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An Investigation of Prospective Teachers' Views Regarding Teacher Identity via Metaphors¹

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Teacher identity refers to the construct of the professional personality that is formed during career advancement. The teaching identity has cognitive, social and professional elements. By using metaphors enable analysis in an organizational sense and open up a new perspective that can clarify a complex event. When teachers' and prospective teacher candidates' professional identities is analyzed, it is notable that how often metaphors are employed. With this perspective, to investigate teachers' or prospective teachers' views about their teaching identities metaphore is very suitable tool. For these reasons, a metaphor study can be an appropriate tool to investigate teachers' or prospective teachers' views about their teaching identities. Moreover, raising awareness about teacher identity may help improve teacher training programs.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of this study was to analyze the views of prospective teacher candidates, all students in the Department of Turkish Language, regarding their professional identities via metaphor analysis.

Method: This paper discusses a phenomenological study used to determine how prospective Turkish language teachers construct the meaning of being a Turkish language teacher through their use of metaphors. The participants in this study comprised 123 prospective teachers who had studied in the Faculty of Education at a state university on Turkey's southern coast. Among the participating prospective teachers, 55% were

¹ This article was presented at the First International Eurasian Educational Research Congress (Istanbul University & EJER, 24-26 April 2014).

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female (n=68) and 45% were male (n=55); 26% (n=32) were first-year students, 24% (n=30) were second-year students, 28% (n=34) were third-year students, and 22% (n=27) were fourth-year students. A total of 123 participants were asked to complete the expression a Turkish language teacher is like because by using metaphors. The metaphors produced by the participants were analyzed using the five stages Which are "coding and elimination stage", "sample metaphor compilation stage", "sorting and categorization stage", "establishing the inter-rater reliability rate" and "analyzing data quantitatively". The data were analyzed by a chi-square test to detect dominant groups.

Findings and Results: As a result of the research, prospective teachers were found to develop 41 valid metaphors, which were then thematically coded into six main categories. It is concluded that the participating prospective Turkish language teachers generally regard the profession as a source of information and their metaphors did not differ across academic class levels.

Conclusion and Recommendations: In sum, based on the results that more than half of the prospective teachers defined a teacher according to traditional roles. The most important traditional role was presenting information to the student. The results illustrate that pre-license experiences, teacher training and professional experiences affect the formation of a teacher's identity. In this paper, candidates' values, beliefs, and so on are not included. Another study could be conducted to evaluate metaphors based on those points.

Keywords: Teacher training, language teacher, mental images of teacher, qualitative research.

Introduction

Teacher identity refers to the construct of the professional personality that is formed during career advancement. It is related to how teachers introduce themselves (Lasky, 2005). A teacher's identity is achieved at the end of a process. The main sources of teachers' beliefs about themselves as teachers generally include pre-undergraduate experiences, teacher training, and professional experiences (Franzak, 2002). People that have just started teacher training already have some knowledge of the meaning of being a teacher (Lortie, 1975). Research studies also argue that prospective teachers come to educational faculties with some established belief systems. It is also acknowledged that student teachers begin their undergraduate education with considerable positive and negative views stemming from their years of experience as students as well as the numerous good and bad models they have observed. Teacher candidates who begin their undergraduate education are not only equipped with theoretical knowledge and practice but also they form their own teaching repertoire through experiences and a judgment process developed as they acquire knowledge and practices throughout their undergraduate education.

Teachers' perceptions of their professional identity affect their professional career. Such as their competencies, career development, abilities and motivation about the practice of new methods, changes in education, and their own teaching training (Beijaard, Meijer, & Vermunt, 2000). Bullough (1997, cited in Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004) proposes that a teacher's identity has vital importance for teacher education and that it provides a basis for decision-making and commenting on experiences. In this light, raising awareness about teacher identity may help improve teacher training programs. Recent research in the teacher training field emphasizes the importance of the identification concept for the professional improvement of teachers (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). Therefore, the concept of teaching identity has drawn increasing attention and it has begun to become a research field in itself (White, 2009). However, this field needs considerable development (Beijaard et al., 2004). The construct of teaching identity is composed of cognitive, social and professional elements. This construction can be understood by investigating the status that the teaching holds in teachers' and teacher candidates' beliefs and point of views, emotions and opinions, and how teachers and potential teachers view themselves and cognitively understand their job (Krzywacki, 2009). Considering that prospective teachers' life stories and their beliefs formed at the end of these stories are the most important factors in the formation of their teaching identity, further research needs to be conducted with prospective teachers.

