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AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATION BETWEEN 8th GRADE STUDENTS' LEVEL OF ACADEMIC RISK TAKING AND THEIR POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE PERFECTIONISM TRAITS

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to analyze the relationship between positive and negative perfectionism traits and academic risk taking levels of 8th grade students. For this purpose relational model was used in the study. The sample was consisted of 216 Primary School students (114 girls and 102 boys) attending 8th grade during 2011-2012 academic year first semester in Battalgazi-Malatya. "Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale" developed by Kırdök (2004) to determine traits of students' positive and negative perfectionism and "Academic Risk Taking Scale" developed by Clifford (1991) and was adapted to Turkish by Korkmaz (2002) to determine students' academic risk taking levels were used. The obtained data were analyzed by means of SPSS 17.0 package program. To analyze the obtained data Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was used. According to the results obtained from the study it was found that there is a significant and positive relationship between positive and negative perfectionism and academic risk taking levels of students. It is determined that there is a significant and negative relationship between students' negative perfectionism traits and their academic risk taking levels.

Keywords: Positive and negative perfectionism, academic risk taking, 8th grade students.

INTRODUCTION

Perfectionism can be defined as the process of endeavoring for perfection, setting high standards and evaluating ones' own successes according to these standards (Flett & Hewitt, 2002; Frost, Marten, Lahart & Rosenblate, 1990; Slaney, Rice& Ashby, 2002). This process may cause both positive and negative effects on students' feelings and behaviors (Stoeber & Rambow, 2007). This creates the need to examine perfectionism as a two-dimensional concept as positive perfectionism and negative perfectionism (Frost, Heimberg, Holt, Mattia, & Neubauer, 1993; Hamacheck, 1978; Kirdok, 2004; Rheaume, Ladouceur & Freeston, 2000; Stumpf & Parker, 2000; Slaney, Ashby, & Trippi, 1995; Stoeber & Otto, 2006). If perfectionism leads to positive effects, by playing a triggering role on the efforts of the student (Kottman & Ashby, 2000), it is called as positive perfectionism (Hamacheck, 1978; Stoeber & Otto, 2006). Positive perfectionist students are individuals with developed self esteem (Hamacheck, 1978). Putting in effort to achieve the realistic targets they set (Ens, Cox & Clara, 2002; Flett & Hewitt, 2002; Rice, Ashby & Slaney, 1998) these students feel happiness when they successfully complete the process. Positive perfectionists also are capable of confronting the personal and environmental restrictions that may obstruct them in achieving their targets with maturity (Hamachek, 1978). On the other hand, by causing the student to focus on failures (Parker, 1997; Rice, Lopez & Vergara, 2005), perfectionism can bring along negative effects such as low motivation (Bieling, Israeli, Smith & Antony, 2003), high levels of anxiety (Hewitt & Flett, 1991a,1991b; Kottman & Ashby, 2000; Shafran & Mansell, 2001; Slaney & Ashby, 1996; Stoeber & Otto, 2006), postponement (Ferrari, 1992; Hewitt & Flett, 1991b; Rice &

Mirzadeh, 2000; Slaney & Ashby, 1996) and avoidance (Bieling, Israeli & Antony, 2004; Hamachek, 1978; Slade & Owens, 1998; Terry-Short, Owens, Slade & Dewey, 1995). This situation is referred to as negative perfectionism (Hewitt & Flett, 1991b; Rice & Ashby, 2007). Negative perfectionist students set unrealistic targets (Borynack, 2003; Burns, 1980; Ens, Cox & Clara, 2002; Hamacheck, 1978; Hewitt & Flett, 1991b) and are motivated with the fear of failure and social criticism (Blackburn, 2003). Exhibiting an excessive level of self-critical attitude (Hamacheck, 1978; Kottman & Ashby, 2000; Rice & Ashby, 2007; Rice, Lopez & Vergara, 2005), these students blame themselves in the face of the failures they face while trying to achieve the high standards they had set (Flett & Hewitt, 2002; Hamacheck, 1978; Kottman & Ashby, 2000; Pacht, 1984; Parker & Adkins, 1995; Rice & Ashby, 2007).

In addition to the positive and negative perfectionist traits, another important factor that affects students' behaviors within the class environment is their behavior of academic risk taking. Academic risk taking behavior defines students' courage and eagerness/reluctance to struggle with the difficulties they face within their learning environment (Korkmaz, 2002). Academic risk taking behavior has a four dimensional structure as the tendency of recovering and being active again following a failure, the tendency of having negative feelings after a failure, tendency to prefer difficult tasks and tendency of not doing homework (Korkmaz, 2002). It is possible to assert that while the students with tendencies of being negative and not doing their homework after a failure have low levels of academic risk taking, while the students that tend to recover, be active and prefer difficult tasks are willing to take academic risks. Students with high levels of academic risk taking;
- are willing to participate in the activities that take place within the class environment, even if there is a possibility of failure (Strum, 1971),
- have high motivation within the learning environment,
- enjoy the learning process (House, 2002),
- have low levels of learned helplessness,
- do not have difficulty in exhibiting their potentials,
- act bravely in taking important decisions (Esen Kiran, 2005; Neihart, 2010).

Consequently it can be asserted that, the students that are willing to take academic risk within the learning environment have advantage in achieving success over the students that are reluctant to do so (Clifford, 1991; Clifford & Chou, 1991; House, 2002). In this context, it is considered that supporting academic risk taking behaviors is significantly important in providing contribution to students' academic achievements. Determination of the variables that affect academic risk taking behavior, and the direction and extent of these effects can provide guidance on supporting academic risk taking behaviors of students. Examining the literature indicates that perfectionist personality traits play a decisive role on students' behaviors when a new and risky situation is faced (Erol, 2011; Roedell 1984). This gives rise to the thought that academic risk taking behaviors are influenced by perfectionist personality traits. However, no study that manifests the level and direction of the effects of students' positive and negative perfectionism traits on their academic risk taking behaviors could be found in the literature. In consideration of this, this study aims to examine the relation between 8th grade students' academic risk taking levels and their positive and negative perfectionism traits.

METHOD

In the present study, which aims at examining the relation between 8th grade students' academic risk taking levels and their positive and negative perfectionism traits, relational screening model was used. Relational screening models are the study patterns that determine the presence and level of joint variances between two or more variables (Karasar, 2009).

Participants
The study group of the study consists of 216 students, as 114 (52.8%) female and 102 (47.2%) male students, attending to the 8th grade in four different primary schools in the Battalgazi County of the city of Malatya during the Fall Season of the 2011-2012 Educational Year.

Data Collection Tools
The data for the study were collected through the Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale and Academic Risk Taking Scale.

The Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale: Developed by Kirdok (2004), the scale contains a total of 17 items-10 in the dimension "positive perfectionism" and 7 in the dimension "negative perfectionism". The validity of the scale was tested on secondary students by the author, who found that the scale had two factors, namely positive perfectionism and negative perfectionism. He noted that the items in positive perfectionism had factor loadings ranging from 0.47 to 0.64. The sub-dimension accounted for 18.22% of the total variance. On the other hand, he reported that the items in negative perfectionism had factor loadings varying between 0.52 and 0.64. The sub-dimension accounted for 14.22% of the total variance. Furthermore, the author tested the reliability of the scale. He discovered that Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were 0.81 and 0.78 for positive perfectionism and negative perfectionism respectively.

Though originally a four-point Likert type scale, the Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale was used in the present study as a five-point Likert type scale in order to make sure that both the Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale and Academic Risk-Taking Scale had a similar rating principle. Since the scale was converted into one with a different rating than the original form, it was necessary to conduct validity and reliability analyzes again. The factor analysis yielded a two-factor structure that accounted for 38.01% of the total variance. It was observed that the items in the factors were in perfect harmony with the original form. According to the factor analysis, the items in positive perfectionism had factor loadings ranging from 0.50 and 0.71 and the sub-dimension accounted for 23.95% of the total variance. Sample Item: I try to do my tasks regularly. On the other hand, the items in negative perfectionism had factor loadings varying between 0.34 and 0.51 and the sub-dimension accounted for 14.06% of the total variance. Sample Item: It is embarrassing when others notice my weaknesses. As for the reliability of the new form, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were 0.82 and 0.74 for positive perfectionism and negative perfectionism respectively. It is acknowledged that scales with a reliability coefficient of 0.70 and higher are reliable (Buyukozturk, 2010; Pallant, 2005; Tezbasaran, 1997). Therefore, the sub-dimensions positive perfectionism and negative perfectionism are sufficiently reliable.

The Academic Risk-Taking Scale: Designed by Clifford (1991) and translated into Turkish by Korkmaz (2002), the scale measures students' courage and willingness/reluctance to cope with difficulties during the educational process. The scale, a five-point Likert type one, scale contains a total of 36 items. The original form consists of three sub-dimensions, namely Tendency to Recovery and Activity Following Failure, Tendency to Difficult Tasks and Tendency to Negativity Following Failure. While adapting the scale to Turkish, Korkmaz added an additional dimension called Tendency to Skipping Homework. In the Turkish version, 11 items are included in the dimension "Tendency to Recovery and Activity Following Failure". Sample Item: Should I get a low grade at school, I work on my mistakes and attempt to deal with the questions again. The second dimension, tendency to difficult tasks, contains 10 items. Sample Item: Difficult school assignments are more entertaining than easy ones. There are 12 items in the third dimension, tendency to negativity following failure. Sample Item: I get discouraged if I make a mistake in a subject that I have been trying to learn about. The additional dimension, tendency to skipping homework, contains three items. Sample Item: If my school assignment is difficult, I attempt to pass the class without doing it. One can get either separate scores for each sub-dimension or a total score for the whole scale. In addition, Korkmaz (2002) tested the reliability of the Turkish version on both university students and primary school students. The internal consistency coefficients were 0.89 and 0.90 for the

former and latter respectively. The reliability coefficient for the academic risk taking scale as a whole was 0.81. The internal consistency coefficients were 0.75, 0.74, 0.79 and 0.63 for the sub-dimensions tendency to recovery and activity following failure, tendency to difficult tasks, tendency to negativity following failure and tendency to skipping homework respectively. It is acknowledged that scales with a reliability coefficient of 0.70 and higher are reliable (Buyukozturk, 2010; Pallant, 2005; Tezbasaran, 1997). This criterion is satisfied by the scale as a whole and all the sub-dimensions except for the tendency to skipping homework. However, the additional sub-dimension can also be argued to be reliable, for it is acknowledged that it is enough for scales with a small number of items to have a reliability coefficient of 0.60 and higher (Sipahi, Yurtkoru & Cinko, 2010).

Data Analysis
Data of the study were analyzed by utilizing SPSS 17.0 package program. The relation between students' academic risk taking levels and their positive and negative perfectionism traits was examined by means of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation.

FINDINGS

The results obtained from the study are presented herein below. At first the scores the students obtained from the whole of the Academic Risk Taking Scale, from the subscales of the negativity after failure tendency, the recovery and being active after failure tendency, the engagement in difficult tasks tendency and the tendency to not doing homework, and the points scored from the positive perfectionism and negative perfectionism subscales of the "Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale" were determined. After this determination, the correlations between the determined scores were examined with the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation and the resulting findings are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Examination of the Relation between Academic Risk Taking Levels and Positive and Negative Perfectionism Traits

	Positive Perfectionism	Negative Perfectionism
Negativity After Failure Tendency	$r=-0.15^*$	$r=0.61^{**}$
Tendency to Recovery and Be Active After Failure	$r=0.47^{**}$	$r=-0.16^*$
Tendency to Prefer Difficult Tasks	$r=0.26^{**}$	$r=0.06$
Tendency of not doing homework	$r=-0.09$	$r=0.17^*$
Academic Risk Taking Level	$r=0.36^{**}$	$r=-0.38^{**}$

$^{**}p<0.01$, $^*p<0.05$

According to the findings presented in Table 1, a negative and statistically significant correlation was determined between the tendency of developing negativity following a failure and positive perfectionism [$r=-0.15, p<0.05$]. As for the correlation between the tendency of developing negativity following a failure and negative perfectionism, it was determined to be positive and statistically significant [$r=0.65, p<0.01$]. According to this, the more the positive perfectionism traits of the students increase, the less their tendency to develop negativity after a failure will be. On the other hand, as the negative perfectionism traits increase it is observed that negative tendencies after a failure also increase.

A positive and statistically significant correlation between the tendency to recover and be active after a failure and positive perfectionism was determined [$r=0.47, p<0.01$]. As for the correlation between the tendency to recover and be active after a failure and negative perfectionism, it was determined to be negative and again statistically significant [$r=-0.16, p<0.05$]. Considering this finding, it can be asserted that as the positive perfectionism traits of the students increase their tendencies to recover and be active

after a failure also increase and as their negative perfectionism traits increase they tend less to recover and be active in consequence of a failure.

A positive and statistically significant correlation between positive perfectionism and the tendency to engage in difficult tasks was determined [$r=0.26$, $p<0.01$]. The correlation between the tendency to engage in difficult tasks and negative perfectionism was not found to be statistically significant [$r=0.06$, $p>0.05$]. On the basis of this finding, it can be asserted that as the students' positive perfectionism traits increase, also their tendency to engage in difficult tasks increase. On the other hand, negative perfectionism is determined to have no effect on the students' tendency of engaging in difficult tasks.

Again according to Table 1, it was determined that there is a negative correlation between the students' tendency of not doing their homework and their positive perfectionism traits, yet this correlation was not found out to be statistically significant [$r=-0.09$, $p>0.05$]. Considering this finding, it is possible to state that positive perfectionism of students does not have any effect on their tendency of not doing their homework. As for the correlation between the students' tendency of not doing their homework and their negative perfectionism traits, it was determined to be a positive and statistically significant correlation [$r=0.17$, $p<0.01$]. According to this, as the negative perfectionism traits of students increase their tendency of not doing their homework also increase.

Examining the scores pertaining to the whole of the scale, it was determined that there is a positive and statistically significant correlation between academic risk taking and positive perfectionism [$r=0.36$, $p<0.05$] and a negative and statistically significant correlation between academic risk taking and negative perfectionism [$r=-0.38$, $p<0.05$]. According to this finding, as the positive perfectionism traits of students increase, the levels at which they take academic risks also increase and while the negative perfectionism traits increase their academic risk taking levels decrease.

DISCUSSION

In this study it was aimed to examine the relation between 8th grade students' academic risk taking levels and their positive and negative perfectionism traits.

The presence of a negative and statistically significant correlation was determined between the tendency of being negative after a failure and positive perfectionism. Considering that positive perfectionists are capable of confronting the personal and environmental restrictions with maturity (Hamacheck, 1978), their low tendency of developing negativity after a failure is an expected result. This finding is supported with the consideration that, when they fail to achieve the targets they set, positive perfectionists do not lose their eagerness to work for achieving these, and on the contrary, they get motivated to work harder by learning from their mistakes (Altun & Yazici, 2010; Kottman & Ashby, 2000; Rice, Ashby & Slaney, 1998; Sarioglu, 2011).

A positive and statistically significant correlation was determined between the tendency of developing negativity after a failure and negative perfectionism. Negative perfectionists adopt an attitude of being excessively self-critical and in the face of the failures they experience while trying to achieve the high standards they set they blame themselves (Burns & Fedewa, 2005; Rice & Ashby, 2007). Furthermore, negative perfectionist students feel "devastated" when they fail in achieving their targets (Kottman & Ashby, 2000; Rice & Ashby, 2007). In this context, negative perfectionist students' tendency of being negative following a failure can be evaluated as an expected result.

A positive and statistically significant correlation between the tendency to recover and be active after a failure and positive perfectionism was determined. The consideration that positive perfectionists also take failure as an acceptable result (Hamacheck, 1978) supports this finding. As for the correlation between

the tendency to recover and be active after a failure and negative perfectionism, it was determined to be negative and statistically significant. This may result from the development of course-related anxiety (Eum & Rice, 2011; Frost & Di Bartolo, 2002; Hanimoglu & Inanc, 2011) sense of incompetency and avoidance behavior (Hamachek, 1978; Terry-Short, Owens, Slade & Dewey, 1995) by negative perfectionist students following a failure. The strict self-evaluation system of negative perfectionist students may decrease their tendency to recover and be active after a failure, by reducing their motivation and disrupting their productivity (Sarioglu, 2011).

A positive and statistically significant correlation between the tendency of engaging in difficult tasks and positive perfectionism was determined in the study. The presence of performance-triggering traits of the positive dimension of perfectionism, as determining high personal standards, putting in a intensive effort, having low levels of anxiety and high levels of motivation (Hamacheck, 1978) and academic self-confidence (Rice & Mirzadeh, 2000) may be the source of this finding. The correlation between the tendency to engage in difficult tasks and negative perfectionism was not found to be statistically significant. This may be due to the presence of unrealistically high standards, fear of failure (Slade & Owens, 1998), anxiety Blankstein, Flett, Hewitt & Eng, 1993; Frost & Di Bartolo, 2002; Hewitt & Flett, 1991a), sense of incompetence (Fedewa, Burns & Gomez, 2005) and avoidance behavior (Bieling, Israeli & Antony, 2004; Hamachek, 1978; Slade & Owens, 1998) of the negative perfectionist students.

It was also determined in the study that, there is no statistically significant correlation between the tendency of not doing homework and positive perfectionism. On the other hand, a positive and statistically significant correlation was determined between the tendency of not doing homework and negative perfectionism. It is believed that the postponement (Ferrari, 1992; Hewitt & Flett, 1991b; Rice & Mirzadeh, 2000; Slaney & Ashby, 1996) and avoidance (Bieling, Israeli & Antony, 2004; Hamachek, 1978; Slade & Owens, 1998; Terry-Short, Owens, Slade & Dewey, 1995) behaviors caused by negative perfectionism may be among the causes of this finding.

Examining the scores pertaining to the whole of the Academic Risk Taking Scale, it was determined that there is a positive and statistically significant correlation between academic risk taking and positive perfectionism, and a negative and statistically significant correlation between academic risk taking and negative perfectionism. This finding is supported by several other authors (Ashby & Rice, 2002; Blankstein, Flett, Hewitt & Eng, 1993; Hewitt, Flett, & Turnbull, 1992; Parker, 2000; Quadland, 1980; Ram, 2005; Stoeber & Eismann, 2007), who found that one's perfectionist beliefs might lead to positive or negative consequences, and in parallel with theoretical knowledge (Hamachek, 1978; Rice & Ashby, 2007; Stoeber & Rambow, 2007).

There is a positive correlation between positive perfectionism and academic risk taking whereas a negative correlation exists between negative perfectionism and academic risk taking. The finding suggests that students will exhibit more academic risk taking behaviors when their positive perfectionism is supported. Considering that perfectionism can be traced back to childhood experiences (Blatt, 1995; Hamachek, 1978; Rice, Lopez & Vergara, 2005; Sorotzkin, 1998) and, in particular, the parent-child relationship (Blatt, 1995; Enns, Cox & Clara, 2002; Hamachek, 1978; Rice, Ashby & Preusser, 1996; Sorotzkin, 1998; Tire, 2011), it is parents who are mainly responsible for supporting their children's positive perfectionism and minimizing their negative perfectionism. Children are likely to develop negative perfectionism when their parents set them unrealistic goals and approve them only if these goals are achieved (Hamachek, 1978) and when they adopt an interventionist, punishing and overly-controlling attitude towards their children (McCranie & Bass, 1984). Thus, it is essential that parents should specify flexible standards for their children (Hamachek, 1978) and have a positive, encouraging and supportive approach towards them (Sorotzkin, 1998; Witcher, Alexander, Onwuegbuzie, Collins & Witcher, 2007) so that their children are prevented from developing negative perfectionism and encouraged to have more characteristics related to positive perfectionist. The fact that academic risk taking is positively correlated

with positive perfectionism but negatively correlated with negative perfectionism suggests that children will be provided with an opportunity to exhibit more academic risk taking behaviors when their positive perfectionism is supported.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN L2 (ENGLISH) and L3 (GERMAN) ACHIEVEMENTS BY THE STUDENTS (L1 TURKISH) IN NINTH GRADE

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate if there is a positive and significant relationship between academic achievements in English (L2) and German (L3) by the students. The study group consisted of 134 nine-year students (66 female and 68 male) from four different high schools in the province of Adiyaman, Turkey. During data collection, the test scores (the first examinations of the first semester) of the students in English- and German lessons from 2011-12 school year were used. The collected data were analyzed by Pearson's correlation coefficient using SPSS. The findings of this study have shown that there is a statistically significant correlation between academic achievements in English (L2) and German (L3) by the students.

Keywords: Multilingualism, German after English, transfer.

INTRODUCTION

The winning idea of multilingualism in a united Europe is becoming increasingly important. In this context, Europe has increasingly attracted attention in the study of the specifics of the teaching and learning of a second foreign language in recent years. Age of learners, temporal sequencing and limited learning time shape the teaching and learning of tertiary language.

At the beginning of L3 acquisition, learners are older and can be viewed as competent foreign language learners who know their own learning style and already have a subjective (not necessarily conscious) language learning theory.

In this context, it is raised by the question of whether any foreign language skills can be utilized in a positive L2 for learning other foreign languages. This case is even more important when there is a relationship between the two foreign languages (L2 and L3)
as between the English and the German.

Purpose
The purpose of this study is to investigate if there is a positive and significant relationship between academic achievements in English (L2) and German (L3) by the students.

METHOD

Study Model
This empirical study includes a quantitative investigation.

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Study Group
The study group consists of 134 students in ninth grade (66 female and 68 male) from four different high schools in the province of Adiyaman, Turkey.

Data Collection
During data collection, the test scores (the first examinations of the first semester) of the students in English- and German lessons from 2011-12 school year were used.

Data Analysis
The collected data were analyzed by Pearson's correlation coefficient using SPSS.

FINDINGS

In The data were analyzed with a significance level of $p = 0.01$. The findings of the correlation analysis showed that there is a statistically significant ($p<0.01$) correlation ($r = 0.409$) between academic achievements in English (L2) and German (L3) by the students.

This result of $r = 0.409$ appears to be significant for this study. Because, from what level of correlation between two variables can be viewed as a significant content, depends greatly on the particular research. Furthermore, it plays a role in whether the investigation laboratory or field character. In general, higher correlations expected in laboratory experiments because of the controllability of interference, whereas in field studies as in this study, the demand on the level of correlation is generally low

DISCUSSIONS

The findings of this study have shown that there is a statistically significant ($p<0.01$) correlation ($r = 0.409$) between academic achievements in English (L2) and German (L3) by the students.

Based on this relationship, it is important to activate students' English knowledge. Because the learners of a tertiary language in the high schools are able to use their cognitive abilities and learning-strategy.

This can be of great importance, because in tertiary language teaching is less time available and an economic teaching and learning methods must be developed.

ZUSAMMENHANG ZWISCHEN L2 (ENGLİSCH) UND L3 (DEUTSCH) LEISTUNGEN BEI DEN SCHÜLERINNEN UND SCHÜLERN (L1 TÜRKISCH) DER NEUNTEN JAHRGANGSSTUFE

ABSTRACT

In der folgenden Studie wurde es der Frage nachgegangen, ob zwischen Leistungen in L2 (Englisch) und L3 (Deutsch) eine statistisch signifikante Zusammenhang gibt. Die Stichprobe umfasste N=134 SchülerInnen (66 weiblich und 68 männlich) der neunten Jahrgansstufe aus vier verschiedenen Oberschulen in der Provinz Adiyaman/Türkei. Bei der Datenerhebung wurde die Prüfungsnoten (die ersten Prüfungen vom ersten Semester) im Englisch- und Deutschunterict der SchülerInnen verwendet. Die erhobenen Daten wurden durch Pearson-Korrelationskoeffizient analysiert. Die Ergebnisse zeigten, dass zwischen Leistungen von Schülerinnnen und Schüler im L2 (Englisch)- und L3 (Deutsch)-Unterricht eine statistisch signifikante und positive Zusammenhang gibt.

Schlüsselwörter: Mehrsprachigkeit, Deutsch nach Englisch, Transfer

EINLEITUNG

Heute ist die Welt klein und überschaubar geworden. Der Massentourismus bringt Millionen von Menschen jedes Jahr an andere Ländern. Immer mehr globale Organisationen entstehen. Staaten vereinigen sich zu größeren Verbänden, wie zum Beispiel die Staaten Europas zur Europäischen Union. Die Idee der Mehrsprachigkeit gewinnt im vereinten Europa immer mehr an Bedeutung. In diesem Kontext hat in Europa die Erforschung der Spezifika des Lehrens und Lernens von einer zweiten Fremdsprache in jüngerer Zeit verstärkt Aufmerksamkeit erregt. Es ist mehrmals empirisch nachgewiesen worden, dass es zwischen L2-Lernen (das Lernen der ersten Fremdsprache) und L3-Lernen (das Lernen einer zweiten Fremdsprache) qualitative und quantitative Unterschiede gibt (Thomas 1985; 1988/Hufeisen 1991).

Alter der Lernenden, zeitliche Sequenzierung und begrenzte Lernzeit prägen das Lehren und Lernen von Tertiärsprachen. Aus diesen drei Faktoren lassen sich allgemeine Empfehlungen für die Tertiärsprachendidaktik ableiten (Rohs 2002, 2). Aus lerntheoretischer, kognitionspsychologischer und konstruktivistischer Sicht macht es Sinn, zwischen Lernenden von L2 und L3 zu unterscheiden. Bei Beginn des L3-Erwerbs sind die Lernenden älter und können als kompetente Fremdsprachenlernende angesehen werden, die ihren eigenen Lernstil kennen und bereits über eine subjektive (nicht unbedingt bewusste) Sprachlerntheorie verfügen (Hufeisen 2001, 648). In diesem Zusammenhang wird durch die Frage aufgeworfen, inwieweit vorhandene Fremdsprachenkenntnisse in einer L2 positiv für das unterrichtlich gesteuerte Lernen weiterer Fremdsprachen ausgenutzt werden können (Merkelbach 2006).

Man kann von einem positiven Einfluss der L2 auf die L3 im Sinne von Lernerleichterung beim Lernen der L3 sprechen. Sowohl konkretes Wissen über die L2 als auch Lern- und Erschließungsstrategien tragen dazu bei, dass der Lernende der L3 seltener auf Schwierigkeiten trifft und erfolgreicher vorankommt als der Lerner, der dieselbe Sprache als L2 lernt (Hufeisen/Marx 2001, 20). Diese Annahme wird verstärkt, wenn zwischen den beiden Fremdsprachen (L2 und L3) eine Verwandtschaft besteht, wie zwischen dem Englischen und dem Deutschen. Das trifft vor allem für die rezeptive Kompetenz zu. Ein Lerner des Deutschen als L3, der Englisch als L2 gelernt hat, kann auf sein Sprachwissen in der L2 zurückgreifen, um das Verstehen in der L3 zu erleichtern (Reinfried 1998, 38). In diesem Fall spricht man vom deklarativen Wissen, dass das Verstehen der neuen Sprache wegen sprachlicher

Anknüpfungsmöglichkeiten von der Kenntnis der ersten Fremdsprache erleichtert wird (Hufeisen/Neuner 2000: 15). Einige Beispiele von Transfermöglichkeiten, die von Lernenden genutzt werden, sind:

- Intelligentes Raten: Es setzt das Weltwissen der Lernenden voraus, ebenso wie ihr implizites Wissen über die Zielsprache (intralinguales Wissen), ein Kontextwissen, ein interlinguales Wissen (Einflüsse von Mutter- und Fremdsprachen).
- Hypothesentesten:
    - Wahrnehmung eines Problems
    - Reflexion
    - Aufstellen einer Hypothese
    - Formulierung der Hypothese
    - Erprobung der Hypothese.
- Neues Wissen mit vorhandenem Wissen in Verbindung bringen.
- Paralleles Nutzen unterschiedlicher Informationsquellen und Lernmaterialien.
- Gedächtnisstrategien zum Behalten, z.B. Notizen anfertigen, Merkzettel schreiben.
- Einsetzen von Wörtern aus L1 oder L2.
- Kreieren von Wörtern der Zielsprache/Umformen von Wörtern aus L1 oder L2.
- das Wahrnehmen und Nutzen von Sprachverwandschaften.
- die Verwendung metasprachlicher Terminologie etc.   (Mißler 1999, in: Hufeisen & Neuner 2003, 101)

Während sprachliche Strukturen bei der Methodik der ersten Fremdsprache in der Regel induktiv erarbeitet werden, greift die Tertiärsprachendidaktik auf das Vorwissen der Lerner zu. Sie führt diese dazu, die Regularitäten der Zielsprache auf der Grundlage vorhandener Schemata zu identifizieren (Meißner 2003, 30)

Angesichts dieser Informationen besteht die Zielsetzung dieser Studie darin, auf der Grundlage von empirischen Befunden zu klären, ob zwischen Leistungen von Schülerinnen und Schüler im L2 (Englisch)- und L3 (Deutsch)-Unterricht eine statistisch signifikante Zusammenhang gibt.

METHODE

Die vorliegende empirische Studie zu der dargestellten Zielsetzung umfasst eine quantitative Untersuchung.

Stichprobe

Die Stichprobe der Studie umfasst N=134 SchülerInnen (66 weiblich und 68 männlich) der neunten Jahrgansstufe aus vier verschiedenen gymnasialen Oberschulen in der Provinz Adiyaman/Türkei. Die Verteilungen der SchülerInnen nach Schulen und Geschlecht sind wie folgt:

Tabelle 1: Die Verteilungen der SchülerInnen nach Schulen und Geschlecht.

Schule	f	%
Schule A	23	17,2
Schule B	33	24,6
Schule C	12	9,0
Schule D	66	49,3
Total	134	100
Geschlecht		
Mädchen	66	49,3
Jungen	68	50,7
Total	134	100

Datenerhebung

Bei der Datenerhebung wurden die Prüfungsnoten (die ersten Prüfungen vom ersten Semester) im Englisch- und Deutschunterricht der SchülerInnen im Schuljahr 2011-12 verwendet.

Datenanalyse

Bei der Datenanalyse wurde Inferensstatistik verwendet. In der Inferenzstatistik wird von Ergebnissen aus einer Stichprobe auf Populationswerte geschlossen (Rasch u.a. 2010, 29). Die erhobenen Daten wurden durch Pearson-Korrelationskoeffizient mit Hilfe von SPSS analysiert.

ERGEBNISSE

Im folgenden Abschnitt sollen zunächst die Untersuchungsergebnisse der Korrelationsanalyse gegeben und einschließlich diskutiert werden. Die Daten wurden bei einem Signifikanzniveau von $p = 0,01$ analysiert.

Tabelle 2: Ergebnisse der Korrelationsanalyse.

	Deutsch	Englisch
Deutsch		
Pearson Correlation	1	,409
Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
N	134	134
Englisch		
Pearson Correlation	,409	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
N	134	134

Aus der oben angeführten Tabelle 2 wird ersichtlich, dass zwischen Leistungen von Schülerinnen und Schüler im L2 (Englisch)- und L3 (Deutsch)-Unterricht eine statistisch signifikante ($p <. 0,01$) Zusammenhang ($r = 0,409$) gibt. Dieses Ergebnis von $r = 0,409$ scheint für vorliegende Studie bedeutsam zu sein. Denn, ab welcher Höhe eine Korrelation zwischen zwei Variablen als inhaltlich bedeutsam angesehen werden kann, hängt stark vom jeweiligen Forschungsgegenstand ab. Weiterhin spielt es eine Rolle, ob die Untersuchung Labor- oder Feldcharakter hat. Allgemein werden bei Laborexperimenten wegen der Kontrollierbarkeit von Störeinflüssen höhere Zusammenhänge erwartet, wohingegen bei Feldstudien –wie in dieser Studie- der Anspruch an die Höhe der Korrelation in der Regel niedriger ist (Rasch u.a. 2010, 126).

Da das Deutsche weltweit eine typische zweite Fremdsprache nach Englisch ist (Hufeisen, 2001, S. 648) und das Lernen einer Tertiärsprache (Bahr/Bausch/Kleppin 1996: 16) zumeist in einem Alter stattfindet, in dem man unter sprachentwicklungspychologischen Gesichtspunkten von voll ausgebildeten kognitiven Fähigkeiten, von einem ausgeprägten Strategiewissen sowie von einem bereits vorhandenem Weltwissen ausgehen kann, scheint die Aktivierung der Lernenden von großer Bedeutung zu sein, weil den Lernenden im Tertiärsprachenunterricht weniger Zeit zur Verfügung steht und ein ökonomisches Lehr- und Lernverfahren entwickelt werden muss

Auch die vorliegende Studie zeigt, dass die Aktivierung der SchülerInnen beim Lernen Deutsch als zweite Fremdsprache nach Englisch möglich ist. Da die beiden Sprachen derselben Sprachfamilie angehören, kann der Rückgriff sich sowohl auf lernstrategische und kognitive Faktoren, als auch stark auf sprachliche Aspekte beziehen. Dies kann durch Lehrkräfte und Materialien in einer geplanten Weise gesteuert werden.

SCHLUSS

Aus den oben angeführten Untersuchungen nach dem Zusammenhang von Leistungen zwischen L2 (Englisch)- und L3 (Deutsch)-Unterricht können folgende Schlussfolgerungen gezogen werden: Es gibt signifikante und positive Zusammenhang zwischen Leistungen L1 und L2. Dieses Ergebnis scheint im Einklang mit der übermittelten Informationen in der Einführung dieser Studie.

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FACULTY PERSPECTIVES OF COMMUNITY SERVICE LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Community service learning aims to develop students' commitment to civic participation as an active, responsible and democratic citizen through providing service responding to a need that originates in the community as well as strengthen their academic learning. In this study it is aimed to examine Community Service Practices course defined as a compulsory course in teacher education program through the lenses of faculty. Specifically, the purpose of this study is to understand how faculty explains service learning and what kind of issues they addresses with regard to advisors, participants, characteristic of the service learning experience and assessing the outcomes. Data collected from 10 education faculty members with semi-structured interviews and analyzed using qualitative content analysis. The emerging themes – objectives, process and service learning in the teacher education program- framed the examination of the faculty perceptions. As a result, the faculty aimed to provide pre-service teachers to be sensitive to the community needs as well as developing their problem solving and project development and management skills. They emphasized the importance of advisor's competence and proficiency, the selection of the community partner. They also stressed the difficulty of evaluation, the inadequate time for the course and the importance of applying the course as voluntary-based instead of compulsory. The need for further research examining community service practices that includes all participants- students, faculty, and community partners- and its' long-term effects on students using longitudinal studies appeared as new research suggestions.

Keywords: Community service practice, teacher education, advisor perspectives.

INTRODUCTION

Community service practices reaches back to early history where people care and help another and is one of the tradition of the communities. On the other hand academic service learning programs began to spread in the schools in the 1980s and its' philosophy laid back to the educational theorists (i.e. Dewey, Piaget, Kolb) work of integrating learning experiences in the curriculum (Grady, 2000).

Service learning is defined as a "course-based, credit-bearing educational experience in which students (a) participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and (b) reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995, p. 112). It is also defined as a learning strategy in which students have leadership roles in thoughtfully organized service experiences that meet the real needs in the community.

In Turkey, in 2006, the voluntary-based engagement service learning practices redefined as curricular and compulsory course-based learning where faculty leads students with an organized or project based service activity that both meets the community needs and students academic-based skills and knowledge by the Higher Education Council. In 2009 it was scheduled to all third grade education faculty students as a

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course. Academic credit is given to the students based on their academic learning that occurred as a result of community experiences not just engaging in a community service. The elements such as designing a syllabus, developing partnerships, planning reflection activities, and using assessment device are some of the mechanics of service learning and it should be noted that it demands much of work and energy from faculty, student and community partners.

As soon as the academic service learning has been started to use in schools as a practice by many scholars the community-based researches about this issue also came along. Many studies that explored the impact and beneficial outcomes of service learning pedagogy however little known about the effects on faculty, community, community members as well as the long term impacts of participation compared to the student outcomes (Howard, 2003; Wade & Demb, 2009).

The purpose of this study is to understand how faculty explains service learning and what kind of issues they addresses with regard to advisors, participants, characteristic of the service learning experience and assessing the outcomes.

METHOD

The qualitative method is used in this study. Data collection included the semi-structured individual interviews of the participants who hold full-time faculty position in a university from four different departments (English language education department, early childhood department, elementary education department, physical education department).

Interview questions were developed based on prior research and writings on higher education and faculty experiences with service learning. The interview questions focused on encouraging teacher educators to describe their service learning experiences as much as possible. They asked to provide detailed descriptions about their thoughts, strategies they used, the challenges they had. Throughout this study, the meaning of service was limited to activities that potentially occur within the framework of a college course.

Content analysis was selected as research procedure to analyze transcripts. After the process of reading and rereading all participants' interview transcripts, emerging themes, repeated terms and phrases were identified and categorized according to their significance of similarity and intensity. The emerging themes – objectives, process and service learning in the teacher education program- framed the examination of the faculty perceptions.

RESULTS

As a result, the faculty aimed to provide pre-service teachers to be sensitive to the community needs as well as develop their problem solving, project development and management skills.

They emphasized the importance of advisor's competence (i.e. having an experience in conducting a project and being aware of the application and evaluation of each stage of a project), proficiency and the selection of the community partner. They also stressed the difficulty of evaluation, the inadequate time for the course and the importance of applying the course as voluntary-based participation (both students and advisors) instead of compulsory.

The difficulties were most experienced in the planning phase of this course. The lack of prior knowledge and experience in project based learning result in inadequate activities for meeting the objectives and not being able to catch the integrity of the project. The answers regarding the assessment pointed out many different aspects of the process but they all referred that assessing the quality of service is the most

problematic part of this course. They added all the stakeholders must be a part of evaluation that requires high levels of communication and collaboration as well as consensus on measurement in which meeting the community needs through serving is more important than having an academic grade.

FINDINGS and DISCUSSIONS

The faculty advisors advocates service learning for having a potential to develop students' sense of civic responsibility, increase their understanding of what it means to be a teacher and increase the quality of their learning. In addition it is important for giving students an opportunity to take initiative, solve problems, and work as a team via the implementation of service-learning projects. However, the idea of redesigning the course for two semesters and as a voluntary-based elective course is one of the issues addressed by the faculty.

The issues addressed by the students regarding the impact and the beneficial outcomes of service learning pedagogy differs when we look at service learning form the perspectives of faculty, for instance; (a) the lack of time to arrange service learning logistic and supervise to plan, develop and apply a project for a community need; (b) the problems derived from the students' lack of prior knowledge and experience in project based learning; (c) the lack of evaluation studies that document the impact of service-learning experiences on students' academic and personal development.

The faculty is an important factor in designing the course, selection of the community partners, planning the project theme and objectives. The need for further research examining community service practices that includes all participants- students, faculty, and community partners- and its' long-term effects on students using longitudinal studies appeared as new research suggestions.

DANIŞMAN ÖĞRETİM ÜYELERİNE GÖRE ÖĞRETMEN EĞİTİMİNDE TOPLUMA HİZMET EDEREK ÖĞRENME

ÖZET

Topluma hizmet uygulamaları ile öğrenciler hizmet ederek toplumdaki bir ihtiyaca o toplumun aktif, sorumlu ve demokratik vatandaşı olarak cevap verirken aynı zamanda akademik öğrenmelerini de güçlendirmektedirler. Bu çalışmanın amacı, öğretmen eğitiminde zorunlu bir ders olarak okutulmaya başlanan Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları (THU) dersini, bu dersi yürüten öğretim üyelerinin bakış açıları ile değerlendirmektir. Özellikle öğretim üyelerinin topluma hizmeti nasıl açıkladıklarını, danışmanlar, katılımcılar, topluma hizmet ve deneyimlerinin özellikleri hakkında ne düşündüklerini ve dersin değerlendirilmesi konusunda ne tür konu ve sorunlara dikkat çektiklerini araştırmaktır. Veriler, nitel araştırma veri toplama yöntemlerinden yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme yolu ile toplam 10 öğretim üyesinin katılımından elde edilmiştir. İçerik analizi kullanılmış ve amaçlarına, sürecine ve dersin programdaki yerine ilişkin görüşler olmak üzere üç ayrı kategoride sınıflandırılarak değerlendirilmiştir. Araştırmanın sonuçlarına göre danışmanlık yapan öğretim üyeleri öğrencilerin problem ve ihtiyaçlara karşı duyarlılık, problem çözme becerileri ve proje yapma ve yürütme altyapısını kazanmalarını istediklerini belirtmişlerdir. Danışmanlar sürecin yürütülmesinde danışman yeterliklerinin, uzmanlık alanının ve kurumların seçiminin öneminden bahsetmekle birlikte sürecin değerlendirilmesinin zorluğu, bir dönemlik sürenin bu ders için yetersiz oluşu ve gönüllülüğün esas alınması gerektiği gibi konulara dikkat çekmişlerdir. Bu alanda süreci ve içeriği değerlendiren daha uzun süreli ve dersin öğrenci üzerindeki kalıcı etkilerini ölçecek çalışmalara ihtiyaç olduğu aynı zamanda hem öğrenci hem danışman ve hem de diğer tüm paydaşları içine alan kapsamlı çalışmalarında bu dersin daha iyi değerlendirilmesine ve uygulanmasına katkıda bulunacağı öneriler arasındadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Topluma hizmet uygulamaları, öğretmen eğitimi, danışman görüşleri

GİRİŞ

Topluma hizmet uygulamaları tarihte insanların birbirini önemsediği ve yardım ettiği zamanlar kadar eski olmakla birlikte toplumların önemli geleneklerinden birisidir. Bununla beraber akademik topluma hizmet uygulamaları programları 1980'li yıllarda okullar arasında yaygınlaşmaya başlamış ve bu programların temel felsefesi eğitim programlarının gerçek öğrenme yaşantılarını içermesi gerektiği konusunda çalışma yapan bilim adamlarının (i.e. Dewey, Piaget, Kolb) teorilerine dayanmaktadır (Grady, 2000).

