes of misbehaviours, participants were also asked about their future plans for dealing with misbehaviours immediately before they started observations and practice. Interestingly, all of the student teachers mentioned *preventive strategies* firstly. Five of the student teachers talked about importance of stating ground rules at the beginning of the term. One student teacher believed:

> "Teachers have big responsibilities. To prevent misbehaviours, teachers should try to attract students' attention by bringing variety of materials into class and by choosing topics according to student interest." (ST1, Interview I)

One particular student teacher talked about giving reinforcement for good behaviour and giving "constructive" punishments for some misbehaviour. Another student teacher strongly believed in the importance of dealing with misbehaving students after the lessons. Finally, one of the student teachers said that if misbehaviour occurred against all the precautions taken, then she would seek help from more experienced teachers.

Readiness to Teach: Student Teacher Confidence in Classroom Management and Teaching

Eight of the student teachers said that they were very eager and motivated to become a teacher during the interviews conducted before teaching practice. Among the participants, seven indicated that they felt confident about their knowledge of subject matter (English). Only one

student teacher said that she was a bit concerned about her knowledge of English grammar but she believed that she would overcome this problem by studying before teaching. Three student teachers explained that they were worried about their weaknesses in terms of speaking English. In relation to the teacher education programme they were enrolled in, they complained that there was too much emphasis on English grammar and that they "were taught excessively, unnecessarily about [English] grammar."

Among all, only two of them had concerns about their own classroom management skills. As ST3 put it:

> "I feel ready to teach when I look at teaching from subject matter knowledge and professional knowledge aspects. When it comes to practice, I don't know…I say I can teach, but I don't feel ready yet when... I am afraid of classroom management bit. I don't know much about it. I have some concerns." (Interview II)

They also felt that they needed time and more practice in order to feel more confident. One particular student teacher said that he did not feel ready but did not see this as an obstacle. Another said that he was not eager to start at all and that he did not feel ready to teach. He continued:

> "I am not eager at all. I don't want to become a teacher, it's not because I won't be able to teach. I feel worn out because of the attitude of the society towards teaching as a profession. Teachers don't get what they deserve economically. They get a very low salary. It is so sad but I'll be a teacher only if I cannot find another job. …I don't feel ready 'technically.' I feel ready about forming a good relationship with my students because I am a student at the moment and my memories about studentship are fresh in my mind. So this is an advantage. This will help me understand my students."
> (ST 6, Interview II)

Overall, eight of the participants out of eleven placed a heavy emphasis on the need to obtain more experience through practice teaching.

Types of Misbehaviours and Management Strategies Observed During Field Experiences
In the second set of interviews, participants were asked about the types of misbehaviours they encountered during their practicum. Talking out of turn when not supposed to talk, noise, lack of motivation, students talking among themselves, some outside factors (e.g. noise), students shouting or interrupting others during a discussion session with the teacher, passive students (students who do not participate in the lessons) were examples of misbehaviours observed in teaching practice schools.

As to the management strategies observed, the participants mentioned giving verbal warning, shouting, humiliating, ignoring, signal interference (i.e. such gestures as frown, raised eyebrows, a shake of the head and so on), and threatening. They explained their disapproval of teachers' management strategies, humiliating and threatening in particular.

One of the student teachers said that he had seen two types of management strategies and these provided him with two models: one which he should avoid when he became a teacher, one which he would remember and adapt to his teaching. He further explained:

> For example, Teacher A was quite good. As far as I understand, she had well established ground rules. She could silence the students with her look without spoiling the flow of the lesson, without causing further problems. But the other teacher was shouting at students, especially at the hyperactive student, on top of her voice. Even I was scared. She was getting mad badly. I mean maybe she was right to get angry but it

isn't the right reaction I think, because it won't be efficient, it wasn't efficient! (ST7, Interview II).

Strategies Employed by Student Teachers to Manage Misbehaviour
Student teachers were also asked about behaviour management strategies they used during teaching practice. Majority of the student teachers said that they did not face serious misbehaviours when they were teaching. This is not surprising as classroom teachers usually warn their students before the lessons and tell them to behave well when the trainee teacher is teaching. Secondly, student teachers usually teach only a part of the lesson and they usually do settling kind of activities with students. Thirdly, as the students in classes know that trainee teachers are being evaluated they, most of the time, do their best to help this 'fellow' student.