Researchs on how teachers and prospective teacher candidates comment on their professional identity or teaching has been analyzed. It is notable how often metaphors are employed by teachers and prospective teacher candidates. (Aydin & Pehlivan 2010; Cerit, 2008; Eker & Sicak, 2016; Gatti & Catalano 2015; Gunay, 2015; Hunt, 2006; Koc, 2014; Nartgun & Ozen, 2015; Oxford et al., 1998; Saban, Kocbekar, & Saban, 2006; Saban, 2011; Thomas & Beauchamp 2011; Uslu, 2015). Therefore, previous studies where metaphors were used have been analyzed and evaluated for this study. According to a perspective known as the "Cognitive Theory of Metaphor," which was developed through the studies of Lakoff and Johnson (1980), if our concept system is substantially metaphoric, it follows that our way of thinking, each phenomenon we experience and everything we routinely do are also metaphoric. According to this theory, we employ metaphor to understand and experience a phenomenon through another phenomenon (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Hence, a metaphor forms by indicating clearly and implicitly that X phenomenon is like Y phenomenon. This is what makes metaphor strong as an intellectual model. In other words, metaphor provides the opportunity to project a precise intellectual scheme upon another intellectual scheme by connecting two different phenomena (Saban, 2009). Briefly, it can be said that metaphors are intellectual images, tools that enable people to comprehend their environment and clarify complex constructions. Moreover, they are intellectual tools that control, direct and construct our ideas about the occurrence and processing of events. Metaphors are also defined as the language of meanings and practices in the point of meaning personal experiences (Schon, 1993). Research has shown that metaphors are functional for understanding the roles of individuals in teaching concepts and education (Bullough, 1991; Cerit, 2008). Thomas and Beauchamp's (2011) findings show that great attention is needed to raise

awareness about the process of professional identity development during teacher education programs. Hunt (2006), and Thomas and Beauchamp (2011) have found that inviting participants to come up with metaphors enables them to conceive their professional identities in more profound ways.

To sum up, metaphors used in understanding and experiencing events, phenomena or concepts. Metaphors, in comparison with another concept or expression (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) serve as intellectual tools. These tools play an important role in individuals' understanding of behaviors and ideas about definite events and phenomenon, in expressing their ideas about complex and theoretical phenomenon, and in transforming abstract concepts to concrete ones. Using metaphors can be an interpretive tool because metaphors enable analysis in an organizational sense and open up a new perspective that can clarify a complex event. Metaphors are creative results of theoretical thinking that are consulted to enrich our perceptions about educational phenomenon (Inbar, 1996). For these reasons, a metaphor study can be an appropriate tool to investigate teachers' or prospective teachers' views about their teaching identities.

Purpose

The aim of this research is to analyze the intellectual images of prospective Turkish language teachers about being a Turkish language teacher via metaphors. Pursuant to this general aim, the following questions were asked:

1. What metaphors did prospective Turkish language teachers provide to describe the meaning of being a Turkish language teacher?
2. Under which categories can the metaphors that were used by prospective teachers for the concept of "Turkish language teacher" be assembled?
3. Do the categories differ according to the class level of the prospective Turkish language teachers?

Method

Research Design

In this research, phenomenology method, is used. This method is known as a qualitative research approach. This method is suitable to determine the metaphoric thinking states of Turkish language teacher candidates regarding to concept of Turkish language teacher.

Participants

The participants in this study comprised 123 prospective teachers who had studied in the Faculty of Education at a state university on Turkey's southern coast. Among the participating prospective teachers, 55% were female (n=68) and 45% were male (n=55). And 26% (n=32) were first-year students, 24% (n=30) were second-year students, 28% (n=34) were third-year students, and 22% (n=27) were fourth-year students.

Research Instrument and Procedure

First, participants were given an explanation about of the meaning of a metaphor through examples. They were then asked to complete the sentence: "A Turkish language teacher is like..... because.....". A personal information form was also completed by the participants. Participants were given 40–45 minutes to fill in the form.

Validity and Reliability

Reporting all phases of a research study clearly and in detail is one of the precautions that increases the reliability and validity of the study. Another is the reporting of direct quotations without ruining originality (Daymon & Holloway, 2003; Roberts & Priest, 2006). In this research, the process of determining metaphors was described in detail and quotations from participants' expressions were presented in the findings. In addition, data were coded twice by the same researchers to test the reliability of the research. Agreement on the two occasions of coding was calculated using the consensus/consensus+ dissensus formula (Miles & Huberman, 1994), which yielded 95% consistency. Also, the resulting categories were evaluated by an independent auditor. The expert was given the alphabetically organized metaphors and detected categories and then asked to place metaphors in appropriate categories. Consensus between the two coders was reached.

Data Analysis

The metaphors produced by the participants were analyzed using the following five stages (Saban, 2009):

1. Coding and Elimination Stage: In this phase, papers were numbered starting from 1 and then coded in terms of gender (F for female and M for male). In terms of class level, codes included 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th level. A temporary list was prepared by transferring all metaphors produced by the teacher candidates to a list in alphabetic order. Thus, it was checked whether the prospective teachers produced a clear metaphor or not. A total of 15 forms were discarded because they contained no metaphoric descriptions.