Hizmet ederek öğrenme kredisi olan ve öğrencilerin (a) önceden belirlenmiş toplumun ihtiyaçlarını karşılamak üzere organize edilmiş faaliyetlere katıldıkları ve (b) dersin içeriğini daha iyi anlayacak, bu alandaki çalışmaları daha iyi kavrayacak ve sosyal sorumluluk duygularını geliştirecek yönde hizmet uygulamalarını değerlendirdikleri bir ders olarak tanımlanmıştır (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995). Ayrıca öğrencilerin toplumun gerçek ihtilaçlarını karşılayacak, üzerinde iyi düşünülerek organize edilmiş ve öğrencilerin liderlik rollerini üstlendiği öğrenme stratejisi olarak tanımlanmıştır. Hizmet uygulamaları araştırma, yansıtma, tartışma ve tecrübelerini öğrenmeleri ve dünya görüşleri ile birleştirmeleri için öğrencilerin akademik çalışmalarının içine entegre edilmiştir (Cipolle, 2004).

Hizmet ederek öğrenmenin tanımları içinde uygulamaların temel özellikleri toplumun içinde bulunan bir ihtiyaca cevap verme, öğrencilerin akademik öğrenmelerini güçlendirme ve öğrencilerin toplumun birer aktif, sorumlu ve demokratik vatandaşı olarak toplumsal katkıya bağlılığını geliştirme olarak tanımlanmıştır (Howard, 2003).

Topluma hizmet ederek öğrenmenin öğretmen eğitiminde benimsenip uygulanmaya başlanması üzerinden çok zaman geçmesine rağmen Türkiye'de yüksek öğrenimde akademik çalışma olarak topluma hizmet uygulamalarına 2006 yılında başlanmıştır. Gönüllülük esasına dayalı hizmet ederek öğrenme uygulamaları Yüksek Öğrenim Kurumu tarafından öğretmen eğitimi programında zorunlu bir ders olarak tanımlanmış ve öğretim üyesi danışmanlığında öğrencilerin proje tabanlı topluma hizmet uygulamaları yaparak hem toplumun ihtiyaçlarına hem de akademik bilgi ve becerilerinin gelişmesine katkıda bulunması amaçlanmıştır. 2009 yılında tüm öğretmen yetiştirme programlarındaki öğrenciler 3. sınıfta bu derse kaydolmaya başlamışlardır. Bu ders ile öğretmen adaylarının toplumun ihtiyaçlarına duyarlılıklarını arttırmanın yanı sıra sosyal sorumluluk bilinçlerinin, kendine güvenlerinin ve farkındalıklarının da geliştirilmesi planlanmıştır. Hizmet ederek öğrenme aynı zamanda öğrenci yeterliklerinin arttırılması, kişisel, sosyal ve duygusal gelişimlerinin güçlendirilmesi, kendi inanç ve önyargılarının ve birer öğretmen adayı olarak toplumdaki rollerinin öğrenci tarafından tekrar gözden geçirebilmesine fırsat tanıması bakımından değerli bulunmaktadır.

Hizmet ederek öğrenmenin bir uygulama olarak okullarda kullanılmaya başlanması araştırmacılar tarafından toplum tabanlı çalışmaların yapılmasını da beraberinde getirmiştir. En çok öğrenci çıktıları araştırılmakla birlikte danışmanlar üzerindeki etkisi, yönetime katkısı, kurumların toplum misyonuna olan katılımları ve etkinlikleri ise hakkında az bilinen konular arasındadır (Wade & Demb, 2009). Birçok çalışma topluma hizmet ederek öğrenmenin faydalı sonuçları ve etkisi araştırılmakta bu uygulamaların öğretim üyeleri, toplum, toplum üyeleri ve bu uygulamalara katılmanın öğrenciler üzerindeki uzun süreli etkileri hakkında daha az çalışma yapılmaktadır (Howard, 2003). Topluma hizmet uygulamalarına öğretim üyesi katılımı ile ilgili çalışmalar öğretim üyesinin hizmet ederek öğrenme ile ilgili algılarını ve bu tür uygulamaları kullanma ya da kullanmamalarına etki eden faktörleri, toplum temelli pedagojilerin kullanımında öğretim üyesinin rolü ve hizmet ederek öğrenme ile ilgili söylemlerinin analiz edildiği çalışmaları kapsamaktadır (Banerjee & Hausafus, 2007; Bloomgarden & O'Meara, 2007; O'Meara & Niehaus, 2009; Schnaubelt & Statham, 2007).

Türkiye de topluma hizmet uygulamaları akademik bir ders olarak tanımlandıktan sonra bu dersin süreci ve kazanımları, içeriği öğretmen adaylarının görüşleri doğrultusunda birçok çalışma ile değerlendirilmiştir. Bu çalışmaların sonuçlarına göre (a) öğretmen adaylarının ders ve dersin süreci hakkında olumlu görüşleri olduğu, dersin kişisel ve mesleki gelişimlerine ve sosyalleşmelerine olumlu katkıda bulunduğunu düşündüklerini (Elma, Kesten, Kıroğlu, Uzun, Dicle, & Palavan, 2010; Uğurlu & Kıral 2011), (b) toplumsal duyarlılıklarını arttırdığını (Özdemir & Tokcan, 2010), (c) amaç ve içeriğinin öğretmen adayları tarafından anlaşıldığı ve birçok becerilerini geliştirdiğini (Sönmez, 2010), (d) hizmet bilinci ve farkındalıklarının geliştiğini (Arkün, & Seferoğlu, 2010), (e) adayların üretkenliğine olumlu katkı sağlayacağını düşündüklerini ve toplumsal sorunlara karşı daha duyarlı olup sorunları çözmek amacıyla yapılacak faaliyetlerde önderlik yapmalarına sebep olacağına inandıklarını bulmuşlardır (Tuncel, Kop, & Katılmış, 2011). Okul öncesi eğitim almayan çocukların kavram oyuncaklarıyla kavram bilgilerinin desteklenmesi amacıyla THU dersi kapsamında bir proje geliştirilmiş ve gerçekleştirilen bu projede sonucunda lisans öğrencilerinin de çeşitli ortamlarda farklı gelişim özelliklerine sahip çocuklarla çalışarak yararlı deneyimler elde ettikleri, toplumsal sorunlara duyarlılık geliştirdikleri, ailelerin okul öncesi eğitimin gerekliliği konusunda somut deneyimler edindikleri, çocukların da kavram bilgilerinde gelişmeler olduğu görülmüştür (Dinçer, Ergül, Şen,& Çabuk, 2011).

Ayrıca öğretmen adayları bu ders için bürokratik engeller, bütçe, yer ve zamanın yetersizliği, danışmanın yeterince zaman ayıramaması gibi engellerden bahsetmişlerdir (Uğurlu & Kıral, 2011). Olanakların kısıtlı olması gidilen kurumlarda gerekli rehberliğin ve yardımın yapılamaması gibi sıkıntılar belirtilmiştir. (Özdemir & Tokcan, 2010). Öğrenciler ayrıca proje seçiminde ve grupların belirlenmesinde daha özgür olmak istediklerini ve uygulama süresinin yetersiz olduğu konusunda görüş bildirmişlerdir (Elma, Kesten, Kıroğlu, Uzun, Dicle, & Palavan, 2010). Bunun yanında dersin işlenişi, yapılan projelerin içeriği, öğretim elemanının tutumu, süresi ve verildiği dönem dersin verimliliğini etkilediği belirtilmiş ve ayrıca dersin

gönüllülük esasına göre sürdürülmesi gerektiği öğrenciler tarafından dile getirilmiştir (Arkün, & Seferoğlu, 2010).

Bu değerlendirmeler sonucunda proje tabanlı eğitimin gerçek anlamda kullanılması gerektiği (Elma, Kesten, Kıroğlu, Uzun, Dicle, & Palavan, 2010), dersin tüm yükseköğretim kurumlarında yaygınlaştırılması, öğrencilerin dilediği grup ve danışmanla çalışmasının önündeki bürokratik engellerin kaldırılması, dersin ders yükü az olan öğretim üyesine verilmesi önerilmiştir (Uğurlu & Kıral, 2011). Öğrencilerin istedikleri konuları seçmeleri konusunda özgür bırakılması ile bu dersin içeriğine ilgisi olan öğretim elemanları tarafından yürütülmesi ve dersin kazanımlarının öğretim görülen programın amaçları ile örtüşmesi gerektiği öneriler arasındadır (Tuncel, Kop, & Katılmış, 2011). Ayrıca, THU gidilen kurum ve sivil toplum kuruluşlarının görüşleri doğrultusunda değerlendirilmiş ve sonucunda uygulamanın kurum üzerinde olumlu etkisi olduğu, kurum-üniversite arsındaki işbirliğinin istenilen düzeyde olmaması ve danışmaların dersin sürecini yürütme konusunda yetersiz olmaları temel sorunlar olarak belirlenmiştir (Elma, Kesten, Kıroğlu, Uzun, Dicle, & Palavan, 2011).

Bu ders ile ilgili yapılan değerlendirmelerde danışman ile ilgili değerlendirmeler mutlaka belirtilmekte fakat danışmanın bu dersin kazanımları ve içeriği hakkında ne düşündüklerine bazı çalışmalarda değinildiği gibi yeterince yer verilmemektedir. Öğrencilere akademik kredi sadece topluma hizmet uygulamalarına katıldıkları için değil toplum ile ilgili bu deneyimlerinin sonunda gerçekleşen akademik öğrenmelerinden dolayı verilmektedir. Program oluşturma, diğer kurumlarla işbirliği geliştirme, tecrübeleri konusunda düşündüklerini yansıtabilmeleri için etkinlikler planlama ve değerlendirme araçlarını kullanma bu dersin teknik gereklerinden olmakla birlikte öğretim üyesinden, öğrenciden ve diğer paydaşlardan iş ve enerji talep etmektedir. Bununla birlikte öğretim üyesinin sorumlukları ders yükleri ve idari sorumluluklar gibi zorunlu sorumlulukları ile birlikte zorunlu olmamakla beraber yapmaları gereken araştırma ve yayın yapma ve aynı zamanda rehberlik ve danışmanlık gibi sorumlulukları da vardır.

Birge (2005) fakültelerin öğretim üyelerinin kendi öğretim süreçlerini gözden geçirmeleri, kendileri, öğrencileri ve toplum için ne ifade ettiği konusunda değerlendirme yapmaları için yer açmadığını belirtmektedir. Öğretim üyelerinin diğerlerinin yaşamlarını iyileştirmek için neler yaptıklarını paylaşacakları yer ve zamanı bulmalarının çok zor olduğu ve ayrıca hizmet ederek öğrenme yolunu kullanarak eğitim öğretim yapan öğretim üyeleri kendilerini, öğretimlerini ve bilgilerini gözden geçirme konusunda çok az fırsata sahip olmaları eleştirilen konular arasındadır.

Topluma hizmet uygulamaları için danışmanlık yapacak öğretim üyeleri görevlendirilirken öncelik bu konuda isteği ve yeteneği olma şartı aranması gerekirken bu dersi yürütme konusunda belirlenmiş en önemli ölçüt her bir danışmana en az 15 öğrenci verilmesi olarak belirlenmiştir. Dolayısıyla topluma hizmet uygulamaları ile eğitim yapmak istemeyen öğretim üyeleri de bu uygulamalara katılmaktadır. Bu yüzden yüksek öğrenim kurumlarında bu ders için danışmanlık yapan öğretim üyelerinin topluma hizmet ederek öğrenme konusunda ne düşündükleri de önemli bir soru olarak belirmektedir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı öğretmen yetiştiren kurumlarda bu dersi yürüten öğretim üyelerinin topluma hizmeti nasıl açıkladıklarını ve danışmanlar, katılımcılar, topluma hizmet deneyimlerinin özellikleri ve dersin değerlendirilmesi konusunda ne tür konu ve sorunlara dikkat çektiklerini araştırmaktır.

YÖNTEM

THU dersini öğrencilere danışmanlık yapan öğretim üyelerinin bakış açıları ile değerlendirmeyi amaçlayan bu araştırmada nitel araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Çalışma özellikle dersi yürüten danışmanların hizmet ederek öğrenmeyi nasıl açıkladıklarını, dersin sürecini ve bu süreçte etkisi olan paydaşlar ile ilgili değerlendirmelerini ortaya çıkarmak için planlanmıştır. Bu çalışma boyunca hizmet

ederek öğrenmenin anlamı üniversitede okutulan dersin içeriği çerçevesinde tanımlanabilen etkinlikler ile sınırlıdır.

Katılımcılar

Bu çalışmaya orta büyüklükteki bir üniversitede farklı branşlarda öğretmen yetiştiren bölümlerde çalışan 2011 yılı bahar dönemi sonuna kadar en az 2 dönem bu dersi yürütmüş öğretim elemanları katılmıştır. 5 sınıf öğretmenliği, 2 okul öncesi eğitimi, 2 İngiliz dili eğitimi, 1 beden eğitimi ve spor öğretmenliği anabilim dallarında görev yapan 6 kadın 4 erkek olmak üzere toplam 10 öğretim üyesi çalışmaya katılma konusunda gönüllü olmuşlardır.

Veri Toplama Yöntemi

Görüşme soruları yüksek öğrenimde çalışan fakülte öğretim üyelerinin topluma hizmet uygulamaları ile ilgili deneyimleri üzerine yapılan araştırmalar ve araştırmacının kendi deneyimleri referans olarak kullanılmıştır (Birge, 2005; Bringle & Hatcher, 1996; Wade & Demb, 2009; Ward, 1998).

Görüşme soruları iki farklı ders koordinatörünün görüşlerine sunulmuş ve bazı küçük değişiklikler yapılarak yeniden düzenlenmiştir. Görüşme soruları öğrenci, danışman ve uygulamalar göz önüne alınarak hazırlanmıştır. Sorular eğitimcilerin topluma hizmet uygulamaları dersinde yaşadıkları deneyimleri mümkün olduğu kadar ayrıntılı açıklamalarına olanak sağlayacak şekilde yarı yapılandırılmış olarak düzenlenmiştir. Merriam'a (1998) göre yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme araştırmacı için rahat ve beklenmedik durumlar karşısında araştırmacıya esneklik sağlayan bir görüşme tekniğidir. Bu teknik aynı zamanda katılımcıların bakış açılarını ve farkında olmadıkları fikirlerini ortaya çıkarma açısından önemlidir. Görüşme boyunca katılımcılar düşünceleri, kullandıkları stratejiler ve yaşadıkları zorluklar hakkında detaylı bilgi vermeleri konusunda teşvik edilmişlerdir. Görüşme soruları aşağıdaki gibidir:
1. Topluma hizmet uygulamaları ile öğrencilerinizin kazanmasını istediğiniz yeterlilikler nelerdir?
2. Bu yeterliliklerin onların öğrenim hayatını nasıl etkilemesini bekliyorsunuz?
3. Topluma hizmet uygulamalarının yapılacağı kurumları nasıl ve hangi kriterlere göre seçiyorsunuz?
4. Bu dersi yürütecek danışmanların ne tür özelliklere sahip olması gerektiğini düşünüyorsunuz?
5. Öğrencilerin karşı karşıya oldukları gerçekler sizce ne?
6. Öğrenciler bu ders kapsamında en çok hangi konularda zorluk yaşıyorlar?
7. Bu dersi verirken sizi etkileyen önemli bir olaydan bahsedebilir misiniz?
8. Bu dersin başarı ölçütü sizce nedir?
9. Sizce öğrenciler topluma hizmet konusunda bir ders kapsamında gönüllü çalışmalılar mı?
10. Öğrencilerin sahip oldukları özellikleri yapılan hizmete hangi yönlerden etkisi olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
11. Bu ders ile ilgili değiştirmek istediğiniz bir şey olsa bu ne olurdu?
12. Bu dersin amaçları, içeriği, sürecin yürütülmesi ve danışman rolleri ile ilgili neler eklemek istersiniz?

Yapılan görüşmeler yaklaşık 40- 45 dakika sürmüştür (1 katılımcı ile yapılan görüşme 90 dakika sürmüştür). Görüşmeler katılımcıların kendi ofislerinde yapılmıştır. Kaydedilen görüşmeler daha sonra yazılı metin haline getirilmiştir.

Veri Analiz Yöntemi

Bu çalışma için toplanan veriler yorumsal analiz ve içerik analizi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Yorumsal analiz verilerin tanınması ve kategorize edilmesi için kodlama yapılmasını sağlar ve böylece veriler tekrar tekrar incelenip yorumlanabilir (Ekiz, 2009). İçerik analizi ise içeriğin incelenip sayısal olarak ortaya konulmasında kullanılır (Ekiz, 2009). Yazılı metin haline getirilen görüşmeler analiz edilirken ilk olarak görüşme soruları hazırlanırken kullanılan kategoriler (topluma hizmet uygulamaları ile ilgili deneyimler, öğrenciler, danışmanlar) dikkate alınmıştır. Bu kategorilerin verilerin açıklanması ve yorumlanmasında

yetersiz olduğu görülmüş ve ilk önce ayrı ayrı analiz edilen görüşme soruları daha sonra tekrar tekrar okunmuş ortaya çıkan temalar, tekrarlanan terimler ve söylemler benzerlik ve yoğunlukları göz önüne alınarak önem sırasına göre dersin amaçlarına, sürecine ve dersin programdaki yerine ilişkin görüşler olmak üzere üç ayrı kategoride sınıflandırılmıştır ve değerlendirilmiştir. Her bir kategoride bulgular katılımcıların söyledikleri alıntılar ile desteklenmiştir. Önem sırasına göre verilerin düzenlenmesinde içerik analizi kullanılmıştır. Alıntılarda isim kullanılmamış ve her bir katılımcı için görev yaptıkları bölüme göre numara verilmiştir.

BULGULAR

THU dersine danışmanlık yapan öğretim üyelerinin görüşme sorularına verdiği cevaplar dersin amaçlarına, sürecine ve dersin programdaki yerine ilişkin görüşler olmak üzere üç başlık altında değerlendirilmiştir.

THU Dersinin (Amaçlarının) Değerlendirilmesine İlişkin Görüşler
Bu bölümde dersin amaçları ve içeriği ile ilgili görüşler değerlendirilmiştir. Danışmanların hepsi öğrencilerin THU ile en önce sosyal sorumluluk ve toplumdaki problem ve ihtiyaçlara karşı duyarlılık ve farkındalık kazanmalarını istediklerini belirtmiştir:

> Kişisel anlamda duyarlı olmak öğrencilerimizin yakın çevresinden başlayarak dünyada olup bitenlere her anlamda duyarlı olmaları çok önemli. Farkındalıkları çok önemli ve belirleyici. ... . Bu farkındalıktan sonra bu bilinçten sonra bunu değiştirme isteği duygusu önemli. Yani ortada bir şey var. O şeyin bir çözümü var. O şey olduğundan daha iyi bir hale getirilebilir. …bu duyguyla o şeyi değiştirme konusunda, o soruyu, o konuyu o problemi, o eksikliği o aksaklığı değiştirme ortadan kaldırma ve yerine daha iyisini koyma konusunda istekli olmaları ve daha da önemlisi samimi olmaları. (Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Öğretmenliği, 1)

> Şimdi her şeyden önce sosyal sorumluluğu kazanmaları ve toplumun hangi katmanlarına hangi bölümlerinde sorun ama nasıl destek verebilirim için bir zemin hazırlar diye düşünüyorum. Yani bu ders sosyal sorumluluk kazanmalarına hizmet edebilir. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, 1)

> Topluma hizmet yani bir öğretmen olarak sadece okulda değil okul dışında da eğitim faaliyetlerini yapabileceklerini görebilmeleri bence en büyük amaç. Yani sadece okul sınırları içerisinde kalmayıp okulun dışında da öğretmen kimliğini koruyarak çalışabilmesi. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 2)

İkinci olarak danışmanların yarısı dersin amaçları içinde öğrencilerin bu tespit ettikleri problem ve gereksinimlere nasıl çözüm bulabilirim, nasıl destek olabilirim sorularını sorarak problem çözme becerilerini geliştirme ve probleme çözüm üretebilecek bir süreci yapılandırabilme becerisi kazanmalarını sağlamak olarak belirtmiştir:

> Hem toplum da kendi gördükleri eksiklikleri, bir toplumdaki gereksinimleri tespit etmek çok önemli bir şey farkında olmak çok önemli bir şey. Bu aynı zamanda problem çözme becerisi içinde, onunda ilk adımı. Dolayısıyla öncelikle sorunu çözmek sorunu anlamak, alternatif yollar geliştirmek. Yine eleştirel düşünce becerisini geliştirirken bu tabi eleştirdikleri şeylerde kendilerinin nasıl eksikliklerini doldurabileceğini kazandırma becerileri tabi ağır basıyor. Yani bu derste herhalde edinilmesi gereken en önemli beceriler bunlar. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, 2)

Ayrıca bireylerin proje yapabilme altyapısını bu zeminde kazanmalarını sağlamak yine danışmanların yarısı tarafından dile getirilmiştir:

Benim başta birinci beklentim şu. Bireylerin birlikte bir proje üretebilmesi. Ürün ortaya koyabilmesi. Bunu ortaya koyarken de başka kurumlarla ve kişilerle birlikte iş yapabilme becerisi ve yeteneğini geliştirebilmesi. Birinci öncelik bu. Bundan sonra ki süreçte bunu uygulamaya koyabilmesi. Bir projeyi teorik olarak üretebiliyor ama bunu uygulamaya koyabiliyor mu birlikte çalışabiliyor mu? (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 1)

Toplum gerçeklerini, değişik sosyoekonomik düzeydeki çocukları görmesi de önemlide bir proje nasıl yapılır, nasıl bir uygulama olur, hani bir projeyi nasıl derleyip toplayıp yazabilirim grup çalışması halinde, Bu sorumluluğu alıp bunu geliştirebilmeleri bence çok daha önemli bir şey diye düşünüyorum. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 3)

Kurum ve diğer kişilerle çalışma becerisi kazanmak ve hem grupla hem ihtiyaç sahibi ile yapılandırılan projeyi yürütebilme becerisi kazanılması da beklenen yeterlikler arasındadır:

Yani toplumun dışında kalıpta dışarıdan ahkam kesmek işte söyle yapalım böyle yapalım değil birebir işin içine girerek problemin içinde bulunarak onu çözümlendirmek veya ihtiyaç sahipleriyle birlikte bir süreci yapılandırmalarını istiyorum. (İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, 1)

Danışmanların hepsi bu ders boyunca kazanılan yeterliklerin öğrencilerin en çok mesleki yeterliklerini birçok yönden arttıracağı konusuna değinmişlerdir. Öğretmenlik mesleğinin sadece okul sınırları içinde olmadığını öğrendiklerini, farklı gruplarla çalışma becerisi kazandıklarını ve eğitime katkının birçok farklı yollarla yapılabileceğini öğrendiklerini belirtmişlerdir. Ayrıca 6 danışman proje deneyiminin de mesleki yönden katkıları olacağını söylemişlerdir:

Topluma hizmet etmek için gittikleri kurumlarda öğrenciler öğrendiklerinden çok farklı bir şekilde eğitime katkıda bulunabileceklerini gördüler. Bu şekilde öğretmenlerin sadece okul binası içerisinde kalmayıp onun dışında da devam ettiğini görmeleri benim için önemliydi. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 4)

Kimsesiz çocuklar yurdundaki çocukların derslerine yardım ediyorlardı bir eğitim veriyorlardı. Kendi lisans eğitimlerinde nasıl bir eğitim aldılarsa ona göre bir şeyler yaptıkları için otomatik olarak kendi eğitimlerini destekliyor aslında. Zaten çünkü kendi öğrenimi doğrultusunda bir şey yapıyor. Bambaşka bir şey gidip de bir şey pazarlamıyor yani yine eğitim veriyorlar. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 3)

Atandığı bölgenin toplumsal ihtiyaçlarını tespit edebilir bu ihtiyaçlar doğrultusunda bulunduğu sosyokültürel ortamda neyi planlayıp hangi sahada toplumla iç içe çalışmalar yürütebilir çünkü eğitimi 4 duvar arasından çıkartmaktır her zaman benim hedefimde. Okul aile toplum üçgeni içinde bunu gerçekleştirebilme. İnsanı tanıyabilme, en azından çalıştığı grubun öğrencilerin aile kültürlerini tanıyabilir. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, 1)

Danışmanlar bu dersin bu yeterlikleri kazandırıp kazandıramayacağının tartışılabileceğini, yapılan çalışmanın niteliği, danışmanın ve öğrencinin algısı, verilen mesajların istenilen yeterliklere etkisinin olduğunu vurgulamalarına rağmen dersin en azından buna imkan verdiği 4 danışman tarafından belirtilmiş, iki tanesi benzer bir süreci kendi hayatlarına mutlaka aktaracaklarına inandığını söylemiştir.

Yani olması gereken ideal durumdan çok bahsediyorlar ama çocuklarla beraber, öğrencilerle beraber birlikte ne yapıyorlar acaba bu ideal duruma ulaşmak için. Onlara bu eksiklikleri gidermek için ne kadar model oluyorlar. Ders olarak değil ama böyle bir imkanı vermesi açısından ben yararlı buluyorum. Öğretim elemanları, öğrenciler, çocuklar hep beraber bir eksikliği gidermek için çalışıldığı zaman, o zaman gerçekten evet konuşmakla beraber,

eleştirmekle beraber, birlikte sorumluluk alıp da hep beraber bir şeyler yaptıkları zaman gerçektende anlamlı oluyor. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, 2)

Biz aslında burada bir alışkanlığa yani biz eğitim için ne diyoruz eğer bir hedef varsa bu süreçte kazanılır diyoruz. Bir kere yapmakla olmaz bunun tekrar edilmesi gerekir diyoruz. İşte bu tekrarlılık sürecine onları ısındırmak ve alıştırmak. Yani bunun öğrenilmesini bekliyorum onlar tarafından ve bütün hayatlarına da yaymalarını bekliyorum ve yayacaklarının da düşünüyorum. En azından kendi çalıştığım gruplar için söylüyorum. (İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, 2)

Danışmanlardan 2 tanesi bu ders zorunlu olduğu için birçoğuna hiçbir katkısı olmayacağına inandığını sadece proje uygulama konusunda özgüven kazanabileceklerini belirtmiştir:

Ben şöyle başlayayım istersen bu ders zorunlu. Zorunlu olduğu için bazılarına hiçbir şekilde faydası olmayacak. Zorunlu olduğu için alıyor. Biz genelde grup çalışması yapıyoruz grupta başarılı bir birey değil çok katkısı olacağını düşünmüyorum. İlk soruda söylediğim gibi işte ortaya koyduğu projeyi uygulayıp uygulamayacağını, uyguladığı zaman ürün ortaya çıktığında geri dönüt aldığında pozitif dönütler alacak iyi uygulama yapabilirse bunun katkısı ne olabilir. Kendine olan özgüveni artacak sadece. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 1)

Danışmanlar ayrıca öğrencilerin sorunlar onlara yaklaşmadığı sürece sıkıntı olarak görmediklerini, toplumun gerçeklerine çok uzak yaşadıklarını, genelde duyarsız, merak duyguları az ve tüketen bireyler olduklarının öğrencilerin bir gerçeği olduğunu vurgulanmıştır:

Öğrencilerimizin doğrudan yada dolaylı karşılaştığı. Farkında olduğu yada olmadığı hatta belki neden gibi gördüğü. Neden zannettiği ama bazı nedenlerin sonucu olan yada sonuç gibi gördüğü ama aslında özde sorguladığınız zaman bir kaynağı niteliğinde olan o kadar çok şey var ki yani…..... herkesi içine alır bir genelleme yapmakta doğru değil ama genel anlamda hani böyle olayları sorunları gelişmeleri çok hani böyle sorgulamama, çok kafa yormama çok üzerine gitmeme gibi duygular, göreceli olarak daha az okuma, ülke sorunlarına, dünya sorunlarına çevresel sorunlara kendilerine çok yaklaşmadıkça sorun ya da sıkıntı olarak görmeme, adam sendecilik, bana ne lazımcılık, var. (Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Öğretmenliği, 1)

Lösemili çocukların ailelerini aldık ve o ailelerin kendi içinde bir sosyal ağ oluşturmalarına yardımcı olmaya çalıştık. Bunlar farklı yerlerden geliyorlardı ve buraya geliyorlardı. Kiminin evi yoktu, kimi dışarıda kalıyordu, kimi çocuğunu bırakıp memleketine geri gitmek zorunda kalıyordu ve birçok şey yaşandı ve bunlar da bizim çocuklarımızı çok derinden etkiledi. Giden öğretmen adayları böyle bir manzara beklemiyorlardı ama bu bu işte her zaman olan bir şey. Bu biz gittiğimiz için olmadı bu hep var ve biz bunu gittiğimiz için görüyoruz. Buna şaşırmamak gerekiyor çünkü bunun içindeysen sen burada şaşkınlık işe yaramıyor. Onu çözmek gerekiyor. (İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, 1)

THU Dersinin Sürecinin Değerlendirilmesine İlişkin Görüşler
Bu bölümde dersin yürütülmesinde önemli olan danışmanların özellikleri, hizmet edilecek kurumların seçimi ve karşılaşılan zorluklar hakkındaki görüşler ile dersin değerlendirme süreci ile ilgili görüşler analiz edilmiştir.

Danışman Özellikleri
Danışmanların özellikleri konusunda 7 danışman bu dersi verecek kişinin donanımlı olması gerektiği yani akademik hayatında bir proje yürütmüş olması gerektiğini ve her aşamanın nasıl hazırlanıp uygulanıp değerlendirildiğinin farkında olması gerektiğini belirtmişlerdir:

Tıpkı öğrencilerden beklediğimiz gibi birileri için bir şeyler yapma hevesi ve ihtiyacı içinde olmaları gerekli ama bir çalışmayı koordine etmek için yeterli değil. Teknik bilgide çok gerekiyor fakat bunu önemsemiyorlar ya da kişisel anlamda bu kişi gönüllü bile olsa birde hani nasıl matematiği sevebilirsiniz matematiği öğretme konusunda istekli arzulu olabilirsiniz ama iyi bir matematik altyapınız yoksa bu isteğiniz bu heyecanınız sizi bir yere kadar götürür. İşte bu anlamda tıpkı öğrencilerden beklediğimiz istediğimiz gibi danışmanlarında öğrencilerin ötesinde onları sürükleyebilecek kadar donanımlı olması. Proje nedir ne değildir, proje süreçleri nelerdir, mantıksal çerçeve yaklaşımı nedir, bir proje nasıl yönetilir, bu süreç nasıl yönetilir. (Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Öğretmenliği, 1)

Öncelikle danışmanlarının da daha önce bu tip bir proje de çalışmış olmaları çok önemli. Yada en azından bir projenin nasıl yürütüldüğü konusunda fikir sahibi olmaları gerekiyor. Çünkü öğrenciler proje yapıyorlar danışmanın bir projenin nasıl yapıldığından haberi yoksa onlara yol göstermekte zorluk çekebilir. Öğrenciler çok çabuk kaybolmaya elverişliler yani projenin hedeflerinden uzaklaşmaya, metodundan uzaklaşmaya. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 5)

5 danışman bu tür topluma hizmet çalışmalarını kendilerinin de gönüllü olarak yürütüyor olmaları gerektiği konusunda görüş bildirmiştir:

Danışmanların bu çalışmaları kendileri de yapmış olmaları gerekiyor. Mesela ben hala gönüllü çalışmalar yapıyorum ama biliyorum ki birçok arkadaş yapmıyor. O yüzden de dışarıdan yürütmek çok zor oluyor. Kurum için ne yapması gerektiğini o kurumda nasıl davranması gerektiğini onlarla nasıl iletişime geçmesi gerektiği brifinglerle öğrenilmiyor. O deneyim süreci olması gerekiyor. Yaşayarak öğrenilmesi gerekiyor. Bu yüzden kendilerinin aslında bu tür gönüllü çalışmaları yapıyor olması gerektiğini düşünüyorum. (İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, 2)

4 danışman bu dersi veren kişinin mutlaka bu ders için gönüllü olması gerektiği ve özellikle dersi az olmanın görevlendirme için ölçüt olmaması gerektiğini belirtmişlerdir:

Bu tür çalışmalarda ben görevlendirilmiş olmayı çok doğru bulmuyorum. Gönüllü olmak sorumluluk duymak istekli olmak daha önemli. Yani bu tür şeyler görevlendirme ile olabilecek şeyler değil. Ya bak senin daha az dersin var sen daha uygunsun senin işte ders saatin daha az işte boş günlerin var bu dersi sen yürüt ya da bu çalışmayı sen koordine et. İlk kriter daha az dersinin daha çok boş vaktinin olması. Yönetici böyle bakıyor olaya. Yani kriter ve ölçü bu olmamalı. Yani ben burada bu çalışmayı yaptım ama ben bu çalışmayı yaparken herkesten daha yoğundum. Zamanımı çok iyi kullanmaya çalışıyordum ama bu olaya inanıyordum. Bu önemli. (Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Öğretmenliği, 1)

1 danışman hedef proje yaptırmak ise akademisyen olan herkesin bu dersi yürütebileceğini belirtmiştir:

Yani proje hazırlamayı bilen zaten bunu da tüm akademisyenler yapıyor. Sadece çalışılan konuda da yeterli olması. O proje ile birlikte iletişim kurabilme, organizasyon, kurumlar arası bağlantı kurabilme yani bizim yaptığımız uygulamada bu tür özellikler yeterli olmuştu. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 1)

3 kişi iletişim becerilerinin çok önemli olduğunu 3 kişi de liderlik özelliklerinin ve yönetim becerilerinin öneminden bahsetmiştir:

Danışmanlarda öğrencilerde olduğu gibi bir takım iletişim becerileri de gerekiyor. Bunlarında konuşulması gerekiyor yani o nedenle bizim proje eğitimlerimizde proje anlatılır iletişim konuşulur, fon bulma kaynak bulma konuşulur. Farklı toplumsal kategoriler konuşulur. Hassas

gruplar, grupların özellikleri konuşulur. Çocuklarla nasıl iletişim kurulur, çocuklarla iletişim kumanın "üf" ve "püf" noktaları konuşulur sorgulanır. İşin özü nem psiko-sosyal yatkınlık ve isteklilik hem de teknik yeterlilik ve beceri gerekiyor. Danışmanlarında hocalarında böyle bir alt yapıya sahip olmaları gerekiyor. (Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Öğretmenliği, 1)

Kurumların Seçimi

Süreçte kurumların nasıl seçildiği konusunda 4 danışman kurumları öğrencilerin kendilerinin seçtiğini ve bu kurumların daha çok okulda edindikleri bilgi ve formasyonu küçük bir ihtiyaç grubu için bir proje bütünlüğü içinde uygulayabilecekleri yerler olduğunu belirtmişlerdir:

Şimdi öncelikle yaptığım çalışmada öncelikle hangi alana ilgi duyduklarını ben tespit ettim. Hangi alanda çalışmak istiyorlar. O alanla ilgili nasıl çalışmalar yapabilirler önce bir bunu belirledik. Daha sonra çalışmayı düşündüğü alanda hangi kurumlarla iletişime geçebilirizin kararını hep birlikte verdik. Ondan sonra bireysel görüşmelerle. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, 1)

Aslında bizim uygulama yöntemimiz de bu yönergede olduğu gibi dersin amaçları gibi gerekliliğini de öğrencilere açıkladıktan sonra sözünü ettiğim yeterlilik alanlarını geliştirebilmek için gereksinimleri öğrencilerin bulmasını bekliyorum. Dolayısıyla da bulduğumuz kurumlar onun o beklentileriyle uyumlu olmak durumunda……. Biz onlara nerelerde çalışabilecekleriyle ilgili alternatifler sunuyoruz yani aslında bu öneri gibi değil beyin fırtınası şeklinde gerçekleşiyor. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, 2)

4 danışman kendi çalıştığı alan ile ilgili olmasının ve onlara yardımcı olabileceği bir alan olmasının en öncelikli tercihi olduğunu ve bu doğrultuda öğrencileri yönlendirdiğini söylemiştir. 2 danışman öğrencilerin kendi yeterliklerini aktarabileceği kurumlara onları yönlendirdiğini 2 danışman ise tercihlerini sormadan direk yönlendirdiğini belirtmiştir:

Biz aslında ben aslında ilk başta kendi alanıma göre seçtim. Ben ne yapabilirim. Mesela polis teşkilatıyla çalışan hocalar oldu, bambaşka yerlerde çalışan hocalar oldu. Ben her şeyi yapamam kendi alanımda önemliydi ilk etapta yani kendi alanım daha belirleyici oldu. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 3)

Ben kendi grubum için söyleyebilirim. Kendi branşımla alakalı benimde onlara yardımcı olabileceğim bir alan olsun isterim. Benim yaklaşımım buydu. Okullarda öğrencileri çalıştırdık. Fen ve teknoloji ile ilgili çalıştık çünkü projeyi yürüten kişinin sorumlu öğretim elemanının da o konuda bilgisi olması gerektiğini düşünüyorum. Kriterlerim buydu ve öğrencileri de bu doğrultuda yönlendirdim. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 1)

Öğrencilere tercihlerini sordum mu? hayır. Ama olması gereken beklide öğrencilere sorarak onları yönlendirmekti. Orda benim değil asıl öğrencilerin gruplara atanırken hocaların, öğrencilerin istekleri ve hocanın yetenekleri bir araya toplansa daha uygun olurdu. Bize öğrenci grupları dağıtıldı. Bu öğrenciler senin sorumluluğunda dendi mesela. Bence öğrenciler ne çalışmak istiyor, bu öğrencileri hangi hoca çalıştırabilir. Daha sonra gruplar oluşturulabilirse daha iyi olur. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 5)

2 danışman sosyal boyutu olan halk ile iç içe olan kurumlar olmasına dikkat ettiğini, 1 danışman herkesin gitmediği bilindik olmayan kurumları kendisinim seçip önerdiğini belirtmiştir:

Bir kere herkesin gittiği kurumlara gitmek istemiyorum. Çok bilindik kurumları istemiyorum. Araştırıyorum. Biz sosyo drama yapıyoruz bu bizim için çok önemli bir avantaj ben nerde ne var biliyorum. Hangi problem hangi kitleyi ilgilendiriyor. Orda nasıl bir parmak basılması gerekiyor

onu biliyorum. Bu şekilde ben bir seçim yapmış oluyorum. Ben 4-5 tane kurum seçmiş oluyorum öğrencilere bu kurumların özelliklerini anlatıyorum. O kurumları ziyaret etmeleri için randevu alıyorum. Onlar gidiyorlar kurumları tek tek geziyorlar. Ziyaret ediyorlar ve daha sonra çalışmak istedikleri kurumları bana söylüyorlar. (İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, 2)

Yaşanan Zorluklar

Bu derste yaşanan zorlukların en çok planlama aşamasının da yaşandığı 7 danışman tarafından belirtilmiştir. Altyapının ve genel bir proje eğitiminin olmaması öğrencilerin hedeflerine uygun etkinlikler planlayamama ve proje bütünlüğünü yakalayama ile sonuçlandığını belirtmişlerdir:

Aslında bir alt yapıda gerektiriyor. Yani doyurucu bir proje eğitimine sahip olmaları gerekiyor. Bizde genellikle bu tür şeyler tam da bize özgü bir biçimde heyecanla istekle arzuyla başlıyor yeterince hazırlık yapmadan, işte arka planını yeterince doldurmadan. Projeyi kağıt üzerinde buluşturmadan, geliştirmeden kurgulamadan ve işte proje ile ilgili bir takım teknik ayrıntılar dikkate alınmadan başlıyor dolayısıyla yapılan şey zaten proje olmuyor. Yani bir tür faaliyet oluyor. İyi niyetli bir çalışma çaba oluyor. Dolayısıyla bu anlamda bu tür çalışmalar içinde olacak öğrencilerimizin böyle bir alt yapıya ihtiyaçları var. Bunu bilmeleri, bunu görmeleri, bunu kabul etmeleri ve bu yönde iyi bir eğitim almaları gerekiyor. (Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Öğretmenliği, 1)

Danışmalar ayrıca gidilen kurumda yaşanan zorluklara (i.e. kuralları benimseyememe, iletişim sorunları yaşama, tüm katılımcılardan destek görememe), kurumun uzak oluşu, ders saatlerinin uygulama ile çakışması, grupla çalışma ve çalıştıkları grubu yönetme konusunda yetersiz kalınması gibi sorunlara değinmişlerdir:

Yukarıdaki sıkıntılar dışında tercih edilen okullara ulaşım sıkıntısı yaşadılar. Bu günlük hayatlarında yaşadıkları ve meslek hayatlarına başladıklarında da yaşayacakları bir sorun ama onlar için bir sorun oldu. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 1)

Onun dışında öğrencilerin üniversite dışında diyeyim diğer sivil toplum örgütleri olsun, diğer kamu kurum yada kuruluşları, özel sektör olsun çok fazla diyalogları yok. Bireysel iletişim kuramıyorlar. Her şey yine danışmana kalıyor. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi 1)

Onun dışında tecrübesizliğin getirdiği kaygı ve korku. Risk grupları ile çalışmanın zor ve yorucu olması, hiçbir şeyin onların yapmayı tasarladıkları şey için hazır beklemediği, süreçte takip etmeleri gereken mevzuat ve yönetmeliklerden haberleri olmaması ve yapmayı hayal ettikleri ile ulaşabilecekleri arasında çok fark olması da öğrencilerin karşılaştığı zorluklar olarak 7 danışman tarafından belirtilmiştir:

İşin içerisine aile, okul idaresi ile ilgili beklemediği sorunlar ile karşılaştılar bizimkiler. Orda birtakım mevzuat, yönetmelik, bunları görecekler Türkiye şartlarında düşündüğünde. Çocuk hayal ediyor yapmak istediği bir şey var ama yönetmelikler mevzuatlar buna izin vermiyor gibi birtakım sorunlarla karşılaşacaklar. Mesela çocuk diyor ki ben okulda şöyle bir şey yapmak istiyorum. Çocukları proje kapsamında şuraya götürmek istiyorum. Götüremezsin yapamazsın ekonomik olarak ta yapamazsın ve aynı zamanda yasalar ve yönetmeliklerle sınırlandırılmış. Bu anlamda sıkıntılar çekiyorlar. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 5)

Bu çalışmalar içerisinde en iyi öğrendikleri şey bunların bir takım prosedürlere bağlı olduğu ve ne yazık ki bunu öğreniyorlar. En iyi öğrendikleri şey bu arada resmi prosedürler ve öyle görüldüğü kadar işlerde hayal kurmanın yeterli olmadığı. Bu kötü bir şey tabi. Ama yani yaşamın gerçeği ise bir taraftan da en iyi kazanımlarından beklide. Dolayısıyla çalışmalarını

planlarken hayata geçirilebilir yönlerini bu sefer düşünmeye çalışıyorlar. Bu yaratıcılık için kötü ama kendi yaşam becerilerini kazandırması açısından iyi bir şey. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, 2)

Teoriye göre uygulamanın az olması, not kaygısından dolayı gönüllülüğün ikinci plana atılması, grupların uyumlu çalışamaması, süreç ile ilgili gerçekler olarak danışmaların yarısı tarafından değinilen konulardır:

> Onun dışında birlikte çalışmalar tabi öğrencilerin bireysel özelliklerine baktığında iki kişi grubu alıp gidiyor belki 4 kişi ne kadar yönlendirseniz de işin içine girmiyor iş iki kişinin sırtında kalıyor proje. Görev dağılımını birbirleri arasında yapıyorlar zaten hoca sen şu görevi sen al bu görevi sen al dediğinde zaten itirazlarla karşılaşıyor. Kendileri alsın kendileri seçsin dediğinde de aldıkları sorumlukları yerine getirmediğini görüyorsun. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, 2)

Sürecin Değerlendirilmesi

Danışmanlar dersin değerlendirme ölçütü ile ilgili soruya çok farklı açılardan cevap vermişler ama hepsi bu sürecin bu ders ile ilgili en sorunlu süreç olduğuna değinmişlerdir. Gönüllülük esasının değerlendirilemediği ama çok önemli olduğu bunun dışında bu derste sürecin ve sonucun değerlendirildiği ve bununda uygun yönetmeliğe göre yapıldığı ve bunda da projelerin katılımın ve raporların esas alındığı belirtilmiştir:

> Bu çok zor. Buna da yine çok boyutlu bakmak lazım. Yani bunun değerlendirilmesi gerçekten de başlı başına bir muamma çünkü amaçların aslında yani her bir alt amacı da ölçen bir şey olması lazım. Böyle mucizevi bir şey nasıl olacak çünkü hem niyet boyutunda hem performans boyutunda bakmak lazım. Bazen performansa bakıyorsunuz çocuğun yaptığı şey görünürde başarısız. Ama bu çocuğun sabaha kadar onu başarmak için niyet ettiğini biliyorsunuz. Bir şey çalıştı ama sonuçta olmadı. Süreci ve sonucu ayırmak çok kolay değil. En büyük sorun bu. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, 2)

Değerlendirmeye tüm paydaşların aslında katılması gerektiği, danışmanın tüm sürecin içinde bizzat olması gerektiğinin çok önemli olduğu, hizmet boyutunun not boyutunun önüne geçmesi gerektiği konusu belirtilmiştir:

> Sürecin çok iyi değerlendirilmesi lazım gerçekten buna danışmanlık eden kişinin de bu süreci iyi yürütmesi ve iyi yönetmesi lazım. Kenarda kalmaması lazım onun içinde birebir bence öğrencilerle birlikte olması gerekiyor. (İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, 2)

> Not vermek tabi biraz tuhaf. Raporlar projenin hazırlanması ama işte diyorum ya ismi topluma hizmet olunca işin içinde bir hizmet boyutu var bu belki öğrencileri sıkıntıya sokabilir. Hani not alacağız işten diye. Keşke gerçekten bunun not değil de hizmet boyutunu düşündürecek bir şey olsa. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 4)

Ayrıca bu dersi önceden seçmeli olarak yürüten bir danışman bu durumu şöyle değerlendirmiştir:

> Şimdi bu çalışmalar tek yarıyılda yapıldığı zaman ön hazırlık uygulama her şey birbirine giriyor ve hiçbir şey tam olmuyor. Doğru olmuyor mantığına ve tekniğine uygun olmuyor. İki dönem yürüyen kolda bir yönerge var bir mevzuat var değerlendirmeye ilişkin. Aslında hepsi önemli ama bizim için en önemli şey değerlendirmede proje için yapılan ön hazırlık önemli alınan genel eğitim önemli bu eğitimden aldığı notlar önemli başarı düzeyi önemli çünkü genel eğitimi ne kadar ciddiye alırsa projelendirme orada başlıyor. Projelendirdikten sonrada sunum yapıyorlar oradan da bir not alıyorlar. Devam durumları önemli işte toplantılara katılımları, grup dinamizmleri, grup olarak birliktelikleri, işbirlikleri işbölümleri birtakım ara sunumları önemli özellikle 8 haftada bir ara genel toplantı yapıyoruz bütün projeler o güne kadar o haftaya kadar

heler yaptılar nereler aksadı neden aksadı ve kalan haftalarda neler düşünülüyor bu önemli danışmanın gözlemleri önemli. (Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Öğretmenliği, 1)

THU Dersinin Programdaki Yerine İlişkin Görüşler

Öğretmen yetiştiren programlarda yerini alan THU dersi üç yıldır uygulanmakta ve bu sürecin sonunda bu dersin gerçekten gerekli olup olmadığı yaşanan tecrübeler sonunda öğretim üyeleri tarafından dile getirilmektedir. Bu dersin olup olmaması konusunda 4 danışman kesinlikle olması gerektiği ve topluma hizmetin yaygınlaşması için gerekli olduğu vurgulanmıştır. Ayrıca ikisi zorunlu olmasının yanında öğrencilerin çalışacakları alanlarda ve çalışmak istedikleri grupta mutlaka esneklik sağlanması gerektiğini eklemiştir:

Şöyle bizim öğrenciler bu kurumların varlıklarını bile bilmiyorlar. O açıdan bence bu ders ilk etaplarda zorunlu olarak konuluyor ama belki ileriki yıllarda bunlar daha çok ilköğretim seviyesine kadar taşındığında öğrencilerin bunu kendi kendileri talep edecek boyuta gelebilirler gibime geliyor. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 4)

Bence burada bir problem yok hani bunun zorunlu olmasında bir problem yok ama eğer biz seçersek onların gideceği toplumu ve onlara dayatırsak orda problem var. Yani çalışmak istediği alanı kendisi seçmeli. Orda özgür olmalı istediği konuyu seçebilmeli. Onun içinde mesela bir tek danışman ve bir tek grup sıkıntı olabilir. (İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, 2)

3 danışman olmaması gerektiğini, birisi üniversitenin bu ders için çok geç olduğu belki lisede zorunlu olması gerektiği üniversitede bu tür çalışmaların kulüplerle yürütülmesinin daha anlamlı olduğu, bir diğer danışman ise zaten gönüllü olanların bu tür çalışmaları yürüttüğünü belirtmiştir:

Şunu söyleyeyim, şöyle baktığım zaman olmamalı diyorum çünkü çok somut bir gerekçem var. Bu ders olmadan da ben az önce size bahsettiğim çalışmaları yapıyorduk öğrencilerimizle. Mesela zorunlu olmasında da kırk kişi bir sınıfta yine yirmi tane çocuk gerçektende bu dersin amaçlarına yönelik çalışıyor. Diğer yirmi tanesi içinde bu konuda bir şey yapamazsınız. Yani onların bu konudaki motivasyonunu arttırmak için tabi elinizden geleni yapıyoruz ama bu çalışmalar çoğunlukla bu sınıfın genel topluluğunun yarısı tarafından asil çalışmalar yürütülüyor bu diğerleri biraz daha uzaktan ve pasif bir şekilde destek veriyorlar. Tamamen gönüllü olursa da bu şekilde yürüyecek. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, 2)

Ben ders kapsamından dışarı çıkarılması gerektiğini düşünüyorum. Seçmeli ders bile olsa. Çünkü ölçüt soruyorsunuz. Sonuçta bir değerlendirme varsa insanlar gerçekten gönüllümü çalışıyor, not almak için mi çalışıyor bu bilinemez. Bunun yerine bizim öğrenci topluluklarımız var. Öğrencileri oraya yönlendirerek o topluluklar adıyla bir şeyle yapılabilir. Zaten yapılıyor. (Sınıf Öğretmenliği, 1)

3 danışman olması ama seçmeli ders olması gerektiğini savunmuştur:

İdeal olanı yani olması gerekeni gönüllü olması. Beklide hani fakültelere bile gerek yok öğrenci kulüplerinde öğrenci derneklerinde kampüste bu çalışmaların bir akademik danışman katkısıyla ya da yönlendirmesiyle yürütülmesi. Ama böyle yürümüyor. Gönüllülük bizde sorumluluk duygusu sorumluluk kavramı çok gelişmediği ve çok olgun olmadığı için çok farklı algılanıyor. Mesela şu oluyor. Gönüllüyüm dediğiniz zaman ya da gönüllü yapılan çalışma dediğiniz zaman suda anlaşılıyor: ya ben nasıl olsa bunu gönüllü yapıyorum bu hafta giderim yaparım, gelecek hafta gitmem yapmam. Gönüllülükten bu anlaşılıyor. Gönüllülük ve sorumluluk birlikte hani gönüllüsün ama sorumlusunda. Bir şeye gönüllü olmak o şeyi istediğinde istediğin zaman istediğin kadar yapabilmen demek değil. Bu anlaşıldığı için biz sadece gönüllülük kavramı

içinde biz istenen verimi ve katkıyı sağlayamıyoruz. Devamlılığını sağlamak çok güç oluyor. Nitekim tıp fakültesinde böyle başladı. Gönüllü başladı ama olmadı yürümedi ya da beklendiği istendiği noktaya gelmedi. Ne zamanki onlarda bir seçmeli ders yaptılar yani önünüzde iki alan var üç alan var bu alanlardan biride sosyal sorumluluk projeleri. Onu da seçebilirsiniz onu da seçebilirsiniz onu da seçebilirsiniz. Proje seçerseniz bunun gerekleri bunlar. Öğrenciye en azından seçme şansı verilmesi gerektiğini düşünüyorum ama sadece gönüllülük ilişkileri ile bu çalışmalar yürümüyor. Tek ve zorunlu ders olduğu zamanda zaten bu çalışmaları özüne ruhuna aykırı bir durum söz konusu. Öğrencilerin bir tercih hakkının olması gerekiyor. Bu tercih alanlarının anlatılması gerekiyor. Çocuklar bilimsel çalışma ya da proje seçeneğini bilgilendirildikten sonra yapıyorlar. Hem öğrenci sorumluluklarını biliyor hem danışman evet tamam bu seçmeli ama sen bunu tercih ettin bunun gereklerini ve doğasını biliyorsun deyip o noktada ödün vermiyor. (Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Öğretmenliği, 1)

Bu tür çalışmaların seçmeli ders olarak okutulup, öğrenciler gönüllü olarak katılırlarsa onlara bir faydası olacağını düşünüyorum. O zaman ne gibi faydası olur onu konuşabiliriz. (Okul Öncesi Eğitimi, 2)

TARTIŞMA VE SONUÇ

Bu çalışma Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları dersinin bu dersi yürüten danışmanların bakış açısıyla değerlendirmesi bakımından değerlidir. Çalışmaların çoğu hizmet ederek öğrenmenin öğrenciler üzerindeki etkilerini araştırdıkları ilgili literatür ile desteklenmekle birlikte Türkiye de bu dersi değerlendirmeye yönelik yapılan çalışmalarda ağırlıklı olarak bu dersi öğrenci görüşleri doğrultusunda değerlendirmişlerdir. Öğrenci bakış açısı ile değerlendirildiğinde üzerinde durulmayan bazı konuları öne çıkarması ve diğer konuları desteklemesi bakımından önemlidir. Öğrenci bakış açısı ile değerlendirildiğinde üzerinde durulmayan konular arasında öğrencilerden kaynaklanan eksiklikler (örneğin öğrencinin altyapı eksikliği ve tecrübesizliğin getirdiği sorunlar), değerlendirme konusunda yaşanan sıkıntılar, süreç içerisinde proje yapabilme yeterliklerinin geliştirilememesi ve yapılan projelerin faaliyetten öte gidememesi öne çıkan konular arasındadır.

Topluma Hizmet Uygulamalar dersini yürüten danışmanlar dersin öğrencilerin toplumsal duyarlıklarını ve farkındalıklarını geliştirmesi hem de mesleki yeterliklerinin gelişimine katkıda bulunmasından dolayı önemli bir ders olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Proje geliştirme ve uygulama becerilerinin kazandırma potansiyeli açısından değerli bulunmaktadır. Bu özellikleri bu dersin genel amaçları olarak ön plana çıkarmışlardır. Bu yeterlikler bu dersin genel tanımı ile tamamen örtüşmekle birlikte bu bakış açısının da değerlendirilmesi gerektiği bu çalışmanın dolaylı olarak ön plana çıkardığı sonuçlardandır. Son yıllarda yapılan çalışmalarda ayrıca bu ders ile ulaşılması gereken amaçlarının da üzerinde düşünülmesi gereken önemli bir konu olduğu tartışılmaktadır. Butin (2005b) topluma hizmet uygulamalarının farklı teorik bakış açısıyla değerlendirildiğini ve kişilerin bu uygulamaları kendi teorik eğilimleri doğrultusunda yorumladığını belirtmiş ve teorik çerçevesinde eğitimsel çıktıların ve programın genel karakteristik özelliklerinin ön plana çıkarılmasının teknik düzeyde bir bakış açısı olduğunu vurgulamıştır. Sosyal sorumluluk ve farkındalık geliştirilirken uygulamanın gerçek anlamını ve ihtiyaç yada problemlerin kaynağını kültürel, politik ve yapısal olarak sorgulayıp değerlendirebilme becerisinin kazandırılması gerektiğini belirtmiştir.

Dersin amaçları ile ilgili olmasa da dersin yürütülmesi ve değerlendirilmesi ile ilgili farklı boyutlarda eleştiriler yapılmıştır. Bu dersin amacına ulaşabilmesi için danışmanların dersi yürütebilecek gerekli bilgi ve becerilere sahip olmasının (proje yönetmiş olması, gönüllü çalışmalar yürütüyor olması, yöneticilik ve liderlik vasıfları iyi olan danışmanların seçilmesi) yanında gönüllülüğün esas alınması gerektiğine vurgu yapılmıştır. Bu dersin sürecinin değerlendirilmesi konusunda da sıkıntılar yaşandığı gönüllülüğün değerlendirilemediği vurgulanmıştır.

Dersin yürütülmesi ile ilgili ayrıca dersin bir dönemde yürütülemeyeceği programda iki dönem yürütülmesi gerektiği birinci dönem proje hazırlığı ikinci dönem uygulamaya ayrılması gerektiği, dersin seçmeli ders olarak yer almasının gönüllülük esasını öne çıkaracağından bu dersin temel felsefesine daha uygun olduğu vurgulanmıştır. Dersin kaldırılması ve dersin üniversitede gönüllü olan öğrenciler tarafından yürütülen öğrenci kulüpleri aracılığı ile yürütülmesi gerektiği daha erken yaşlarda öğrencilerin gönüllü çalışmalara katılması için gerekli çalışmaların yapılması gerektiği öneriler arasındadır.

Çalışma bu dersin işlenişinde danışmanların çok önemli bir faktör olduğunu desteklemektedir çünkü danışmanın bu derse bakış açısı, uzmanlık alanının dersin işlenişinde, kurumların seçilmesinde, proje konularının belirlenmesinde etkisi vardır. Dolayısıyla her ayrı grup için danışmanın uzmanlık alanı yaşanılacak tecrübelerinde içeriğinin belirlemektedir. Bu durumun öğrencilerin çalışman istediği alanı ve bu doğrultuda danışmanını kendi seçmesinin daha iyi olacağı da belirtilen görüşler arasındadır.

ÖNERİLER

Proje geliştirme beceri ve süreçleri dikkate alındığında ders süresinin yeterli olmadığı ve en az iki dönemi kapsaması, öğrencilerin danışman ve proje seçimi konusunda özgür bırakılmaları, gönüllülük esasının ön plana çıkarılması ve en önemlisi ders ile kazandırılması planlanan hedeflerin içeriğinin geliştirilmesi gerektiği öneriler arasındadır.

Topluma hizmet uygulamaları ile ilgili yapılacak süreci ve içeriği değerlendiren daha uzun süreli ve dersin öğrenci üzerindeki kalıcı etkilerini ölçecek çalışmalara ihtiyaç vardır. Ayrıca hem öğrenci hem danışman ve hem de diğer tüm paydaşları içine alan kapsamlı çalışmalarda bu dersin daha iyi değerlendirilmesi ve uygulanmasına katkıda bulunacaktır.

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THE USE OF GEOGEBRA WITH DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES IN MATHEMATICS TEACHING

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to determine the possible contributions and advantage of GeoGebra and its limitations to mathematics teaching. A case study design was utilized for the purpose of this study. Data were gathered from three different groups via face-to-face interviews and focus group techniques. The results of the study indicated that dynamic structure of GeoGebra helped students formalize and visualize mathematical relations and concretize abstract ideas and motivated students. On the other hand, the inadequacy of physical environment and computer literacy, the lack of students' understanding of mathematical solutions path and the length of some formulas are seen as the limitations arising from the use of GeoGebra.

Keywords: computer aided mathematics education, dynamic mathematics software, GeoGebra.

INTRODUCTION

Mathematics is considered as a system formed from ideas and connections and developed by a sequential process of abstractions and generalizations. Students often have difficulties to concretize abstract issues, especially when they need to construct mathematical relations and generalizations. Technology offers important opportunities to overcome these problems by providing visualization and dynamic structure tools. Baki (2000), Cannon (2005), and Güven (2002) emphasized that dynamic structure is very effective to scratch graphs and exercise mathematical relations between variables. GeoGebra is a Dynamic Mathematical Software which can be employed in mathematics teaching. Accordingly, the purpose of this study is to examine both possible contributions and limitations of employing GeoGebra in mathematics teaching.

METHOD

A case study design was utilized for the purpose of this study. Three semi-structured interview protocols were developed and used to collect data from three different groups including, faculty members from mathematics, pre-service mathematics teachers, and pre-service chemistry teachers. Interviews were conducted with nine faculty members by employing face to face and focus group techniques. Focus group interviews were administrated to nineteen mathematics and ten chemistry pre-service teachers. A six-hour-long seminar about using GeoGebra with related to mathematics teaching was given to the faculty. A four-hour-long seminar was given to the pre-service mathematics teachers. The pre-service chemistry teachers also conducted an application about derivatives.

RESULTS

The results of the study indicated that dynamic structure of GeoGebra helped students in several ways including formation and visualization of the mathematical relations, making abstract ideas more concrete,

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and motivation.   It was found that GeoGebra also helped students reach generalizations by solving many questions. GeoGebra provided students a learning environment that they study individually and saved time as well. Moreover, using GeoGebra was considered to be easy and advantageous due to its distinct algebraic and geometric input capabilities and the use of "Construction Protocol". However, a few limitations of using GeoGebra were also revealed, including the lack of physical environment and the participants' computer literacy, inadequacy of revealing the mathematical solution paths, and failure to accommodate long (more complex/sophisticated) mathematical equations. The findings indicated that teachers and students may prefer their traditional method of teaching over using GeoGebra.

DISCUSSION

GeoGebra visualizes and formalizes mathematical relation between variables and provides to reach generalization in mathematics. According to Baki (2002), going through the results by intuition and prediction constitute a part of mathematical study. He also indicated that visualization, computing, conjecture, and phases of evidence and generalization describe the mathematical process. The traditional teaching methods are performed on paper, but the application of computers is recently emphasized more effectively in this process. GeoGebra addresses all of the mentioned phases of mathematical process. Güven (2002) explored that students considered mathematics as stack equations to memorize in traditional mathematics. However, in the dynamic environment, the traditional views regarding mathematics changed and students started to consider as whole relationships of mathematics required investigation. On the other hand, Baker, Gersten and Lee (2002) indicated that underachieved students did not display remarkable success on computer aided mathematics. Similarly, Tienken and Maher (2008) reported that computer aided mathematics has a negative effect on low-level students' achievements. These findings indicate that why technology has not integrated into our classes yet.

CONCLUSION

In mathematics classes, one of the advantages of employing GeoGebra is the different design of geometric and algebraic input. Geometric input is important force for students to use the software. Because of this, GeoGebra has a wide range of implications for the field from primary to tertiary level. Moreover, a teacher can form his/her GeoGebra sample by following the order of any design already prepared with "Construction Protocol"   . GeoGebra can be integrated into school system easier than other software in the field due to its use friendly environment. However, no matter how the software is easy to use, there would be some resistance because of the comfort of mastery over the traditional teaching methods. Therefore, teachers and students should be familiarized with this software. This is the main role and duty given to the faculty of teacher education and in-service training instructors. Lastly, upon improvement of this program in terms of three dimensions, it will be more useful in comprehension of abstract issues in mathematics easier.

FARKLI BAKIŞ AÇILARIYLA MATEMATİK ÖĞRETİMİNDE GEOGEBRA KULLANIMI

ÖZET

Bu araştırmanın amacı, GeoGebra'nın avantajlarını ve matematik öğretimine muhtemel katkı ve sınırlılıklarını ortaya çıkarmaktır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda nitel olarak tasarlanan durum çalışmasında, üç farklı katılımcı grubun görüşleri yüz yüze ve odak grup görüşmesi yoluyla alınmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçları; GeoGebra'nın dinamik yapısının matematiksel ilişkileri oluşturmaya katkı sağladığını, somutlaştırmaya ve görselleştirmeye yardımcı olduğunu ve böylece öğrencileri motive ettiğini göstermiştir. Ayrıca GeoGebra'nın cebir ve geometrik girişinin ayrı olması ve "inşa protokolü" kullanılarak GeoGebra taslağının oluşturulma aşamalarının izlenmesi avantaj olarak görülmüş, kullanımının kolay olduğu ortaya çıkarılmıştır. GeoGebra kullanımının sınırlılıkları ise; fiziksel ortamların ve bilgisayar okuryazarlığının yetersiz olması, bazı formüllerin yazımının uzun olması ve bazı matematiksel çözüm yollarının anlaşılamaması şeklinde belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: bilgisayar destekli matematik öğretimi, dinamik matematik yazılımları, GeoGebra.

GİRİŞ

Geleneksel öğretim anlayışında matematik; birbirinden kopuk, günlük ihtiyaçlardan uzak, soyut kurallardan ve ayrı ayrı öğrenilmesi gereken denklemlerden oluşan bir uğraş alanı olarak görülmektedir. Öğrenciye bu şekilde sunulan matematik; çoğu zaman soğuk, sevimsiz, ezberlenerek öğrenilmesi gereken bir ders olmaktan öteye gidememektedir (Baki, 2006). Oysa matematik öğretiminin genel amacı; kişiye günlük hayatın gerektirdiği matematiksel bilgi ve becerileri kazandırarak olayları problem çözme atmosferi içinde ele alan bir düşünme biçimi kazandırmaktır (Altun & Alkan, 1999). Bu amaca ulaşabilmenin yolu, matematiğin ne olduğunun anlaşılmasından geçmektedir. Bu açıdan bakıldığında matematik, matematiksel nesneler arasındaki ilişkilerin ve genellemelerin ortaya çıkarılmasıdır (Altun, 2008). Bu doğrultuda matematikçiler, matematiksel bilgiyi tanımlarken matematiksel nesnelerin özellikleri ile bu nesneler arasındaki ilişkilerin ortaya çıkarılması ve bu ilişkilerin doğurduğu genellemeler üzerinde durmuşlar, matematiğin zihinsel olarak üretildiği için soyut olduğunu da belirtmişlerdir. Buna göre matematikte bu özelliklerin öğrenciye kazandırılması bilişsel yapıların geliştirilmesiyle mümkündür. Ancak geleneksel yaklaşım; öğrencilerin bilişsel yapılarının gelişmesinden ziyade onların davranışları üzerine odaklanarak matematiğin hayatla ilişkisini sınırlandırmıştır. Bu anlayışın sonucunda (TIMSS, PISA) Türkiye'nin, yapılan uluslararası sınavlarda gerilerde yer aldığı belirlenmiştir (Berberoğlu & Güzel, 2005; Berberoğlu & Kalender, 2005; EARGED, 2005). Bu doğrultuda problemlerin tespiti ve giderilmesi için hızlı bir şekilde yeni arayışlara gidilmiş ve oluşturmacı yaklaşım üzerinde yoğun çalışmalar yürütülmüştür. Sherman ve Kurshan (2005) oluşturmacılığın, yeni karşılaştığımız bilgileri önceki bilgilerimizle ilişkilendirerek öğrenmeyi, böylece daha önceden bildiğimiz konulara bağlı olarak yeni öğrenmeler oluşturmayı sağlayabildiğini belirtmektedir. Dolayısıyla matematiğin yapısı gereği ilişkilerin oluşturulması oluşturmacı yaklaşımla mümkün hale gelebilecektir.

2004 eğitim programıyla yapılan değişiklikler sonucunda, matematik öğretiminde de temel anlayışlar farklılaşmıştır. Öğrencinin matematiksel bilgiyi öğretmenden hazır formüller şeklinde alarak tümdengelimli bir yaklaşım sergilemesi yerine, belirli ortamlar yaratılarak öğrencinin matematiksel ilişkileri tümevarımsal bir yapı içerisinde oluşturmalarına imkan tanınmıştır. Bu doğrultuda öğrencilerin matematiksel ilişkileri oluşturmalarına en büyük katkıyı ise teknolojik imkânlar sağlamaktadır. Bu imkanlar aynı zamanda matematiğin soyut özelliğini somutlaştırmaya yardımcı olabilirken, öğrencilerin matematiksel nesneler arasındaki ilişkileri kurmalarına ve genellemelere ulaşabilmelerine önemli ölçüde

katkı sağlamaktadır. Bu durum alan yazında şu şekilde ifade edilmektedir: "Teknoloji, matematiksel fikirlerin farklı perspektiflerden görülebilmesini sağlayarak, araştırmaların kapsamını ve kalitesini zenginleştirir" (NCTM, 2000). Buna yönelik matematik öğretiminde bilgisayar kullanımının katkıları üzerine alan yazında yaygın olan görüşlerin özeti Tablo 1'de verilmiştir.

Tablo 1. BDMÖ'nün katkıları üzerine alan yazında yaygın olan görüşler

	Akkoç (2006)	Arslan (2003)	Baki (2002)	Kutluca ve Birgin (2007)	Cannon (2005)	Yenilmez ve Karakuş (2007)	Yushau, Bokhari ve Wessels (2004)
Öğrencinin aktif katılımını sağlar	√	-	√	√	√	√	√
Somutlaştırmaya ve görselleştirmeye yardımcı olur	√	-	√	√	-	-	√
Zaman tasarrufu sağlar	√	√	√	-	-	√	√
Motivasyonu artırır ve dikkati toplar	-	√	-	√	√	√	√
Matematiksel keşif ve genelleştirmeleri kolaylaştırır	-	-	√	√	√	√	√
Anında dönüt verilebilir	√	√	-	√	-	-	-
Bireyselleştirme (kendi hızında öğrenme) sağlar	-	√	-	√	√	√	-

Bilgisayarların eğitimde kullanımının günden güne artmasına paralel olarak bilgisayar destekli matematik öğretimi (BDMÖ) araçları, bunlar içerisinde de Dinamik Geometri Yazılımları (DGY) yaygınlaşmaktadır. Bu yazılımları öne çıkaran özellik olarak; matematiksel yapıların kurulmasının ardından yapı içerisindeki nesnelerin serbestçe hareket ettirilebilmesi (dinamik olarak) ve bu nesnelere bağlı olan yapıların diğer elemanlarındaki değişimin gözlemlenebilmesi gösterilebilir. Bu hareket sonucunda geometrik yapının görüntüsü değişse de nesneler arasındaki matematiksel ilişkiler korunmaktadır. Dolayısıyla matematiksel bilginin keşfi için yeni yollar sunulmaktadır (Goldenberg & Couco, 1998; Marrades & Gutierrez, 2000). Ayrıca matematiksel bilginin doğrulanabileceği ortamlar geleneksel yöntemlerle sınırlı düzeyde kalırken DGY ortamları ile bu problemler aşılarak matematik bir bilim laboratuarına dönüşebilmektedir (Köse, 2008).

Son dönemlerde bilgisayar cebir sistemi (BCS) ile dinamik geometri sistemlerinin (DGS) birleştirilmesiyle dinamik matematik yazılımları (DMY) öne çıkmaktadır. Bir DMY olan GeoGebra, cebir, geometri ve analiz'i birleştirmekte, ilköğretimden üniversiteye kadar matematiğin her konusunda rahatlıkla kullanılabilmektedir (Edwards & Jones, 2006; Hohenwarter, Hohenwarter, & Lavicza, 2008). Bununla birlikte GeoGebra, grafik, cebir ve hesap çizelgesi görünümleriyle çoklu sunumları bir araya getirerek pencerenin birinde herhangi bir değişiklik söz konusu olduğu zaman diğerinde de yapılan değişiklik doğrultusunda güncellemelerin yer almasını sağlamaktadır (Hohenwarter & Hohenwarter, 2011). Bu sayede matematiğin merkezinde bulunan cebir ve geometrik nesneler arasında ilişkilerin keşfi için yeni yollar oluşturulabilmektedir (Edwards & Jones, 2006). Araştırmacılar GeoGebra kullanımının matematik öğretimine muhtemel katkılarını ifade ederken çeşitli özellikler üzerinde durmaktadırlar. Bu özellikler alan yazından (Ankara GeoGebra Enstitüsü, 2010; Dikovic, 2009; Hohenwarter & Hohenwarter, 2011; Hohenwarter, 2006) yararlanılarak Şekil 1'de 10 maddede özetlenmiştir.

Şekil 1. Matematik öğretiminde GeoGebra kullanımının muhtemel katkıları

GeoGebra'nın matemtik öğretiminde kullanımına katkı sağlaması araştırmacıları, öğretmenlerin GeoGebra'ya yönelik görüşlerini almaya yöneltmiştir (Aktümen, Yıldız, Horzum, & Ceylan, 2011; Kabaca, Aktümen, Aksoy, & Bulut, 2010; Zengin & Kutluca, 2011). Aynı zamanda birçok araştırmacı çeşitli matematiksel nesnelerin öğretiminde GeoGebra'nın öğrenme üzerine etkisini de araştırmıştır (Doğan & İçel, 2011; Erol, Özdemir, Özen, Akadal, & Ayvaz Reis, 2012). Tüm bu araştırmalardan farklı olarak bu çalışmada matematik öğretiminde GeoGebra kullanımının katkıları, çok yönlü olarak hem öğrenci hem öğretim elemanı hem de öğretmen adaylarının bakışıyla incelenmiştir. Aynı zamanda yaşanabilecek sınırlılıklar göz önünde bulundurularak GeoGebra'nın geliştirilmesine katkıda bulunulabileceği düşünülmektedir.

Çalışmanın Amacı
Matematik öğretiminde BCS ve DGY özelliklerini birleştirmesiyle öne çıkan GeoGebra'nın kullanımında olumlu ve olumsuz yönleri bilmek etkin kullanım açısından önemlidir. Bu çalışmada da, farklı katılımcı grupların görüşleri alınarak GeoGebra'nın avantajları ve matematik öğretimine muhtemel katkı ve sınırlılıkları ortaya çıkarılmaktadır. Bu doğrultuda aşağıdaki araştırma sorularına cevap aranmaktadır.
1. GeoGebra' nın avantajları ve matematik öğretimine muhtemel katkıları nelerdir?
2. Matematik öğretiminde GeoGebra kullanımının sınırlılıkları nelerdir?

YÖNTEM

Bu araştırma, mevcut durumu derinlemesine ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlayarak nitel olarak yürütülen bir durum (Case Study) çalışmasıdır. Çalışmanın örneklemini 2009-2010 öğretim yılında bir eğitim fakültesindeki, kimya ve ilköğretim matematik anabilim dalları birinci sınıflarında okuyan öğretmen adayları, ilköğretim ve ortaöğretim matematik anabilim dalı öğretim elemanları oluşturmaktadır. Üç farklı katılımcı grubu için de ayrı ayrı yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme rehberleri hazırlanarak yüz yüze ve odak grup görüşmeleri yapılmıştır. Görüşme rehberleri, alan yazının taranmasının ardından araştırma soruları doğrultusunda hazırlanmış ve pilot görüşmelerden sonra kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılarla yapılan yüz yüze ve odak grup görüşmelerinde gönüllülük esasına bağlı kalınmıştır. Bu süreç Tablo 2'de detaylı bir şekilde anlatılmıştır.

Tablo 2. Örneklem, katılımcı sayısı ve veri toplama yöntemleri

Örneklem	Uygulamadaki Katılımcılar	Görüşme Yapılan Katılımcılar	Veri Toplama Yöntemleri
Öğretim elemanları	10	9	Yüz yüze ve odak grup görüşmesi
Matematik öğretmen adayları	45	19	Odak grup görüşmesi
Kimya öğretmen adayları	38	10	Odak grup görüşmesi

Verilerin Toplanması ve Analiz Süreci
Çalışmada, ilk olarak GeoGebra'nın matematik öğretiminde kullanımına yönelik öğretim elemanlarına 6 saat, ilköğretim matematik öğretmen adaylarına 4 saatlik seminerler verilmiştir. Seminerlerde örnekler sunulmuş ve katılımcılardan bir GeoGebra projesi üretmeleri istenmiştir. Çalışmanın bir diğer ayağında ise "türevin uygulamaları" üzerine birinci sınıf kimya öğretmen adaylarıyla bir uygulama yapılmıştır. Bu süreçteki uygulamaların öncesi ve sonrası ile ilgili ayrıntıya Tablo 3'te yer verilmiştir.

Tablo 3. Uygulama süreci

Uygulama Öncesi		Düzenlenecek GeoGebra seminerlerinin içeriği oluşturulmuştur.
		Seminerlerde kullanılmak üzere proje örnekleri oluşturulmuştur.
		Süreçte hazırlanacak projelere örnek olması için taslak formlar hazırlanmıştır.
		MÖA'larının projeleri için değerlendirme ölçütleri hazırlanmıştır.
		Her üç grup için ayrı görüşme rehberleri hazırlanmıştır.
Uygulama Süreci	Öğretim Elemanları	DGY hakkında bilgilendirme yapılarak GeoGebra'yla ilgili örnekler sunulmuştur.
		GeoGebra'nın geometrik giriş araçları ve cebirsel giriş kullanımı gösterilmiştir.
		Sunulan örnekler incelenerek yeni örnekler yapmaları istenmiştir.
		Sürgünün kullanımına giriş yapılmıştır.
		Cebirsel ve geometrik giriş ile ilgili çalışmalar yapılarak bir proje oluşturulması istenmiştir.
	Matematik Öğretmen Adayları	DGY hakkında bilgilendirme yapılarak GeoGebra ile ilgili örnekler sunulmuştur.
		GeoGebra'nın geometrik ve cebirsel giriş kullanımıyla birlikte sürgünün tanıtımı yapılmıştır.
		Cebirsel giriş üzerinde durulmuş ve bir proje üretmeleri istenmiştir.
		Projelerde 6 hafta boyunca gerek elektronik posta gerekse yüz yüze verilen dönütlere göre gerekli destekler verilerek düzeltmeler yapılmıştır.
		Öğrencilerin projeleri teslim alınarak değerlendirilmiştir.
	Kimya Öğr. Aday.	Hazırlanan ilk GeoGebra çalışmasının sunumuyla türevin ne anlam ifade ettiği tartışılmıştır.
		İkinci GeoGebra çalışmasıyla teğetin denklemi ile ilgili taslağın sunumunda teğetin denklemine nasıl ulaşıldığı gösterilmiştir.
		Son taslak ile teğetin denkleminin değişimi izlenmiştir.
Uygulama Sonrası		Öğretim elemanları ile yüz yüze ve odak grup görüşmeleri yapılmıştır.
		Matematik ve kimya öğretmen adaylarıyla odak grup görüşmesi yapılmıştır.

Çalışmada çeşitleme yapmak için birden fazla veri kaynağı kullanılmıştır. Örneklemde; öğretim elemanlarından uzman, ilköğretim matematik öğretmen adaylarından geleceğin kullanıcısı, kimya öğretmen adaylarından da öğrenci olarak GeoGebra'yı değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Kimya öğretmen adayları, çalışmada yer alan öğretim elemanlarından birinin anlatmış olduğu matematik dersi kapsamında seçilmiştir. Veriler, akran grubu ve iki uzman araştırmacı tarafından kontrol edilmiştir. Elde edilen veriler içerik analiziyle çözümlenmiş, sonrasında kolay anlaşılması için tablolaştırılmıştır.

BULGULAR

Görüşlerin aktarımında öğretim elemanlarına "ÖE_x" matematik öğretmen adaylarına "MÖA_x" kimya öğretmen adaylarına ise "KÖA_x" kodları verilmiştir.