Even though student teachers did not face with serious student misbehaviours, talking out of turn, student disinterest, noise, non-disruptive off task behaviours, and disruptive talking were given as examples of misbehaviour encountered when teaching.

In order to maintain appropriate student behaviour, student teachers used various strategies: ignoring it altogether, giving verbal (e.g. call on the student during the lesson, send an I-message) and non-verbal warning (e.g. giving such signal interference as making eye contact, shaking a hand or finger, using touch control, roaming about the classroom, or proximity control) talking with the student(s) after the lesson were other strategies used by the participants during their practice teaching. Additionally, two of the participants said that they had to shout at the disruptive students several times.

When student teachers were asked from where/how they had learned about these strategies some said that they had done these things instinctively. In line with this, ST10 said:

> Ignoring [misbehaving students]…I think I just did it instinctively. If I had focused on that problem at that moment, I would have disturbed other students…and if I had punished that student, others would have felt uneasy too. All the other strategies that I used, all of them were decided there and then. I mean it's not like: "if this happens I'll do this." Of course my previous education is effective as well. Maybe it's in my subconscious. I react accordingly. Whatever comes to my mind, I do it… (Interview II)

In addition to their "instincts", teachers observed, methodology related courses offered at the university and reflection were other sources of inspiration for the coping strategies employed by the student teachers.

Changes in Confidence to Teach in Relation to Classroom Management
Each student teacher felt differently about this question. Some student teachers pointed out that although initially they did not feel confident or ready about starting to teach, after teaching practice they both felt confident and ready. Out of eleven, only three student teachers felt less or not very confident to teach on the completion of their teaching practice. On the other hand, nine student teachers claimed to feel efficient to teach and three not efficient.

The changes in student teachers' perceived sense of efficacy, confidence and readiness are well explained by ST7:

> To be honest, right at the beginning of teaching practice I thought that I would do very well but when I started I saw that it wasn't so easy. After a while I saw development in my teaching and then I thought that all of that resulted from being inexperienced in teaching. That's why being unsuccessful in teaching did not affect me negatively. It

was good to see in what areas I needed improvement. I saw that I could be even better when I had a real class, when I had my very own students…Initially I was confident because I didn't know. Well, I was very foolish. I thought: 'it's easy, I am graduating from university. What do they [students in practice school] know anyway? But when I had bad lessons I was questioning myself all the time. I felt very bad. I didn't lose confidence but I lost my sense of efficacy. Now I feel better. What I learned is this: I can still make mistakes. The change in my confidence and sense of efficacy is like U shape, it was high at the beginning, and it fell down and went up again. I now believe that I need more time to feel completely efficient. But I am confident. I am ready to teach. I need more experience. (Interview II)

What is interesting to see is that students' sense of efficacy, confidence, readiness and eagerness seem to be independent of each other. Some felt that they were ready to teach but this did not seem to guarantee that they were feeling confident. Some felt efficient but still not ready to teach; others felt confident and ready but not efficient. This complication is reflected in what the following participant says:

Technically, in terms of how to teach grammar or writing or listening, I do not feel that I am ready to teach. There are many other things to overcome. In terms of creating a positive atmosphere in classroom, or better understanding of students, I feel ready. Psychologically I am ready to teach, but I know that I have a lot to learn about different aspects of teaching. (ST5, Interview II)

In addition to their feelings, participants were also asked about the factors contributing to their feelings with regards to confidence, readiness or sense of efficacy. Positive feedback from peers, students in teaching practice school, and cooperating teachers and teachers from university, good teaching performances, positive accomplishments, and observations of "unsuccessful" teachers in schools and comparisons were mentioned as factors reinforcing or contributing to their sense of efficacy, confidence or readiness to teach.

Thoughts of Students Teachers Regarding the Areas They Need to Improve Before Starting to Teach

Participants felt differently about the areas they needed to improve before they were assigned to teach. One said she needed to improve use of board (ST3) while another was having problems with timing (ST1). Two of them thought that they needed to learn how to make smooth transitions between activities (ST1 and ST3). Some of the other areas that they thought they needed to improve were: materials development, subject matter knowledge (knowledge of English grammar in particular), teaching of skills (writing skill and grammar in particular), and so on. Among the areas mentioned, the need to learn about materials development and to improve subject matter knowledge were the most frequently mentioned ones.