2. Sample Metaphor Compilation Stage: After metaphors were analyzed and papers including poor metaphor images were discarded, it was understood that only 41 valid metaphors were developed by the participants. Next, raw data were revised by ordering the metaphors alphabetically. The main metaphors were formed using repeating common points in the metaphors. While determining the samples that represent the main metaphors, a sample metaphor expression was selected from each student compositions. Thus a sample metaphor list was prepared.

3. Sorting and Categorization Stage: Based on the "sample metaphor list", how each metaphor image conceptualizes the Turkish language teacher was checked. For this aim, each metaphor image produced by the participants was analyzed in terms of the (1) subject of the metaphor (2) source of the metaphor and (3) relation between subject and source of the metaphor. Then, after it was analyzed in terms of its

perspective on Turkish language teachers and definite themes, each metaphor image was set into one of six cognitive categories. In determining these categories, the researchers drew on several foreign studies that analyzed the metaphors developed by teachers and prospective teachers about teachers and school managers (Alger, 2009; Demirtas, 2011; Guerrero & Villamil, 2002; Mahlios & Maxson, 1998; Oxford et al. 1998; Saban et al. 2006; Saban, 2011).

4. Establishing the Inter-rater Reliability Rate: This topic is explained in *Validity and Reliability*.

5. Analyzing Data Quantitatively: Firstly, number (f) and percentage (%) of participants that represents 41 metaphors and six categories were calculated. Chi-square test was used to compare class levels and dominant categories were analyzed quotations.

Table 1.

Metaphors, Frequency and Percentage of Student

Metaphor code	Metaphor name	Students				Tot.	%	Category number
		According to class level						
		f						
1.	2.	3.	4.					
1	book	2	3	3	1	9	7.3	1
2	light	3	1		2	6	4.9	1
3	dictionary	1	2	1		4	3.3	1
4	sun	1	1	1	1	4	3.3	1
5	bookcase		1	2		3	2.4	1
6	library	2	1			3	2.4	1
7	candle				1	1	0.8	1
8	culture treasury	1				1	0.8	1
9	meal	1				1	0.8	1
10	newspaper			1		1	0.8	1
11	river				1	1	0.8	1
12	river valley				1	1	0.8	1
13	soil			1		1	0.8	1
14	source	1				1	0.8	1
15	tree			1		1	0.8	1
16	vocabulary			1		1	0.8	1
17	mother	4	3	3	3	13	10.6	2
18	family	4	2		1	7	5.7	2
19	gardener	1	1	2	1	5	4.1	2
20	chameleon	1				1	0.8	2
21	rescuer			1		1	0.8	2
22	guide	3	3	4	3	13	10.6	3
23	compass		2		1	3	2.4	3

Table 1 Continue

Metaphor code	Metaphor name	Students				Tot.	%	Category number
		According to class level f						
		1.	2.	3.	4.			
24	lantern		1	1	1	3	2.4	3
25	lighthouse		1		2	3	2.4	3
26	captain				2	2	1.6	3
27	glowworm				1	1	0.8	3
28	rainbow			1		1	0.8	3
29	artist	2	2	3	1	8	6.5	4
30	carpenter	1	2		2	5	4.1	4
31	master	1	1	1	2	5	4.1	4
32	pastry cook	1				1	0.8	4
33	wave			1		1	0.8	4
34	pillar		1	2		3	2.4	5
35	soldier	2				2	1.6	5
36	brain			1		1	0.8	5
37	head of the family			1		1	0.8	5
38	skeleton			1		1	0.8	5
39	antidote			1		1	0.8	6
40	doctor		1			1	0.8	6
41	vaccine		1			1	0.8	6
Total		32	30	34	27	123	100	

Results

Research Question 1: What Metaphors Did Prospective Turkish Language Teachers Provide to Describe The Meaning of Being a Turkish Language Teacher?

Prospective teachers produced 41 metaphors about Turkish language teachers (see Table 1). Almost half of these metaphors (f=22) were produced by only one student. The number of students who produced the remaining 19 metaphors ranged between 2 and 13. The five most common metaphors were as follows: (1) guide (13 students, 10.6%), (2) mother (13 students, 10.6%), (3) book (9 students, 7.3%), (4) artist (8 students, 6.5%), and (5) family (7 students, 5.7%).

Research Question 2: Under Which Categories Can the Metaphors That Were Used By Prospective Teachers for the Concept of "Turkish Language Teacher" Be Assembled?

Metaphors produced by prospective teachers were grouped into six categories and then commented upon by presenting them in the form of lists. For this purpose, “logical foundations” (asserted justifications or reasons for using the metaphor) produced by prospective teachers about each metaphor were analyzed carefully.

As it is seen in Table 2, 57% of the participating prospective teachers associated “teacher” with traditional aspects, including “knowledge provider” (39 prospective teachers, 32%), “instructive and formative to students”(20 prospective teachers, 16%), “authority figure”(8 prospective teachers, 7%) and “healer of students” (3 prospective teachers, 2%). In other words, more than half of the teachers (70 prospective teachers, 57%) defined “teacher” according to his/her traditional roles (for example, “presenting information to students”, “shaping students” and “authority figure”). The rest of the prospective teachers (53 prospective teachers, 45%) claimed that a teacher needed to “meet the individual needs and interests of students” (27 prospective teachers, 22%) and “guide students in the learning-teaching process” (26 prospective teachers, 21%).