GeoGebra' nın Avantajları ve Matematik Öğretimine Muhtemel Katkıları

GeoGebra'nın avantajları ve matematik öğretimine katkıları, katılımcı görüşlerinin analizi doğrultusunda kategorize edilmiş ve Tablo 4'te kodlar halinde sunulmuştur. GeoGebra'nın dinamik yapıda olması, matematiksel ilişkileri görmeye katkı sağlaması, somutlaştırma ve görselleştirmeye yardımcı olması, motive etmesi ve dikkati toplaması katılımcı görüşlerinde öne çıkmıştır.

Tablo 4. GeoGebra' nın avantajları ve matematik öğretimine muhtemel katkıları

Kodlar	ÖE	MÖA	KÖA
Dinamik yapıda olması	√	√	√
Somutlaştırmaya ve görselleştirmeye yardımcı olması	√	√	√
İlişkileri görmeye katkı sağlaması	√	√	√
Motive etmesi (Güdüleme sağlaması)	√	-	√
Dikkati toplaması	√	√	√
Şekil çizme kolaylığı sağlaması	√	√	-
Çok sayıda soru çözümüne imkan vermesi	√	-	-
Kolay kullanıma sahip olması (Dil Türkçe)	√	√	√
Kavramsallaştırmaya yardımcı olması	√	-	-
Matematiksel bilginin genelleştirilmesini kolaylaştırması	√	√	√
Öğrenmede bireyselleştirme olanağı sağlaması	√	-	√
Zaman kazandırması	√	-	√
Geometrik giriş araçlarının açıklayıcı tümcelerini vermesi	-	√	-
Derinlemesine bilgi edinmeye yardımcı olması	√	-	-
Aynı koordinat düzleminde birden fazla grafik çizilebilmesi	√	-	-
Geometrik giriş ve cebir girişinin ayrı olması	-	√	-
İnşa protokolü yapısının olması	-	√	-
Soruların cevaplarının kontrolünün sağlanması	-	-	√

Elde edilen veriler Tablo 4'te görsel olarak aşağıda ise katılımcıların ifadeleriyle sunulmuştur. Bu görüşlerde GeoGebra'nın; dinamik yapısı ve matematiksel ilişkileri görmeyi kolaylaştırması muhtemel katkı olarak öne çıkmaktadır. Bu durumla ilgili katılımcılar şu ifadelere yer vermişlerdir:

> *"Dinamik bir yazılım olduğu için şekillerin hareket ettirilmesi çok kolay. Nesneleri farklı konumlarda inceleyebilmek matematiksel ilişkilerin oluşturulmasında ciddi avantaj sağlamaktadır" (ÖE_7).*

> *"Öğrenci bir formülün koordinat sistemi üzerinde nasıl hareket ettiğini, değerlere göre nasıl değiştiğini zihninde canlandırmakta ciddi problem yaşıyor. Mesela benim, bunları üç boyutlu olarak kafamda canlandırabilmem çok zamanımı aldı. Ama bu programda öğrenci hemen görebiliyor" (MÖA_1).*

Katılımcılar GeoGebra kullanımı ile matematik dersinin somutlaştırılabileceği ve görselleştirilebileceği üzerinde durmuştur. Bu durumla ilgili katılımcılar şu ifadelere yer vermişlerdir:

> *"Matematik soyut olduğundan görselliğe dayanmadığı zaman insan kafasında onu canlandıramadığı için anlayamıyor. Ancak görselliğe dökebilmek için tahtada anlatmak*

yetmiyor. Tahtada hepsi sadece fotoğraf çekmişsin gibi görünüyor. GeoGebra gerçekten güzel bir program" (MÖA_6).

"Coğrafya dersinde havayı suyu, yağmuru görüyoruz. Fen bilgisinde deneyler yapıyoruz, maddeleri görüyoruz. Ama biri geliyor matematikte x diyor y diyor, grafik çiziyor, böyle bir şey var diyor ve soyut kalıyor. Kısacası bunları görmek ya da bunları hissederek yapmak daha iyi" (KÖA_3).

GeoGebra'nın eğlenceli yapısı ile matematik dersine yönelik motivasyonun ve dikkatin artabileceği, matematiğe karşı ön yargıların azalabileceği de ifadeler arasında yerini almıştır. Bu durumla ilgili katılımcı görüşleri şu şekildedir:

"Sıkıcı olarak düşünülen matematik derslerini eğlenceli hale getirebiliriz, daha zevkli ders işlenebilir. Bizim matematik dersimiz biraz daha soyut olduğu için öğrenci genelde 20-25 dk sonra sıkılabiliyor. Fakat GeoGebra gibi bilgisayar programlarıyla ders daha eğlenceli hale gelebilir" (ÖE_9).

"Geometri ve matematiğe yönelik öğrencilerin önyargısı bulunmaktadır. Ancak bu programın dinamikliğiyle bir çembere bir teğet çizilince onun hareket ettiğini gören öğrencinin dikkati çekilebilir" (MÖA_7)

GeoGebra ile matematiksel çizimler net bir şekilde oluşturulabilirken öğrencilerin daha fazla soru çözmelerine de imkân tanınmaktadır. Katılımcılardan bazıları bu konuyla ilgili görüşlerini şu şekilde ifade etmişlerdir:

"Görselleri tahtada düzgün çizemiyoruz ya da istediğimiz eğriyi tahtaya yansıtamıyoruz. GeoGebra programı sayesinde kolaylıkla fonksiyonun aslına uygun grafiği çizebiliyoruz" (ÖE_5).

"Tahtada örnekler sınırlı kalabiliyor. Fakat GeoGebra'da bu problem aşılabiliyor. Birincisi daha çok problemle öğrenci karşılaşabiliyor ya da daha çok problemi çözebiliyor. Örneğin 10 tane farklı fonksiyonu aynı anda yazıp grafiğini çizebiliyor. Dolayısıyla alıştırmanın çok olması kavramı genelleştirme açısından olumlu bir etkiye sahiptir" (ÖE_4).

GeoGebra'nın dilinin Türkçe olması katılımcılar tarafından avantaj olarak görülürken, hem öğretici hem de öğrenen açısından yazılımın kullanımını kolaylaştırmaktadır. Bu durumu katılımcılar şu sözlerle ifade etmişlerdir:

"Cabri'yi görmüştüm ama onun dili yabancı olduğu için orada çalışmakta zorlanıyorduk. Orada istediğimiz her şeyi çok rahat yapamıyorduk. Sürekli bir yardım alma söz konusuydu. Ama GeoGebra'da kendimiz bir şeyleri deneme yanılma ile bulabiliriz" (ÖE_8).

"Programın Türkçe olması bizim için daha iyi. Bir öğrenci olarak ya da bir öğretmen olarak İngilizcesi iyi olmayan bir insan için programı dili İngilizce olan bir programı kullanmak biraz daha zorlaşıyor. Ama Türkçe bir yazılım olduğu için daha kullanımı kolay oluyor" (MÖA_9).

Katılımcı görüşlerine göre GeoGebra öğretimi bireyselleştirmeye olanağı sunmaktadır. Öğretmenlere zaman konusunda da avantaj sağladığı ifadeler arasında yer almaktadır. Bu durumları katılımcılar şu sözlerle açıklamışlardır:

"Öğrencilere çok fazla grafik sorusu soruluyor, öğrencilerde bu grafikleri belli adımları takip ederek çizmeye çalışıyorlar. Ama o adımlarda yanlışlık yaptıklarında grafik çok ters çıkıyor tabi. En azından çizdikleri grafiğin doğru olup olmadığını bu program sayesinde görebilirler" (ÖE_8).

"GeoGebra öğretim elemanı ve öğretmen için de kolaylık sağlıyor. Zaman açısından sıkıntıyı ortadan kaldırıyor. Çünkü matematik müfredatı ağır bir müfredat oluyor ve yetiştirmede öğretmenler zorluk çekiyorlar. O anlamdaki sıkıntıyı da ortadan kaldırmış oluyor" (ÖE_6).

Matematik Öğretiminde GeoGebra Kullanımının Sınırlılıkları

Matematik öğretiminde GeoGebra kullanımından ve dış etkenlerden kaynaklanan sınırlılıklarla ilgili katılımcı görüşleri de kategorize edilerek kodlar belirlenmiştir. Buna göre fiziksel ortamın ve teknik bilginin yetersiz olması, öğretmenlerin geleneksel öğretim yöntemlerine alışması ve matematiksel çözüm yollarının anlaşılamaması öne çıkmıştır. Bu yönde katılımcıların görüşleri ayrıntılı bir şekilde Tablo 5'te verilmiştir.

Tablo 5. Matematik öğretiminde GeoGebra kullanımının sınırlılıkları

Kodlar	ÖE	MÖA	KÖA
Fiziksel ortamın yetersiz olması	√	-	-
Öğretmen ve öğrencinin bilgisayar okuryazarlığının yetersiz olması	√	-	-
Bazı matematiksel formüllerin uzun olması	-	√	-
Bazı matematiksel sembollerin eksik olması	-	√	-
Matematiksel çözüm yollarının anlaşılamaması	√	-	√
İki boyutlu olması	√	√	-
Bilgisayara karşı olumsuz tutum sergilenmesi	√	-	-
Bilgisayar karşısında ders dışı aktivitelerle ilgilenilmesi	√	-	√
Geleneksel öğretim yöntemlerine alışılması	√		-
Sürgünün kullanımında zorluk yaşanması	-	√	-
Hatayı belirlemede zorluk yaşanması	-	√	-

Elde edilen veriler Tablo 5'te özetlenmiş aşağıda ise katılımcıların ifadeleriyle sunulmuştur. Katılımcılar; fiziksel ortamın yetersiz, öğrenci ve öğretmenlerin bilgisayar okuryazarlığının eksik olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Bu durumla ilgili ifadeler şu şekildedir:

"Uygulamaya dönük aslında her aşamasında kullanılabilir ama şu an ki sınıf düzeylerini sınıf ortamlarını düşününce her öğrencinin birebir uygulaması çok zor geliyor bana. Belki öğretmen tahtada gösterir, öğrenci yapar. Bunu sağlayacak her okulda sistem yok. Sistem olsa bile sınıflar kalabalık her öğrenciye bilgisayar düşmesi zor. İyi okullarda var o sistem ama her okul için düşünmek zor" (ÖE_7).

"Öğrencileri bu program konusunda iyi eğitmeniz lazım. Öğrenci hem aracı anlayacak hem programı anlayacak onun için çabalayacak. Zaten bir de kavramları bilmiyor onu anlayacak. İki anlaşılmaz kavram üst üste gelince bence iş çıkmaza girer" (ÖE_1).

Tablo 5'te hem öğrenci hem de öğreticilerin geleneksel öğretim yöntemlerinden kopamadıkları ifade edilmiştir. Bu durumu katılımcılar şu şekilde açıklamışlardır:

"Bugüne kadar hep hocalarımızdan gördüğümüz şey, o tahtayı kullanmak ve tahtada bir şeyler yazıp çizmek gerektiğiyle ilgiliydi. Ben de nasıl gördüysem öyle devam ediyorum" (ÖE_8).

"Yani bu işi yapamam ya da beceremem diye düşündüm. Belki de çok fazla ilgili değiliz. Herhalde klasik yöntemlere ya da geleneksel yöntemlere alışmışız, öyle öğrenmişiz" (ÖE_1).

Katılımcılar, matematiğin belirli sembollerinin ve adımlarının olduğunu, bu adımların da GeoGebra ile anlaşılabilemesinin sorun oluşturacağını belirtmişlerdir. Aynı zamanda yazılımın iki boyutlu olması da bir sınırlılık olarak görülmüştür. Bu durumları katılımcılar şu şekilde açıklamışlardır:

"Bu tarz bir yönteme yönelik çalışmalarda şöyle bir yanılgı var. Her konu onunla anlatılabilir yanılgısı mevcut. Yani bütün konularda GeoGebra'yı kullanalım ile yola çıkarsak herhalde sıkıntı yaşarız diye düşünüyorum. Daha çok grafiklerin, geometrik kavramların yoğun olduğu konularda kullanılır" (ÖE_5).

"Sonuçta integral'de sonuç bulduruyor. Yani oradaki akışı oradaki yolları çözüm yöntemini çözüm yolunu buldurmada yardımcı olabilir mi bilmiyorum ama, örneğin siz orada kısmi integtasyon gibi bir yöntemi öğretiyorsunuz. Bunu nasıl GeoGebra ile öğreteceksiniz ki" (ÖE_1).

"Her şeyin düzlemde gerçekleşmesi bir sınırlılıktır. Mesela ben bir katı cismi incelemeye kalktığımda GeoGebra buna cevap veremiyor. Üç boyutlu olsa çok daha şık ve daha böyle görsel olarak daha soyutu canlandırıcı olur zihinde. Üç boyutlu olmayışı bence en bariz kullanışsızlığı" (MÖA_1)

Bu sınırlılıkların yanında katılımcılar; öğrencilerin ders esnasında bilgisayar başında ders dışı aktivitelerde bulunarak dersten kopmaların oluşabileceğini belirtmişlerdir. Bu durumu katılımcılar şu şekilde ifade etmişlerdir:

"Bilgisayarda işlenen derslerde her zaman bir gevşeklik olduğunu düşünüyorum. Belli bir hâkimiyet yok. Sonuçta öğrencinin önünde bir bilgisayar var. Hoca orada bir şey anlatırken öğrenciler önünde bilgisayar olduğu için başka şeylerle uğraşabiliyorlar. Öğrenciyi derste tutabilmek biraz zorlaşıyor. Önünde oynayacağı bir şey var çünkü" (ÖE_8).

"Bir bilgisayar laboratuarına geldiğimiz zaman bir bilgisayar dersi işleyeceğimiz zaman o ortamda çok fazla bulunmadığımız için o dersin amaçları dışına çıkabiliyoruz"(KÖA_2).

Matematik öğretmen adayları bazı matematiksel formüllerin uzun olmasını sorun olarak görmüş, formülleri oluşturmada problemler yaşamışlardır. Diğer taraftan bazı matematiksel sembolleri de oluşturamadıklarını belirtmişlerdir. Bu durumları katılımcılar şu şekilde açıklamışlardır:

"Kullanma kılavuzunda bazı matematiksel ifadeleri bulamıyoruz. Mesela karmaşık sayılar'da onu bulmakta baya bir zorlandım. Onların kısaltmaları var. Onlarda küçük hatalarlar yapıyoruz" (MÖA_6).

"Matematikte bazı kavramların ve simgelerin sembol olarak gösterilmesi. Onları kullanmakta zorlandık. Mesela bir yayın uzunluğunu, üzerinde yay şeklinde gösteremiyorduk, onu kullanamadık. Yapabileceğimiz bazı sembollerde eklense daha güzel bir program olabilir diye düşünüyorum" (MÖA_6).

Bazı katılımcılar sürgünün bağlanmasında problemler yaşamıştır. Ayrıca öğrencilerden bazıları, GeoGebra üzerinde çalışırken üst üste yapılan hata üzerine hatanın nerede olduğunu belirlemede zorlandıklarını şu şekilde belirtmişlerdir:

"Bence sürgüleme bazılarında oluyor, bazılarında olmuyor. Açı sürgülemede ben çok uğraştım, olmadı. Onu bence belirtmesi lazım hangisinde sürgü kullanılıyor hangisinde kullanılmıyor. Hani programın içinde belirtirse daha güzel olur" (MÖA_8).

"Tam açıklamasını yapmamış nerede hata yaptığını. Böyle direkt karşına uyarı olarak çıkıyor ama açıklaması da tam belli değil. Ben acaba okuyorum nerde hata yaptım diye" (MÖA_16).

TARTIŞMA

GeoGebra' nın Avantajları ve Matematik Öğretimine Muhtemel Katkıları

Çalışmada GeoGebra kullanımının matematik öğretimine muhtemel katkıları arasında; GeoGebra'nın dinamik yapısı sayesinde matematiksel ilişkilerin oluşturulması yer almaktadır. Dinamik yapı; öğrencilerin denenceleri sınamasında, grafikler çizmesinde, değişkenler arasındaki bağıntıları deneyerek keşfetmesinde etkili olarak kullanılabilmektedir (Baki, 2000; Cannon, 2005; Güven, 2002). Bu doğrultuda Olkun, Şahin, Akkurt, Dikkartın ve Gülbağcı (2009) öğrencilerin en az yönlendirme ile matematiksel yapı ve ilişkileri kendilerinin keşfedebilecekleri etkinlik durumları kullanılmasının önemli olduğunu vurgulamaktadırlar. Bu nedenle GeoGebra üzerinde etkili öğrenme ortamlarının oluşturulması sağlanabilir.

Katılımcılar ağırlıklı olarak GeoGebra kullanımıyla matematik dersinin görselleştirilerek somutlaştırılabileceği üzerinde durmuş, böylece matematiğe karşı dikkatin ve motivasyonun artacağını belirtmişlerdir. Van Voorst (1999) da teknolojinin matematikte kavramları daha iyi görselleştirirken matematiğe yeni bir boyut kazandırdığını ifade etmiştir. Ancak matematik öğretiminde görselleştirmeye dair görüşler sadece bu yönde yer almamış, matematikçileri de ikiye ayırmıştır. Bu anlamda Touger (1986) Van Voorst'a zıt bir görüş sergileyerek görselleştirmeye bel bağlamanın matematiksel düşünceyi sınırlandıracağını ifade etmiştir. Bu düşünce ise, matematiğe kesin bilgi olarak bakan ve görselliğin aldatıcı yanının olabileceği görüşünden ileri gelmiştir.

Ancak bu görsel yapıya duyuşsal açıdan bakıldığında, GeoGebra'nın eğlenceli yapısıyla matematik dersine yönelik motivasyonun sağlanabileceği açıktır. Çalışmalarda bilgisayarın öğrencilerin derse olan ilgilerini canlı tutacağı ileri sürülmektedir (Aktümen & Kaçar, 2003). Ayrıca öğrenciler GeoGebra karşısında matematikte ulaşmaya çalıştıkları noktaları kontrol ederek ilerleme imkânına da sahip olabilmektedir. Bu doğrultuda öğrencinin kendi dönütünü alması, konunun pekiştirilmesi anlamında önem taşımaktadır (Arslan, 2003; Cannon, 2005; Senemoğlu, 1997). Diğer yandan GeoGebra, matematik öğretiminde kullanılan diğer birçok yazılım gibi, öğrencilerin kendi düzeyine, ilgisine, hızına ve yoluna göre öğrenmesine olanak tanımaktadır (Cannon, 2005; Gökçek, 2004; Yenilmez & Karakuş, 2007; Kazu & Yavuzalp, 2008).

GeoGebra'nın matematik öğretimine bir diğer muhtemel katkısı ise öğrencilerin çok sayıda soru çözmelerine imkan tanıyarak, genellemelere ulaşmalarını kolaylaştırmaktadır. Buna bağlı olarak Baki (2002), matematikte kanıt ve genelleme aşamalarının matematiksel bir çalışmayı tamamladığını belirtmekte ve geleneksel öğretim yöntemlerinde bu aşamaların kâğıt kalemle gerçekleştirildiğini, ancak bilgisayarların bu aşamaları daha etkin bir şekilde uygulama imkânı verdiğini vurgulamaktadır. Bu bağlamda DGS'lerin öğrenci başarısına olumlu yönde katkı sağladığı belirlenmiştir (Aydoğan, 2007; Filiz, 2009; Köse, 2008). Bununla beraber Güven (2002) geleneksel ortamlarda matematiğin öğrenciler tarafından ezberlenmesi gereken formüller yığını olarak görüldüğünü; dinamik geometri ortamlarında bu fikirlerinin değiştiğini ve matematiğin araştırılması gereken ilişkiler bütünü olarak görmeye başlandığını ortaya koymaktadır. Ancak Baker, Gersten ve Lee (2002) düşük başarılı öğrencilerde BDMÖ etkisi üzerine yapılan araştırmaların bir sentezini oluşturmuş ve bu çalışma sonucunda öğrencilerin istatistiksel olarak önemli ölçüde bir başarı gösteremediklerini ortaya çıkarmışlardır. Buna ek olarak Tienken ve Maher (2008) yaptıkları çalışmada akademik olarak düşük seviyedeki öğrencilerde BDMÖ'nün negatif bir etkiye sahip olabildiğini ortaya çıkarmışlardır. Bu sonuçlar belki de BDMÖ'nün hala sınıflarımıza tam olarak girememesini açıklar niteliktedir.

Çalışma sonuçlarına göre GeoGebra kullanımının kolay, özellikle de dilinin Türkçe olmasının hem öğrenci hem de öğretici açısından avantaj olduğu da belirlenmiştir. Bunun yanı sıra GeoGebra penceresi üzerinde bulunan araçların seçiminde, sağ üst köşede kullanım adımlarının verilmesi de önemli ölçüde kolaylık sağladığı ortaya çıkan sonuçlar arasındadır. Verilen adımların izlemesiyle üst düzey bilgisayar

bilmeyen bireylerin bile kolaylıkla GeoGebra kullanabilir düzeye gelebileceği söylenebilir. Yazılımın yaratıcısı olan Hohenwarter (2006) da GeoGebra'nın kısa, basit ve yalın talimatlarını izleyerek ileri düzeyde bilgisayar becerisine ihtiyaç duyulmadan GeoGebra'nın rahatlıkla kullanılabileceğini vurgulamaktadır.

Çalışmada geometrik ve cebir girişinin ayrı olması katılımcılar tarafından avantaj olarak görülmüştür. Öte yandan oluşturulan taslağın tüm aşamalarının rahatlıkla izlenebildiği için inşa protokolünün yapısı da katılımcılarca beğenilmiştir. Bu sayede eğitimciler ve öğrenciler, hazırlanan GeoGebra taslaklarının adımlarını izleyerek GeoGebra öğrenmelerine katkı sağlanabilmektedir.

Matematik Öğretiminde GeoGebra Kullanımının Sınırlılıkları

Çalışmada GeoGebra kullanımının, matematik öğretimine çeşitli katkıları vurgulanırken bir takım sınırlılıkları da belirlenmiştir. Bu noktada katılımcılar, fiziksel ortamın ve bilgisayar okuryazarlığının yetersiz olduğunu vurgulamışlardır. Bu bağlamda teknolojik altyapının geliştirilmesi yönünde önemli ölçüde gelişme kaydedilmesine karşın, bu kaynakların kullanımıyla ilgili yetersizliklerin devam ettiği görülmektedir (Haşlaman, Kuşkaya-Mumcu, & Koçak-Usluel, 2007). Buna bağlı olarak Kutluca ve Birgin (2003) ve Uşun (2004) teknoloji okuryazarlığının yetersiz olması durumunda BDMÖ'den verim alınamayacağını vurgulamaktadırlar. Diğer yandan öğretmenlerin daha önceden alışılan geleneksel yöntemlerden kopamadıkları ortaya çıkan sonuçlar arasındadır. Bu durum, Hare (1999)'in "bir kişinin matematiğe bakışı, o kişinin matematiği nasıl öğrendiği ile ilgilidir" ifadesiyle açıklanabilir.

Aynı zamanda öğrencilerin bilgisayara karşı olası olumsuz tutumunun matematik dersine de olumsuz yansıması beklenmektedir. Bu nedenle bilgisayar başında öğrenciyi derste tutmak zorlaşabilir ve öğrencinin ders dışına çıkarak, bilgisayar üzerinde farklı aktivitelere yönelmesine sebep olabilir. Kutluca ve Birgin (2003) de bu tür materyallerin kalabalık sınıflarda etkili kullanımını ve disiplini sağlamayı zorlaştırdığını belirtmektedir. Öte yandan katılımcılardan bazıları, GeoGebra'nın matematiksel işlemler doğrultusunda doğrudan sonuca ulaşılmasını sakıncalı bulmuştur. Alan yazında ise bilgisayarların, öğrenciyi doğruya yönlendirecek bir sistemin olmadığını, çünkü cevapların ya doğru ya da yanlış olduğu belirtilmiştir (Uşun, 2004; Yıldırım & Şahin, 1999). Diğer taraftan çalışmada yazılımın iki boyutlu olması sınırlılık olarak görülürken bunun gerekçesi olarak da öğrencinin üç boyutlu düşünmede zorlanması öne sürülmüştür.

Çalışmada matematik öğretmen adayları cebir girişinde bazı matematiksel formüllerin uzun olmasını sorun olarak görmüş, formülleri oluşturmada ve sürgünün bağlanmasında problem yaşamışlardır. GeoGebra'nın sınırlılıklarını belirten Dikovic (2009) ve Hohenwarter, Hohenwarter ve Lavicza (2010) yazılımı kullanma deneyimleri olmayan öğrencilerin cebir girişinde oldukça zorlanabileceklerini, temel özellikleri öğrenme konusunda zor olmamasına rağmen öğrencilerin kendilerini sıkıntıda hissedebileceklerini vurgulamışlardır.

SONUÇ

Matematik öğretiminde GeoGebra kullanımının önemli ölçüde katkıları söz konusu iken çevresel faktörlerden ve GeoGebra kullanımından kaynaklanan bir takım sınırlılıklar belirlenmiştir. Bu noktada çalışmada uygulanan seminerlerin kısa süreli olması GeoGebra'ya yönelik olumlu yönde bir algının oluşmasını engellemiş olabilir. Dolayısıyla daha uzun süreli uygulamalarla GeoGebra'nın matematik öğretiminde temel katkılarının ve sınırlılıklarının derinlemesine ortaya çıkarılması sağlanabilir.

Sonuç olarak teknolojinin sınıflarda daha etkin kullanımı için kolay anlaşılır yazılımların tasarlanma gerekliliği ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bu sayede teknolojiye karşı olan önyargıların önüne geçilebilir. Ayrıca hizmet öncesi öğretmen eğitimindeki alan derslerinden bir kısmının içerikleri, bilgisayar destekli

düzenlenerek öğretmen adaylarında teknoloji ile öğrenme algısının ve becerisinin geliştirilmesi sağlanabilir.

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TEACHERS' VIEWS ABOUT LEVEL OF SCHOOL-PARENT COOPERATION AT STATE AND PRIVATE PRIMARY SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

This study is intended to investigate the perception of teachers who work in private and state primary schools about the school-parent relationship according to the criteria of expected school-parent relationship at an effective school. It was used the survey method at this study, and a questionnaire which prepared by researcher by means of a specialist at stage of collect data. The reliability of the scale was found 0,93 according to Cronbach Alpha. The questionnaire was applied 57 state and 38 private school teachers at 2 state and 2 private schools in 2008. In terms of the problems of the study, the data was analized by handling the distributions of the frequencies and the percentiles of the teachers' responses. In addition t-test and one-way ANOVA techniques were also used for the comparision of the groups of public and private school teachers. The results showed that the teachers of state school reported that public schools have effective school features at parental dimension. On the other hand the teachers of the private school reported that contrary to expected private schools have not effective school features at parental dimensions.

Keywords: State and private primary school, effective school, teacher, school-parent cooperation

INTRODUCTION

Attempts to define concept of education can vary in historical process. We have seen different definitions for education which are common among community and educators since 1970s (Başaran, 1998). To give an up to date definition in terms of educational sciences; education is a process of changing someone's behavior required by his own life and intentional domestication (Demirel, 2003). Education is primarily performed in schools. School is a very complicated environment which it has local, regional, national and international characteristics as well as social, cultural, political and economical characteristics (Şişman, 2002). When we think schools are educational organizations, it can be stated that "effectiveness" is the degree to reach the aims of these organizations. Concept of effectiveness in terms of organization was first used in 1930s by Barnard in the field of management. According to Barnard, the level for reaching an aim can be accepted as the level of effectiveness (Balcı, 1993). The concept of effectiveness is usually defined executively and it is inaccurate to transfer it on schools directly. As schools give the service of education and training, their characteristics are different from other social organizations. Every process performed in schools about management has an educational side or frame. Each interaction and activity should be thought in terms of student and education because why schools are existent is the student himself (Binbaşıoğlu, 1983). Researchers haven't agreed on subject matter, definition and properties of an effective school yet. Klopf and his friends (1983) gave one of the most significant and comprehensive definition for schools and they defined an effective school as a school that allows every student with different intelligence and ability cognitive, perceptive, psychomotor, social and aesthetic development. According to Brookover (1985), effective school is defined as a school which aims at teaching basic skills to every student with different level and ability. However, Rich and Ben-Air define that effective school is a positive social environment in which academic achievement of all the students are developed,

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especially unsuccessful students are cared privately and all the students study and play together in harmony (Balcı, 2001:100).

First researches on effective school were performed, primarily in the USA, in some developed countries at the end of 1970s. Before this, in some researches on educational sociology in 1960s, it was suggested that schools had less effect on students. According to these researches, it was suggested that social environment and family (out of school) were more effective on students. It is stated that school has no significant effect on students coming from downscale; however students coming from high socio-economic status draw more benefit from schools. Depending on these studies, some critics on schools have been arisen (Celkan, 1989). Especially, the report "Equal Opportunity in Education", written by J.S. Coleman in 1966 and known as Coleman Report, has motivated the researchers on this subject (AASA, 1992). One of the forerunner researches on effective school was performed by Edmans. Later this study has been modeled in many researches on this matter. This research is known as "Five Factors Model". These factors are strong educational leadership, a school region which does not exclude any students, an organized but not strict school region, to bring in basic skills to all students, managers and teachers should be aware of students' developments to determine accrual level of educational objectives by recurrent tests (Edmans, 1979).

In 1970s and 1980s, number of the researches on effective school increased rapidly and some studies were performed to evaluate and make complete the results of these researches. So, by the help of these researches, it has been tried to develop an effective school model. A study has been performed by Purkey and Smith to evaluate the researches about the effective school concept. As a result, the factors concerning on the effective school has been divided into two groups; structural factor(school centered administration, leadership, firmness of the personnel staff, to state and organize the curriculum, to develop the personnel staff, participation and support of families- parents , high level academic achievement in school, to spare maximum time for learning, regional support from centralized administration)and process factor(sense of being community at school, joint planning and occupational relations, jointly shared objectives and high expectations, order and discipline at school) (Purkey & Smith 1983).

The well known researches concerning the concept of effective school in England were performed in the late 1980s. Two of those were performed by Mortimore et al.(1988) and Smith & Tomlinson (1989). The former was performed in primary schools; the latter was in secondary schools. Mortimore and Sammons' research started in 1980 and performed for four years in 50 primary schools which was determined as effective schools. At the end of the research, twelve basic factors that separate effective schools from ineffective ones, have been found. These are purposeful leadership of a school master for personnel staff, participation of assistant directors, participation of teachers, harmony among teachers, a well organized school day, an education which challenges intellectually, a study centered environment, limited concentration for sessions, very good dialogues between teachers and students, a planned recording system relating to student development, participation of families, and a positive region.

In the literature relating to effective school, some characteristics about effective schools are classified under several dimensions. Generally speaking, these dimensions about the characteristics of the effective school are classified as school administrators, teacher, student, school program, school culture and environment and parents (Raynold, et al., 1996; Hopkins, 1996, Harris, 2002). One of the many-sided variables of the effective school is family. Family, which is defined as the smallest social unit in sociology, can be defined as the first and most important unit which shapes the child's outlook on life and people (Aslanargun, 2007:120). To be able to provide an effective teaching and training, schools should collaborate with the family which shapes the general outlook of the child. To achieve the common purpose, it is necessary to provide agreement and unity of action between the school and family (Yılmaz, 2006). To obtain this cooperation, it is quite important to provide direct interest of the family in

education. Family should take part in every case relating to child's educating and in all possible manners. It is generally accepted that there is a direct relationship between full participation of the family and student's achievement. While configuring their education systems, countries have made arrangements on increasing family's participation much. It is stated that one of eleven stages of the comprehensive education reform declared by the Secretaryship of the USA Education is family participation. Moreover, some researchers think that family participation is more important than all other factors. According to Bellfield and Levin (2003), in the field of education in the USA, the sociologist James Coleman presented the Coleman Report to the congress, results of which was argued a lot. In this report to explain the school's success, Coleman suggests that the characteristics resulted from fireside where a student grew up are more determinant than his school's situation and characteristics. This requires the family factor to be considered as a basic variable for school success. According to Crozier, in England and Wales, schools make an agreement with families at the beginning of the school year, expectations of family participation and duties of parents required for their children are assured by a legal contract (Aslanargun, 2007:122). In Turkish National Education System, some decisions have been taken to improve parents – school relations since the foundation of the Turkish Republic. However, despite these decisions, teacher – parents relations could not meet the desired level because of insufficient determination to implement the decisions and lack of democratic comprehension nationwide. In recent years, effective school researches in Turkey have increased rapidly to solve this problem (Şişman & Turan, 2004).

As an important component of education system, parents' views and opinions should be considered in decision making processes in schools. Involving parents in decision making process in schools might provide valuable contributions to enhancing the quality of teaching and learning in schools. In reviewing the related literature, it was seen that there is few studies regarding the relationship between parents and schools. Therefore, the present study and its results would be make important contributions to crate awareness about the involvement of parents in schools' life and provide knowledge about the situation regarding parents and school relationships in private and state schools.

Aim of The Research

The main objective of this research is to determine to what extend schools have strong relationships with parents which is one of the main characteristics of effective schools. School-parent relationship will be investigated in both state and private primary schools.

To reach the objective, the following questions were tried to be answered:

In terms of teachers, in the dimension of parents:

1. What is the level of characteristics of effective school in state primary schools?
2. What is the level of effectiveness of state primary schools against parents?
3. What is the level of effectiveness of parents against state primary schools?
4. What is the level of characteristics of effective school in private schools?
5. What is the level of effectiveness of private primary schools against parents?
6. What is the level of effectiveness of parents against private primary schools?
7. Is there any significant difference between averages of school effectiveness points of state and private primary schools?
8. Is there any significant difference between averages of parent effectiveness points of state and private primary schools?
9. Is there any significant difference between averages of effective school points of state and private primary schools?
10. Is there any significant difference between effective school average points by gender, task differentials, and professional experience?
11. What are the teachers' ideas about relation between parents and school?

METHOD

Research Design
The aim of this research is to determine the thoughts of the teachers about parent-school relations in their own state and private primary schools. For this reason, survey model is used in this research.

Participants
This research has been made in the state and private primary schools in Trabzon. The sampling consists of randomly selected teachers (N=95) in Private Gülbahar Hatun Primary School, Private Fatma Baş Primary School, A.Fazıl Ağanoğlu Primary School and M.Selami Yardım Primary School in Akçaabat county town.

Instruments
Before developing the data collection tool of this research, books and articles about the subject of the research were browsed and data collection tools in those researches were analyzed. As a result, a data collection tool was prepared by the researcher by the help of expert opinions and the researches of Şişman (1996) and Balcı (1992).

Dependent variables of the research are accrual level of behaviors which the school and parents should exhibit in school-parent relations. Independent variables are personal and professional characteristics of the teachers. A reliability test was performed on the results of the questionnaires by Cronbach Alpha and the reliability coefficient was found 0, 93.

The questionnaire in the research is composed of three parts. First part is composed of 4 questions about personal information of the teachers. In the second part, towards parents of the effective school, there are 25 sentences; these sentences include the behaviors which the school and parents both should exhibit. Top eleven sentences express behavior of the school towards parents; the other 14 sentences express behavior of the parents towards the school. Third part is composed of 4 open end questions; these questions are used to receive the opinions of the teachers about school-parent relations.

The sentences of the questionnaire were arranged according to Likert scale. Agreement levels are written and graded as "I never agree", "I mostly disagree", "I mostly agree" and "I entirely agree". These categories are graded in the form of 1, 2, 3, and 4 from the least accepted choice to the most accepted one.

Using the Instruments
The researcher gave out the questionnaires by hand to the primary schools. Teachers were informed to fill in the questionnaire. These questionnaires were collected within 10 days by the researcher. They were assessed one by one and invalid ones were not evaluated. 8 questionnaires were not given back from the private schools and 2 questionnaires were cancelled. 5 questionnaires were not given back from the state schools and 4 questionnaires were cancelled. During the period of the survey, it was noticed that the teachers were reluctant to answer the questions.

Data Analyses
Valid data in the questionnaire were assessed through computer by using SPSS.13 packaged software. One-way variance analysis and t test were used to determine research problems and sub-problems. Significance was sought according to the variables determined in the participants' opinions with F and t values. Level of 0.05 was accepted as significance level. Point values of each article in the questionnaire were summed up and effectiveness level of the relevant questionnaire was determined. Therefore, average values obtained present certain choices in the scale. Point intervals of the grading used in the questionnaire are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Grading Sample Used in the Questionnaire

GRADING	POINT GIVEN	POINT INTERVAL
I never agree	1	1.00–1.74
I mostly disagree	2	1.75–2.49
I mostly agree	3	2.50–3.24
I completely agree	4	3.25–4.00

Teachers can get minimum 11 maximum 44 points from the first part including 11 questions about school's behaviors. They can get minimum 14 maximum 56 points from the second part including 14 questions about parents' behaviors.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results and Their Meanings Concerning School Effectiveness, Parent Effectiveness and Characteristics of Effective School at State Schools
Averages of the state school teachers participated in the questionnaire are shown in table 2. Averages for school effectiveness, parent effectiveness and effective school characteristics are shown in Table 2. School effectiveness point is out of 44, parent effectiveness is out of 56 and point of effective school characteristic is out of 100.

Table 2. Findings Concerning School Effectiveness, Parent Effectiveness and Characteristics of Effective School in State Schools

STATE SCHOOL N=57	X	sd	POINT INTERVAL
School effectıveness	35.05	1.72	3.18
Parent effectıveness	38.86	5.69	2.78
Effectıve school	73.91	3.88	2.95

When analyzed the Table 2, it is seen that point average of school effectiveness is 35, 05; point average of parent effectiveness is 38, 86 and point average of effective school is 73, 91. When considered these average values, it is appeared that school effectiveness at state schools is more qualified than parent effectiveness. Teachers at the state schools implied that schools complete their responsibility successfully but parents are not in the expected reluctance level. Questions answered by the teachers in the questionnaire also support this statement. They maintain that participation characteristics of the parents are insufficient and they are rather quizzical.

Moreover, teachers state that some parents make an effort individually but they have organizational issues. According to the teachers working at state schools, parents are not satisfied with operation of the parent-teacher associations and they think parent-teacher associations represent certain groups. In addition, it is accepted by the teachers that teacher-parent meetings are very formal at the state schools. According to the teachers, the reason why the meetings are very formal is that parents visit the school rarely. Similar results were obtained from Aslanargun's research. According to Aslanargun, parent-teacher meetings are bossily and admonishingly made in a formal atmosphere (Aslanargun, 2004). This causes some problems in parent-teacher relations. When analyzed table 2, in fact, teachers do not think schools are mostly effective on parent-teacher relations. They think this is caused by density of the bureaucratic procedures. According to them, schools are busy with unnecessary correspondences, so they digress from the aims of the working at school. It is thought that schools continually neglect parent-teacher dialogues.

Results and Their Meanings Concerning School Effectiveness, Parent Effectiveness and Characteristics of Effective School at Private Schools

Averages of the private school teachers participated in the questionnaire are shown in table 3. Averages for school effectiveness, parent effectiveness and effective school characteristics are shown in Table 3. School effectiveness point is out of 44, parent effectiveness is out of 56 and point of effective school characteristic is out of 100.

Table 3. Findings Concerning School Effectiveness, Parent Effectiveness and Characteristics of Effective School in Private Schools

PRIVATE SCHOOL N=38	X	sd	POINT INTERVAL
School effectıveness	36.68	4.08	3.33
Parent effectıveness	35.52	4.45	2.53
Effectıve school	72.2	6.55	2.88

When assessed Table 3, it is seen that point average of school effectiveness is 36,68; point average of parent effectiveness is 35, 52 and point average of effective school is 72,2. According to these average values, it is appeared that school effectiveness of the private schools is more qualified than parent effectiveness. Teachers think that private schools are liable for providing customer satisfaction. For this reason, effective school characteristics are provided completely at private schools. Open-ended questions answered by the teachers in the questionnaire also support this statement. However, observations made by the researcher do not confirm this idea because, during the research, it was observed that teachers were in the attitude of not reflecting the school problems out because of having job anxiety. This was observed more clearly in the group of teachers having professional inexperience. According to the teachers working at private schools, in contrast to the common idea, parents of the students at private schools do not take a strong interest in their children. Majority of the parents take the burden off, they think the school is responsible for every task and they believe that they work to the full at their task. For this reason, they do not attend to parent-teacher meetings and visit the school very rarely. This situation is accepted to limit the effective school characteristics of the private schools.