When looked at the areas mentioned, it is possible to see that majority of them are related to instructional management aspect of classroom management. Only four student teachers touched on the behaviour management component: three of them (ST2, ST3, and ST7) were worried about how to handle breakdowns, disruptive behaviours and about developing ground rules. Another student (ST11) expressed a need to improve her communication skills. It seemed that participants were mostly concerned with content (i.e. what they are going to teach) rather than its delivery (i.e. how they are going to teach).

DISCUSSION

The data obtained suggest that participants have a rich store of initial knowledge and beliefs about classroom management, its various aspects, and causes of misbehaviours, how to prevent and deal with them. This quality correspond with those earlier identified by, for example, Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000), Cabaroglu (1999), Pajares (1992), Nisbett and Ross (1980).

Additionally, in line with the literature, participants' knowledge of classroom management can be classified into the areas of organisational and management skills, instructional skills, and teacher-student relationship (Jones & Jones, 1998) at group level analysis. However at individual level analysis, the data reveal the narrowness of their conceptions of classroom management. While some participants perceive it as prevention/organisational strategies (proactive strategies), others mostly regard it as strategies dealing with misbehaviours (reactive or corrective strategies) only.

In the literature, prevention strategies are emphasised over corrective strategies when dealing with student behaviour. However, as is clear from the findings, student teachers often opted for low level, initial corrective (reactive) management strategies rather than preventative (or proactive). This finding is similar to the findings from Bromfield (2006) and Reupert and Woodcock (2010).

Definitions and description of types of misbehaviours provided by the participants appear to be similar to those of reported in the literature both in Turkey and other countries (Akkök et al., 1995; Mau, 1997; Turnuklu & Galton, 2001). Moreover, in line with findings of previous research, participants of the present study attributed the sources of misbehaviours mainly into three categories: student related, teacher related and environmental factors (Jones & Jones, 1998; Freiberg et al., 1995; Atici, 1999).

Additionally, talking out of turn when not supposed to talk, making noise (for example, by students talking among themselves), some outside factors (e.g. noise), students shouting or interrupting others during a discussion session with the teacher, lack of motivation and passive students (i.e. students who do not participate in the lessons) were mentioned by the participants of study as the most frequently observed and encountered misbehaviours in teaching practice schools. In a similar manner, talking out of turn and being extremely noisy (Akkök, Askar, & Sucuoglu, 1995; Altınel, 2006), daydreaming and doing nothing (Cabaroğlu & Altınel, 2010; Altınel, 2006) were reported as the most frequently encountered misbehaviours in Turkish schools.

When encountered with misbehaviour, trainee teachers indicated that they used such strategies as ignoring, giving verbal and non-verbal warning, and talking with disruptive student after the lesson. The strategies used by student teachers are mild and less intrusive in nature. With respect to the types of intervention strategies used by student teachers, it has been reported that verbal warning was one of the most frequently preferred type of intervention strategy (e.g. Cabaroğlu & Altınel, 2010; Altınel, 2006; Turkec, 1986). The types of strategies used by the participants of the present study demonstrate that they do not focus on corrective strategies per se but more on initial corrective management strategies. The literature highly emphasises the importance of prevention over corrective strategies when dealing with student behaviour.

With regards to teaching concerns, the data revealed that participants of this study had a wide range of concerns both before and after teaching practice. These concerns were related to survival issues (e.g. adequacy of classroom management skills and possessing adequate