Table 2.

Distribution of Metaphors Developed About “Turkish Language Teacher” According to Categories, Number and Percentage of Teachers Who Represent Them

Category number	Category name	Representative of category		
		Metaphor number	Teacher candidate number	Teacher candidate %
1	Knowledge provider	16	39	32
2	Nurturer	5	27	22
3	Instructive and directive	7	26	21
4	Molder and former	5	20	16
5	Power indicator	5	8	7
6	Curer	3	3	2
Total		41	123	100

Category 1: Knowledge Provider

As Table 2 summarizes, this category is represented by 16 metaphors (see Table 1) produced by 39 prospective teachers (32%). Book (9 prospective teachers), light (mentioned by six prospective teachers), sun (four prospective teachers) and dictionary (four prospective teachers) were the most common metaphors in this category. When analyzed in terms of teacher and student roles, it appears that prospective teachers perceive “teacher” as the provider of knowledge. While a teacher is a resource of correct information, a student is the person who uses this source directly. Information is what teacher is a resource for. For example, information is perceived as similar to the sun emitting light. A student is also a passive receiver of information. The most important duty of a teacher is to transfer information to students.

The following is an example of the definitions made by prospective teachers about the book metaphor representing this category.

Book: “I think a Turkish language teacher is like a book that is full of information. This is because a Turkish language teacher has information that we need and s/he transfers it to students, just as we take information we need from a book.” (F, 1st level).

Category 2: Nurturer

This category is represented with five metaphors (see Table 1) produced by 27 prospective teachers (22%). Mother (mentioned by 13 prospective teachers), parents-family (seven prospective teachers) and gardener (five prospective teachers) are the most important metaphors constituting this category (see Table 2). When the metaphors in this category are analyzed, they emphasize that teachers should consider the individual differences of their students and meet the individual needs and interests of students. The most important duty of a teacher is perceived to be helping students learn and supporting them in this process. It can be said that a teacher needs to organize the learning-teaching setting in a way that eases students’ learning process.

Gardener: “I think a Turkish language teacher resembles a gardener because a gardener cares for every plant individually. He provides the essential conditions for the plants to grow up and stand alone in the future.” (M, 4th level).

Category 3: Instructive and Directive

When Table 2 is analyzed, it is seen that this category is represented with seven metaphors (see Table 1) produced by 26 prospective teachers (21%). Among them guide (13 prospective teachers) is the most important metaphor. When the metaphors in this category are analyzed in terms of teachers’ and students’ roles, a teacher’s characteristic of being directive comes into prominence. A teacher plays the role of guiding students along the way; students follow or obtain instructions towards their aim. In the learning-teaching process, a teacher is either a guide or a leader, and the

student is active. In this view, a teacher is regarded as a medium on the way to knowledge rather than a source of information.

Guide: "I think a Turkish language teacher is a guide speaks nicely and effectively, and at the same time teach to his/her students to speak nicely and effectively. Teachers are leaders who can develop methods and techniques that are alternatives to those in the curriculum for students that cannot understand. They can evaluate students' progress and levels of knowledge, and teach accordingly. They are guides who help students solve their problems inside and outside school." (F, 3rd level).

Category 4: Molder and Former

This category is represented by five metaphors (see Table 1) produced by 20 prospective teachers (16%). Artist (eight prospective teachers), expert (five prospective teachers), and carpenter (five prospective teachers) were placed within the most important metaphors in this category (see Table 2). When the metaphors in this category are analyzed in terms of teacher and student roles, it appears that prospective teachers perceive the teacher as a molder and former of students. A student is raw material and a teacher is an expert who remolds and shapes the students. The most important duty of a teacher is perceived as raising students to become productive members of society.

Wave: "I think a Turkish language teacher is like a wave because just as waves shape the rocks by hitting and make the shapeless rocks smooth, teachers also shape students by polishing their roughness." (M, 3rd level).

Category 5: Authority Figure

When Table 2 is analyzed, it is seen that this category is represented by five metaphors (see Table 1) produced by eight prospective teachers (7%). Pillar (three prospective teachers) and soldier (two prospective teachers) are the most important metaphors in this category. When metaphors in this category are analyzed, it is seen that teacher's soundness and effectiveness in terms of specialization and command on language are emphasized.

Pole: "I think Turkish language teachers are like pillar that support a building because they are the most important teachers in a school. They are the first people asked about correct spelling and pronunciation of words, incoherency and a lot of other subjects by students and colleagues alike." (F, 3rd level).