Results and Their Meanings Concerning School Effectiveness at State and Private Primary Schools

School effectiveness averages of the teachers working at state and private primary schools are compared in Table 4. Significance among these average values is assessed by t test.

Table 4. Findings Concerning School Effectiveness at State and Private Primary Schools

	N	X	sd	df	t	p
State	57	35.05	1.72	93	2.7	$p < 0.05$
Prıvate	38	36.68	4.08			

From the Table 4 it can be found that there is a significant difference between the school effectiveness averages of the state and private primary schools. It is seen that school effectiveness of the private primary schools is more qualified than state primary schools. According to the researcher's observation, this difference results from the fact that teachers working at private schools do not reflect school problems out because of having job anxiety. Teachers having 0-5 years of experience form the majority of the teaching staff at private schools and especially they have this job anxiety. It is especially observed at private schools that the number of the experienced teachers is decreasing. By the conversations with the headmasters, it is understood that newly graduate teachers are masters of information and communication technology. Therefore private schools owners prefer newly graduate teachers.

Results and Their Meanings Concerning Parent Effectiveness at State and Private Primary Schools
Parent effectiveness averages of the teachers working at state and private primary schools are compared in Table 5. Significance among these average values is assessed by t test.

Table 5. Findings Concerning Parent Effectiveness at State and Private Primary Schools

	N	X	sd	df	t	p
State	57	38.86	5.69			
Prıvate	38	35.52	4.45	93	3.1	p < 0.05

From the Table 5 it can be found that there is a significant difference between the parent effectiveness averages of the state and private primary schools. It is seen that school effectiveness of the state primary schools is more qualified than private primary schools. The reason for this is parents' thoughts about school fees. They think that school fees they paid will solve all the problems. Parents having this thought saddle schools with all the responsibility and they visit the school very rarely.

Results and Their Meanings Concerning Effective School Characteristics at State and Private Primary Schools
Effective school averages of the teachers working at state and private primary schools are compared in Table 6. Significance among these average values is assessed by t test.

Table 6. Findings Concerning Effective School Characteristics at State and Private Primary Schools

	N	X	sd	df	t	p
State	57	73.91	3.88			
Prıvate	38	72.2	6.55	93	1.6	p > 0.05

From the Table 6 it can be found that there is no significant difference between the effective school averages of the state and private primary schools. Although the effective school averages of the state schools are higher, the difference can be negligible. Low effectiveness of the parents at the private schools causes the effective school averages to decrease.

Results and Their Meanings Concerning Gender Variable on Effective School Characteristics at State and Private Primary Schools
Whether gender of the teachers is effective or not on the effective school averages of the state and private primary schools is assessed by t test in Table 7.

Table 7. Findings Concerning Gender Variable on Effective School Characteristics at State and Private Primary Schools

	N	X	sd	df	t	p
Man	45	73.31	7.6			
Woman	50	73.16	0.8	93	0.14	p > 0.05

According to Table 7, t value obtained is not significant. Gender of the teachers is not effective on the averages of effective school. Similar results were obtained from Keleş (2006), Yılmaz (2006) and Oral's (2006) researches.

Results and Their Meanings Concerning Task Variable on Effective School Characteristics at State and Private Primary Schools
Whether task variable of the teachers is effective or not on the effective school averages of the state and private primary schools is assessed by t test in Table 8.

Table 8. Findings Concerning Task Variable on Effective School Characteristics at State and Private Primary Schools

	N	X	sd	df	t	p
Prımary school teacher	37	72.16	6.4			
Branch teacher	58	73.85	5.2	93	1.4	p > 0.05

According to Table 8, t value obtained is not significant. Task variable of the teachers is not effective on the averages of effective school. Similar results were obtained from Keleş (2006), Yılmaz (2006) and Oral's (2006) researches.

Results and Their Meanings Concerning Experience Variable on Effective School Characteristics at State and Private Primary Schools
Whether experience variable of the teachers is effective or not on the effective school averages of the state and private primary schools is assessed by t test in Table 9.

Table 9. Findings Concerning Experience Variable on Effective School Characteristics at State and Private Primary Schools

	Sum of the Squares	sd	Mean Square	F	p
Among the groups	101	3	33.6		
Wıthın the groups	2402	91	26.4	1.27	p > 0.05
Total	2503	94	-		

According to Table 9, F value obtained is not significant. Experience variable of the teachers is not effective on the averages of effective school. Similar results were obtained from Keleş (2006), Yılmaz (2006) and Oral's (2006) researches. In Yaralı's (2002) study, it is observed that experience variables of teachers have effect on the averages of effective school.

Results Concerning Open Ended Questions
62 teachers answered the question "According to you, how should the contribution of parents to the development and improvement of the school?" The answers given are grouped and the following titles are found:

Table 10. Frequency Distribution Table for the Answers to the Question "According to you, how should the contribution of parents to the development and improvement of the school?"

SUGGESTIONS (N=62) Parents should;	f	%
Involve in the activities providing financial and moral support with school and should do something about school.	58	94
Visit the school ever so often and regularly.	55	89
Cooperate with the school.	50	81
Respect and carry out the decisions taken by the school.	41	66
Not be quizzical, should be participative and conciliator.	38	61
Be aware of the school's needs and offer solutions.	36	58
Develop positive relations with the school.	29	47
Be conscious of their responsibilities and tasks.	28	45
Have an active part in teacher – parent associations.	21	34
Focus on success of the school rather than student's success.	20	32
Follow the education process actively.	18	29
Rely on the school administration and the teaching staff.	15	24
Be open to criticism and admit faults.	10	16

68 teachers answered the question "Write three problems you encounter in school-parent cooperation" The answers given are grouped and the following titles are found:

Table 11. Frequency Distribution Table for the Answers to the Question "Write three problems you encounter in school-parent cooperation"

	PROBLEMS (N=68)	f	%
Communication Problems	-Not attending to parent-teacher meetings, -Intervening the education process, -Taking account of a student rather than a teacher. -Rarely visiting the school, -Not contacting parents whenever wanted.	65	96
Support Problems	-Lack of financial and moral support for the school, -Burdening teachers with most responsibilities, -Not doing something about the school, -Being prejudiced against the teachers and school. -Avoiding liabilities etc.	63	93
Student Problems	-Taking account of a student's sayings rather than a teacher's. -Being uninterested in what students' wants and deficiencies, -Not accepting faults of students, -Not following out-of-school activities of the students, -Not trying to find solutions for students' problems immediately -Not having a good communication with students etc.	59	87

57 teachers answered the question "What should be done to promote parent – teacher cooperation?" The answers given are grouped and the following titles are found:

Table 12. Frequency Distribution Table for the Answers to the Question "What should be done to promote parent – teacher cooperation?"

	SUGGESTIONS (N= 57)	f	%
Training Suggestions	-Training seminars should be held regularly for parents. -Guidance services should be provided for parents. -Some educational brochures should be prepared for parents. -Seminars for parents should be held by an educationalist from outside the school.	55	97
Communication Suggestions	-Number of the parent-teacher meetings should be increased. -Parents should be allowed to enter one lesson hour per month. -Parent-teacher meetings should be held in more positive atmospheres. -Students should also be participated in parent-teacher meetings. -Atmosphere of parent-teacher meetings should be so attractive for parents that they should come to school wishfully. -Home visits should be arranged.	51	90
Support Suggestions	-Parent-teacher associations should work more actively. -Parents contributing the school should be rewarded. -Classroom mothers should be chosen and supported. -Number of the activities providing financial and moral support with school should be increased. -Parents should be encouraged in every respect.	48	84

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

1. Since private schools are trying to get customer satisfaction, effectiveness of private schools on parents is higher than that of state schools. It was determined at private schools that parents had a high level sense of confidence in their private schools, where customer satisfaction was provided.

This effectiveness at private schools should be passed on state schools. To carry on this, state schools need financial support. To solve this financial problem, bureaucracy should eliminate the barriers for schools. State schools parents should stop giving money to schools and schools should be able to make sponsorship agreements. Sources obtained from these agreements should be primarily used for preparing positive school environment and schools should be turned to magnets in the eyes of parents.

2. Parent effectiveness of state schools on the school is higher than that of private schools. Financial supports of parents at private schools cause this higher effectiveness. Since they think their task is only to provide financial support, they limit their relations with the school. However, it is seen that state school parents put intensive pressure on the school because of having fear of academic failure for their children.

To remove this unconcern of private school parents, guidance service should be provided for parents and schools should remind parents of family factor having an important position in student development. It is thought that brochures and educational seminars will be effective for this purpose. It will be more effective if this educational guidance is performed by an educationalist from the outside school.

3. When discussed state and private primary schools, it is seen that state schools have more effective school characteristics in the dimension of parents. According to the conversations with headmasters, parents register their children for private schools because of not being able to spare the time for children, reluctance to take responsibility, shunting children and receiving better education. It was stated that the number of the parents who register their children to receive better education is unsatisfactory. In contrast to private schools, parents at state schools put more intensive pressure on school administrators and teachers because of fear of academic failure. Teachers are both pleased and troubled with this pressure. Parents even mess with teachers in education process.

This issue can only be eliminated by educational seminars for parents. So, parents should be enlightened with educational seminars promoted by an educationalist from the outside school. It should be considered that school is an education center not only for students but also for parents and other members of society. Therefore guidance service should not be restricted to parents and other people. Parents should be evaluated and given a report card at the end of the term.

4. Gender, task and experience variables of teachers do not change effective school characteristics in the dimension of parent.

5. Especially state school teachers expected mostly financial support from parents (Table 10). When private schools are dealt with it can be stated that only financial support is not enough for school development. Therefore, parents can also contribute their jobs and skills for their school.

6. According to teachers, communication problem is the most important problem for teacher-parent cooperation. Nonattendance at parent-teacher meetings is the major communication problem (Table 11). Especially parents whose students have low academic achievement do not attend at these meetings. According to Aslanargun, reasons for nonattendance at the meetings result from some prejudiced opinions. Common prejudiced opinions are; "cooperation with school is not useful to enhance student achievement", "parent-teacher meetings are being hold in crowded environments" and "parent-teacher associations are unsatisfactory" (Aslanargun, 2007:130).

All these prejudiced opinions are originated from negative previous experiences. These prejudiced opinions can be eliminated by parent-teacher meetings where parent-teacher communication is in maximum level. For this reason, these meetings should be held in more positive environments. Parent-teacher meetings, which are being held formally, should be carried into closer environments. So, a suitable room should always be open for teachers and parents to talk to each other easily and thanks to this, parents should be made feel that school always values them. Moreover students, who are helpful to provide parent – teacher contact, should be involved in the meetings when required. Parents, who do not attend to the meetings because of academic failure, should be enlightened that each student has different intelligence ability and he/she can develop his/her own skills.

7. According to the teachers, one of the problems in parent-teacher cooperation is support problem (Table 11).

This problem has two dimensions; financial and moral. Financial support can be found provided that bureaucratic barriers are eliminated and sponsorship agreements are made. Both local and central administrations should support schools on this head by cooperating with school administrations. Moral support however, is possible if the contact between the school and parents is increased and both the school and parents develop a mutual trust.

8. According to the teachers, one of the problems in parent-teacher cooperation is student problems (Table 11). Foremost students' problem is that parents mostly keep count of what students say rather than

what teachers say. In fact, this problem is thought to result from a confidence problem caused by lack of communication between parent and teacher.

Students, who are in the center of education, are the most important indicator of the school development. Both schools and parents have important tasks to solve the student problem. Schools should deal with not only students' academic achievements but also social, cultural and physical evolution. Each student can develop skills with respect to their intelligence ability, so all the students should be embraced and made feel that fundamental purpose of the school is to meet the students' needs. Parents also should take responsibility for solving student's problems and be helpful to the school. To carry out this, schools and parents should be in joint position. Teachers and parents should determine the students' needs and problems by a mutual trust and they should generate resolutions.

9. Teachers made suggestions on three subjects to provide parent-teacher cooperation. These suggestions, in order of priorities are suggestions for education, communication and support (Table 12). For educational suggestions they argued that some educational seminars about the operation of the school and expectations of the school from parents should be held especially for parents. They suggested about communication that the number of the parent-teacher meetings should be increased and students should involve in these meetings, too. They suggested about the support that parent-teacher associations should work more actively and provide both financial and moral supports.

It is thought that implementing all these suggestions will develop the school-parent cooperation. Besides the schools and parents, local and central administrations should take charge in implementation of these suggestions. In addition, universities should support these studies with their qualified personnel. Since family is a part of education, family factor should be included in all actions to be performed.

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STUDENTS' VIEWS ON THE CONSTRUCTIVIST LEARNING ENVIRONMENT IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS: A QUALITATIVE INQUIRY

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ABSTRACT

In this study, it was aimed to determine elementary students' qualitative views on the constructivist learning environment. In this study, semi-structured illustrative qualitative research methodology was used. The study sample was students from elementary schools in Niğde province, Turkey. The sample of the study consisted of 25 elementary school students, who were selected at random from the study population, that was, 5 students from a total of 5 different elementary schools. Two elementary schools for each socio-economic structure were selected for the study. In order to detect the sampling of the study, elementary schools in cosmos were chosen according to three-layer group sampling method according to socio-economic structure (high-middle-low) of their region. An extensive literature review had been made on the constructivist learning environment and some of the scales were examined in a semi-structured interview form regarding the constructivist learning environment. At the end of this literature examination, the semi-structured interview form of the study was prepared by the researcher. In this research, the data acquired were analysed with content analysis technique. Based on the content analysis, four themes of the constructivist learning environment were found. These themes are: (i) determination of objectives of courses, (ii) teaching-learning process, (iii) social interaction, and (iv) measurement-evaluation process.

Keywords: constructivist learning environment, new elementary curriculum, elementary schools.

INTRODUCTION

Curriculum development studies started with the proclamation of the republic in Turkey (Gözütok, 2003). The elementary school curriculum in the Turkish Education System has been changed several times. After establishment of the Republic of Turkey in 1923, the elementary school curriculum was restructured several times in 1924, 1926, 1936, 1948, 1962 and 1968 (Çelenk, Tertemiz & Kalaycı, 2000). Compulsory education in Turkey was for five years from 1923 to 1997. However, the Ministry of National Education, known as MEB made a radical decision to increase compulsory education to eight years in 1997. Therefore, the primary school curriculum and the middle school curriculum were combined in the elementary school system. However, at that time those curricula were not revised and restructured (Korkmaz, 2008). On the other hand, Turkey participated in TIMSS (Third International Mathematics and Science Study) assessment in 1999 for the first time and Turkish students ranked as 33rd out of 38 countries. TIMSS is an international educational assessment study. 38 countries jointed in this study which were mostly from Europe but also from Asia, Australia and United States of America. The PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) which is another international assessment study results in 2003 and 2006 showed similar results. 41 countries participated in 2003 PISA assessment and Turkey was in the 37th rank in science education. Continuous unsuccessful results of the international assessments for the Turkish Education System urged that Turkey revise its academic curricula and come up with a new one in parallel with science education in the world (Acat, Anılan & Anagün, 2010). Hence,

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a new curriculum change movement began in Turkey based on the improvements of the information society, teaching episodes and relations with the European Union (EU) countries in 2003. The schools could not disregard the influence of information and communication technologies on mathematics, science, production, society, politics, education and also lifestyle (Koç, Işıksal & Bulut, 2007). In other words, in order to unify and integrate elementary school curriculum and to meet the demands of the 21st century, new elementary school curriculum was developed and introduced as a pilot study in the 2004-2005 academic year in some regions of Turkey. As a result of it, in 2005-2006 academic year the reconstructed elementary curriculum was introduced in the Turkish elementary schools (Korkmaz, 2008). The elementary curriculum has been renewed and it has been constructed on the philosophy of the constructivist learning theory (Demirel, 2005; Turan, 2006). The new elementary curriculum was developed by prioritising the student-centred learning approach to catch up with the contemporary education level, students' constructing their own knowledge and to improve independent thinking skills (Güneş & Baki, 2012). Thus, it can be stated that the new elementary curriculum has been based on the constructivist approach and stressed activity and student-centeredness (Gömleksiz, 2005).

Savery & Duffy (1995) evaluated constructivist learning as a philosophical view which is interested in arriving at knowledge rather than as another independent learning approach. Hence, constructivism as an epistemological philosophical view of knowledge acquisition emphasises knowledge construction rather than knowledge transmission (Fosnot, 1996). According to constructivism, knowledge construction is based upon students' previous knowledge experiences. So, the new knowledge is integrated with the previous intellectual constructs. Integration of such experiences is facilitated through social and collaborative natures of learning (Schunk, 2008). The general sense of constructivism is that it is a theory of learning or meaning making, that individuals create their own new understandings on their prior knowledge (Richardson, 2003). In other words, constructivism is a learning theory contenting that learners construct their own understanding based on prior learning and social interaction (Brooks & Brooks, 1999). According to Schunk (2008), constructivism is a psychological and philosophical perspective contenting that individuals form or construct much of what they learn and understand. The way in which people try to make sense of situations or how people create meaning is the main concern of the constructivist learning theory (Wilson, 1996). Constructivism is an epistemological view of learning rather than teaching (Bodner, 1986). So, constructivist learning applications predict a rich and interactive learning environment which supplies student requires to reach the knowledge, get and analyse it, arrange and use it in order to solve the problems (Gagnon & Collay, 2001). In the learning process, students are expected to produce their own products by searching, doing decisions, collaborating, using high level of thinking skills and using their own creativeness (Demirel, 2005). Thus, constructivists believe that certain activities and enrichments in the environment can enhance the meaning-making process, such as active learning, using kinaesthetic, visual and auditory modalities, creating opportunities for dialogue, fostering creativity and providing rich, safe and engaging environments (Brooks & Brooks, 1999). Constructivist learning is grounded in students' active participation in the problem-solving and critical thinking (Şaşan, 2002; Fer & Cırık, 2007). So, knowledge cannot simply be transferred from teachers to students, it has to be conceived (Von Glasserfeld, 1996). The essence of constructivism is that students actively construct knowledge (Cunningham, 1992). Hence, the core element of this assumption is that learners interpret new information using knowledge that they have already acquired (Wilson, 1996). Learners activate prior knowledge and try to relate new information to the knowledge they already possess (Blumenfeld, 1992). Thus, constructivism can be stated to be a view of learning that considers the learner as a responsible active agent in his/her knowledge acquisition process (Abbott & Ryan, 1999). Hence, it is possible to state that constructivism is one of these theories which tries to explain the nature of learning (Brooks & Brooks, 1999). According to Karaigorgi & Symeou (2005), constructivism is a learning theory that explains learning as internalising or constructing knowledge and understanding of the world after experiencing and reflecting on those experiences.

Constructivists believe that knowledge and truth are constructed by individuals and do not exist outside the human mind (Duffy & Jonassen, 1991). It is assumed that learners have to construct their own knowledge and understanding through cooperatively or individually. Each learner has a tool kit of concepts and skills with which (s)he must construct knowledge and solve the problems presented by the environment (Davis, Maher & Noddings, 1990). In constructivist environments, students are asked to deliberately take action to create meaning from what they are studying. In other words, learners adopt the role of seekers and problem solvers while teachers become facilitators and guides rather than presenters of knowledge, students learn how to use or apply the information in diverse contexts (Dunlop & Grabinger, 1996). Providing learning environments in which students take the responsibility of their own learning does not indicate that they have complete freedom of decision-making based on their learning (Marlowe & Page, 1998). The teacher's role in a constructivist classroom is not so much to lecture at students, but to act as an expert learner who can guide students into adopting cognitive strategies such as self-testing, articulating understanding, asking probing questions and reflection. Hence, the role of the teacher in constructivist classrooms is to organise information around big ideas that engage students' interests, to assist students in developing new insights, and to connect them with their previous learning. So, the activities in the constructivist learning environment are student-centred and students are encouraged to ask their own questions, carry out their own experiments, make their own analogies, and come to their own conclusions (Brooks & Brooks, 1999). Consequently, becoming a constructivist teacher who helps learners to search rather than follow is rather challenging, yet, not impossible to attain (Honabein, 1996). In this sense, constructivist teacher roles require encouraging student autonomy and initiative, allowing students' goal setting and choice of instructional strategies and altering content, inquiring students' understanding of concepts before sharing their own understandings, encouraging students in dialogue both with the teacher and the peers, seeking elaboration of students' initial responses, allowing wait time after voicing questions both for constructing relationship and metaphors, inquiring students with questions that utilise their critical thinking and encouraging them to ask too and engaging students in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypotheses (Brooks & Brooks, 1999).

When constructivist learning theory is regarded the best way to define learning, then it follows that in order to promote student learning it is necessary to create learning environments that directly expose the learner to the material being studied. For only by experiencing the world directly can the learner derive meaning from them (Tam, 2000). This gives rise to the view that constructivist learning must take place within a suitable constructivist learning environment (Tam, 2000). So, it can be considered possible to claim that the design of the constructivist learning environment is important in enabling the effective use of collaboration. Learners share information to collaboratively construct socially shared knowledge (Jonassen, 1999). As Savery (1994) contends the more structured the learning environment, the harder it is for the learners to construct meaning based on their conceptual understandings. A facilitator should structure the learning experience just enough to make sure that the students get clear guidance and parameters within which to achieve the learning objectives, yet the learning experience should be open and free enough to allow for the learners to discover, enjoy, interact and arrive at their own, socially verified version of truth.

In Turkey, the learning atmosphere is usually teacher-oriented and follows a traditional route, where learners are usually passive receivers of knowledge and the teacher is the purveyor of it (Altun & Büyükduman, 2007). In contrast to this view, constructivist instructional design involves purposeful knowledge construction, multiple representations of reality, and case-based learning environments rather than pre-determined instructional sequences and social interaction. Therefore, as an alternative to traditional learning, constructivist learning has to be fostered in education (Altun & Büyükduman, 2007). In this regard, research studies have provided consistent and convincing evidence that the quality of the classroom environment is a significant determinant of student learning (Fraser, 1994). It has been established that a positive learning environment is influential in student academic achievement and

attitudes (Fisher, Henderson & Fraser, 1995). Previous researches have indicated that students' perceptions of learning environment are an important factor in explaining their cognitive and affective outcomes (Fraser, 1994).

There are many studies on the constructivist learning environment (Honabein, Duffy & Fishman, 1993; Taylor, Fraser & White, 1994; DeVries & Betty, 1995; Wilson, 1996; Taylor, Fraser & Fisher, 1997; Jonassen, 1999; Kim, Fisher & Fraser, 1999; Yaşar, 1998; Brooks & Brooks, 1999; Ziegler, 2000; Margianti, Fraser & Aldridge, 2001; Yurdakul, 2004, 2005; Çınar, Teyfur & Teyfur, 2006; Çetin & Günay, 2007; Gültekin, Karadağ & Yılmaz, 2007; Dündar, 2008; Erdamar & Demirel, 2008; Yıldırım & Dönmez, 2008; Aygören, 2009; Bal & Doğanay, 2009; Ünal & Çetinkaya, 2009; Acat, Anılan & Anagün, 2010; Anagün & Anılan, 2010; Argün & Aşkar, 2010; Aybek & Ağlagül, 2011; Baş, 2012a; Gökçe, İşcan & Erdem, 2012; Tatlı & Ayas, 2012) in the related literature. However, these studies focused on the quantitative aspect of the constructivist learning environments especially from the views of teachers. The studies carried out for the views of students on the constructivist learning environment are very limited and they also focused on the quantitative aspect of this learning environment (Altun & Büyükduman, 2007; Özgür, 2008; Özkal, Tekkaya & Çakıroğlu, 2009; Acat, Anılan & Anagun, 2010; İlgen, 2010). In these studies, for example, Altun and Büyükduman (2007) carried out a research for evaluating the effects of a constructivist instructional design on a group of students and their teachers at a university. Whereas, Acat, Anılan & Anagün (2010) studied on the determination of the needs and problems of classroom teachers about designing constructivist learning environments. On the other hand, Özgür (2008), Bal & Doğanay (2009), Özkal, Tekkaya & Çakıroğlu (2009) and İlgen (2010) carried out quantitative studies in order to evaluate the constructivist learning environment in elementary schools from the views of students. In this regard, as there are no studies in relation with the qualitative aspect of students' views for the constructivist learning environment in Turkey, the determination of elementary students' qualitative views on the constructivist learning environment is very crucial in order to create a more student-centred and constructivist classroom atmosphere in elementary schools. Besides, the determination of the constructivist learning environment in elementary schools from the views of students is believed to contribute more to the curriculum evaluation and development studies of the new elementary curriculum accepted in 2005-2006 academic year. According to Acat, Anılan & Anagün (2010), the design of the learning environment is one of the most important factors for implementing the curriculum effectively. The success of the new elementary curriculum in Turkey depends heavily on conducting the researches which examine learning environments deeply and determine the existing problems. In this context, the purpose of this study was to determine elementary students' views on the constructivist learning environment. In order to determine the qualitative views of elementary students on the constructivist learning environment, the following research questions were posed in the study:

1. How is the objective of the courses in schools are determined?
2. How teachers teach in schools?
3. What kind of instructional methods and techniques are used in courses in the classroom?
4. How is the social interaction in the classroom?
5. Do teachers let students interact with their peers in the classroom?
6. How do teachers measure and evaluate students' academic success and other skills in the classroom?

This research sought to improve the understanding of teachers on the constructivist learning environment in elementary schools. Hence, the findings obtained in the study may provide information for policymakers, educational administrators and curriculum developers as well as insights that may be relevant to similar studies elsewhere.

METHOD

In this section, the study model, study group, application stages of the study, data collection tools and analysis methods will be discussed.

Study Model

This is a qualitative case study. In this research, a "semi-structured interview technique" was used which takes place in "interview method", one of the qualitative data collection instruments in the literature. Certain kinds of questions are prepared for use in all interviews of semi-structured interviews. The questions prepared are put to the participants in the same order, but this is an interview technique which allows the participants to state their views to a larger extent (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008).

Study Group

The study sample was students from elementary schools in Nigde, Turkey during 2011-2012 academic year. The sample of the study consisted of 25 elementary school students, who were selected at random method (Karasar, 2005) from the study population, that was, 5 students from a total of 5 different elementary schools. In order to detect the sampling of the study, elementary schools in cosmos were chosen according to three-layer group sampling method according to socio-economic structure (high-middle-low) of their region, volunteered to participate in the research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). Two elementary schools for each socio-economic structure were selected for the study. The students in the sample group were interviewed directly by face-to-face. Moreover, it was stated that the data collected for the study would not be used for any other purpose except the research in order for the participants to answer all the questions, and they were also asked not to mention their names to allow them to express their views confidently. The questions were asked in the same order to all of the participants in the study and their answers to the interview questions were not limited to enable them to express their views freely. The participants were assured for the anonymity and confidentiality for their responses in the study. Thus, the students were given the opportunity to express all the ideas and views that they considered important regarding the constructivist learning environment in their classrooms in the research process.

Gender, grade level, and the settlement place of the elementary schools according to the high-middle-low socio-economic structure of the students who participated in the research are presented in Table 1 below.

When Table 1 is examined, it can be seen that 13 (52%) of the students are females and 12 (48%) of them are males. When the grade level of the students is examined, it can be seen that 7 (28%) of them are in 8th grade, 9 (36%) of them are in 7th grade, and 9 (36%) of them are in 6th grade. It can also be stated clearly that 9 (36%) of the students are educated in elementary schools with high socio-economic structure, 8 (32%) of the students are educated in elementary schools with middle socio-economic structure, and 8 (32%) of the students are educated in elementary schools with low socio-economic structure.

Data Sources

An extensive literature review had been made on the constructivist learning environment and some of the scales (Taylor & Fraser, 1991; Taylor, Fraser & White, 1994; Taylor, Fraser & Fisher, 1997; Alridge et al., 2000; Tenenbaum et al., 2001; Johnson & McClure, 2004; Fer & Cırık, 2006; Karadağ, 2007; Balım et al., 2009; Evrekli et al., 2009, 2010; Arkün & Aşkar, 2010; Köse et al., 2011) were examined in a semi-structured interview form regarding the constructivist learning environment.

Table 1. Study group and its characteristics

Student	Gender	Grade	Socio-Economic Structure of School
1	F	8	High
2	M	8	High
3	M	7	High
4	F	7	High
5	F	6	High
6	M	6	High
7	M	8	Middle
8	F	8	Middle
9	M	7	Middle
10	M	7	Middle
11	F	6	Middle
12	F	6	Middle
13	M	8	Low
14	F	8	Low
15	M	7	Low
16	M	7	Low
17	F	6	Low
18	F	6	Low
19	M	8	High
20	F	7	High
21	F	6	Low
22	M	6	Middle
23	F	7	Middle
24	M	6	High
25	F	7	Low

Data Collection Tool

At the end of the literature examination, the semi-structured interview form of the study was prepared by the researcher. In order to sustain the validity of the research form, two experts on Curriculum and Instruction and five teachers were consulted for their views on the questions prepared for teachers in this regard. The reliability of the study was sustained by the researcher and one of his colleagues, who was an expert in the field on creating the themes one by one and then reaching an agreement determining the subjects. In order to determine the reliability between two experts, the formula (Reliability= consensus / consensus + dissidence X 100) suggested by Miles & Huberman (1994) was used in the research. At the end of the comparison of students' views, an agreement rate of 91% with two experts was reached regarding which subjects should be included. As it was stated in the literature that at least 70% of consensus between experts is accepted as sufficient (Miles & Huberman, 1994), the necessary reliability level of the data analysis was thought to be sustained in the research. After the validity and reliability studies carried out in the research, the students, selected by random sampling method were interviewed with the created semi-structured interview form. All interviews were written by the researcher and afterwards these written documents were analysed thematically. All the written views of the students participated in the study were translated from Turkish into English by the researcher himself in the research.

Data Analysis

The data gathered in qualitative research is analysed with two ways: (i) descriptive analysis and (ii) content analysis. In this research, the data acquired were analysed with"content analysis technique". The

data that are basically similar to each other were brought together in the framework of certain concepts and themes and evaluated in an organisational format that readers could understand clearly. In the analysis of the content of the data, a four-step qualitative content analysis technique was used (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008): (i) codification of the data, (ii) finding out of the themes, (iii) organising and defining the data according to codes and themes, and (iv) evaluation of the findings.

FINDINGS and DISCUSSIONS

The main theme and sub-themes which were determined from the views of the elementary students were given in this part of this research. The findings related to these main themes of the research were presented respectively below.

a. Determination of Objectives of Courses

Descriptive statistics concerning the pre-service teachers' scores obtained from the environmental awareness questionnaire before they took the environmental education course designed based on micro-teaching method and after they took the course are presented below.

The views of the elementary students participated in the research in regard of the determination of objectives of courses were given in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Views of students on the determination of objectives of courses

Main Theme	Sub-Themes	6th Grade	7th Grade	8th Grade	Total
		η	η	η	η
Determination of Objectives of Course(s)	Only by teachers	9	8	6	24
	Both by teachers and students	-	-	1	1

In regard of the determination of objectives of courses in elementary schools, nearly of the students from 6th, 7th, and 8th grades agreed that the objectives of courses were determined only by their teachers ($\eta=$ 24), not mutually both by their teachers and themselves. Only one student claimed that the objectives of their courses were determined mutually both by their teachers and peers in the classroom. As look to the following views of the students participated in the research in respect to the determination of objectives of courses, this can be seen clearly in some of the examples below.

Our teachers come to the classroom and they say, "open you books, page…", and then they start to give the course to us. So we don't know the objectives at the beginning of the courses. (S-8)

We don't know the objectives of courses. Our teachers only teach us, they don't say the objectives to us. Thus, we can't determine the objectives of courses together with our teachers. We don't know the objectives neither before, not after the course at school. (S-14)

No, not really! We don't have objectives. If we are interested in the subject we are learning, we can look at those objectives in our books. But our teachers don't determine the objectives of the courses with us, because our classrooms are overcrowded in our school. So they can't do it easily. (S-5)

The objectives of the courses are already determined by the teachers. We never sit and determine the objectives of the courses together with our teachers at school. (S-3)

As could be understood clearly from the views of the elementary students participated in the research, most of the students claim that they do not determine the objectives of courses together with their teachers at school. Their teachers use ready objectives for the courses and the students are not much aware about the objectives of courses neither before, not after the courses. On the other hand, only one student claims that they determine the objectives of some of the courses together with their teachers in the classroom. The view of this student can be seen below.

Yes, of course. We, in some courses such as English, science and technology, social studies, determine the objectives of courses together with our teachers in the classroom. For example, we determine an objective with our teacher and try to obtain that objective in our next course at school. We have flexible courses in our school, since the classrooms are not overcrowded in our school. (S-1)

In conclusion, nearly all of the students participated in the research claim that they do not determine the objectives of courses together with their teachers in the classroom. However, only one student claims that they determine the objectives of courses together with their teachers in the classroom. According to this student's claim, the classrooms are not overcrowded in their school so that their teachers have opportunity to determine the objectives of courses together with their students and also meet their needs and demands.

b. Teaching-Learning Process
The views of the elementary students participated in the research in regard of the teaching-learning process were given in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Views of students on the teaching-learning process

Main Theme	Sub-Themes	6th Grade η	7th Grade η	8th Grade η	Total η
Teaching-Learning Process	Direct instruction	1	2	3	6
	Exploratory learning	1	1	1	3
	Project-based learning	1	-	2	3
	Cooperative learning	1	-	1	2
	Discussion	2	2	1	5
	Question-answer	2	1	2	6
	Critical thinking	1	-	-	1
	Problem-based learning	-	1	-	1

As could be seen in Table 3, most of the students participated in the research claim that their teachers use direct instruction (η= 6), question-answer (η= 6), and discussion (η= 5) mostly in the classroom. Very few students agreed that their teachers use project-based learning (η= 3), cooperative learning (η= 2), problem-based learning (η= 1), critical thinking (η= 1) and exploratory learning (η= 3) methods of instruction in their courses. According to the views of most of the students in the research, the students cannot participate in the learning process actively and freely in the classroom. Some of the views of the students participated in the research are given on this very issue below.

Most of the time, our teachers only teach us. I mean they always talk and we always have to listen to them and take some notes, of course. Our teachers often ask some questions to us while they are teaching us in the classroom. (S-9)

Actually, we are not very active most of the time in the classroom. Sometimes our teachers let us solve problems on the board. Our teachers come to the classroom and they always teach us the subject in the same way, directly teaching us. We listen to them and answer their questions. (S-23)

We are very passive in the classroom. We only to listen to our teachers and they always lecture us in order to teach us. This is so boring. But we can't do anything about this, I'm very sorry. (S-12)

For example, we sometimes carry out some simple experiments in the classroom. Our teacher makes us explore the events in the experiments and examples. However, we always follow up our course books and our teachers mostly make us do the activities in our course books. This is so boring indeed. We aren't active in the classroom, as you can well understand. (S-4)

We often listen to our teachers. If they ask us questions, we try to answer them. Instead of that, in courses such as social studies we sometimes discuss events with our friends. Of course, our teacher lets us do this in this course. We evaluate our friends' projects and criticise them according to some certain criteria defined before the course. We also give feedback to our friends' these projects accordingly. (S-24)

We spend most of our time in courses listening to the teachers in the classroom. We mostly do the activities in our course books and our teachers control them. The courses pass like this mostly on weekday. We can't participate so much in the activities in the classroom. (S-18)

My teachers are always wiling to make us think critically on events in the classroom. However, when we think critically on the subjects or events, our teachers don't like our responses on critical thoughts so that we are very offended to state our critical thoughts on events freely in the classroom. (S-11)

However, according to few of the claims of the students, their teachers use some instructional methods such as project-based learning, cooperative learning and problem-based learning in the classroom. Some example views belonging to these students are presented below.

Our teachers mostly teach us in the classroom. They sometimes make us create some projects individually and in groups. We have a great fun. Of course, there is much noise in the classroom while we are studying in groups, but I like this group work. (S-20)

We play some games in the classroom. For example, our teacher makes us organise in groups and gives us some tasks. After we complete these tasks with our peers in the groups, our teacher asks some questions in relation to the tasks to us. If we know most of the questions of our teacher, we come first, second or third and get some awards in the end of the process. (S-2)

Our teacher sometimes creates problem-based activities and makes us find solutions to the problems that he creates in the classroom. We discuss the problem with our friends and try

to find a possible solution for the problem. This kind of activity is rather challenging, but we like it very much indeed. (S-1)

According to these few students' views above, the teachers are understood to create activities based on project-based learning and cooperative learning in the classroom. However, most of the students claim that their teachers are still using traditional methods of instruction in their classrooms.

c. Social Interaction

The views of the elementary students participated in the research in relation to the social interaction were given in Table 4 below.

Table 4. Views of students on the social interaction

Main Theme	Sub-Themes	6th Grade η	7th Grade η	8th Grade η	Total η
Social Interaction	Student-student	2	1	-	3
	Teacher-student	4	6	7	16
	Both student-student and teacher-student	3	1	1	5

In respect to the views of the students participated in the research, it was seen that the social interaction was mostly between teacher-student ($\eta= 16$) in the classroom. Few students claimed that the social interaction in the classroom was between both student-student ($\eta= 3$) and amongst student-student and teacher-student ($\eta= 5$). Some of the views of the students who claim the social interaction was mostly between teacher-student in the classroom are presented below.

Mostly we interact with our teachers in the classroom. They start the activities and then let us do these activities individually. After our responses to the questions in the activities, our teachers give feedback for our wrong answers in the activities. Yes, of course I want to interact with my friends in the classroom, but it is not allowed. (S-8)

We are forbidden to talk with our friends in the classroom, even about the subject of the course. For example, while I was asking about a point in the activity to my friend next to me in mathematics course, the teacher got very angry with me though I explained the matter was dealing with the course itself to the teacher. (S-13)

We sit in a row in our classroom, so we can't interact with our friends for the discussion of a matter in order to better understand it. We always have to ask that matter to the teacher. The teacher is the only source and authority in the classroom. I don't like my courses because they aren't enjoyable. (S-7)

Our teacher don't let us study together with our friends in the classroom since as they say our classrooms are overcrowded and there is much noise if we study together with our peers in the classroom. I mean we can't interact with our peers in the classroom mostly. The teacher asks us the questions and we have to answer them correctly. I'm bored with this process really. (S-6)

There are few views of the students in relation to the social interaction between student-student and amongst student-student and teacher-student interaction in the classroom. Some of the views on this issue are given below.

Our teachers mostly let us study with our friends in the classroom. We carry out project work in these interactions. We discuss events and matters in relation to the subject so that we do understand the target subject better via the social interaction with our friends in the classroom. (S-19)

The teachers start the activities and make us study collaboratively with our friends in the classroom. If we have problems, our teachers help us where and when necessary. We can ask questions to our teachers about the subject matter when we need. Of course, our teachers do their best in order to help us understand the subject better in the courses. (S-1)

As could be seen from the views of the students participated in the research, the social interaction amongst students in a very limited level in the classroom. As students claim that this is because of the overcrowded classrooms and the classroom organisation in relation to the desks.

d. Measurement-Evaluation Process
The views of the elementary students participated in the research in regard of the measurement-evaluation are given in Table 5 below.

Table 5. Views of students on the measurement-evaluation process

Main Theme		6th Grade	7th Grade	8th Grade	Total
	Sub-Themes	η	η	η	η
Measurement-Evaluation Process	Tests	3	3	4	10
	Open-ended questions	2	2	3	7
	portfolios	1	-	1	2
	Project work	1	1	1	3
	Observation forms	1	-	-	1
	Self, peer and group assessment forms	1	-	1	2

As looked to the findings obtained in the research in relation to the measurement-evaluation process main theme, it was seen that most of the students agreed that their teachers use measurement and evaluation methods such as tests (η= 10) and open-ended questions (η= 7) in examinations in order to measure and evaluate their students' academic success in the classroom. It was also seen in the research that few teachers were understood to use alternative methods of measurement and evaluation such as portfolios (η= 2), project work (η= 3), observation forms (η= 1), and self, peer and group assessment forms (η= 2) in the classroom. Some of the views of the students in regard of measurement and evaluation in the classroom are given below.