knowledge), teaching situation (e.g. how to teach passive voice or writing), and students (e.g. establishing a good communication with them). These qualities correspond with the findings from those earlier identified by Fuller & Bown, 1975; Evans & Tribble, 1986; Pigge & Marso, 1997. Additionally, even though participants' classroom management routines were not yet developed, their concerns mostly seemed to focus on knowledge and teaching of subject matter. This is in agreement with the findings of Hayes et al. (2008), Grossman and Richert, (1988) and Shulman, (1987) who reported similar results. Moreover as in the case of ST7, who was unrealistically optimistic about teaching before teaching practice, some of the student teachers reported changes in their confidence to teach before and after teaching practice. This finding confirmed the claim of Weinstein (1989) and O'Connell (1994) that novice teachers' beliefs and unrealistic optimism about teaching "had broken in the face of the reality" (O'Connell, 1994). Additionally, the most commonly and frequently mentioned concern by the participants was the issues related to the content of the lesson (i.e. subject matter knowledge). In two other studies, it has been reported that teacher candidates tend to conceptualise subject knowledge as content knowledge and prioritise this above other types of knowledge (.e.g. Hayes et al. 2008; Ryan, 2000). Hayes et al. (ibid) explained that prioritisation of content knowledge over other types of knowledge may be due to the experiences during the initial teacher education.

Finally, depending on the accounts of the student teachers about the changes in their perceived efficacy and confidence to teach, it seemed that majority of the participants felt both efficient (or more efficient) and confident (or more confident) on the completion of their field experiences. On the other hand, there was a decline in the confidence and sense of efficacy of some students (three for the first, two for the latter). In relation to this, the findings of the previous research about the changes in perceived efficacy are also discrepant: while some of the studies report an increase (e.g. Wenner, 2001), others report no change or a decline (e.g. Lin & Gorrell, 2001). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) attribute the discrepancy in the findings to the measurement tool (or instrument) employed in the studies. Gencer and Cakiroglu (2007: 673) postulate that efficacy beliefs of student teachers "are more likely to decline as a result of student teaching due to their vulnerability to pressures or teaching when confronted with the realities and complexities of the teaching task."

CONCLUSION

Research into the changes of first year teachers' thinking suggests that "teachers' conceptions of management can hinder as well as aid in teacher development" (Martin, 2004: 407). Additionally, teacher conceptions can be used as a means to interpret classroom events (ibid.). Therefore, it seems crucial to understand better how teachers, beginning teachers and teacher candidates frame their management decisions.

The cross-sectional data obtained at two different times (i.e. before and after 10-week teaching practice period) suggest the need to expose student teachers to *preventative* classroom strategies. Another additional area that needs addressing during initial teacher education seems to be the prioritisation of content knowledge. Student teachers need to be taught that student learning should be placed at the heart of their teaching. If not, student teachers will not develop a full range of knowledge required for becoming, what Rossi and Cassidy (1999) called, "knowledgeable teachers".

The accounts of student teachers given in this paper are not intended to be representative due to the limitations imposed by the size of the sample. However, the enriched understanding of student teachers' perceptions in relation to classroom management and misbehaviour may be

used to illuminate further research on field experience with students in other programme contexts. Nevertheless, the study does indicate some trends worthy of further exploration by a larger sample.

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THE EFFECTS OF LANGUAGE SIMILARITIES ON TURKISH LEARNING PROCESSES OF STUDENTS FROM THE BALKAN COUNTRIES

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ABSTRACT

Interactions between Turkish and Balkan languages began with Hun raids to Europe and reached a peak level during the Ottoman Period. Even though Balkan languages and Turkish belong to different language families, similarities exist between these languages along with many common words (cognates). This is because these nations shared the same political system from the 14th century until 1912, and have had common or similar cultures up to now, influencing each other in all aspects of life. As language is a living entity shaped by culture, it is inevitable for cultural interactions resulting from centuries of co-existence to be reflected in language.

The purpose of the study is to determine the effects of the similarities between Turkish and Balkan languages on Turkish-learning processes of students from Balkan countries and on their attitude towards Turkish. The study was conducted on a group of students with Balkan nationalities learning Turkish at Istanbul University Language Center. The data were obtained by means of "The Scale of Attitude to Turkish" which was designed by the researcher. In addition, the students involved were individually interviewed so as to determine to what extent similarities between their native languages and Turkish affect their Turkish learning process. It is thought that the results of the study will provide facilitating clues not only for students coming to Turkey from Balkan countries and learning Turkish but also for instructors teaching Turkish.