Category 6: Healer

It is seen that this category is represented just with three metaphors (see Table 1) produced by three students only (2%). These metaphors include doctor (one student), vaccine (one student) and antidote (one student). When the metaphors in this category are analyzed in terms of teacher and student roles, a teacher is regarded as a healer and students are similar to his or her patients. A Turkish language teacher is perceived as a doctor who treats students' illnesses, mistakes or deficiencies.

Doctor: "I think a Turkish language teacher is like a doctor because, just as a doctor tries to cure a patient, a teacher tries to correct the language mistakes of students acquired in their families or from their environment." (M, 2nd level).

Research question 3: Do the Categories Differ According to the Class Level of the Prospective Turkish Language Teachers?

In Table 3, the distribution of metaphors developed about "Turkish language teacher" according to class level is summarized. As seen in Table 3, a statistically significant difference in choice of metaphors was not encountered according to participants' class level (Chi-square=7.194, sd=9, p=.617).

Table 3.

Using Turkish Language Teacher Metaphor of Turkish Language Teacher Candidates According to Class Level

Class level		Knowledge provider	Molder/ Former	Nurturer	Instructive and directive	Total
1.	N	12	5	10	3	30
	%	40	16.7	33.3	10	100
2.	N	9	5	6	7	27
	%	33.3	18.5	22.2	25.9	100
3.	N	11	5	6	6	28
	%	39.3	17.9	21.4	21.4	100
4.	N	7	5	5	10	27
	%	25.9	18.5	18.5	37	100
Total	N	39	20	27		112
	%	34.8	17.9	24.1	23.2	100

Chi-square (X^2)=7.194, sd=9, p=.617

Discussion and Conclusion

In this paper, metaphors that students of Turkish language department produce about their professional identity, namely "Turkish language teacher", were analyzed. The researchers then checked whether these metaphors differed according to class levels of the participants.

Prospective Turkish language teachers developed 41 metaphors as a result of reflecting about their professional identity and these metaphors were collected under six categories including “knowledge provider”, “nurturer”, “instructive and directive”, “molder and former”, “authority figure”, and “healer”. When research on metaphors about being a teacher produced by prospective teachers were analyzed, it was observed that there were different (Alger, 2009; Kalyoncu, 2012; Koc, 2014; Saban et al., 2006; Uslu, 2015) or similar (Aydin & Pehlivan, 2010; Saban, 2011) categorizations. The reason for the difference of metaphors and categories can be producing different metaphors according to prospective teachers’ beliefs relating to teaching and learning (Guerrero & Villamil, 2002; Saban et al., 2006).

It was determined that more than half of the prospective teachers (70 prospective teachers) define the teacher in terms of traditional roles (for example, “presenting information to students”, “shaping the student”). The most important traditional role was “presenting information to the student” (39 prospective teachers). The other prospective teachers (53 prospective teachers) expressed that teachers should “meet the individual needs and interests of students” and “be guides for students in the learning-teaching process”. A contemporary teacher is not only expected to be an information transferor but also to be a director to sources of information. In other words, he or she must teach students the means to access information they need and then encourage them to think about the information they obtain. In several research studies (Aydin & Pehlivan, 2010; Cerit, 2008; Koc, 2014; Saban et al., 2006; Uslu, 2015) done in Turkey with both teachers and prospective teachers as participants, it has been seen that the teacher is perceived to bear the role of information transferor. Metaphors of the teacher as a guide have been reached in just two accessible studies (Kalyoncu, 2012; Seferoglu, Korkmazgil, & Olcu, 2009). An international literature review revealed that the metaphor of guide was also reported widely as a characteristic of teachers (Farrell, 2011; Fenwick, 2000; Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011).

The present study found that metaphors produced about the concept of teacher didn’t vary according to class level. This finding is in consistent with the results of other research on this subject (Aydin & Pehlivan, 2010). In other words, even if the class level of prospective teachers rises, the teachers’ perspective didn’t change. Teaching identity has a construction that includes cognitive, social and professional dimensions. While analyzing the formation of teacher identity, personal identification with teaching job, effects of social environment and general point of view about the teaching profession should be considered besides cognitive approach (Krzywacki, 2009). Early childhood experiences, beliefs and manners that teachers develop before they start teaching training, followed by teacher training and especially, teacher experiences, all play an active role in forming teaching identity (Beijaard et al., 2004). Knowles (1992, as cited in Franzak, 2002) emphasizes four elements that form how individual see themselves as teachers. These are: childhood experiences, teacher role models, teaching experiences, important people and early experiences. This model collects the personal and professional experiences that form identity. According to this model, biographic experiences of individuals affect identity development of teachers. In other word, personal history, social interacts,

psychological and cultural elements affect the formation of identity (Cooper & Olson, 1996, as cited in Lamote & Engels, 2010). Richardson (1996) also says that experiences in school years can strongly affect teacher beliefs than teacher training.