Our teachers mostly measure our success through tests and traditional examinations with open-ended questions. Our teachers don't prefer using other measurement instruments in order to measure and evaluate our success in the classroom. (S-22)

We have examination times at school. We mostly have three examinations for each course. Our teachers ask some questions through tests in these examinations. The test questions [items] have four choices each, such as in the Level Determination Examination that we have to take every year. (S-11)

In examinations, the teachers ask eight to ten questions in relation to the subjects we have learnt in courses. These examinations are sometimes constructed with multiple-choice

questions [items] and/or open-ended questions. Tests are easy to do, but open-ended questions require memorisation. They are hard to do. (S-9)

We have only examinations done three times per course in each semester. Instead of these examinations, some of our teachers make short examinations like quizzes such as in English course. That's all! I can't remember any other measurement instruments that our teachers apply on us in order to measure and evaluate our success in the classroom. No, not really! (S-17)

We have formal examinations for each course at school. In addition to this, we have some examinations with multiple-choice items for the preparation of the Level Determination Examination after school in two weeks time. We have to attend in these examinations since they are compulsory in our school. Most of our teachers use the results of these examinations for the evaluation of our success at the end of the term. (S-21)

Although most of the teachers were understood to use traditional measurement instruments such as multiple-choice item tests and open-ended questions in examinations. It was seen that few teachers were seen to use alternative assessment methods such as portfolios, self, peer and group assessment forms and observation forms in the classroom according to the views of the students obtained in the research. Some of the views belonging to these students are presented below.

Our teachers sometimes use observation forms and self, peer and group assessment forms in order to better evaluate our success in the classroom. For example, we put our homework and project work in our portfolios, and then we show the portfolios to our teachers and get marks from these. Also, we fill in some self, peer and group assessment forms after completing individual and group work in the classroom. (S-19)

One of my teachers is very keen on project work. We rarely have formal examinations such as tests and traditional examination with open-ended questions. Instead of these, our teacher uses the results of our project work for assessment of our success in the classroom. (S-20)

We know that some of our teachers are using observation forms in order to assess our success better. Instead of evaluating our success for one or two times through tests or other examinations, they prefer observing us for our performance through such observation forms in the classroom. (S-1)

In my school, yes of course, we have formal examinations. In addition to these examinations, our teachers use some evaluation methods such as portfolios and projects in order to better evaluate our success in the classroom. I like this way since if we fail in formal examinations because of a possible failure and stress we can compensate for this in portfolios and project work. (S-2)

As could be seen from the views of the students participated in the research, the teachers were understood to use traditional methods of measurement and evaluation mostly such as tests and traditional examinations with open-ended questions. According to the students' views, tests are the most applied measurement instrument in the classroom because of the Level Determination Examination (LDE) that students have to take every year. However, few teachers were detected to use alternative methods of evaluation such as portfolios, observation forms, project work, self, peer and group assessment forms in order to evaluate their students' success in the classroom.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine students' qualitative views on the constructivist learning environment in elementary schools. According to the first finding obtained in the research, nearly all of the students claimed that the objectives of their courses were determined only by their teachers at school. According to the finding related with the teaching-learning process in the classroom, the teachers were understood to use direct instruction, question-answer and discussion methods mostly in the classroom. Besides this, according to the views of the students in regard of the teaching-learning process main theme obtained in the research, the students were not very active in the learning process and their critical thinking skills are not promoted and reinforced in the classroom. On the other hand, the social interaction and collaborative studies in the classroom were seen to be very limited according to the students' views obtained in the research. The students also claimed in the research that their teachers were still using traditional methods of measurement and evaluation such as tests and open-ended questions in the examinations instead of alternative methods of measurement and evaluation in order to evaluate their students' success in the classroom. According to another finding in the research, the students were understood to participate in the research and did not find their learning environment enjoyable. Nonetheless, the students claimed that their learning environment in the classroom was boring for them.

According to the findings gathered in the research, it was found out that nearly of the students from 6th, 7th, and 8th grades agreed that the objectives of courses were determined only by their teachers, not mutually both by their teachers and themselves. Only one student claimed that the objectives of their courses were determined mutually both by their teachers and peers in the classroom. As could be understood from the views of the students participated in the research, teachers are still not meeting their students' demands and needs in the classroom. However, approaches based on constructivism stress the importance of mechanisms for mutual planning, diagnosis of learner needs and interests, sequential activities for achieving the objectives, formulation of learning objectives based on the diagnosed needs and interests (Brooks & Brooks, 1999). Brooks & Brooks (1999) also cite that constructivist teaching and learning attach importance on students' point of view. According to Şişman & Turan (2004), the Turkish Education System seems to be teacher-centred. In a study carried out by Altun and Büyükduman (2007), some students had defined the constructivist instructional design as a waste of time. In addition, it was also found out that they were accustomed to teacher-centred instruction. As a matter of fact, the knowledge level in relation with constructivist learning of teachers was found out to be in an average level (Özdemir, 2007). In Turkey, the learning atmosphere is usually teacher-oriented and follows a traditional route, where learners are usually passive receivers of knowledge and the teacher is the purveyor of it. In contrast to this view, constructivist instructional design involves purposeful knowledge construction, multiple representations of reality, and case-based learning environments rather than pre-determined instructional sequences (Altun & Büyükduman, 2007). So, it can possibly be stated that the teacher-centred structure of the Turkish Education System is effective on the result obtained in the study.

According to another finding obtained in the research that most of the students participated in the research claim that their teachers use direct instruction, question-answer, and discussion mostly in the classroom. Very few students agreed that their teachers use project-based learning, cooperative learning, problem-based learning, critical thinking, and exploratory learning methods of instruction in their courses. As the students' views are analysed, it can possibly be understood that students' perceptions for the constructivist learning environment in elementary schools are very low. In other words, as the notion of constructivism is one of the main thrusts of the new elementary curriculum in Turkey (Özkal, Tekkaya & Çakıroğlu, 2009), current study demonstrated that the elementary students have a tendency to perceive that their actual learning environments were less constructivist. In a study by Maypole & Davies (2001), three of the university students who participated in a qualitative study held in an ordinary classroom environment stated that they appreciated certain aspects of the class but emphasised that constructivism is difficult as it requires too much work. According to Güneş & Baki (2012), it is obvious that the teachers

who do not know about learner-centred environment would carry on implementations with their own methods. In this context, in a study carried out by Acat, Anılan & Anagün (2010), it was concluded by means of document analyses that the learning environments were not real-life oriented, that they did not sufficiently relate to students' experiences, that the constructivist approach was not grasped efficiently and that students were not properly granted autonomy in learning process. Similar findings to finding obtained by Acat, Anılan & Anagün (2010) were acquired by Güzel & Alkan (2005), Yılmaz (2006), Saracalıoğlu (2007), Özkal, Tekkaya & Çakıroğlu (2009), Temli (2009), Duru & Korkmaz (2010) and Güneş & Baki (2012) in their studies. For example, in the study carried out by Güneş and Baki (2012), it was observed that the infrastructures of the classrooms were not suitable for setting a learner-centred environment. It was found out in Güneş & Baki's (2012) study that the teachers who did not have a suitable environment had some difficulties while trying to set learner-centred environments. Overcrowded classrooms were also one of the main problems in front of a constructivist learning environment in Bulut's (2006), Yavuz's (2007) and Güneş and Baki's (2012) studies. As Çınar, Teyfur & Teyfur (2006) reported in their study, the most important handicap for the new constructivist curriculum was the problems of infrastructure in their schools. Tsai (2000) found that there were statistically significant differences between student perceptions of actual and preferred learning environments. Tsai (2000) also reported that Taiwanese 10th-grade students perceived their actual learning environment as less constructivist. According to the results obtained in a research carried out by Aykaç & Ulubey (2012), the teachers could not carry out the activities effectively and select techniques and methods complying with the content. In another study, Gökçe, İşcan & Erdem (2012) investigated the status of implementation lessons with the descriptions which teacher candidates carried out according to the primary school teachers' constructivism approach. According to the results from the findings of the study carried out by Gökçe, İşcan & Erdem (2012), primary school teachers observed by teacher candidates, generally did not carry out classroom activities according to constructivist 5E model which is one of the learning cycle used in the framework of constructivism. On the other hand, İlgen (2010) carried out a research in order to evaluate the constructivist learning environment in science and technology course by classroom teachers and their primary school students according to constructivist learning point of view. According to students' views in İlgen's (2010) study, students perceived the current learning environment to be constructivist. Besides this, Bal & Doğanay (2009) also found out that the constructivist learning environment was at a high level in mathematics courses according to the perspectives of students. Also, Özgür (2008) found out similar findings in relation to the findings of İlgen's (2010) study. In another study carried out by Aybek & Ağlagül (2011), it was found out that classroom teachers were determined to use principles of constructivist educational approach skills to the construct of the constructivist learning environment. However, in the constructivist learning environment students are taught through some instructional methods instead of traditional ones such as direct instruction, question-answer, etc. in courses. Students are guided to alternative learning environments and they are taught by using alternative methods of instruction such as project-based learning and cooperative learning in the classroom (Brooks & Brooks, 1999; Saban, 2004). According to Wilson & Lowry (2001), teaching may include all kind of activities. A constructivist learning environment should always be a place where learners may work together, draw upon resources using a variety of tools, supporting each other in their guided pursuit of learning goals and problem-solving activities (Wilson, 1996). According to Savery & Duffy (1996), problem-based learning is one of the best exemplars of a constructivist learning environment. As Lin et al. (1996) state that the constructivist learning environment should be a learning community in which students have the opportunity to plan, organise, monitor, and revise their own research and problem solving in a collaborative way. As for Savery & Duffy (1996), it is more obvious that constructivism implies specific learning activities or instructional principles, such as anchoring of all learning in large tasks or problems, activating the learners, challenging and supporting the learner's thinking, authentic tasks or problems, reflecting the complexity of the real world, the learners' ownership of the problem-solving process and the opportunity to reflect on the content and the learning process or project-based learning. Learning environment also requires manipulation space that provides learners a sufficient area to research, experiment, and pose hypotheses with the problem (Jonassen, 1999). It is assumed that

learners have to construct their own knowledge and understanding through cooperatively or individually. Each learner has a tool kit of concepts and skills with which (s)he must construct knowledge and solve the problems presented by the environment (Davis, Maher & Noddings, 1990). In constructivism, it is expected that the learner would be active and construct their knowledge. Putting emphasis on learning, instead of teaching, and changing role of students were evaluated as useful innovations (Kaptan, 2005). In constructivist environments, students are asked to deliberately take action to create meaning from what they are studying. In other words, learners adopt the role of seekers and problem solvers while teachers become facilitators and guides rather than presenters of knowledge, students learn how to use or apply the information in diverse contexts (Dunlop & Grabinger, 1996). On the other hand, the teacher's role here is so crucial since the teacher's role in a constructivist classroom is not so much to lecture at students, but to act as an expert learner who can guide students into adopting cognitive strategies such as self-testing, articulating understanding, asking probing questions and reflection. Hence, the role of the teacher in constructivist classrooms is to organise information around big ideas that engage students' interests, to assist students in developing new insights, and to connect them with their previous learning. So, the activities in constructivist learning environment are student-centred and students are encouraged to ask their own questions, carry out their own experiments, make their own analogies, and come to their own conclusions (Brooks & Brooks, 1999).

According to another finding obtained in the research, the students perceive that they are not very active in the teaching-learning process, and they are mostly the passive agents of the process. They cannot interact with their peers in the classroom and criticise the events and the process easily. There is teacher-student interaction in the classroom mostly, without letting students interact with their peers and discuss events in the courses easily. In the Turkish culture, the teacher may face difficulties in actualising this aspect of the constructivist learning environment since they mostly tend to acknowledge the question coming from students on their way of teaching as rude statements or misbehaviours (Özgür, 2008). Traditionally in the Turkish culture students are expected to have a high degree of respect for their teachers and not criticise their teachers about the way in which they are taught (Özkal, Tekkaya & Çakıroğlu, 2009). The research results of Marra (2005) exposed that teachers' epistemological beliefs have an impact on designing constructivist learning environments. Whereas, Brown (1996) supports the view that constructivist learning environment helps students gain the habit of working collaboratively and makes it easier to concentrate on the subject area. Social interactions with fellow students contribute to the construction of knowledge (Koç, 2006; Loyens, Rikers & Schmidt, 2007). In a study carried out by Yeşilyurt (2009), it was found out that cooperative learning had a significant positive effect on the behaviours at cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of students. Loyens, Rikers & Schmidt (2007) also discuss that constructivist theories mostly share the idea that social negotiation and interaction is an important factor in the process of learning. In this regard, it can be said that constructivist teacher roles require encouraging student autonomy and initiative, allowing students' goal setting and choice of instructional strategies and altering content, inquiring students' understanding of concepts before sharing their own understandings, encouraging students in dialogue both with the teacher and the peers, seeking elaboration of students' initial responses, allowing wait time after voicing questions both for constructing relationship and metaphors, inquiring students with questions that utilise their critical thinking and encouraging them to ask too and engaging students in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypotheses (Brooks & Brooks, 1999). A learning environment should be created in ways that involves opportunities for students to explain and justify their ideas to others, to listen and reflect on the viability of other students' ideas and to reflect self critically on the viability of their own ideas (Taylor, Fraser & Fisher, 1997; Aldridge, Fraser & Taylor, 2000). According to Tam (2000), constructivism does present an alternative view of learning other than the objectivist conception of learning, and provides a set of design principles and strategies to create learning environments wherein learners are engaged in negotiating meaning and socially constructing reality.

Assessment may be a problem in constructivist learning environments. Constructivists are mainly concerned with context-but for more instruction than individual assessment (Dick, 1992). In this context, according to the last finding of the research carried out in order to determine students' qualitative views on the constructivist learning environment in elementary schools, it was seen that most of the teachers were understood to use traditional measurement instruments such as multiple-choice item tests and open-ended questions in examinations. It was also seen that few teachers were seen to use alternative assessment methods such as portfolios, self, peer and group assessment forms and observation forms in the classroom according to the views of the students obtained in the research. According to Altun & Büyükduman (2007), evaluation techniques of the traditional instruction are replaced by process evaluation in the constructivist design, that is why a traditional paper-pen exam contradicts with all the bases of constructivism. The constructivist instruction is not a suitable model to measure the knowledge by the traditional pen-paper examinations since it is the process the design deals with, not the product. As a result, if the problem that the system being exam-oriented is solved, it can be said that constructivist design could be implemented more effectively (Altun & Büyükduman, 2007). In a study carried out by Yavuz (2007), teachers complaint that they lose too much time in putting everything in folders and measurement and evaluation had become so difficult since each course needed a different method of measurement and evaluation. As with Yavuz (2007), İnal (2008) and Bal & Doğanay (2010) also point out that there is measurement and evaluation problems in the constructivist learning environment. These problems are due to teachers' lack of knowledge of alternative assessment procedures, their unwillingness to implement new practices, their dependence on past measurement and evaluation assumptions and practices, and lack of resources and equipment (Bulut, 2006; Bal & Doğanay, 2010). Also according to Bayrak & Erden (2007), sufficient explanations about complementary evaluation techniques do not exist in the curriculum. According to the finding in relation with the measurement and evaluation main theme obtained in the current study, teachers are still using traditional methods of measurement and evaluation in their classrooms. In a study carried out by Aykaç & Ulubey (2012), it was found out that teachers could not use appropriate assessment techniques for evaluating their students' success at school. In this regard, according to Temli (2009), one of the most difficult parts of constructivist learning approach was students' success evaluation, because it might be very hard for teachers to give up their habits. In addition to this, some nation-wide examinations such as the Level Determination Examination (LDE) known as SBS in Turkish, lead to confusion in teachers' mind. In order to enable student to solve multiple-choice tests, some teachers tend to evaluate students' success through multiple-choice examinations to make them familiar with these kinds of examination questions (Metin & Cansüngü-Koray, 2007).

At the end of the research, it can possibly be said that the constructivist learning environment could not be sustained in elementary schools in spite of the new elementary curriculum, which was designed and developed according to constructivist learning theory and its practices on education. In this regard, based on the findings concerning the views of students on the constructivist learning environment in elementary schools and the conclusions driven in the same aspect, students should be informed about the objectives of the course(s) before the courses are started by the teachers. According to Gagné (1985), informing students about the objectives of the course before the course begins makes the management system in the brain active and then makes students develop expectations both for the course and the target subject. On the other hand, the essence of constructivism is that students actively construct knowledge (Cunningham, 1992). Hence, the core element of this assumption is that learners interpret new information using knowledge that they have already acquired (Wilson, 1996). Learners activate prior knowledge and try to relate new information to the knowledge they already possess (Blumenfeld, 1992). Thus, activities should be designed in order to make students solve problems from the real life. In addition, there should be more emphasis on the importance of establishing links between what students learn at school and what they experience in their real lives. The teachers should also be well-prepared to provide more examples from the daily lives of children especially in counties so that they can establish link between the topics and their daily lives. Students should be encouraged to ask more questions in the class to overcome the participation problem in most of the cases (Özgür, 2008). Continuing with the course book-centred

education is amongst the major reasons of the problems. Educational settings that will yield an authentic learning process in a natural environment should be created (Acat, Anılan & Anagün, 2010). Students should be more active in the process so that dramatisation and high-order thinking activities should be supported in the classroom. Hence, teachers should encourage student autonomy and initiative, allow students' goal setting and choice of instructional strategies and alter content, inquire students' understanding of concepts before sharing their own understandings, encourage students in dialogue both with the teacher and the peers, seek elaboration of students' initial responses, allow wait time after voicing questions both for constructing relationship and metaphors, inquire students with questions that utilise their critical thinking and encourage them to ask too and engage students in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypotheses (Brooks & Brooks, 1999). Also, group activities and activities allow social interaction such as cooperative learning should be supported in the classroom (Chung, 1991). This study also implies that the students should be provided with adequate grounds for interaction in a social context within the principles of cooperative learning because interaction between group members in a social context is essential for learning as proposed in social constructive theory culture and context are important to understand what occurs in society and to construct knowledge (Derry, 1999). According to Scott & Ytreberg (1990), teachers should group the students together whenever and wherever possible. This does not mean that they have to work in groups all the time, but most students like to have other students around them, and also sitting with others encourages cooperation. Also, working with dialogues with pairs or groups is a useful way to develop the cooperative atmosphere in the classroom. So by this way, students do not afraid of a possible failure, or on the contrary of that, they work out in a fearless and reinforcing atmosphere in the classroom so that learning materialises in a natural way (Baş, 2012b). It is cooperative learning that allows the individual to go beyond the information given to them (Bruner, 1973) and move on to the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). On the other hand, alternative methods of measurement and evaluation should be presented to teachers in a practical way and the problems in front of the applications of alternative measurement and evaluation methods in elementary schools should be solved. Teachers should be supported on this very issue in order to better use and/or apply alternative methods of measurement and evaluation in their classrooms. In order to create environments based on constructivist learning, teachers should be educated through seminars and in-service training courses on constructivist learning both theoretically and practically. Teachers should also be supported to attend to graduate courses at universities. In order for the constructivist learning environments to be implemented in the Turkish elementary schools properly, a school setting which reflects the real life needs to be created.

The qualitative aspect of the constructivist learning environment in elementary schools is lacking. As there are a few studies on the views of students on the quantitative aspect of the constructivist learning environment, there is a need to conduct more studies on the qualitative aspect of the constructivist learning environment in elementary schools. This current study may give insights for teachers about integrating constructivist learning approach into their elementary classrooms. In this regard, it is suggested that researchers should study each aspect of the constructivist learning environment in a deeper extend. The researchers should carry out qualitative studies comparing both students' and teachers' views on the constructivist learning environment in elementary schools. Besides, carrying out studies on the views of school principals and educational supervisors on the constructivist learning environment in elementary schools can be very useful. The researchers should also study the qualitative aspect of the constructivist learning environment in high schools in comparison with elementary schools.

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AN INVESTIGATION OF RESISTANT BEHAVIORS OF THE TEACHER CANDIDATES TOWARD THE TEACHING CERTIFICATE COURSES[*]

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this research was to determine the resistant behaviors of prospective teachers toward the Teaching Certificate Courses and to examine the reasons of resistant behaviors. In this study, qualitative and quantitative research methods were used. The research was carried out at Dokuz Eylul University in Turkey (N= 848). The quantitative data of the study were gathered with the "The Resistance towards Teaching Certificate Courses Scale" developed by Yüksel (2004). In order to identify the reasons of active resistant behaviors, interviews were made on voluntary basis with 42 students chosen by criterion sampling of the purposive sampling method. The derived data were interpreted with the descriptive analysis technique.

Keywords: Teacher education, teacher candidates, student's resistance, resistance behaviors, teaching certificate courses.

INTRODUCTION

The social advancement of the states and their developmental status in reference to the other states are directly related with the quality of their educational processes. This reality strongly verifies that special attention should be given to the prevocational training of the teachers considered as the leaders of the educational processes. Teaching is considered as a distinctive and avant-garde profession on the grounds that teachers both shape the properties of the individuals and the societies and train the personnel of other sectors. Within this context, it is considered that well-educated, qualified teachers have crucial importance in ensuring the future of societies (Semerci & Çerçi, 2005).

Teacher education has always been a controversial issue in Turkey. Different policies and programs have been implemented in teacher training since 1848 (when the first teachers' school was established) and progressive attempts to develop the teachers' qualities have always been carried on. In Turkey, teachers' training has been carried out at the faculties of education under the charge of the Board of Higher Education that took office in 1982 with the Law of Higher Education (number 2547). The reorganization of the faculties of education was brought on the agenda based upon the assertion of "Since the Faculties of Education face with problems such as structuring wrongly, positioning far from their ultimate purposes and similar ones and since they are inadequate in fulfilling the needs of the country both as qualitatively and quantitatively" (YÖK, 1998a:14) and new regulations have been put into practice since 1997-1998 school year. During this reorganization process, standardization was provided for the faculties of education and the same vocational knowledge courses with the same course credits were applied to all

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departments of faculties of education. The teaching certificate courses in all departments were designated as: Introduction to Teaching Profession, School Experience I-II, Development and Learning, Planning and Evaluation in Instruction, Instructional Technologies and Material Development, Classroom Management, Special Teaching Methods I-II and Guidance (YÖK, 1998b).

After the reorganization in teacher training in 1997, the programs were updated and non-thesis master's degree implementation was redesigned. The aim of this implementation was to update the programs and modify the defective points rather than changing the structure of 1997-1998. With this modification, the teaching certificate courses in all departments were designated as: Introduction to Educational Science, Developmental Psychology, Curriculum and Instruction, Turkish Education System and School Management, Principles and Methods of Instruction, School Experience, Measurement and Evaluation, Classroom Management, Guidance, Instruction of Technologies and Material Development, Practicing Teaching Profession, Special Teaching Methods, Theories and Approaches on Teaching and Learning (YÖK, 2007).

Training programs implemented and the competence of the instructors are significant variables in improving teachers' quality (Howard & Gordon, 1999). One of the important factors for the prospective teachers' proper development of their professional qualities is their instructors as role models; that is to say, the consistency of the instructors' behaviors with the subjects they teach in their teaching certificate courses. Another factor which has equal importance is the affective characteristics of the prospective teachers regarding their profession (Cochran, DeRuiter & King, 1993; Jenkins & Veal, 2002; Mohr &Townsend, 2002; Oral, 2004; Saracaloğlu, 1991; 1992; Şenel et al 2004).

The studies about affective characteristics of prospective teachers have mostly focused either on teaching profession or interest and attitude devoted to various course subjects (Aşkar & Çelenk, 1989; Aşkar & Erden, 1986; Can, 1992; Erden, 1995; Oral, 2004; Saracaloğlu, 1991; 1992; Sayın, 2005; Serin et al 2000; Sözer, 1996; Şenel et al 2004), however, adequate emphasis hasn't been placed on the resistant behaviors which may result in extremely negative outcomes in learning and teaching processes and also make the students resort to force. Although there are numerous studies abroad interpreting and defining the resistant behaviors of the students at different educational levels, the number of studies examining the resistant behaviors of prospective teachers toward the teaching certificate courses are very limited both in Turkey and abroad (Yüksel, 2004 a; 2004 b; 2006).

Although studies examining the resistant behaviors of students are very few in Turkey, the studies that were carried out abroad clearly show that resistant behaviors are the most significant reason for the reduction of the productivity of learning and teaching processes (Davies, 1995; Giroux, 1983; Mc Farland, 1999; 2001; Zuniga & Mildred, 2005). Besides, there are also findings of the research proving that when the students show resistant behaviors, the teachers tend to exhibit negative expectations and attitudes toward their students (Alpert, 1991; Sun, 1995).

Resistant behaviors are defined as the opposition of students to the educational activities and the thoughts and practices that are proposed to them (Yüksel, 2004). The initial studies on the resistant behaviors of students associated the resistance with the social and ethnic origin (Apple, 1979; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Cumins, 1989; Ogbu, 1987, Willis, 1977). The subsequent studies however, stated that resistance could be independent from the social environment and be directly related to reasons such as insufficient activities within the classroom, widespread acceptance of teacher centered educational concept, inability to motivate the desires of the students to learning, irrelevance of the subjects with the real life, authoritarian attitudes of the teachers and students' personal antipathy towards their teachers (Hallinan, 1989; Weick, 1995, Yüksel, 2004 a).

Undisciplined behavior and resistant behavior are examined as two different concepts. While the undisciplined behaviors develop spontaneously within the process, the resistant behaviors are considered contemplated and planned behaviors. This distinctive feature leads to the continuity of the resistant behaviors. In addition to this, it is mentioned that resistant behaviors have more negative outcomes than the undisciplined behaviors: For example, they lead the students to exhibit violence towards their teachers, which affects both the success level of the other students and their attitudes towards the learning environment negatively. Besides, it is underlined that resistant behaviors should not be seen as totally negative behaviors, yet these behaviors may also have positive effects. As a result of students' resistant behaviors, a teacher exhibiting negative behaviors within the classroom can compensate his/her negative behaviors through self-criticism (Yüksel, 2004 b).

Students may exhibit resistant behavior in various forms such as ignoring the school and the teacher, refusing to participate in the lesson, leaving questions unanswered consciously, debating with the teacher frequently (Alpert, 1991), shirking his/her duties, speaking negatively against the teacher, behaving in a way to disturb classroom ambiance, regular nonattendance to the courses, complaining constantly, adopting deceptive attitudes towards teacher, asking questions to put the teacher into difficulty or forcing the teacher to go beyond the lesson context (Hallinan, 1989; McFarland, 2001; Yüksel, 2004a; Zuniga and Mildred, 2005). Students' resistance behaviors can disrupt a whole class and teaching-learning process (Burroughs, 2007; Zhang, Zhang &Catstellucio, 2012).

Resistant behaviors differ according to the ages and the educational level of the students. Whereas the younger students generally show the resistant behaviors verbally, students at secondary and higher education exhibit resistant behaviors in a nonverbal, passive resistance form (McFarland, 2001). Resistance peaks at adolescence, and adolescents are more rebellious than other age groups (Miller, Burgoon, Grandpre & Alvaro, 2006).

Resistant behaviors generate many negative results; for example, they decrease the productivity of the learning and teaching processes, provoke absenteeism in lessons, create conflict among students and teacher and lead to negative attitudes towards the school and education which results in a decrease in academic achievement. Active and passive resistant behaviors, which provide the basis of many problems in learning and teaching processes, are of course still effective in the educational processes of the prospective teachers. Teaching Certificate Courses takes an important place for the prospective teachers in acquisition of knowledge, skills and affective characteristics of their profession. Determining the level of resistant behaviors of prospective teachers toward the teaching certificate courses and taking the measurements to eliminate these resistant behaviors may be a solution method to increase the quality in teachers' training.

The aim of the research is to determine the resistant behaviors of the prospective teachers toward the teaching certificate courses which in which the instructors of the educational sciences department of the faculties of education lecture. Additionally, the target of this research is to make suggestions for preventing resistant behaviors and provide the conditions for training qualified teachers. This study is important as it is one of the few studies carried out in Turkey and abroad interpreting the resistant behaviors of prospective teachers. The research attempts to find answers to the following questions;

1. Do the resistant behaviors of the prospective teachers toward the teaching certificate courses show a meaningful difference in terms of their gender and their departments?
2. What are the reasons of resistant behaviors of the prospective teachers toward the teaching certificate courses?

METHOD

Participants
The participants of the study was constituted by the senior students (n= 848) of the faculty of Education. The target population included 449 female (53%) and 399 male (47%) students. In order to gather the qualitative data, interviews were made on voluntary basis with 42 students of Art Teaching, Physical Education Teaching, and Music Teaching and Foreign Languages Teaching departments.

Gathering the Data
For gathering the quantitative data, "The Resistance towards the Teaching Certificate Courses Scale", which was developed by Yüksel (2004 a), was used. Likert type scale consists of 41 items. The choices and scoring of the scale was formed as: I Completely Agree (5), I Agree (4), I'm Uncertain (3), I Disagree (2) and I Strongly Disagree (1). The scoring in sentences with negative expressions is performed in reverse direction. Scale consists of 6 dimensions and interpretations are constructed according to the sub dimensions of the scale. These sub dimensions are named as: Opinions about the instructors, opinions about the teaching profession, opinions about the teaching certificate courses, active resistant behaviors, passive resistant behaviors and importance attributed to the teaching certificate courses. The alpha reliability co-efficient of the scale is .93. In this study, the reliability co-efficient of the scale was calculated as .94.

In order to get personal knowledge a Personal Information Form, prepared by the researchers, was used. In this form there are questions about gender, department, departmental scores in the National Student Selection Examination (NSSE), and whether the students are satisfied with their departments and the university. The quantitative data of the research were gathered via interviews with the prospective teachers, in the university offices of the researchers. For the interviews of the research, a semi-structured interview form was used in determining the reasons for resistant behaviors towards teaching certificate courses.

Analyzing the Data
Frequency and percentage values were designated in order to classify the data. Arithmetic mean was used to calculate the average of the scores received, and standard deviation was used in order to find out the distance of the distribution values to the arithmetic mean. A t test was implemented to determine whether the difference between two independent groups' averages was meaningful. One-way analysis of variance was implemented to determine whether the difference between more than two levels of independent variables averages was meaningful. The Scheffe test was implemented to find out the origin of the difference when the difference among the averages was determined in variance analysis.

Qualitative data were analyzed by three people including an educational scientist and the writers; interview documentations were examined individually and coding keys were created separately. For reliability calculation, the formula offered by Miles & Huberman was used: goodness of fit percentage (reliability)= Number of categories that are agreed on/ Number of categories that are agreed on + Number of categories that are not agreed on. After the calculations, it is determined that the goodness of fit percentage is 100% for the 1st question, 90% for the 2nd question and 95% as the average. As the reliability calculations had been over 70%, the research was considered reliable (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this context, the result was considered reliable for the research.

Abbreviations
TCC: Teaching Certificate Courses, PESM: Physical Education and Sports Teaching Male Student; PESF: Physical Education and Sports Teaching Female Student; FLTM: Foreign Languages Teaching Male Student; FLTF: Foreign Languages Teaching Female Student; FATM: Fine Arts Teaching Male Student; FATF: Fine Arts Teaching Female Student

FINDINGS

The resistant behaviors of the prospective teachers towards the TCC were analyzed in terms of the gender, department and satisfaction level with the department. The resistant behaviors of the prospective teachers in terms of their gender are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Student Resistance by Gender

	n	$\overline{X}$	s	t
Opinions on the Instructor				
Female	449	25.26	7.86	4.32*
Male	399	30.02	9.24	
Opinions on the domain knowledge for teaching				
Female	449	18.31	7.32	3.67*
Male	399	23.57	7.96	
Opinions on the TCC				
Female	449	20.81	6.82	1.51
Male	399	22.77	7.11	
Active Resistance Behaviors				
Female	449	7.03	4.51	3.89*
Male	399	12.27	5.30	
Passive Resistance Behaviors				
Female	449	10.67	8.26	.83
Male	399	11.86	7.41	
Importance attributed to the TCC				
Female	449	7.84	3.29	.78
Male	399	8.36	3.84	

* p< .05

When Table 1 is analyzed, it is observed that there are significant differences between the opinions about the instructor and the profession, and the extent of active resistant behaviors in terms of gender. It may be said that the opinions of male students about the instructor and the profession are more negative than the female students, and in addition to this, male students show active resistant behaviors more frequently than the female students. The resistant behaviors of the prospective teachers in terms of their department are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Student Resistance by Departments

	n	$\overline{X}$	s	F	Meaningful Difference
Opinions on the Instructor					
1 Primary School Education	150	26.07	8.32	21.52*	1-2; 1-5
2 English Language Teaching	84	32.43	7.44		1-9; 3-7
3 German Language Teaching	20	29.14	8.77		3-9; 4-2
4 French Language Teaching	20	25.12	9.21		4-5; 4-9
5 Art Education	74	32.56	8.78		5-7; 5-8
6 Turkish Language Teaching	100	24.11	6.67		6-2; 6-5
7 Early Childhood Education	53	24.88	10.02		6-9; 7-2
8.Computer and Instructional Technologies (CITE)	40	25.26	7.71		7-5; 7-9
9. Music Education	52	33.51	8.55		8-9;10-6
10 Psychological Counseling and Guidance (PCG)	55	27.18	6.88		11-2;11-5
11 Science Education	40	25.24	8.12		12-2;12-9
12 Social Sciences Education	79	26.22	6.82		13-5;13-9
13 Math Education	81	25.10	7.49		
Opinions on the Domain knowledge for teaching					
1 Primary School Education	150	19.71	7.34	9.42*	1-3; 1-5
2 English Language Teaching	84	20.16	7.27		1-9; 2-3
3 German Language Teaching	20	26.32	9.16		2-5; 3-6
4 French Language Teaching	20	25.23	7.92		3-7; 3-12
5 Art Education	74	26.77	7.58		4-1; 4-6
6 Turkish Language Teaching	100	19.62	6.89		4-7; 4-12
7 Early Childhood Education	53	19.38	7.14		5-9; 5-7
8. CITE	40	20.08	7.69		7-3; 7-9
9. Music Education	52	25.88	8.02		10-3;10-5
10 Counseling and Guidance	55	20.99	7.49		
11 Science Education	40	21.01	5.97		
12 Social Sciences Education	79	19.83	7.94		
13 Math Education	81	20.25	7.21		
Opinions on the TCC					
1 Primary School Education	150	19.89	6.71	16.87*	1-2; 1-3
2 English Language Teaching	84	24.56	7.45		1-5; 1-9
3 German Language Teaching	20	24.99	7.77		2-6; 2-9
4 French Language Teaching	20	20.63	6.78		2-11; 3-6
5 Art Education	74	24.89	7.43		3-8;3-11
6 Turkish Language Teaching	100	19.88	7.01		5-6; 5-8
7 Early Childhood Education	53	20.21	6.92		5-11; 6-9
8. CITE	40	19.86	7.56		8-9; 8-11
9. Music Education	52	24.82	7.22		
10 PCG	55	20.41	6.98		
11 Science Education	40	19.33	7.44		
12 Social Sciences Education	79	20.04	6.85		
13 Math Education	81	20.18	7.62		
Active Resistance Behaviors					
1 Primary School Education	150	5.87	3.26	8.42*	1-2;1-3
2 English Language Teaching	84	9.24	5.67		1-5; 1-9
3 German Language Teaching	20	8.21	4.55		2-6; 2-7
4 French Language Teaching	20	7.88	6.34		2-13; 3-
5 Art Education	74	9.28	7.23		3-13;4-1
6 Turkish Language Teaching	100	5.90	5.37		4-6; 5-6
7 Early Childhood Education	53	6.21	4.08		5-7;5-13
8. CITE	40	7.12	5.34		6-9; 7-9
9. Music Education	52	9.78	6.71		9-13
10 PCG	55	7.21	5.98		
11 Science Education	40	7.16	4.57		
12 Social Sciences Education	79	7.08	6.03		
13 Math Education	81	6.57	4.36		

Table 2. Cont

Passive Resistance Behaviors

1 Primary School Education	150	9.26	4.73	12.60*	2-4; 2-6
2 English Language Teaching	84	12.53	5.62		2-7; 2-8
3 German Language Teaching	20	10.33	5.82		2-13;3-7
4 French Language Teaching	20	8.01	6.34		3-13;4-8
5 Art Education	74	11.98	4.76		5-1;5-13
6 Turkish Language Teaching	100	8.24	5.79		6-9; 7-9
7 Early Childhood Education	53	7.99	6.08		10-13
8. CITE	40	8.54	5.44		
9. Music Education	52	12.79	4.57		
10 PCG	55	10.93	5.29		
11 Science Education	40	8.86	4.97		
12 Social Sciences Education	79	8.88	5.07		
13 Math Education	81	7.92	5.16		

Importance attributed to the DKT Knowledge

1 Primary School Education	150	6.42	3.43	16.82*	1-2; 1-3
2 English Language Teaching	84	10.93	2.84		1-4; 1-5
3 German Language Teaching	20	12.12	2.19		1-9;1-10
4 French Language Teaching	20	12.19	2.58		2-6; 2-7
5 Art Education	74	11.43	2.88		2-8;2-11
6 Turkish Language Teaching	100	6.64	2.45		2-12;3-6
7 Early Childhood Education	53	6.38	1.98		3-7; 3-8
8. CITE	40	6.07	2.00		3-10;3-11
9. Music Education	52	10.19	2.58		3-12;3-13
10 PCG	55	9.26	2.33		4-6; 4-7
11 Science Education	40	6.54	2.13		4-8;4-11
12 Social Sciences Education	79	6.77	1.89		4-13;8-9
13 Math Education	81	6.92	2.47		9-119-12; 9-13

* p< .05

According to Table 2, the resistant behaviors of prospective teachers towards TCC in terms of their departments show meaningful differences in all sub dimensions of the scale. When Table 2 is analyzed, the prominent findings can be summarized as below.

In the sub dimension of opinions about the instructor, the opinions of Art, Music Education and English Language Teaching departments' students are more negative than the students of other departments, followed by German Language Teaching and PCG students. The opinions of Turkish Language Teaching and Early Childhood Education students about the TCC instructors are more positive. In the sub dimension of opinions about the teaching profession, it is seen that the students of Art Education, German Language Teaching, and Music Education and French Language Teaching departments have more negative opinions. The opinions of Early Childhood Education, Turkish Language Teaching, Primary School and Social Studies Education students about the profession are more positive than the other students.

In the sub dimension of opinions about the TCC, the ones who have the most negative opinions about the TCC are the German Language Teaching and Art Education students. These students are followed by the Music Education and English Language Teaching students. The opinions of Science, CEIT, Turkish Language Teaching and Primary School Education students are more positive than the others. The students of Music, Art Education and English Language Teaching departments show active resistant behaviors more frequently. On the contrary, the students of Primary School Education and Turkish Language Teaching departments show active resistant behaviors less frequently.

Similar results were obtained when the passive resistant behaviors towards TCC were analyzed. According to this, the students of Music Education, English Language Teaching and Art Education departments show more passive resistant behaviors, followed by German Language Teaching and PCG

students. The students who show passive resistant behaviors least frequently are the Primary School Education and Early Childhood Education departments' students. With regard to the importance given to the TCC, the ones who have the most negative opinions are French, German Language Teaching and Art Education students. These students are followed by English Language Teaching, Music and PCG students. The average grades of the students of other departments are very close to each other and these grades show TCC are given importance.