Keywords: *Balkan languages, teaching Turkish, language similarities, attitude to Turkish.*

INTRODUCTION

The Turks' relationships with the Balkans date back to the early fifth century. It is known that Atilla swept across the Balkans, reaching almost as far as Istanbul. The Turkish groups known as Peçenek, Kuman and Uz (Oğuz) arrived at and settled on the Balkan peninsula in the 11 and 12th centuries. Then in the mid-12th century Sarı Saltuk, who was probably escaping from the Mongol invasion, and the Turkish tribe named after him thereafter arrived at the Balkans and formed the first Islam community around Dobruca. However, long-lasting and permanent relationships with the Balkans started during the Ottoman period and have survived to date (İsen, 1992:90).

Because they co-existed with the Balkan nations for a long time, the Turks interacted with them not only administratively and economically but also culturally and linguistically. Mainly

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in the late 14th and early 15th centuries, the Turks introduced to the Balkan peninsula a new system of state administration, new institutions, a new social order and the religion of Islam, which the Balkan peoples encountered for the first time.

The Turks and the Balkan peoples who politically coexisted from the 14th century to 1912 and have shared the same culture to date have influenced each other in all aspects of life. This interaction also holds true for their languages.

The Balkan languages and Turkish have similarities and many common lexical items although they belong to different language families. Some of the vocabulary items in the Balkan languages which are considered as borrowings from Turkish have Turkish origins: (**bölme** bölüm, parça; oda > *bölme* in Bulgarian, *bylme* in Albanian, *bolme, bulme* in Macedonian). There is also a certain group of words which entered the Balkan lexicons via Turkish after they were Turkified (*fetvâ* in Arabic > **fetvâ** in Turkish > *fetvá* in Bulgarian, *fétva* in Serbian, *fetfa* in Albanian, *fetfás* in Greek) (Karaağaç, 2008:131-301).

From Abdullah Şkaliç's book "Turcizmi u Srpskohrvatskom Jeziku", which deals with the effects of Turkish on the languages spoken in Yugoslavia, Şefikoğlu (1987:219-220) quotes: "A huge number of words originally belonging to Eastern languages have found their way into our colloquial language, and some of them have even become commonplace in our literary language. Such words are great in number indeed. It is for this reason that it is impossible to fully comprehend many of our folk ballads, tales, proverbs and idoms unless the meaning of vocabulary items in them has been made clear."

According to Gülsevin (2009:49-50), in order to thoroughly understand such topics as two different nations' languages influencing each other or a dialect's gaining diverse features as compared to its relative versions, one has to take the following facts into account:

1. Languages evolve, so dialects and regional accents develop. Diverse regional accents basically result from:

a. *External factors*. Settling in new areas where new comers get into contact with new people leads them to diverge over time from their relatives in their old territories in terms of language, religion, customs, culture etc. Words are loaned from new neighbours, whose phonological systems can affect the new settlers' language, and even morphological and snytactical changes can occur.

b. *Internal factors*. People who abandon their mother tongue zone and migrate to a different location begin to get disconnected from changes and developments in that zone, and follow a different developmental route.

2. Peoples who are relocated during major migrations or conquests and arrive at new territories won't live in a homogeneous society with a single ethnic group. Even if the states and political administrations are disestablished during such major events, the people who are the subjects of those disestablished states do not vanish. They survive in a new composition with new distinct ethnic groups and evolve together. When distinct people live together and share the same culture, political structure, emotions etc., they may develop a new common identity.

Linguistic data obtained from historians studying Huns, Avars, Peçeneks, Bulgarians, Cumans and finally Ottomans' arrival on and passage across the Balkan Peninsula shows that many Turkish words, mainly place names, were loaned into Balkan languages.

Because language is a dynamic entity shaped by culture, it is quite natural that cultural relationships stemming from hundreds of years of coexistence are reflected in language. Because language is creator and transmitter of culture as well as being part of it. Aksan (1995:67) states that in some cases even a single word in a language can shed light on a nation's beliefs, customs, interpersonal conducts and relations, material and spiritual aspects. All the components of culture formed by communities have reflections in their vocabulary.

The Purpose of the Study
The purpose of the present study is to determine the effects of similarities between Turkish and Balkan languages upon Turkish-learning processes of students coming from Balkan countries and to figure out these students' attitudes towards Turkish.