Metaphor analysis can be used by teacher educators to examine prospective teachers' values, beliefs, and teaching and learning philosophies. The results of this paper and those of Thomas and Beauchamp (2011), and Hunt (2006) show that having dialogues with prospective teachers that include the use of metaphors can improve their professional teaching identities. Therefore, during undergraduate education dialogues with prospective teachers about being a teacher can improve their perceptions of teacher identity.

The results of this paper show that prospective Turkish language teachers developed 41 metaphors after reflecting upon their professional identity. These metaphors were collected under six categories. It is clear from the results that more than half of the prospective teachers defined a teacher according to traditional roles. The most important traditional role was presenting information to the student. Another result showed that, even as the class level of Turkish language teachers advanced, participants' perspectives about their roles as teachers didn't change. Finally, results illustrate that pre-license experiences, teacher training and professional experiences affect the formation of a teacher's identity.

Based on the results of this paper and findings in the relevant literature, it is suggested that regardless of the class level of Turkish language teachers, their perspectives about their roles don't change. Teaching identity includes cognitive, social and professional dimensions. Pre-license experiences, teacher training, and professional experiences affect the formation of teaching identity. In particular, the life stories of teacher candidates and the beliefs produced by these life stories are an important element of their identity formation process, so future research should focus on that field. In this paper, candidates' values, beliefs, and so on are not included. Another study could be conducted to evaluate metaphors based on those points.

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Türkçe Öğretmeni Adaylarının Öğretmenlik Kimliğine İlişkin Görüşlerinin Metafor Analizi Yoluyla İncelenmesi

Atf:

Karabay, A. (2016). An investigation of prospective teachers' views regarding teacher identity via metaphors. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 1-18
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Özet

Problem Durumu: Öğretmenlik kimliği, kariyer aşamaları sürecinde oluşan profesyonel kişilik yapısıdır (Lasky, 2005). Öğretmen eğitimi alanındaki son araştırmalar, öğretmenin mesleki gelişiminde kimlik kavramının önemine vurgu yapmaktadır (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). Öğretmenlik kimliği; bilişsel, sosyal ve mesleki boyutlar içeren bir yapıya sahiptir. Bu yapı, bilişsel anlamda öğretmenlerin ve öğretmen adaylarının kendilerini ve mesleklerini nasıl gördükleri, duygu ve düşünceleri, inançları ve dünya görüşleri içerisinde öğretmenlik mesleğinin yeri incelenerek anlaşılabilir (Krzywacki, 2009). Özellikle öğretmen adaylarının hayat hikayeleri ve hayat hikayelerinin bir sonucu olarak oluşmuş inançları onların mesleki kimlik oluşturma sürecinin önemli unsuru olduğu düşünüldüğünde öğretmen adaylarıyla bu alanda araştırmalar yapılmasına ihtiyaç olduğu söylenebilir.

Türkiye'de öğretmenlerin ve öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kimliklerini veya öğretmenliği nasıl gördüklerini konu alan araştırmalar incelendiğinde ise bu araştırmalarda sıklıkla metaforların kullanıldığı görülmüştür. Lakoff ve Johnson'un (1980) çalışmalarına dayalı olarak gelişen ve "zihinsel metafor teorisi" olarak adlandırılan perspektife göre, kavram sistemimiz büyük ölçüde metaforik ise, o zaman düşünme tarzımız, tecrübe ettiğimiz her olgu ve günlük olarak yaptığımız her şey de bir bakıma metaforiktir. Metaforların zihinsel imgeler olup, bireylerin çevreyi algılamalarına ve karmaşık yapıları açıklığa kavuşturmalarına yarayan bir araç olduğu, aynı zamanda da, metaforların olayların oluşumu ve işleyişi hakkında düşüncelerimizi yapılandıran, yönlendiren ve kontrol eden zihinsel araçlardan da biri olduğu söylenebilir. Metaforlar, bireylerin kişisel deneyimlerine anlam vermeleri bakımından "uygulama ve anlamların dili" olarak da tanımlanmaktadır (Schon, 1993). Bu nedenle araştırmacılar metaforların kişilerin öğretmenlik kavramı ve eğitimdeki rolleri anlamak için işlevsel olduğunu ifade etmektedir (Cerit, 2008; Bullough, 1991). Bu nedenlerle öğretmenlik mesleğini tanımlaya yönelik metafor çalışması, öğretmenlerin mesleki kimliklerine ilişkin tanımlamalarını araştırmak için uygun bir araç olarak görülmüştür.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu çalışmanın amacı, Türkçe Bölümünde okumakta olan öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kimliklerine ilişkin görüşlerini metafor analizi yoluyla incelemektir. Bu genel amaç çerçevesinde aşağıdaki sorulara cevap aranmıştır:

1. Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının Türkçe öğretmenine ilişkin sahip oldukları metaforlar nelerdir?

2. Bu metaforlar ortak özellikleri bakımından hangi kavramsal kategoriler altında toplanabilir?

3. Bu kavramsal kategoriler Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının sınıf düzeyine göre değişiklik göstermekte midir?