By doing interviews with 42 prospective teachers, the research aimed to identify the reasons of resistant behaviors towards TCC, and the findings are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Opinions on TCC and the Reasons of Opinions

What are your opinions on TCC? What are the reasons of your positive-negative opinions?	
	f
Positive Opinion	
Interest	6
Believing in the requirement	5
Willingness to become a teacher	2
Believing in the benefit for SEPS	2
Total	15
Negative Opinion	
Eager to do some other job other than teaching	8
Thinking that the instructor is under qualified	6
Thinking that the courses are not practice oriented	5
Thinking that DKT courses are unnecessary	5
Not attaching importance as much as the courses of the field	3
Total	27

As seen in Table 3, while 15 of prospective teachers who were interviewed declared positive opinions about TCC, 27 of them declared negative opinions. PESF1 and FATM3 have positive opinions about TCC and declared that they are interested in TCC. PESF1 said that *"... I think these courses are very interesting. I mean, we are learning how we learn or how we can teach. I'm really interested in..."* and FATM3 said that *"... In these courses, we are learning about human nature actually. For my view, these are interesting subjects...I think ignoring these courses is impossible for a person who is going to be a teacher but I don't know what does someone else think....".* YE4 and GSK8 declared they believe that TCC are essential. FLTM4 said that *"...these courses should be learnt in order to be a good teacher..."* and FATF8 said that *"...as it is inherent in its name, the TCC are the ones that teach teaching. If we are going to be teachers, we should take these courses and learn them well".* PESM6 and FLTF3 declared that they have positive opinions about DKT courses because they are eager to be teachers in the future. PESM6 said that *"I always want to be a teacher, therefore I have positive opinions about these courses for sure..."* and FLTF3 said that *"...In my childhood, when I was asked what I was going to be in the future, I always replied I'm going to be a teacher. So how can I have negative opinions about these courses?...".* FLTM6 and FATF5 declared that TCC are very crucial for *Selection Examination for Public Staff (SEPS).* FLTM6 said that *"a very important exam is waiting for us: SEPS. In this exam, there are*

120 questions from the TCC. We are not asked any questions about our areas. So I think it is a very big chance for us to take these courses…” and FATF5 said *“I think TCC are very important for SEPS...”.* PESM7 and FLTF1 who have negative opinions about TCC declared that they will not work as a teacher in the future. PESM7 said that *“... I'm doing sport and I will do this professionally. Actually I'm here just to make my family happy... I don't aim to work as a teacher…”* and FLTF1 said *“...I think there are plenty of job opportunities related to our area. I can work as a translator, can be a tourist guide. I think it is boring to teach a language in a classroom for years. I mean, I'm not going to be teacher but it will be only written on my diploma…”.* FATM4 and PESF3 declared that the instructors were insufficient when they were graduated. FATM4 said that *“I think our TCC instructors need to be more educated... I think their knowledge is very out of date, belonging to ancient times…”* and PESF3 said that *“If our TCC instructors made the courses more enjoyable, I would think differently. However, we are being lectured in a very boring way unfortunately…”.* FLTM5 and FATF4 declared that they think the teaching certificate courses are not necessary. FLTM5 said that *“..I think most of these courses are not necessary...”* and FATF4 said *“What we have learnt in those courses are not so useful actually, these are only unnecessary knowledge loading…”.* FLTM7 said *“... We learn only the theory in these courses… Actually I don't learn what I'm going to do when I enter a classroom or which method I can practice…”* FATM6 said *“... our instructors advise us to make our students active in the classroom but actually they are not doing the same, or we are not educated about how we can make our students active in a classroom practically. We comprehend when we go to the schools that we are just having theory, not practice…”.* FATM1 and PESF4 declared that TCC are not as important as the area courses. FATM1 said *“..for me these courses have secondary importance. Our priority is the courses related to our areas…”* and PESF4 said *“..I think full knowledge about the area courses is more important for us. I don't believe that TCC are as important as our area courses…”.*

DISCUSSION

In this research it is identified that the prospective teachers exhibit active and passive resistant behaviors towards teaching certificate courses and they have certain negative opinions about the profession. When the resistant behaviors of prospective teachers are examined in terms of gender, the result is generally in favor of the female students. It is striking that the level of active resistant behaviors of male students is high in all sub dimensions of the scale. It is identified that there are meaningful differences between male and female prospective teachers especially in terms of opinions about instructor and profession and the frequency of exhibiting active resistant behavior in the classroom. This finding is parallel with Yüksel's (2004 a; 2004 b) findings. Besides this, it has been also concluded in many of the studies examining the attitudes towards profession that female prospective teachers have more positive attitudes towards the profession (Çapa & Çil, 1998; Oral, 2004; Özbek, Kahyaoğlu & Özgen, 2007; Özgür, 1994). Erden (1995) associates this phenomenon with the perception that teaching as a profession is generally more suitable for women in Turkey. In this study, it may be said that the obtained results concur with the other studies when the relations between the attitudes and resistant behaviors are taken into consideration.

When the resistant behaviors are examined in terms of the departments, the obtained result is against the Art, Music, Physical Education and English Language Teaching departments. These students are followed by German Language Teaching, French Language Teaching and PCG students. It is also identified in Yüksel's (2004 a; 2004 b) studies that the students of primarily PCG and then the Fine Arts and Physical Education departments, and Foreign Languages Teaching departments to certain extent, have more negative opinions. The reason for this situation is that the students of the above mentioned departments have the opportunity to work in other jobs besides teaching. Therefore, the results that are support this idea were obtained in the interviews, which were done within the context of the qualitative part of the research. Additionally, the prospective teachers frequently declared that they would prefer to work in other jobs, not as a teacher.

In Turkey, regulations regarding teacher education have been implemented since 1997-1998 school year. During this process, it has been attempted to provide standardization in all departments of faculties of education regarding the teaching certificate courses. The regulations however remained limited either by adding certain courses to the program, removing some of them from the program or making changes in credits. It is not possible to say that extensive work has been undertaken to aid the implementation of the courses, discover the problems faced during implementation or to resolve these problems. The effects of affective characteristics in learning have been manifested in many studies. Within this context, it is also essential to carry out studies that contribute to the development of affective characteristics of the prospective teachers. The suggestions that are developed in light of these ideas and research findings are listed below:

- Prospective teachers should be adequately informed about the importance of teaching certificate courses.
- Instructors should be informed about resistant behaviors.
- The conditions of positive communication should be established and maintained during the learning and teaching processes.
- Implementation activities should be performed and the students should be motivated to be active during learning and teaching processes.
- By providing more opportunity to practice their profession, the prospective teachers must be motivated to understand their profession and to recognize the importance of teaching certificate courses.
- More extensive and detailed analyses should be carried out in departments with high resistant behavior rates such as Art, Music, Physical Education and Sports, Foreign Languages Teaching.
- Similar works should be done with different samples.

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INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND STUDENT MOBILITY IN EUROPE AND THE CASE OF TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigated the changes and transformation that higher education systems in Europe have undergone in the last couple of decades in terms of internationalization and academic mobility. Various reports on higher education which were published by international organizations such as the European Union, European Commission, OECD countries and UNESCO constituted the data of this literature study. The ultimate goal of the study was to analyze the international aspect of higher education and international student mobility in one specific country, namely Turkey. A thorough investigation of the literature initially revealed that the academic world is at a stage where new challenges and opportunities take place. Because globalization combines economic and cultural change, it has created a demand for fully-equipped graduates who will become the skilled workforce in very competitive professional and academic areas. In order to meet the need for global-ready graduates, mobility programmes such as Erasmus have become one of the most substantial variables of higher education in Europe, and if national governments aim to ensure themselves an important place in the swiftly changing and developing world, it is highly necessary that they follow the developments in higher education, especially regarding internationalization and student mobility.

Keywords: Higher education, internationalization, globalization, Europe, student and academic staff mobility, Bologna Process, Erasmus mobility programme, Turkey.

INTRODUCTION

Since the beginning of the 21st century, higher education institutions in Europe have been restructured in order to establish a comparable, transparent, common and/or similar higher education area called the European Higher Education Area, EHEA (European Commission Education and Youth, 2011). In the EHEA, cooperation among universities and other higher education systems became the determinant factor of quality and development (Parey & Waldinger, 2008; King, Findlay & Ahrens, 2010; De Wit, 2010; Wiers-Jenssens, 2008; Potas, Turhan and Kisa, 2011, et al). In the 90s, it was the common view among education ministers in several European countries that segmentation of the higher education sector in Europe was outdated, useless and harmful and caused inequalities (EHEA official website: http://ehea.info, 2010; Carpentier & Unterhalter, 2011), because globalization in the economic world required graduates who were able to compete with other graduates in the international economic and educational areas.

Interconnectedness in higher education did not facilitate effective results with regard to academic development, research networking, staff mobility and competitive aspects of educational and professional life. As a result, it became evident that a developing, self and easily growing academic revolution, which would have extensive and swift impact, was necessary. De Wit (2010; 8) stated that among this academic revolution or more appropriately evolution, internationalization has become an indicator for quality in higher education. According to him, the terms used for internationalization could be divided into two

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main categories: curriculum related definitions such as international studies, global studies, intercultural education, and mobility related definitions such as study abroad, global education and offshore education. Frolich & Vega (2005) argued that internationalization of higher education is a complex, multidimensional and often fragmented process (cited in De Wit, 2010). Explaining in a wider sense, Teichler (2009: 1) defined internationalization as increasing cross-border activities amidst persistence of borders while globalization refers to similar activities concurrent to an erosion of borders.

Many, if not all, definitions of internationalization include the term globalization because there is close connection between the two: they overlap and are intertwined in many ways. According to Altbach & Knight (2007), globalization is the context of economic and academic trends that are part of the reality of the 21st century while internationalization includes the policies and practices undertaken by academic systems, institutions and individuals in order to cope with the global academic environment. The causal relationship between globalization and internationalization has been emphasized most explicitly by Knight (2008). She explained that internationalization is changing the world of higher education and globalization is changing the world of internationalization.

Despite the recent significance of the international aspect of higher education, internationalization of higher education systems in Europe has a long history. As Teichler (2009) argues, universities have long been considered one of society's most international institutions. According to him the knowledge stored, generated and transmitted is often universal -not systematically bound by borders- and it has long been seen as desirable to gather systematic information from all over the world and to generate innovation on a world scale. Most academics hold cosmopolitan values in high esteem; however, higher education in the past had a strong emphasis on national structure or organization while universal or international aspects were only some other undeniable substances.

Regarding the historical development of internationalization in higher education, Teichler (2009: 9) claimed that higher education has moved from a "predominantly 'vertical' pattern of cooperation and mobility towards a major role of 'horizontal' international relationships". This argument points at a transformation from scattered specific international activities and also from a focus on national level developments to internationalization on equal terms, towards cooperation and mobility rather than competition and towards a systematic and strategic internationalization.

The concept of internationalization gained vigorous repute and esteem in the 21st century because in the last decades more educational statistics have been systematically collected. Moreover, student mobility, which is maybe the most frequently employed indicator for internationalization, became more widespread than ever. The commencement of the Bologna Process in 1999 was an important catalyst regarding internationalization of higher education in Europe. The contributions of this process to internationalization and to student mobility throughout the world are tremendous.

The Bologna Process: A New Era for Internationalization of Higher Education

The commencement of the Bologna Process is a revolutionary accomplishment to promote cooperation among higher education institutions and to internationalize higher education in Europe. It was launched in 1999 in the city of Bologna with the Bologna Declaration, which was signed by ministers responsible for higher education in 29 European countries. The Bologna Declaration called for creation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) by 2010. The European Higher Education Area was envisaged as a competitive higher education zone- encouraging the mobility of student and academic staff-, in which students are able to choose from a wide range of courses and benefit from smooth recognition procedures. "It is an attempt by European ministers with responsibility for higher education to bring some order into the large variety of structures, systems and degrees which exist, to make European higher education more compatible and comparable as well as more competitive and more attractive for Europeans and for

citizens and scholars from other continents" (Europa, 2009). As it had been premeditated in 1999 in the Bologna Declaration, the European Higher Education Area was launched in 2010 at the Budapest-Vienna Meeting. Next EHEA ministerial conference will take place in Yerevan, Armenia in 2015, where the progress and the priorities set at the Budapest-Vienna Declaration will be reviewed. As it is explained in the official EHEA website, next decade is aimed at consolidating the current EHEA (Bologna Process, 2010).

From the beginning, there have been three priorities of the Bologna Process: "Introduction of the three cycle system (bachelor/master/doctorate), quality assurance and recognition of qualifications and periods of study" (Bologna Process, 2010). Despite the extensive changes and developments that have taken place in higher education in Europe since the onset of the Bologna Process, it is not yet completely possible to measure the impact of Bologna properly. Longer period is necessary in order to see the overall and long-term influence of this Process on higher education in Europe. Nevertheless, since its inception up to the present, the Process has been highly regarded. It has expanded to 47 countries with three million students. In addition to all European Union countries, other countries such as Turkey and Russia also joined the Process. The significance that has been given to the Process shows that the debates regarding the possible benefits and harms of the envisaged reforms, moved from *if* towards *how* within a few years (Reichert/Tauch, 2005 & Witte, 2006 cited in Teichler, 2009).

The Bologna Declaration, which commenced the Bologna Process, was not an instant act. It is the joint declaration of the Sorbonne which was signed one year before the Bologna by four higher education ministers (France, Germany, the UK, Italy) at the Sorbonne University in Paris. It is explained on the website of European Commission Education and Training that the aim of the Bologna Declaration was to create a common frame of reference within the intended European Higher Education Area, where mobility should be promoted both for students and graduates, as well as for the teaching staff (http://ec.europa.eu). Teichler (2009) argues that the Bologna Process is shaped mainly by efforts to establish new, more convergent structures of study programmes and degrees across Europe and it also aims to contribute to internationalization of higher education. According to him, the Bologna Declaration triggered off the most significant reform movement in Europe since the activities in the 1970s following the student protest of the late 1960s. Teichler (2009: 3) also claimed that the Bologna Declaration called for a structural convergence of higher education systems in Europe, among other reasons, "as means of facilitating intra-European student mobility". Additionally, Bologna was meant to ensure the promotion of qualifications with regard to the job market.

Following the Bologna Declaration, there have been Ministerial Conferences every two years, where the ministers discuss the developments regarding the Process and search for new ways and applications for improvement. Since the Bologna, the ministers met five times: in Prague 2001 (Prague Communiqué), Berlin 2003 (Berlin Communiqué), Bergen 2005 (Bergen Communiqué), London 2007 (London Communiqué), Leuven 2009 (Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué), and the 10th year anniversary of the Bologna took place in 2010 in Budapest/Vienna. The next EHEA ministerial conference will take place in Yerevan, Armenia in 2015. In each meeting, new goals and regulations have been added to the Process.

Mobility in the European Higher Education Area

The student mobility has often been considered as one of the key elements of the international aspect of higher education. According to King, Findlay & Ahrens (2010), mobility implies a short time-frame of movement, and a high probability of return, as in a typical Erasmus-type scheme where the student must return to base to finish the programme of his/her study. They situate mobility in three different categories: an element of highly skilled migration, a product of globalization and an element of youth mobility cultures and the consumption geographies. Student mobility has been the most common form of cross-

border education, yet it has not been the only form. There are new forms of mobility such as programme and institution mobility. As it was not often very easy to meet the demand of students aiming for a period of study abroad, the programme and institution mobility have grown over the past decade and they are likely to meet the growing demand in the future (OECD, 2004:3).

The programme mobility involves cross-border distance education including e-learning, which is generally supplemented by face-to-face teaching in the local part institutions. The institution mobility, which is still limited in scale, has become an increasingly important feature of cross-border education too. As it is explained in the 2004 report of the OECD, the institution mobility corresponds to foreign direct investment by educational institutions or companies. "The typical form of institution mobility is the opening of foreign campuses by universities and of foreign learning centers by education providers. It may also involve the establishment of a distinctly new rather than affiliated educational institution or the takeover of all or part of a foreign educational institution" (OECD, 2004: 3).

Concerning the student mobility, which is still the most common form of cross-border education, there are three types of mobility that are defined by King, Findlay & Ahrens (2010). The first one is diploma or degree mobility; that is the mobility of students for an entire programme of study. Second one is credit mobility, which refers to mobility for part of the programme. The final type is voluntary mobility and it is undertaken for a variety of personal reasons such as improvement of foreign language proficiency, cultural exposure and/or improvement of professional skills in an international environment.

It has often been emphasized in various national and international reports on higher education that international student mobility (ISM) has been rising remarkably fast in the last decades, especially when compared to total international migration. For instance, international student mobility grew by 52% over the period of 1998-2004, compared to a growth of 13% for world migration (IOM, 2008: 105 cited in King, Findlay & Ahrens, 2010: 9). It is widely acknowledged that there are extremely significant national differences within the overall picture of ISM. According to Eurostat (2006) data, in 18 countries in the European Higher Education Area, less than 3% of students are enrolled abroad, and Russia, Ukraine and the UK report the lowest outbound mobility rates with less than 1% enrolment abroad. "At the other extreme, there are ten countries –Albania, Andorra, Cyprus, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, Ireland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta and Slovakia- where more than 10% of students are enrolled abroad" (Eurydice, EACA P9, 2009: 43).

Most of the international students prefer to study in the OECD countries. In 2004, the OECD countries received around 85% of the world's foreign students. Most of this student flow concentrated on just 6 countries: United States (30%), United Kingdom (14%), Germany (13%), France (9%), Australia (7%) and Japan (4%). On the other hand, Asia headed the list of regions sending students abroad for higher education and Europe was a close second followed by Africa, North America, South America and Oceania. (OECD, 2004). It is easily recognized by these percentages that the leading English speaking countries alone account for more than half of all foreign students in the OECD. This fact emphasizes the significance of language proficiency in international education and also the importance of English as lingua franca, especially in the academic world.

There are various educational, professional, cultural, political and individual reasons that are taken into consideration when students decide to study abroad. King, Findlay & Ahrens (2010: 2) argue that causative factors driving international student mobility exist at three levels. First one is the macro-scale of economic and cultural globalization and the internationalization of higher education systems. Second factor is the meso-scale of institutional initiatives and the final one is the individual-scale factors such as language competence, desire for adventure and employability.

Naturally, there are challenges that student mobility faces and difficulties and requirements that it brings along with. The increasing importance and popularity of ISM obliges countries (both national governments and educational institutions) to take certain measures in order to catch up with the rest of the world regarding the developments in international higher education area. For example, in England, inward mobility is one of the highest in Europe; however when compared to other European countries, outward student mobility in the UK is rather low. King, Findlay & Ahrens (2010: 19) believe that this could be a matter of concern given the increasing internationalization of skilled and professional labor markers: "the danger being that the UK will produce proportionally fewer multilingual, multicultural graduates than other competitor countries in Europe and elsewhere. This creates, in turn, two scenarios: one is that fewer UK graduates will gain key positions in European and oversees companies and institutions, and the other is that top positions in UK companies, professions and transnational corporations based in the UK will be taken by multilingual foreign nationals".

Another barrier that is related to ISM is the economic costs. In the decision to study abroad, availability of scholarship is one of the main determinant factors. Unfortunately, in many countries, including Turkey, financial support is not sufficient enough to meet the demand of students and academic staff. Despite the fact that the Bologna has given considerable attention to the importance of portable financial support to students in order to encourage mobility, the scarcity of financial support still leads to low levels of mobility.

Socio-economic conditions of the country, cultural and linguistic obstacles, concerns about the fair recognition of qualifications obtained abroad, cooperation with renowned universities, the difficulty of obtaining travel and residence documents such as visa are some other challenges that ISM faces. For non-EU members, such as Turkey, the burden of visa applications procedure and the experiences of students while awaiting their visa are quite often frustrating and disincentive (Ozler, 2012).

METHOD

This study is designed as a review paper which takes stock of the field on higher education. The aim of the research was first to investigate the recent changes and developments in higher education systems in Europe and secondly to analyze the international aspect of higher education and international student mobility in EU candidate Turkey. Various instruments such as international and national reports on higher education which were prepared by organizations responsible for education and training both in Europe and in Turkey (i.e. European Commission Education and Training, Turkish National Agency, Turkish Ministry of Education) constituted the data of this study. Furthermore, the investigations of other researchers such as Teichler (2009), Wiers-Jenssens (2008), De Wit (2010, 2011) et al., various press releases, web-sites and handbooks on internationalization and student mobility were also used. Main instruments that were employed in order to find out the developments in Turkish higher education system were the national reports that were prepared by Turkish National Agency (TURNA), the organization which is responsible for the implementation of mobility programmes such as Erasmus, Youth, Gruntwig etc. in Turkey. Even though TURNA published many national reports regarding higher education and mobility in Turkey, only the most recent reports were employed in this study since the goal of this research was to identify the most updated and recent novelties, developments and challenges in Turkish higher education system. Some of these resources are available on the internet while some others can be ordered via online libraries or journals. Collected materials were analyzed descriptively by focusing on 2 specific variables: mobility and internationalization. The goal of this analysis was not only to identify the general trends and changes in higher education in the last decades but also to find out the requirements and challenges that could be associated with internationalization and mobility.

RESULTS

Considering the general developments in higher education in Europe in recent years, it was found out in this study that the international aspect has become an indispensable component of higher education systems not only in Europe but also in the other parts of the world. Despite the fact that internationalization has a long history, it has gained a remarkable significance only in the last couple of decades. Cultural, economic and social globalizations are some of the most important drives of the popularity of internationalization today. That is to say that the recent importance of internationalization is the result of actual needs and changes in the global areas.

When compared to the education systems of the past, higher education today concentrates on cooperation more than competition. Moreover, internationalization has become an indicator of quality in education institutions, and one of the most common ways of promoting internationalization in a country is to support student and academic staff mobility. Even though international organizations such as the European Union, European Commission, UNESCO etc. and also national governments and higher education institutions stress the importance and benefits of mobility, it has often not been easy to meet the demand of academic staff and students, especially because of financial barriers.

Concerning the changes and developments in Turkish higher education system, five marked findings with respect to internationalization and mobility were noted. First, it was found that Turkey has taken part in noteworthy international educational agreements such as the Bologna Process later than many European countries. Despite this fact, it has made great progress in a short time and now internationalization takes a great place in the agenda of Turkish National Agency (TURNA), Turkish Ministry of Education (MEB) and Turkish Higher Education Institution (YOK). In order to catch up with other developed countries in Europe and the rest of the world, to meet the requirements of the Bologna and to ensure themselves an important place in the rapidly changing academic and economic world, Turkish higher education institutions work ardently (Turkish National Report, 2011; Gulcan, 2010; Europa, 2011b). The objectives that have been defined for higher education and student mobility for the following years reveal this ambition of Turkish academic establishments. To illustrate, Turkish state minister and chief negotiator for the EU, Egemen Bagis, explained in April 2012 that 55 thousand people would be sent to Europe for educational purposes with no charge (ab.ilan.com, Press Releases, 2012). Moreover, Bagis explained in October 2012 in a press release that the budget for the mobility in Turkey was secure even though the financial resources for mobility programmes such as Erasmus were becoming rather limited in Europe. In addition to the funds that are granted by the EU, a noteworthy amount of the financial support for mobility is provided by national organizations in Turkey (hurriyet.com, October, 2012).

Up to 40% of the 55 thousand people mentioned by Bagis will be sent to Europe with national funds. This clearly indicates that there is significant financial support by Turkish establishments for the student mobility. Bagis (ab.ilan.com, 2012) claims that the vision of this 55 thousand people will broaden as a result of their education and training abroad and after their return to Turkey, they are expected to perform better in their workplaces. This argument indicates that Turkish education institutions and Turkish Ministry of Education are aware of the individual, social, academic and professional benefits of internationalization of higher education and student mobility for the future of the country. This is one of the main reasons (besides political rationales) why Turkish institutions support mobility and internationalization rather extensively.

Secondly, mobility trends in Turkey are different when compared to many other countries in Europe and also outside Europe. Cross-border higher education has developed differently across the OECD countries and regions. The 2004 year report of OECD explains that student mobility has been policy-driven in Europe and demand-driven in the Asia-Pacific region, while North America has mostly been a magnet for foreign students (OECD, 2004: 1). In Turkey, however, the developments in higher education were both

policy and demand-driven. The process of change and improvement of higher education started a long time ago. When Turkey applied full membership for the European Union in 1987, it was stressed that for membership, certain aspects of economic, social and academic environments in the country were to be improved. The educational policies of the EU were to be adapted to the Turkish system. The primary objectives of the education policy of the EU have been to encourage mutual understanding among the citizens of member countries, to support European citizenship, to train students and teachers in this process and to ensure participation of all member countries into this process of change and development (Saglam, Ozudogru, Ciray, 2011; Gedikoglu, 2005; Saglam, 2009). Due to the fact that Turkey aims to become a full member of the European Union, it has become crucial that the quality in education is improved in order to harmonize the Turkish education system with that of the EU.

Third, the outward student mobility has been the most common form of international education in Turkey. The demand for international education has always been rather high in the country because higher education students found study abroad quite beneficial for their future career and employment opportunities. To illustrate, in 2001, 44.204 Turkish students went abroad to study, and Turkey was among the top student sending countries in the OECD area. Education database of OECD lists top sending countries in 2001 as the following: China (124.000), Korea (70.523), India (61.179), Greece (55.074), Japan (55.041), Germany (54.489), France (47.587), Turkey (44.204), Morocco (43.063), Italy (41.485), Malaysia (32.709), United States (30.103), Canada (29.376), Indonesia (26.615), Spain (26.196), United Kingdom (25.198) (OECD, 2004). Furthermore, on having a look at the most updated statistics regarding the Erasmus programme (the most popular and successful mobility programme established up to now), we will find that the number of mobile Turkish students have increased remarkably, when also compared to that of the mobile students in many European countries. Between 2007-2008, the start of the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP), and the 2010-2011 academic years, the outbound student mobility rates in 8 countries grew by more than 40%, among which is Turkey. Turkish academic staff also found international training beneficial for their career improvement. Between 2009-2010 and 2010-2011, outbound staff mobility in 12 countries grew by more than 20 % and Turkey was one of these countries too. (European Commission, 2012).

Despite the fact that many Turkish higher education students and academic staff have moved abroad for educational purposes, the popularity of Turkey as a destination for foreign students has not been remarkable. In 2010-2011, 10095 Turkish students went abroad within the framework of Erasmus programme while only 4288 foreign students continued their higher education studies in Turkey with the identical programme (European Commission, 2012, Erasmus 1987-2012, Turkey Statistics). The leading countries which receive the most international students have been the English speaking USA and the UK. Here, it should be remembered that there is a change in geography of international mobility flows, and the key feature for this change is the rapid rise of the developing world, especially China and India and also other more developed Asian countries such as Japan and South Korea. The US and the UK, which have been the main destinations for international students for long, have seen a decline in their international student numbers.

Fourth, in Turkey, which is a fast developing country, the professional value of mobility is rather high. It has often been pointed out in the literature that international student mobility (ISM) is experienced differently in developing versus developed countries and the greater part of student flow is from developing to developed countries (Wiers-Jenssens, 2008; Aktan & Sari, 2010). In regard to employment and prestige, the value and advantages of ISM are higher in developing countries (Varghese, 2008: 24 in King, Findlay & Ahrens, 2010: 34). Bracht, Engel, Janson, Over, Schomburg and Teichler (2006) state that knowledge about the Socrates/Erasmus programme seems to be more widespread among the employers from Central and Eastern Europe than among employers from Western Europe, and the employers from the Central and Eastern Europe value international student mobility more favorable than the employers from Western Europe. The fact that mobility programmes are known better and that they

are assessed more favorably by employers in Eastern Europe explains the reasons why student flow is from developing to developed countries. If students have international experience, it is probably easier for them to find jobs upon their return to their home country. The possibility of finding better jobs (with more international responsibilities) has often been stated to be one of the main motives for students who move abroad for educational purposes.

Nevertheless, Bashir (2007: 4) argues that the possible negative impacts of mobility trades on underfunded and inefficient domestic higher education systems operating within weak regulatory systems and the possibility of losing sovereignty over a sector that is vital to national development are some major concerns of developing countries regarding student mobility. Turkey, being a fast developing country, faces different challenges, and the expectations regarding internationalization and student mobility, and educational mobility experiences of Turkish students are somewhat distinct when compared to other European mobile students (i.e. extra administrative work such as visa applications, lack of awareness about the European culture which is the consequence of not being able to move to other countries because of the visa problems etc.).

Finally, in Turkey, as in the case of many other European countries, the process of change and development in higher education gained speed after the Bologna Process (Serbest, 2005; Saglam, Ozudogru, Ciray, 2011). More specifically, internationalization and student mobility in higher education gained remarkable popularity and interest after the Erasmus programme (Bakioglu & Certel, 2010). Turkey became part of the Bologna Process in 2001 at the Prague Communique. Since welcoming the Bologna, Turkey has taken various important steps in order to improve its education system and to support student and academic staff mobility (CoHE, 2008). For example, the ratio of enrolment to tertiary education increased from 22% in 1999 to 38% in 2008 (UNESCO, Education Data, 2011). The reforms and developments that have taken place in Turkish higher education system are explained broadly in 2008 and 2011 year National Reports of Turkey. According to these reports, initially there have been developments regarding institutional structure of higher education in Turkey. The number of universities increased to 177 (108 public and 69 non-profit higher education institutions) (National Bologna Report Turkey, 2012). In the second phase, there have been developments in regard with Quality Assurance: starting from January 2007, each university in Turkey prepares its annual strategic plans according to the Law on Public Financial Management and Control-No. 5018. Thirdly, there have been improvements concerning National Qualifications Framework (NQF) for higher education. A Commission and a Working Group have been formed to carry out the work on establishment of NQF for higher education and determined a clear timetable for each step to be taken (CoHE, 2008).

The Turkish national agency (TURNA), which is one of the main organizations that is responsible for the smooth performance and implementation of Bologna reforms in the country, was established in 2002. One year after the establishment of TURNA, European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) was launched in 15 higher education institutions and their 45 faculties as pilot projects in 2003. 65 higher education institutions were given Erasmus University Charter (EUC) by the European Commission in 2005. The council of higher education (YOK), the Turkish University Rectors' Committee (TURC) and the Interuniversity Council are involved in the process as stakeholders.

The European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Student (Erasmus Student Mobility Programme), which has become the most widely known and popular student and academic staff mobility tool, was launched in 2003 in Turkey (first with Erasmus Pilot applications). Contributions of this programme to the mobility and internationalization of higher education have often been stressed. To give an example, Teichler (2009) evaluated this programme as the engine of various education programmes that are supported by the EU. According to Fontaine (2006), Erasmus is a milestone which helps its participants to be well-equipped, which broadens their horizons and which offers new experiences (cited in Bakioglu & Certel, 2010: 41). In 2003, 15 Turkish universities were selected for

Erasmus Pilot Project, and 10 of these universities sent students to some European universities within this application. In 2004, the process for full-participation to the Erasmus programme began. In 2004, 1.142 Turkish students were sent abroad and 299 foreign students were hosted. These numbers rose to 10095 outgoing Turkish students and 4288 hosted foreign students in 2010-11 (European Commission, 2012). The remarkable difference between outgoing and incoming student numbers again illustrates the fact that Turkey has not been a popular destination for foreign students while Turkish students have often been quite eager to move abroad for educational purposes. The statistics above also demonstrate that the Erasmus has become a real success since its commence in Turkey (TURNA, 2012; CoHE, 2010).

Turkey has taken steps in order to improve its information network in the EHEA outside of Europe too. It is a partner country of the Euro-Mediterranean University (EMUNI), which aims to pave the way towards a more effective cooperation among higher education and research institutions in 12 Euro-Mediterranean countries. It is also a member of Black Sea Economic Cooperation; therefore, it shares experiences with the countries in this region, too. Finally, there are some other applications in which European higher education is promoted in Turkey (i.e. Jean Monnet and Chevening Programmes, Cultural Conventions, Erasmus Mundus External Cooperation Programme, European Master Programme in Conference Interpreting) (CoHE, 2008: 47).

Concerning the relationship between higher education and research, Turkey scored rather high in world ranking. According to 2007 statistics, it is on the 19th row in world ranking according to publications in scientific journals. The number of scientific publications in Turkey increased to 21273 in 2007, while only 15347 scientific publications were made in 2005 (Thomson's ISI Web of Science cited in CoHE, 2008).

Despite all the significant changes and developments in Turkish higher education system that are mentioned above, it has also quite often been stressed that a lot remains to be done concerning the reforms of Bologna (ESU, 2011). Some of the main challenges ahead include insufficient financial support to meet the growing demand for mobility. Despite the grants that are provided by the EU within the Framework of Lifelong Learning and Youth Programmes and complementary national funds; the grants available are not sufficient to support all students and staff mobility, "the demand is three times higher than the total grant available" (CoHE, 2008: 43). Furthermore, the administrative burdens concerning the visa applications, insufficient support for social dimension of student and academic staff mobility, student centered learning and the recognition of prior learning were considered as some other key issues that need more attention in the future steps for the implementation of the Bologna Process. Quality of vocational higher schools is also to be improved because the qualifications of the graduates from these schools have not been at the expected level for the labor market needs (CoHE, 2008).

CONCLUSION

This paper has attempted to provide evidence that the international dimension of higher education in Europe has been steadily growing in importance, scope and complexity. The internationalization of higher education originated and gained speed because of actual needs that were the results of globalization. The consequences of the internationalization of higher education in Europe have led to a remarkable focus on student and academic staff mobility, having the aims of cooperation among different universities from various foreign countries, and also for the purposes of competition and education of internationally experienced students with various skills. Even though there is still little collected information on mobility in the EHEA, it is widely accepted that studying abroad helps students to acquire new competences and can contribute to their success in the labor market. Student mobility is also thought to contribute to the intercultural dialogue and informed citizenship. Therefore it became a central objective of both Bologna Process and the EU.

Regarding the changes and developments in the Turkish higher education system, it was found that Turkey has started to take part in international educational agreements such as the Bologna and Erasmus later than other European countries, but it has made great progress, and the internationalization and mobility have become very important components of higher education in Turkey. It was also found that the developments in higher education were both policy and demand driven. When Turkey applied for full membership to European Union in 1987, it was stressed that the educational policies of the EU were to be adapted to the Turkish system. Next, the outward student mobility has been found to be the most common form of international education in the country. Even though many Turkish tertiary students have moved abroad for educational purposes, Turkey has not been a popular destination for international students yet. Fourth, as a fast developing country, the professional value of mobility in Turkey is very high. This paper also attempted to show that the international student mobility was experienced differently in developing versus developed countries, and the greater part of student flow was from developing to developed countries. Finally, in Turkey, the process of change and development in higher education gained speed after 2001. Under the influence of the Bologna Process, structural changes have been introduced and implemented in higher education. The enrollment rates in tertiary education have increased and there have also been developments concerning Quality Assurance and National Qualifications framework. Despite all these significant changes, there are still some important obstacles such as financial and administrative problems (i.e. insufficient grants, complex procedures for visa applications and social aspects of mobility such as lack of intercultural awareness) that need to be addressed.

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SOME REFLECTIONS ON CULTURAL ADAPTATION OF TURKISH ERASMUS STUDENTS OF ELT DEPARTMENT

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to investigate the experience of Turkish ELT students of Erasmus programme with specific reference to how they manage to adapt to a new culture. Data were collected by Socio-cultural Adaptation Scale, reports of former Erasmus students, and interviews. Consistent with the "culture shock" literature, findings reveal that students experienced problems at affective, behavioural, and cognitive levels and that they developed various strategies to handle these problems. In addition to such inhibiting factors of the adaptation to the new culture as language or communication competence, amount and quality of contact with host nationals, and cultural distance, most students reported on bias towards the home country as the greatest obstacle to the adaptation process.

Keywords: Cultural adaptation; Erasmus programme; student mobility; ELT student-teachers.

INTRODUCTION

Erasmus programme allows for the EU level student mobility which has been supported already for 20 years starting in 1987 (Rivza, 2007). The programme is beneficial in providing higher education students to acquire new knowledge and experience in an international environment. At the same time, however, it poses the challenge of how to adapt to a different culture, which may be defined as 'culture shock' as first coined by Oberg (1960; in Irwin 2007). He describes the phenomenon as 'precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse' (1960, p. 177). In other words, as Oberg puts forth, if one defines and negotiates reality through the symbolic representations of life, then one must question this reality when faced with alternative representations. When the symbols used to describe and conceptualise the world are alien, this can lead to feelings of isolation or even a loss of identity. On the other hand, in spite of its negative connotation, culture shock is not an acute illness. The meaning attached to the word 'shock' refers to the rapidity of the physical movement, but the emotions and feedback emotions may occur over a relatively long period of time. The severity of the symptoms of culture shock is discussed to be related with various factors such as communicative competence (Brown, 1980; Acton & Felix, 1986), prejudice toward host culture as well as acute criticism from host culture (Barna, 1976), intangibility of differences in cultural values, expectations and roles (Dale, 1996), and the changes our bodies go through in order to deal with the bombardment of the new stimuli (Toffler, 1970), among others. The extent to which a person can cope with the effects of culture shock can be said to be dependent on one's emotional resilience, flexibility or openness, perceptual acuity and personal autonomy (Kelley & Meyers, 1995; in Karaeminogulları, Dogan, & Bozkurt 2009). Emotional resilience is the ability to maintain the positive attitude toward the host country in spite of the difficulties one may encounter. In other words, it is the ability to develop appropriate coping strategies when needed. Flexibility or openness, as the name suggests, refers to the tolerance one shows to all aspects of the new environment with a wish to learn more about the host culture. Perceptual acuity has to do with the skills acquired to recognise and interpret the cultural symbols and the degree to which a person feels effective and relaxed in the new environment. Finally, when one has personal autonomy, it is said that s/he can

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function in the new community in their personal being, maintaining their personality and appreciating the cultural differences.

The early conceptualization of the experience of international students was strongly related to medical models of sojourner adjustment (Ward, Bochner, & Furnham 2001, p. 36). However, by the 1980s, the experience of international students had been viewed differently "as a learning experience rather than a medical nuisance" (Yuefang, Jindal-Snape Topping, & Todman 2008, p. 64). A more contemporary perspective to such experience has been encompassed in three theories, considering the different components of response- affect, behaviour and cognition (ABC)- when people are exposed to a new culture (Bochner, 2003; Yuefang et al., 2008). These theories are culture learning (Furnham and Bochner, 1986), stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), and social identification (Phinney, 1990). In the light of this discussion, the research reported in this study benefited from the recent theories of cultural adaptation in examining the international experience of Erasmus students. The study aims to investigate the experience of Turkish ELT students of Erasmus programme with specific reference to how they manage to culturally adapt both at a macro and a micro level. At a macro level, the study looks into how the students function as individuals new to the foreign community and at a micro level, how they immerse themselves within the ELT community. The following research questions guided the study:

(1)   What potential problems do the Turkish ELT students of Erasmus programme encounter when adapting to a new culture at micro and macro levels?
(2)   What strategies do they develop to cope with these problems?
(3)   How do the Turkish ELT students of Erasmus programme perceive themselves when adapting to a new culture at micro and macro levels?

METHOD

For triangulation purposes, data for the study were obtained from the Socio-cultural Adaptation Scale by Ward & Kennedy (1999), the reports of former Erasmus students, and interviews with those students. The scale includes 29 items that measure sojourner adaptation concerning social skills acquisition across cultures, intercultural effectiveness and cultural learning (Ward & Kennedy, 1999). In order to reflect student experiences from different parts of Europe to the study, out of 86 total students who have participated in the Erasmus mobility so far, 55 were selected by purposeful random sampling to respond to the Scale.

In addition, the reports of the same students were analysed to bring more insight into the participants' experiences. Those reports are the documents that the students are required to write upon the completion of the exchange period abroad. In these reports they share what they have lived from the beginning to the end taking into consideration any aspect they want to share about their stay.

Thirty-nine volunteered to participate in the interviews upon the completion of the scales. The interviews were semi-structured and followed an emergent design. The questions in the interviews sought answers to the kind of problems that the students encountered both at macro (as a foreigner in the host country) and micro level (as a foreign student in the ELT community), what strategies they developed to cope with those problems and finally how they perceived themselves both in the foreign country and in the school community. The students also were asked to state their overall views about the exchange period.
Data acquired from the scales were analysed by means of descriptive statistics in the SPSS programme. Both the reports and interviews were subjected to content analysis. The themes emerged during the analysis were labelled and relabelled on the basis of students' problems, strategies to cope with these problems and finally perceptions of self until a final agreement was reached between the two researchers.

FINDINGS

This section presents the findings acquired from the Socio-cultural Adaptation Scale, the interviews and Erasmus reports of the students. The findings are presented on the basis of the research questions, namely, the students' problems, coping strategies that they have developed and finally, their perception of self.