Attitude, whether towards a tangible object or an intangible notion, means acquired personal tendencies which manifest themselves as being for or against it, and which guides an individual's thoughts and feelings. Being unobservable in itself, but assumed to lead to certain conducts which can be observed, attitude is something that can be acquired through learning, that guides an individual's behaviour, and that leads to a partiality in a decision-making process (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1992:115; Ülgen, 1994:79).

In learning a foreign language and mastering basic language skills, attittudes towards that language are of great importance because learning a second language is a social and psychological phenomenon (Gardner, 1985; Gardner and Lambert, 1972). Attitude is the most effective and dominant factor especially for any achievement in the process of language learning (Brown, 1994). Students have varying attitudes to the target language, its speakers, culture, and social values, and whether these are favourable or unfavourable determines the individual's success/performance in the learning process (Ellis, 1994). Whereas favourable attitudes bring about success in the process of foreign language learning, unfavourable ones lead to failure (Gardner and Lambert, 1972).

Just as positive attitudes to the foreign language facilitate learning so does awareness of similarities and differences between the mother tongue and the target language affect learning. Knowledge of overlapping and different aspects of Turkish and Balkan languages can help to estimate in advance any difficulties that learners from these countries may encounter while learning Turkish. Awareness of similarities and differences between the learner's mother tongue and the target language is important in that it enlightens us as to what sort of difficulties the learner will have while learning a foreign language and what aspects of the language can be easily learned.

According to Lado (1957:2), for a foreign language learner, aspects of this language similar to his / her mother tongue prove to be easy while different aspects are difficult to learn because students tend to transfer forms and meanings in their own culture and language into the target language and culture. This happens both when, in a productive state, they attempt to speak and act in the target culture and when, in a receptive state, they try to understand native speakers of the target language. This being the case, determing beforehand the difficulties those learners will have and creating the appropriate teaching atmosphere accordingly may prevent student mistakes.

METHOD
Design of the Study
This study is organized according to the "eclectic method" which is used together with qualitative and quantitative research techniques. Eclectic method is the use of both techniques

with the aim of collecting data about a topic with qualitative research, explaining the collected data, clarifying quantitative findings and discovering different dimensions of the data collected from the participants. (Kıral and Kıral, 2011: 4).

Participants

The population of this research consists of students of Balkan nationalities learning Turkish as a foreign language. The sample group consist of totally 26 students of Balkan nationalities (14 girls and 12 boys) – 6 Albanians, 8 Macedons, 3 Bosnians, 3 Kosovans, 2 Montenegrins, 2 Croatians and 2 Serbians – who learn Turkish at Istanbul University Language Center.

Data Collection Instruments

The data for this research were obtained through the semi-structured interview technique. However, no limitations should be put on the answers of individuals being interviewed (Şimşek and Yıldırım, 2005). Semi-structured interviewing technique provides the shortest time to obtain information about individuals' knowledge, thoughts, attitudes and behavior and possible reasons for them (Karasar, 2003). Each student was individually interviewed to determine the effects of similarities between their native language and Turkish on their performance in learning Turkish. During the interviews, "Semi-structured Interview Form" designed by the researcher was used. The interview questions were designed in a preconceived framework to serve the purpose of the research and were checked by expert teachers studying on teaching Turkish to foreigners in terms of their appropriateness for the purpose and method of the research.

For the purpose of finding out the attitudes to Turkish of students of Balkan nationalities learning Turkish as a foreign language, a "Scale of Attitude to Turkish" was utilised. The scale was specially designed by the researcher by using "Foreign Language Attitude Scale" developed by Briem (1974) and redesigned by Corbin and Chiachire (1995). This attitude scale is applied to 112 students the second time after 20 days with the aim of pre-test, the reliability of the scores is calculated as .86 via Cronbach Alpha reliability formula.