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Bu çalışmada, Türkçe Öğretmeni adaylarının “Türkçe öğretmeni” kavramına yönelik metaforik düşünme durumlarını belirlemek için nitel araştırma desenlerinden “olgu bilim” kullanılmıştır. Araştırma verileri Çukurova Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Türkçe Eğitimi Bölümü’nde okuyan 123 öğretmen adayından toplanmıştır. Araştırmada yer alan öğretmen adaylarının %55’ini kadın (n=68), %45’ini de (n=55) erkek öğretmenler oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmaya katılan Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının %26’sı (n=32) birinci sınıf, %24’ü (n=30) ikinci sınıf, %28’i (n=34) üçüncü sınıf, %22’si (n=27) dördüncü sınıfta okumaktadır. Katılımcılardan “Türkçe öğretmeni... gibidir/benzer; çünkü,...” ifadesini metafor kullanarak doldurmaları istenmiştir. Veriler nitel veri çözümleme teknikleri kullanılarak analiz edilmiş, daha sonra baskın kategoriye sahip gruplara ki-kare testi uygulanmıştır. Katılımcıların geliştirdikleri metaforların analiz edilmesi, beş aşamada gerçekleştirildi: (1) kodlama ve ayıklama aşaması, (2) örnek metafor imgesi derleme aşaması, (3) kategori geliştirme aşaması, (4) geçerlik ve güvenilirliği sağlama aşaması ve (5) nicel veri analizi için verileri SPSS paket programına aktarma aşaması (Saban, 2009).

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Araştırma sonucunda öğretmen adayları Türkçe öğretmenine yönelik 41 geçerli metafor geliştirmiş ve bu metaforlar “bilgi sağlayıcı”, “biyresel gelişimi destekleyici”, “yol gösterici ve yönlendirici”, “şekillendirici/biçimlendirici”, “güç göstergesi” ve “tedavi edici” olmak üzere altı kategoride toplanmıştır. Araştırma sonucunda, Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının yarısından çoğunun (70 öğretmen adayı) öğretmeni geleneksel rolleriyle (örneğin, “öğrencilere bilgi sunma” ve “öğrencilere şekil verme”) tanımladığı belirlenmiştir. Türkçe öğretmenin geleneksel rollerden en önemlisini ise, öğretmenlerin “öğrencilere bilgi sunma” (39 öğretmen adayı) rolü oluşturmaktadır. Bu çalışmada ayrıca, Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının geliştirdiği metaforların sınıf düzeyi değişkenlerine göre farklılaşmadığı tespit edilmiştir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Bu çalışmada, öğretmen adayları mesleki kimliklerini yani Türkçe öğretmenlerini yansıtmak amacıyla 41 metafor geliştirmişler ve geliştirdikleri bu metaforlar da altı kategoride toplanmıştır. Öğretmen adayları Türkçe öğretmenlerini “öğrencilere bilgi sunma” rolü ile tanımlamışlardır. Bu çalışmada ulaşılan bir diğer sonuç ise Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının sınıf düzeyine göre öğretmene yönelik bakış açısının değişmediğidir. Öğretmenlik kimliği; bilişsel, sosyal ve mesleki boyutları içeren bir yapıya sahiptir. Öğretmenlik kimliğinin oluşmasında; lisans öncesi deneyimler, öğretmen eğitimi ve mesleki tecrübeler etkili olmaktadır. Ancak bu çalışmada öğretmen adaylarının lisans öncesi deneyimlerinde etkili olan hayat hikayeleri ve bunun sonucu olarak oluşmuş inançları ele alınmamıştır, ileride yapılacak çalışmalar için bu değişkenlerin incelenmesi önerilebilir. Sonuç olarak; nitelikli bir eğitim hizmeti verebilmek, büyük oranda

kaliteli öğretmenlerin varlığına bağlı olduğundan hizmet öncesi eğitimde amaç bireylerin sahip olduğu yetenekleri geliştiren ve öğrencilerin öğrenmelerine yardımcı olan, onlara bilgiyi hazır şekilde veren değil de bilgiye ulaşma yollarını ve bilgiyi kullanma becerisini kazandırmayı amaçlayan öğretmenler yetiştirmek olmalıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öğretmen yetiştirme, Türkçe öğretmeni, öğretmen zihinsel imajı, nitel araştırma.

Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions, Learning Oriented Motivation, Lifelong Learning Tendencies of Candidate Teachers: A Modeling Study¹

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Abstract

Problem Statement: While the concept of professional self-efficacy corresponds to the power and belief employees feel related to tasks they are performing, motivation can be defined as the internal energy which shapes work related behaviors of employees positively. Although there are many features that teachers and candidate teachers must have, the self-efficacy perception and the motivation to learning and teaching are two significant concepts that make teaching profession valuable. Additionally, teachers and the candidate teachers are expected to put value on learning throughout the life span. For this reason it is assumed that lifelong learning tendency can be considered as one of the most valuable determiner of teacher self-efficacy perception and motivation for candidate teachers.