The following figure illustrates the findings acquired from the Socio-cultural Adaptation Scale administered to 55 ELT students participating in the mobility programme.
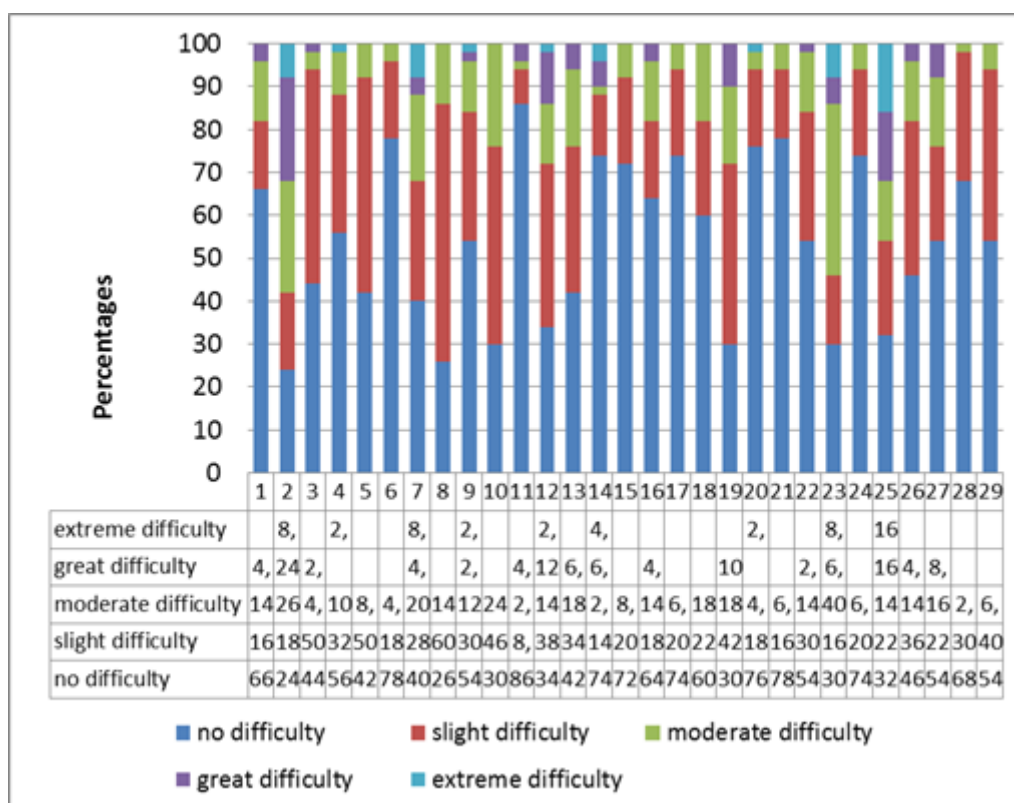
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
extreme difficulty		8,		2,			8,		2,			2,		4,						2,			8,		16				
great difficulty	4,	24	2,				4,		2,		4,	12	6,	6,		4,			10			2,	6,		16	4,	8,		
moderate difficulty	14	26	4,	10	8,	4,	20	14	12	24	2,	14	18	2,	8,	14	6,	18	18	4,	6,	14	40	6,	14	14	16	2,	6,
slight difficulty	16	18	50	32	50	18	28	60	30	46	8,	38	34	14	20	18	20	22	42	18	16	30	16	20	22	36	22	30	40
no difficulty	66	24	44	56	42	78	40	26	54	30	86	34	42	74	72	64	74	60	30	76	78	54	30	74	32	46	54	68	54

■ no difficulty   ■ slight difficulty   ■ moderate difficulty
■ great difficulty   ■ extreme difficulty

Figure 1. Students' level of difficulty in socio-cultural adaptation

When we look at the findings from the Socio-cultural Adaptation Scale, we see that to the majority of the items, most students responded they experienced no difficulty. However, there were a few items which revealed different results. These items were related with food (item 2), rules and regulations (item 3), host country's perspective (item 5) host national's point of view (item 10), climate in the host country (item 25) and host country's political system (item 23). For instance, the majority of the students stated that they experienced great to moderate difficulty in finding food that they enjoy. On the other hand, while half of the students claimed that they experienced slight difficulty in following the rules and the regulations, another half expressed that they also experienced slight difficulty in taking the host country's perspective on the culture. To the item which aimed to clarify the extent to which students experienced difficulty in seeing things from the host country's point of view, a vast majority responded as slight difficulty. Another area of difficulty in students' adaptation to the new culture concerns the climate. Depending on the country where they spend their exchange period, almost half of the participating students claimed that they experienced extreme (16%), great (16%) or moderate difficulty (14%) in

adapting themselves to the different climate of the new country. And finally, most of the students stated that they experienced moderate difficulty in understanding the host country's political system.

The quantitative data obtained from the Scale were triangulated by means of the qualitative data acquired from the interviews and document analysis. Thus, the following is the qualitative findings as to the cultural adaptation of students. The analysis was done bearing in mind the theories of cultural adaptation: culture learning (behavioural component); the problems that the students encountered in the course of adaptation, stress and coping (affective component); the strategies that they followed to handle those problems, and social identification (cognitive component); and their perceptions of themselves in the new culture (Bochner 2003; Yuefang 2008; Furnham and Bochner 1986; Lazarus and Folkman 1984; Phinney 1990).

The problems encountered both at macro and micro levels are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Problems encountered at macro and micro levels

MACRO	*f*	MICRO	*f*
Adaptation to a new culture	**45**	**Bias towards the students' home country**	**26**
Eating habits	13	Incorrect knowledge about the home culture	18
People in the host country too distant	11	Threat by the lecturers	4
Climate (very cold)	4	Isolation	4
Sanitary problems	4	**Guidance from the host country**	**20**
Values	3	Indifferent coordinator	12
Entertainment	2	No support for selecting courses	2
Table manners	2	No support for materials	1
Traffic rules	2	No support for health problems	1
Family life	2	No peer student	1
Sense of humour	2	Poor website	1
		Indifferent classmates	1
		Inadequate organisation	1
Accommodation	**22**	**Educational system**	**15**
Low standard	8	New education system	9
Too many Turks together	7	Dissatisfaction with the education in the host country	5
Insecure location	2	Distant student-teacher relationship	1
Distant location	1	**Language related problems**	**9**
Hard transportation	1	Low quality intensive language course in the host country	4
No social activities	1	Lack of proficiency in English	2
No internet connection	1	Use of host countries' language as the medium of instruction	2
No hostel at all	1	Humiliation due to weak English	1
Language related problems	**11**		
Lack of proficiency in the language of the host country	11		

As displayed in the table, the most frequently cited problem at macro level (45 times) concerns students' adaptation to a new culture. Eating habits (13) and people's being too distant (11) in the host country are found the most common problems in this category. There are other problems cited such as the climate (4),

sanitary problems (4), values (3), entertainment (2), table manners (2), traffic rules (2), family life (2) and sense of humor (2).

The second most frequently referred to problem is accommodation (22 times). While eight times the students complained about the low standard accommodation, seven times they viewed living with too many students from their home country around as a problem. Insecure location (2), distant location (1), transportation (1), lack of social activities (1), lack of internet connection (1), and lack of hostel (1) are the other problems stated. The final problem at the macro level is related with the lack of the language of the host country (11).

When we look at the problems at the micro level, the problems experienced in the academic community, bias toward the students' home country bears the priority with 26 citations. The students rationalize these problems as emerging from the incorrect knowledge about their home culture (18) which results in two other problems namely, threat by the lecturers (4) and isolation (4). The following remark from the interviews illustrates the situation clearly:

At the beginning, the attitudes of some friends towards us as Turks disappointed us. They had the incorrect belief that Turkey is a country where people only worship, fast, never take alcohol; all women are covered, and are stoned to death in case of sexual intercourse with the opposite sex other than their husbands.

One of the participants elaborated on how he handled the situation in his Erasmus report:

I had no intention to waste my limited time in the host country by exaggerating the problems. I was always patient and constructive in sorting the problems out. As an educated person, I tried my best to change the bias and prejudices towards the people of my country.

Another commonly cited problem is guidance from the host country (20 times). As the students have claimed they had indifferent coordinators (12), no support for selecting courses (2), no support for materials (1), no support for health problems (1), no peer students (1), a poor website (1), indifferent classmates (1), and inadequate organization (1). The students also had difficulties with the education system (15). Among these, new education system (9), dissatisfaction with the quality of education in the host country (5), and distant student teacher relationship (1) can be counted. Similar to what they experienced at the macro level, the students stated they had language related problems (9) in their academic environment as well. Beside low quality intensive language course in the host country (4), lack of proficiency in English (2), use of host country's language as the medium of instruction (2) and humiliation due to weak English (1) are stated as encountered problems.

In the study, the participating Erasmus students elaborated on the strategies they developed to cope with the problems they encountered at both macro and micro levels. In terms of macro level, as seen in Table 2 , the students experienced problems specifically deriving from the fact they did not know the language of the host country (9 times). In order to cope with this problem, the students utilized some strategies such as getting support from their peers (2), getting help from the students in their classes (1), making use of gestures and mimes to communicate (1), and benefiting from other foreign languages (1). Finally, one of the students chose a more challenging way to handle this problem and tried to learn the language of the host country.

Eating habits in the host country constituted the second most frequent complaint (5 times). One of the students tried to overcome this problem by eating at the restaurants that serve the food of their home country. Eating vegetables only was a solution to food problems for one of the participants. One of them learnt the food related vocabulary and checked the ingredients of the food.

The students also struggled with bias toward their home country as they claimed (4 times). One used isolation of self as a coping strategy, and another student had no contact outside the school. Patience was another coping strategy utilized by one of the students and one of the Erasmus students used a more radical strategy: trying to change the wrong image of his/her country.

Table 2. Coping strategies developed by students for problems at the macro level

Problem	f	Coping Strategy	f
		Peer student support.	2
		Assistance from students in the classroom.	1
Lack of proficiency in the language of the host country	9	Use of gestures and mimes to communicate.	1
		Use of other foreign languages.	1
		Learn the language of the host country.	1
		Eating at Turkish restaurants and cooking at hostel.	1
Eating habits	5	Eating vegetables.	1
		Learning food related vocabulary and checking the ingredients.	1
		Isolation of self.	1
Bias towards the students' home country	4	No contact outside school.	1
		Patience.	1
		Put effort to change the wrong image.	1
TOTAL	**18**	**TOTAL**	**13**

The strategies the students employed for coping with problems emerged at the micro level are presented in Table 3. As seen in the table, eight students complained about the bias coming from lecturers in the host country. Various strategies as putting effort to constitute a good model for the home country (5 times), selecting lecturers after observing the classes (1), and preparing oral presentations about home country and people there (1) were used by the students to overcome these problems. One student found the solution to this problem by working harder to be accepted in the new ELT community. Beside these, the new education system in the host country constituted a burden for one of the students. In order to come to an understanding of and immerse him/herself within this new system, this student worked harder and regularly. In the school where the lecturer used the language of the host country as the medium of instruction, getting support from peers (1) and changing the course (1) were the coping strategies allocated. Other than these, peer support helped one Erasmus student to complete their ECTS and one student received help from his/her coordinator in the home country.

Table 3. Coping strategies developed by students for problems at the micro level

Problem	*f*	Coping Strategy	*f*
Bias towards Turkish students by the lecturers.	8	Efforts to constitute a good model of Turkey.	5
		Observed classes and then select the lecturers.	1
		Oral presentation about Turkey and Turkish people.	1
		Working hard to be accepted.	1
New education system.	1	Hard and regular work.	1
Use of host country's language as the medium of instruction.	1	Peer support.	1
		Change the course.	1
Selecting courses.	1	Peer support.	1
Completing ECTS.	1	Peer support.	1
Different examination system.	1	Getting help from the coordinator in the home country.	1
TOTAL	**13**	**TOTAL**	**14**

Apart from the problems mentioned so far, the students faced financial and personal problems as well as problems related with formalities they had to deal with. Regarding financial problems, the number of citations is noteworthy (19 times). The students remarked that the amount of the grant was insufficient (11) and that they received the grant very late (8). As for the personal problems, loneliness and homesickness were both cited three times. Preparing the required documents (3), and getting the visa (3) were mentioned within the category of formalities. To conclude, students also complained about the difficulty they encountered in terms of using their cell-phones, the boring environment, and finally insufficient exchange time once each.

In line with Bochner (2003) and Yuefang's (2008) ABC (affect, behaviour and cognition) description, in order to refine on how participating students perceived themselves at both macro and micro levels, interviews were held. Table 4 displays the 16 themes which emerged from the students' remarks concerning how they viewed themselves in the new country.

Table 4. Perception of self at the macro level

	Someone who...	*f*
1	is eager to change the wrong image of home country.	8
2	is well-aware of the bias towards the citizens of home country.	1
3	tries to take all the courses which she he/she cannot in his/her home country.	1
4	cooks Turkish food for all Erasmus students.	1
5	introduces traditions and folk dances and Turkish cuisine.	1
6	is physically different from others.	1
7	easily adapts himself to situations and places.	1
8	wants to travel all around Europe.	1
9	has good relationships with foreign friends.	1
	TOTAL	**16**

At the macro level, as displayed in Table 4, the most frequently cited perception of self appears to be someone who is eager to change the wrong image of home country (8 times). Following this, we see that students used remarks as someone who is well-aware of the bias toward the citizens of home country, who tries to take all the courses s/he cannot take in home country, who cooks Turkish food for all Erasmus students, who introduces traditions, folk dances and Turkish cuisine, who is physically different from others, who easily adapts him/herself to situations and places, who wants to travel all around Europe, and finally who has good relationships with foreign friends.. All these remarks were cited once each.

When we examine the students' perception of self at the micro level, in other words, within the academic community as shown in Table 5, we detect confidence, ambition and motivation.

Table 5. Perception of self at the micro level

	Someone who is...	*f*
1	modern.	2
2	flexible.	1
3	respectful to others' views.	1
4	determined.	1
5	stuck to own values.	1
6	responsible.	1
7	ambitious.	1
8	energetic.	1
9	ready to struggle with bias and humiliation.	1
10	successful.	1
11	well-equipped and knowledgeable.	1
12	as good as and even much better than other students.	1
13	open to new ideas.	1
14	ready to learn about a new culture.	1
	TOTAL	**15**

As for their perceptions of self, twice, the students found themselves modern, other remarks such as flexible, respectful to others' views, determined, stuck to own values, responsible, ambitious, energetic, ready to struggle with bias and humiliation, successful, well-equipped and knowledgeable, as good even better that other students, open to new ideas, and ready to learn about a new culture were cited once.

DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

The findings concerning how the students in the Erasmus mobility programme culturally adapt themselves to a new country at the macro level and to a new academic context at the micro level are discussed on the basis of the three aspects of cultural adaptation: affective, behavioural, and cognitive.

The behaviour component of cultural adaptation manifests itself in the culture learning theory which focuses primarily on behavioural aspects of intercultural contact and regarding social interaction as a skilled and mutually organised performance (Argyle, 1969). While the findings acquired from the Social Adaptation Scale show that the exchange students in this study do not seem to experience substantial problems in the course of learning about the new culture, those obtained from the interviews and document analysis of students' reports reveal the opposite. It was revealed that the problems at the macro and micro level constitute variables that negatively influence the process of the students' adaptation. Of these variables suggested in the relevant literature, general knowledge about a new culture (Ward & Searle, 1991) (e.g. eating habits, climate, values), language or communication competence (Furnham, 1993) (e.g. lack of proficiency in the language of the host country, lack of proficiency in English), quantity and quality of contact with host nationals (Bochner, 1982) (e.g. too many students from home country around, indifferent coordinator in the host country), cultural distance (Ward & Kennedy, 1993a, b) (e.g. host country's people's being too distant), and cultural identity (Ward & Searle, 1991) (bias towards the students' home culture) seem to apply to what difficulties that the students in this study experience.

Regarding the affective aspect of cultural adaptation, Zhou, Jindal-Snape, Topping & Todman (2008, p. 65) state that it focuses more on psychological well-being and that people engaging in cross-cultural encounters need to be resilient, adapt and develop coping strategies and tactics. The students in this study developed some strategies to cope with the new ways of life in the new community. These strategies used for the problems both at macro and micro levels ranged from benefiting from the peer support system in the exchange framework, to resorting to native food, to hard and regular work. However, it appears that putting effort to change the wrong image of their home country both in the country as a whole and in the academic environment specifically so that they can receive more social support from the members of the new culture was the strategy they very frequently used. To put it differently, the students' "psychological well-being" seems to be threatened by the negative impact of a continuous struggle against the bias toward their home culture. This seems to correlate with Sodowsky & Plake's (1992) findings. They state that many international students perceive prejudice and discrimination during their interaction with host nationals. Though very few in number, there are also those who claimed to isolate themselves from the new community members, the strategy put forward clearly by Berry (1994; 1997) saying that one of the acculturation strategies is separation which implies that the people in a new community perceive themselves as high in home culture identification but low in host culture identification.

Social identification theory and the cognitive component of cultural adaptation suggest that identity is a fundamental issue for the cross-cultural travellers. Within this component, there exist cognitive variables such as knowledge of the host culture, mutual attitude between hosts and sojourners, cultural similarity and cultural identity (Zhou et al., 2008, p. 66). In the study, the students' perceptions of their identity seem to have a direct connection with how they are viewed by the people in the host country or what the host attitudes toward sojourners are like (Gudykunst 1983). With the awareness of the wrong image of their home culture, their perceptions of themselves both at the macro and micro level revolve around the concepts of eagerness, ambition and motivation to change this image and thus to become accepted as the legitimate members of the new community.

The research reported here offers only a snapshot of a huge and complex mobility phenomenon. It is confined to 55 students, so we realize that the results might be peculiar to our situation and we should be

careful in drawing our conclusions. However, the study has shown that there is a need for appropriate positive action to make provision for preparation and orientation, and the acquisition of skills relevant to the new culture (Bochner, 1982).

First, Erasmus exchange programme students should be provided with more guidance and orientation through which they are enabled to enhance an awareness of the host country and develop culturally relevant social skills to thrive and survive in their new setting. Second, the students should be provided with the chance to take courses for learning the native language of the host country prior to their study and the intensity of the language courses in the host country should be increased so that they can function outside the school effectively. Third, in order to increase the students' ability to develop coping strategies with different problems in the new setting, necessary care should be taken to expose them to stress-management skills training. Last but not least, quality of social support provided by the coordinators of the programme should be enhanced in order not to cause any feelings of isolation on the part of the students due to their cultural identity (as experienced by the students in this study).

Bias towards the students' home culture should be addressed by creating a process of "culture synergy" i.e., "asking for mutual efforts from both host teachers and exchange students to understand one another's culture (Zhou et al., 2008, p. 72) or getting people of the host country to imagine themselves in the role or identity of the exchange students-'walk a mile in their shoes' (p. 68). Beside elimination of bias, there should be room in the programme to create mutual understanding between students' home and host cultures. This could be done by organizing social gatherings in which exchange students introduce their culture and learn about the culture of the host country as well as that of the other exchange students. Requiring students to make presentations of their home country and academic environment in the classrooms could also help them gain integration into and approval by the host culture.

Erasmus has been and remains a key factor in the internalization and Europeanization of higher education (European Commission, 2007, p. 1). Turkey has taken the steps needed to provide students with learning opportunities embedded with the concepts of globalization and integration with Europe as a direct or indirect response to the changing pattern of the world. Thus, initiating further research such as the one reported in this paper could shed more light into the function of Erasmus exchange programme in realizing the country's aim of Europeanization.

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EMPOWERED TEACHERS-- STRONGER INSTITUTIONS

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ABSTRACT

Most educational institutions practice a 'hierarchical' approach toward decision making. Decisions are taken and made, mostly, by one person, who usually is the headmaster. Despite the fact that this approach, which sidelines 'practitioners', may lead to effective consequences on part of the institution, it however, may also lead to some kind of unease on part of the teachers wishing to voice their views on topics such as selection of instructional material, syllabus design, rules setting, exams, assessment, meetings, etc. This study argues that powerful teachers lead to powerful institutions. Based on this premise, it was conducted with 73 teachers functioning at Turkish primary educational institutions; all expressing views on matters building and enhancing an autonomous stand in the institution.

Keywords: Decision making, shared decision making, teacher empowerment, teacher autonomy.

INTRODUCTION

Considerable research (e.g. Tyree, 1969; Dwivedi, 1988; Armstrong, 1984; Bascia, 1996; Bogler, & Somech 2004; Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009; Somech, 2010) conducted so far is in favor of participatory decision making, claiming that involving subordinates in decision making improves the quality of the decision and the effectiveness of the organization which in turn leads to the achievement of institutional goals.

The two continuums regarding decision making are described by Taylor and Tashakkori (1997). The first is actual participation, which ranges from very little participation typical of an authoritarian-managerial style to an extreme democratic form in which teachers make all decisions (Conway & Calzi, 1996). In the second, Taylor and Tashakkori (1997) attempt to deal with a teacher's varying level of actual desire to participate. Bridges's (1967) views on the first continuum suggest that an administrator's decision should be accepted unquestionably with no need of teacher's participation. Unlike Bridges's stance here, Belaso and Alutto (1972) include teachers' participation in three different categories in this continuum: deprivation (wanting more decision making), equilibrium (satisfied with current levels), and saturation (wanting less).

In the second continuum, teachers' desire to participate is considered. Kunz and Hoy (1976) discuss the teacher's zone of interest in decision-making where teachers highly desire participation contrary to Bridges's (1967) views where teachers are indifferent.

Smith (2001) offers a very comprehensive set of characteristics of teacher's decision-making process as follows: Self-directed professional action, capacity for self-directed professional action, freedom from control over professional action, self-directed professional development, capacity for self-directed professional development, freedom from control over professional development. Here in this division, Smith (2001) analyzes almost every aspect of teacher autonomy.

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Leithwood and Jantzi (1997), in their review of research on teachers' decision making curriculum (Table 1) identify four main areas where a teacher's autonomy may be rather high. The first area concerns teacher and students interaction in the classroom; and the second deals with activities used to meet course objectives. The teacher may also determine how fast topics are covered and the total time allocated for each topic. They may also have a lot of influence on how often and when tests are administered. Teachers share decision-making responsibilities in the objectives area regarding choice of curriculum materials and teaching strategies.

Table 1. Degree of Teacher Autonomy and Areas of Responsibility

Degree of Teacher Autonomy	Area of Responsibility
High degree of autonomy	-Teacher/Student interaction in class
	-Type of activities used in class
	-Pace, timing and total time allocation
	-Timing of tests
Shared autonomy with others	-Objectives
	-Curriculum material
	-Teaching Strategies
Low - decisions dominated by principals and staff groups	-Global concepts and outline of curriculum
	-Criteria for assessing students

The purpose of this study is to define the participation of teachers working in Turkish Primary Education institutions regarding decision making. For this, we seek responses to the following questions:

(1) Do teachers who are affected by decisions taken in their institutions participate in decision making regarding decisions related to administrative issues, courses and course delivery, and classroom management?
(2) Do teachers who do not take part in decision making wish to be involved in this process?
(3) And, if so, why would teachers feel a need for involvement?

METHOD

Participants
In this study 73 primary school teachers (all female, age range: 20-50) acted as participants. Of these, 15 were mathematics teachers; 20, Turkish language teachers; 18, English language teachers; 10, Social Sciences teachers, and 10, Arts and Music teachers. All participants had a work experience of 3-16 years.

Instruments and Procedure
This study was carried out in different primary schools in Adana, Turkey. Simple random sampling was done to select five out of 20 schools. Originally 140 teachers were aimed to be reached in the selected schools distributing a questionnaire of 11 items related to decision making in the participants' institutions. However, only 73 teachers turned in their response sheets. Thus, interviews, another tool utilized here, were held with only this limited number of teachers. A blank space was left at the end of the questionnaire to facilitate elicitation of open-ended comments from teachers.

To ascertain the reliability of the questionnaire, piloting was done in two primary schools where 25 teachers were administered the questionnaire. The split-half method was used to calculate the reliability coefficient using Pearson product formula. The reliability coefficient obtained was later subjected to the Spearman Brown prophecy formula to obtain the reliability of the full test (Koul, 1984). A correlation coefficient of 0.73 (considered reliable) was obtained. Content validity was ascertained in consultation

with educational management specialists from the University of Cukurova, Adana, Turkey. The researcher herself distributed the questionnaire and collected it two weeks following the distribution date.

An open-ended interview was held by the researcher with the participants. The interview, with a total duration of ≈295 mins, was performed in a one-to-one fashion within two weeks following the administering of the questionnaire. 73 participants who took the questionnaire were each interviewed for approximately 4 minutes. During the interview, the following issues were taken into consideration: 1) One question was asked at a time, 2) The interviewer verified unclear responses, 3) Students were asked open-ended questions, and 4) Leading questions were avoided, and unbiased questions were preferred.

During the interview sessions, unstructured questions were asked to elicit more information on a given topic. The researcher tried not to express her own ideas on the discussed topics. The interviews included the same items employed in the questionnaire, and aimed to ratify the written comments of the participants. The data gathered from the interview was recorded and transcribed, each item having been coded and similar codes having been aggregated into themes. Themes emerging from the interviews were tallied with those elicited from the written data, and both types of data were subjected to a non-parametric frequency analysis.

The analysis of data was associated with the comparative method to identify recurring themes within and across data sources. First, any incident was a starting point, and then this was compared to another incident in the other set until thematic units were reached. Finally, the themes reached were integrated with the item analysis of the questionnaire.

RESULTS

The data collected from the two different tools, the questionnaire (D1) and the interviews (D2), included almost the same themes, yet with slight, statistically insignificant differences. Common themes in both tools were analyzed using the SPSS v.11 statistical program supported by content analysis and verbatim of participants. A non-parametric analysis was carried out to observe any potential differences in the dispersion of themes regarding each potential decision in which participants would / would (not) like to take part. The outcomes presented in this section are based on the questionnaire items and the one-to-one semi-structured interviews.

Teachers expressed views on a total of 11 potential decisions concerning educational as well as administrative matters. Table 2 illustrates these decisions, willingness / unwillingness in getting involved in the taking of such decisions in terms of percentages and significance of dispersion of responses. Results concerning the two sets of data, the questionnaire and the interviews are presented in this table.

Regarding the first item (topic in D2) of the questionnaire, 98.6% (D1) and 90.4% (D2) of the participants expressed wish in taking part in decision making regarding *materials selection.* Related to this decision, the teachers came up with three themes: (1) being *aware of learner styles* and *levels* with 45.6% (D1) and 67.1% (D2), (2) being *able to match content and age* (20.5% D1; 19.2% D2), and, (3) being *able to find useful material for students* observing class specific needs (17.80% D1; 13.7% D2). The only 1.4% (D1) and 9.6% (D2) of teachers who did not volunteer to get involved in decision making did so since they did not want to assume any responsibility. Related verbatim statements from the interviews are presented below:

> *Since we know our students' level and interest best, we should be decision makers on this matter. We are not only able to take decisions regarding content of materials but also can judge whether visuals inside such sources are appropriate and adequate for our students. Finally, since the coursebook is a major motivation source in class, we should decide what coursebook to use.*

Table 2. Descriptive Analysis of Two Types of Data: Questionnaire (D1) and Interview (D2)

Potential Decisions	Willing (D1)	Unwilling (D1)	Sig.	Willing (D2)	Unwilling (D2)	Sig.
	%	%	P=	%	%	P=
Material selection	98.6	1.4	.000	90.4	9.6	.000
Time schedule	71.6	28.4	.000	76.1	23.9	.000
School rules	67.8	32.2	.006	79.7	20.3	.006
Syllabus design	89.1	10.9	.000	84.8	15.2	.000
Discipline maintenance	93.9	6.1	.000	89.7	10.3	.000
Holding teacher meetings	95.7	4.3	.000	94.8	5.2	.000
Preparations of exams and evaluation	100	0.0	.000	93.1	6.9	.000
Holding parental meetings	91.2	8.8	.000	88.1	11.9	.000
Improvement of physical conditions	71.2	28.8	.000	68.4	31.6	.000
Student rewarding	81.6	18.4	.000	78.5	21.5	.000
Teacher rewarding	64.2	35.8	.011	61.9	38.1	.011

The high percentage of teachers willing to take part in decisions may be linked to findings reached by Hutchinson and Torres (1994), who believed that teachers, should be able to evaluate coursebooks properly and support coursebooks with supplementary materials appropriate for their students' age, level and interest. To Cosh (1999), only autonomous teachers are able to make appropriate decisions on coursebook selection, which may lead to enthusiasm, confidence building and professional growth. In addition, Thanasoulas (2000) emphasizing the active role of teachers in utilizing textbooks, suggests that there has to be a teacher who will adapt resources, materials, and methods to suit learners' needs. Teachers need to be able to choose some controlled role plays and simple tasks involving information exchange from the textbook if possible, or they need to design their own; and if necessary, suggest alternative activities not found in the book. Having said this though, however, autonomous teachers are not advised to heavily rely on textbooks since no textbook is perfect in telling teachers to tackle specific problems emerging in classroom practices.

The participants, by 71.6% (D1) and 76.1% (D2), agreed to take responsibility while 28.4% (D1) and 23.9% (D2) did not volunteer to get involved in any way regarding preparing *time schedules*. Wishing to be decision makers, teachers came up with four themes in this respect believing that they are (1) *aware of students' attention span* (37.5% D1; 50.0% D2); (2) that they are able to predict when *students feel energetic* (20.8% D1; 18.8% D2); (3) that they know when *students can spare time for courses during the day* (20.8% D1; 14.6% D2); (4) and that they are *more aware of most efficient hours* (20.8% D1; 16.7% D2). As for those who did not volunteer to get involved in decision making on *time schedules* (28.4% D1; 23.8% D2), they did so because they believed (1) that *class hours also involve other subjects* (61.1 % D1; 75.0% D2); (2) that there is, a *question of objectivity* (16.7 % D1; 12.5% D2), and that (3) they are *unwilling to take responsibility* (22.2% D1; 12.5% D2). The results here are in line with those obtained by

Leithwood et al. (1998), who stated that teachers preferred higher degree of autonomy in preparing time schedule.

Regarding preparation of school rules, 67.8% (D1) and 79.7% (D2) of the participants wished to take part in decision making, since they believed (1) that *they are aware of students* and *their needs* (50.0% D1; 60.0% D2); (2) that they are *able to cope with potential problems* (27.5% D1; 17.5% D2); (3) that *rules concern teachers themselves* (12.5% D1; 15.0% D2); (4) and that they are *willing to take responsibility* (10.0% D1; 7.5% D2). Those who did not want to take responsibility in this process (32.2% D1; 20.3% D2) did so for they believed (1) that it is *not their job* (73.7% D1; 91.7% D2); (2) and that *most rules are useless* (26.3% D1; 8.3% D2). Statements reflecting participants' views during the interviews are presented below:

> *I do believe that rules in an institution are very important. My personal beliefs are significant and they should be taken into consideration in setting up school rules. I do not impose my beliefs on my colleagues but at least we should discuss openly and try to negotiate with colleagues and the administration since we work for the same institution.*

Concerning syllabus design, 89.1% (D1) and 84.8% (D2) of teachers expressed that they should take part in this matter; and those who did not wish to do so remained as 10.9% (D1) and 15.2% (D2). Reasons favoring involvement were stated as that teachers felt (1) that they are *able to match content, age and cognitive skills* (63.4% D1; 56.1% D2); (2) that they could easily *set up topic priorities* (19.5% D1; 14.6% D2); (3) that they are *willing to take responsibility* (9.8% D1; 17.1% D2); (4) that they are able to *include extra-curricular activities* (4.9% D1; 7.3% D2); (5) and that they could *increase quality in education* (2.4% D1; 4.9% D2). The two reasons for not being willing to participate in decision making are (1) that they are already *pleased with the current syllabus* design system (60.0% D1; 80.0% D2); (2) and that they *do not wish to take responsibility* (40% D1; 20.0 D2).

Maintaining discipline was one of those topics which attracted a rather high percentage of involvement (93.9 % D1; 89.7% D2). By doing so, participants justified this willingness by stating (1) that they themselves should be the ones *responsible for their classes* (67.7% D1; 59.7% D2); (2) that they believe in *rewarding or punishing students* (16.1% D1; 25.8% D2); (3) and that they also *believed in discipline* (16.1% D1; 14.5% D2). As for those who did not volunteer to get involved in decision making (6.1% D1; 10.3% D2), they expressed that they believe *maintaining discipline* is the administration's and not their task (100.0% D1; 100.0% D2). Views of participants related to *maintaining discipline* are reflected in the statement below:

> *Discipline is a prime factor regarding a smooth flow in course delivery. Otherwise, a lesson cannot be handled effectively. Since we, teachers, are in a way actors and actresses in class, we should have the right to take decisions and be active concerning this issue.*

Arrangement and holding of teachers' meetings was also one of those topics with great attraction of involvement in both the questionnaire and the interviews (95.7% D1; 94.8% D2). Only a mere 4.3% (D1) and 5.2% (D2) of the participants did not want to take part in decision making regarding this topic. The teachers favoring willingness believe (1) that *exchanging ideas is highly significant* (55.6% D1; 60.0% D2); (2) that *developing a sense of understanding* between teachers is very important (31.1% D1; 20.0% D2); (3) and that *meetings are essential* (13.3% D1; 20.0% D2). The unwilling participants stated (1) that it is the *administration's duty to deal with this matter* (80.0% D1; 85.7% D2); (2) and that they *already have enough work to deal with* (20.0% D1; 14.3% D2). Verbatim statement concerning *arrangement and holding teachers' meetings* is presented below:

If we become decision makers, then our enthusiasm to participate in meetings will get higher. Moreover, teachers, knowing their students well, can easily make appropriate decisions regarding their students' needs.

An overwhelming percentage of participants (100% D1; 93.1% D2) expressed willingness regarding participation in decisions concerning *exam preparation and evaluation*. These participants stated (1) that they, themselves, only could be fully *aware of the topics covered* (34.7% D1; 43.1% D2); (2) that they could also truly *assess students' level* (31.9% D1; 30.6% D2); (3) that they, themselves, could only *know what students lack* (22.2% D1; 15.3% D2), and (4) that they could make sure tests are *valid and reliable* (11.1% D1; 11.1% D2).

Regarding *parental meetings,* 91.2% (D1) and 88.1% (D2) of the participants believed that they should take part in decision making. This population believed (1) that they could easily *get quicker results* through parental meetings (42.3% D1; 42.3% D2); (2) that they feel that they are the *best source of information for students* (40.4% D1; 32.7% D2); (3) that they, themselves, could only follow up *students' performance* (11.5% D1; 19.2% D2); (4) and that it is *teachers' responsibility to hold such meetings* (5.8% D1; 5.8% D2). As for those who expressed unwillingness, 8.8% (D1) and 11.9% (D2) stated so believing (1) that this is *an administrational issue* (80.0% D1; 85.7% D2); (2) and that *it would lay much work on teachers' shoulders* (20.0% D1; 14.3% D2). The verbatim below best illustrates participants' views on sharing decision making concerning *parental meetings*.

In order to get successful outcomes, we should keep in touch with parents and hold meetings with parents. However, the administration should lay the ground for gatherings.

Regarding *improvement of physical conditions,* 71.2% (D1) and 68.4% (D2) of the participants aspired to have an active role in decision making. A considerable number, however, (28.8% D1; 31.6% D2) did not wish to do so. Of those who were willing, 40.4% (D1) and 50.0% (D2) stated (1) that they believe that they know *what fits students best*; (2) 21.2% (D1) and 15.4% (D2) hold the belief that physical conditions, as long as they are efficient and practical, do really *improve education;* (3) 19.2% (D1) and 15.4% (D2) are interested in *students' needs*; (4) 9.6% (D1 and 11.5% (D2) think that *technological arrangements* are important; (5) and 9.6% (D1) and 7.7% (D2) believe that they could best decide how to *utilize space most efficiently*. Those expressing unwillingness for involvement stated (1) that this is not their duty (66.7% D1; 58.3% D2); (2) and that it would *necessitate too much extra work* (33.3% D1; 41.7% D2). Views of participants on *improvement of physical conditions* are reflected below:

In order to make the best of each class, we should be able to make decisions since we spend most of our time here. Another thing we are concerned with is the suitability of materials or technological equipment for our classes. We, teachers, should have a say in this matter.

As for the topic concerning *rewarding students*, 81.6% (D1 and 78.5% (D2) of the teachers expressed a wish to play some kind of a role in taking decisions, since they believed (1) that they should be *setting up their own rules* (50.0% D1; 56.5% D2); (2) that they are aware that *rewards and punishment affect students' participation and success* (38.7% D1; 37.1% D2); (3) and that they know *what pleases their students best* (11.3% D1; 6.5% D2). Those who believe that teachers should not take part in decision making concerning *rewards* (18.4% D1; 21.5% D2), did so, thinking (1) that this would require *counseling expertise* (76.9% D1; 58.8% D2); (2) and that this *entails administrational involvement* (23.1% D1; 41.2% D2). Participants' wish of involvement in decisions concerning students' rewards is expressed in the statement below:

Since I am mostly exposed to face-to-face interaction with my students, I should be entitled to decide about their rewards and punishment. Receiving rewards when necessary, students can easily be more

motivated throughout the course or the semester. Motivation and enthusiasm have very crucial impact on students' success.

As for *rewarding teachers*, we probably face the lowest percentages here: 64.2% (D1) and 61.9% (D2). A relatively high number expressed unwillingness to do so: 35.8% (D1) and 38.1 (D2). The willing participants expressed this wish believing (1) that having a say in decision making would lead to *better and quality work* (65.4% D1; 78.8% D2); (2) that *assuming an active part in this matter would make them feel an integral part of the institution* (26.9% D1; 17.3% D2); (3) and that they *can assess each other's individual styles and preferences with greater objectivity compared to administrators* (7.7% D1; 3.8% D2). Those who did not wish to be involved stated that this was solely an *administrative issue* (100.0% D1; 100.0% D2). The statement below reflects participants' views on *rewarding teachers*:

I am an Arts teacher and I guess teachers should be assessed and rewarded according to their fields of study. Arts and its assessment is not the same as courses such as mathematics and science. My group teachers and I are eager to express our expectations and suggestions about this topic.

DISCUSSION

A great majority of participants in this study believed that they should somehow take an active role regarding decisions in administrative, course delivery and classroom management issues. Based on the questionnaire (D1) and interviews (D2) data, most of the participants here believed that self-directed professional action needed to be taken in order to make teachers feel an integral part of their institutions, as was also observed by Smith (2001). In order to acquire better abilities and greater enthusiasm in their profession, teachers believed that a considerable amount of participation is required. This finding related to Turkish teachers is line with the observation made by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009) where the researchers suggest that autonomy is "the strongest predictor of job satisfaction". Thus, lack of decision making empowerment, i.e. restricting autonomy, not only leads to unsatisfied teachers, but also significantly affects teachers' relations with administrators, parents and students. This has also been highlighted by Bogler and Somech (2004), who state principals' practice of joint-decision-making should be recognized as highly important to the organization and its members. In line with this statement, our findings suggest that teachers are willing to take part in decisions regarding institutional matters, as well as conforming with those of other studies conducted by Bezzina (1997), Griffin (1995), Halliday (1993), and Bascia (1996) where teachers' participation in decision making is desired and encouraged. The findings here depict teachers' aspiration to participate in decision making at their institutions. Teachers' views about having an active role in taking decisions support Taylor and Tashakkori's (1997) disenfranchised category, where teachers wish to have a say in educational and administrational issues. Similarly, the results here render an interpretation suggesting that teachers should not be deprived of the right to contribute to the institution with their views. This attitude is in line with Belaso and Alutto's (1972) first category of deprivation (wanting more decision making).

Depending on circumstances and issues, the outcomes of this study are also in line with Conley's (1989) position taken towards decision making, necessitating negotiation between teachers and administrators. Such negotiation as in Wahlstrom and Louis's study (2008) supports learning and brings us closer to the elusive goal of clarifying the link between leadership and learning.

Just like any other piece of research, this present study does also have some limitations. One is that the study cannot be representative of views of all teachers across Turkey since it is limited with the views of 73 members only. Therefore, the results here cannot be extrapolated to all teachers. Another limitation is that, due to convenience sampling, the study was conducted with female school teachers only. It would be interesting to see if female teachers' views and beliefs regarding participation in decisions concerning institutional matters are similar to or different from those of males'. For this, further research is needed.

CONCLUSION

Decisions taken and made in institutions affect all members as well as the prospect of the institution. Precise decisions are sought in order to attain and/or increase quality in every aspect concerning the institution.

The results in this study indicate that nearly all participants were rather positive towards teachers' decision making. The findings suggest that primary school teachers in Turkey expressed willingness to be decision makers regarding educational and administrative issues. The most important issues that they wanted to be involved in are (1) preparation and evaluation of exam, (2) material selection, (3) holding teachers' meetings, and (4) discipline maintenance. The main argument of this piece of research is that teachers, when involved in decision making, feel more empowered in their field, benefiting the whole institution with its teachers, administration, students and parents. It is a known fact that job satisfaction, as was also highlighted by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009), can only be attained through a decision-making power vested in the doer, who, thus, would be in a position to exert some influence over it.

Decision making is a process which should entail the participation of all concerning parties. Autonomy given to individuals does not only strengthen freedom of expression of individuals but also positively contributes to more solid decisions to be taken encouraging unanimous participation, which in turn leads to democratization in the institution. Different kinds of decisions can be made in institutions and all such decisions somehow affect all members in the institutions. Thus, it is vital for an institution to take the right decision with the participation of all members with free and autonomous thinking and self-expression.

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