Consisting of 28 items, Scale of Attitude to Turkish was scaled as *absolutely agree* (5), *agree* (4), *undecided* (3), *don't agree* (2), *absolutely disagree* (1). Therefore, the lowest total points to be obtained from this scale are 26 with the highest being 130. The highest possible score that can be achieved by circling only the choice *undecided* for all scale questions is 78 points, which is indicative of neutral attitudes suggesting pure indecision. The scores that can be achieved through this scale and attitude levels corresponding to them are as follows:

The highest score for unfavourable (negative) attitude: 26 points, the score for totally undecided: 78, the highest score for positive attitude: 140. As can be understood from these figures, the scores over 78 points refer to positive attitudes, those under 78 negative attitudes.

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

It was found after the analyses conducted to determine the students' attitudes towards Turkish that out of 26 students, 19 had positive attitudes to Turkish lessons; 4 had moderate levels and 3 had negative attitude levels. These results indicate that 73,07 % of the students had positive attitudes to Turkish; 15,38 % had moderate levels of attitudes and 11,53 % had negative attitudes.

Table 1. Attitude Levels of Students towards Turkish

		N: 26
Positive Attitude	Moderate Attitude	Negative Attitude
N: 19 73,07% X:110	N:4 15,38% X: 78	N:3 11,53% X:60

According to Starks and Paltridge (1996: 218) learning a language is closely related to the attitude towards the target language. Many national and international studies have shown that the positive attitude towards learning a target language increases the success (Chambers, 1999; Gardner, 1985; İnal, Evin and Saracaloglu, 2005; Shah, 1999; Thadphoothon, 1999).

However, the majority of the students' attitudes' (73,07%) being positive should not be connected to the similarities between Turkish and Balkan languages. The reason for this is that the similarity between the native language and the target language is not the only reason for the students to show positive attitude towards the target language. In Göçer's study (2009), for instance, a meaningful difference could not be found between the attitudes of students from Turkic Republics and other foreign countries. In this respect, it can be thought that besides the linguistic similarities, the aim of learning Turkish (education, work, marriage, etc.) are effective in the students' attitudes being positive.

During the interviews carried out to determine the effects of similarities between the students' native languages and Turkish upon their learning Turkish, the responses supplied by the students about their countries and mother tongues are as follows:

The first question posed to the students for the research was whether their families included any member who knew Turkish. The reason for this was that during the interviews with the students coming from Macedonia it was seen that Turkish was spoken as a native language especially in Eastern Macedonia and those students learnt Macedonian after secondary school. Such students who acquired Turkish as a mother tongue were excluded from the research.

Out of 26 students aged 17-28, only 2 Macedons had members in their families who knew Turkish. It shows that most of the students in the sample group were exposed to Turkish after their arrival in Turkey.

The second question posed at the interview was whether the student's native language's alphabet was similar to the Turkish alphabet and he / she had any trouble in learning Turkish because of a different alphabet. The Albanian students and those coming from Kosova and Montenegro with Albanian being their mother tongues responded that Alabanian had 36 letters and they used the Latin alphabet, adding that they didn't have any difficulty reading and writing Turkish. However, they said that they found it hard to pronounce the letters "ı, ö, ü," which occur in Turkish.

The Macedon students stated that they used the Cyrillic alphabet containing 31 letters and that they had learnt the Turkish alphabet easily because they knew the Latin alphabet owing to their previous knowledge of English. The letters they said they found most hard to pronounce were "ğ, ı, ö, ü."

The Bosnian students replied that they used the 30-letter Latin alphabet, but it had more vowels than the Turkish alphabet and said that as the letters "ı, ö, ü" do not occur in their languages, they found it hard to pronounce them.

The Croatians said that their alphabet was made up of 30 letters and two combined forms (i+e=ie, r+r = ŕ), and that they had difficulty pronouncing the consonant "y" and "ı, ö, ü" which do not occur in their own alphabets.

The Serbian interviewees responded that they used both the Cyrillic and Latin alphabets in Serbian, and therefore they didn't have any trouble with the Turkish alphabet, but as with the other students they said they had difficulty in the Turkish letters which do not occur in their mother tongues, especially pronouncing them.

Another question asked during the interviews was whether there were lexical similarities between their mother tongues and Turkish. The interviewees replied giving many examples that Turkish and their native languages had a lot of common words (cognates). The following examples are striking indeed: Examples for common words in Turkish and Albanian respectively are *perde* (perde), *kasap* (ksap), *pamuk* (pambuku), *fincan* (filxhan), *mahalle* (mëhallë), *dolap* (dollap), *yastık* (jastëk), *nargile* (nargjile); examples for Turkish and Macedonian common words: *para* (pari), *cezve* (đezve), *biber* (piper), *tütün* (tutun), *çay* (čaj), *bayrak* (bajrak); Similar words in Turkish and Serbian: *bakır* (bakar), *pamuk*, *nar*, *sabun* (sapun), *alet* (alat), *tepsi* (tepsija), *boğaz* (bogaz); Turkish –Croatian cognates: *karanfil* (karanfilić), *çırak*(cirak), *balta*, *çorap* (čarape); Turkish-Bosnian cognates: *kaşık* (kašika), *döşek* (dušek), *çeşme* (česma), *şeker* (šećer), *kilim* (ćilim), *köfte* (ćufte), *sandık* (sanduk), *kapı* (kapija), *meydan* (megdan). Some of these vocabulary items are of Turkish origin, while others are of Arabic origin, but entered the Balkan languages via Turkish. The students stated that lexical similarities between Turkish and their own languages facilitated their comprehension and production of Turkish and that they felt less alien to Turkish as they heard more and more similar words in their exposure to Turkish.

The next question posed to the students during the interview was what language area they had the most trouble when learning Turkish. For this question, all the students whose mother tongues are Macedonian, Albanian, Bosnian and Crotian pointed out that they had a particular difficulty with Turkish affixes because affixes occur in the form of prefixes in their languages whereas in Turkish they occur as suffixes. They particularly stressed that they found it hardest to understand and use the causative and passive suffixes in Turkish. Three Albanian students said that they had trouble with long nominal chains, not being able to accurately use completing markers and markers for the completed nouns. The reason they gave for this was that the completions in Turkish were achieved through a different syntactic order as compared to their own tongues and markers were placed at the end of words in Turkish. And Serbian students said that the language area they found most difficult to understand and use was reported past tense (-mış) and simple present tense, adding that these tenses do not have corresponding matches in their languages.

All the students pointed out that the most outstanding difference between Turkish and their native languages was in sentence structure. The students stated that it was the first time they had encountered a language with its verb at the end of the sentence and that they mistakenly used the verb in mid-position instead of final position while speaking Turkish. This was also clearly observed during the interviews with the students.

As a last question, the interviewees were asked what language area they learnt the most effortlessly while studying Turkish. The Bosnians and Albanians responded that they learnt present continuous in Turkish very easily. The Crotians, Macedons and a Serbian said that the Turkish pronouns were easy to learn because their languages had more pronouns because of

masculinity and femininity. The other Serbian said that noun phrases in the form of nominal chains were simple for him as he had grasped the logic behind their formation.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The conclusions drawn from the research and some suggestions formed on the strength of these conclusions were given below:

1. The findings of the study show that the majority of the students in the sample group (73, 07 %) developed positive attitudes towards the Turkish language. We think that our historical relations with these nations, the current socio-political situation and lexical similarities between the students' mother tonguges and Turkish had a major role in the development of these positive attitudes. We also think it possible to make the Turkish language more popular in this region with activities directed towards increasing the publicity of the Turkish language and culture in the Balkans.

2. All the students having participated in the study said that they had trouble writing and pronouncing the sounds "ğ, ı, ö, ü" which do not occur in their languages while they exist in Turkish. In order to deal with the problem, adequate classroom activities have to be provided to consolidate the teaching of vowels and through dictation practice to be incorporated in teaching activities teachers have to make sure that all their students learn the Turkish alphabet as a primary task. The students' problems with punctuation should be settled while they are in the elementary stage of learning Turkish; otherwise, such mistakes may become permanent in the intermediate and advanced levels.

3. During the interviews with the students, it became clear that their own languages and Turkish had many cognates which both facilitate their learning of Turkish and get them to feel more sympathetic towards Turkish. Nevertheless, the students stated that they had trouble mastering structures and forms totally different from those of their native languages (such as sentence structure, affixes, verb phrases). For this purpose, we suggest that interlingual contrastive analyses have to be carried out between Turkish and Balkan languages to determine similar and different aspects between them and teaching situations should be created accordingly.

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