Purpose of the Study: In this respect, relationships between learning oriented motivations and teacher self-efficacy perceptions of candidate teachers are discussed within the context of structural equation modeling, and it is aimed to be explained through lifelong learning tendencies.

Method: The research population, in which descriptive method is used, is formed by 4419 candidate teachers studying in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University (ÇOMÜ), the research sample is formed by 382 candidate teachers of 5 departments of Faculty of Education. The data was obtained with "Learning Oriented Motivation", "Lifelong Learning Tendencies" and "Teacher Self Efficacy" scales.

¹ This study was orally presented in 1st Eurasian Educational Research Congress.

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Findings: Data analysis of the study revealed that level of learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendencies and self-efficacy perceptions towards teaching profession of candidate teachers are high, and the whole of the relationship between learning oriented motivation of candidate teachers and self-efficacy perceptions towards teaching profession is provided through lifelong learning tendencies.

Conclusion and Recommendations: Teacher candidates have a high level of perception towards learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendencies and self-efficacy. Also there is a positive relationship between their perceptions about them. Concerning the results of the study, it can be suggested that supportive studies for learning oriented motivation level and lifelong learning competences should be realized so as to make teaching oriented self-efficacy perceptions of candidate teachers more positive. Additionally, the need of including lifelong learning concept to faculties of education and programs more effectively and the importance of reflecting it to candidate teachers by teaching staff should be arisen. Lastly, lifelong learning opportunities in faculties of education should be diversified; candidate teachers' access to learning opportunities such as library, internet, courses and seminars should be facilitated.

Keywords: Teacher self-efficacy, learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendency, candidate teacher, teaching profession.

Introduction

Even though awareness of lifelong learning is important for all individuals (Fairclough, 2008), it emerges as a concept which especially teachers and students who are candidate teachers need to turn it into life philosophy. It is a well-known fact that lifelong learning, besides personal and social education, includes work based education and it is in many areas related to the formal education system. Lifelong learning means encouraging acquisition of basic knowledge and skills, expanding flexible and innovative learning opportunities including invest more in people and knowledge. For this reason, the students, who are educated by teachers who determine path of continuous development, openness to innovation and learning never ends, will contribute to the development of the society more than anyone else. Besides lifelong learning ability of candidate teachers, some other individual traits are important factors in the realization of the objectives of the training programs they are in. These targets which are set for the training programs should be consistent with readiness level of the students and desire and motivation for continuing to the program and participations (Irizarry, 2002). Self-actualization, reaching professional fulfillment and success for candidate students depend on the traits they have and to what extent profession meet their needs (Demirkol, 2012).

The traits of candidate teachers who are possible teachers of future and consistency of these traits with the aims of training they had have a major role in their professional success (Dogutas, 2016). While there are many traits and qualities

candidate teachers must have, professional self-efficacy and motivation felt towards training programs are the most important ones. While Bandura (2001) defines self-efficacy concept as "individuals' being aware of qualifications they have related to actions and performances they are expected and required to perform in a specific area", Colman (2009) defines motivation as "propellant power which set going towards the target determined by individual himself or another factor, physical and psychological readiness situation for the target".

Self-efficacy may affect individual's ability to fulfill a task or predetermined aim, along with organizing individual's perception type of own traits and abilities (Pajares & Schunk 2001). Self-efficacy perceptions are not a part of the skills of individuals; it can affect the results of work, behavior or condition independent from individuals' having qualifications to realize a work, behavior or condition. On the other hand, individual's self-efficacy perception is not enough by oneself in order to accomplish a task, but it can affect achievement positively or negatively. This positive and negative effects caused by self-efficacy perceptions having an impact on elements independent of task related main skills such as effort on a specific work, level of the effort, motivation and retry in case of failure, performance. For this reason, self-efficacy concept, which is very important for teachers and candidate teachers, directly affects the levels of motivations and actions they are in, forms a basis for attempts which they can achieve results by determining which actions they successfully fulfil (Schwarzer, 1992; Wlodkowski, 2008). Moreover, as the other traits that affect the quality of teachers, motivation to learning and teaching is another essential factor. The reason for this reality is that motivation is one of the most important determinants of the direction, power and duration of human behavior. Motivation for the teacher is the force that leads them for the targets for the learning environment and their professional development. Beginning from the first moment of professional training, candidate teachers face to the way of their instructors teach and behave in the class. Therefore, it can be said that lifelong learning which is one of the important teacher traits has major contributions on the effects of the motives, candidate teachers developed related to the training they had, on efficacy perception towards teaching profession which they will realize.

The relationship between learning oriented motivation of candidate teachers and teacher self-efficacy perceptions is discussed, and it is tried to be explained through lifelong learning tendencies of candidate teachers. For this purpose, answers are sought for the following research questions within the frame of theoretical model as shown in Figure 1.

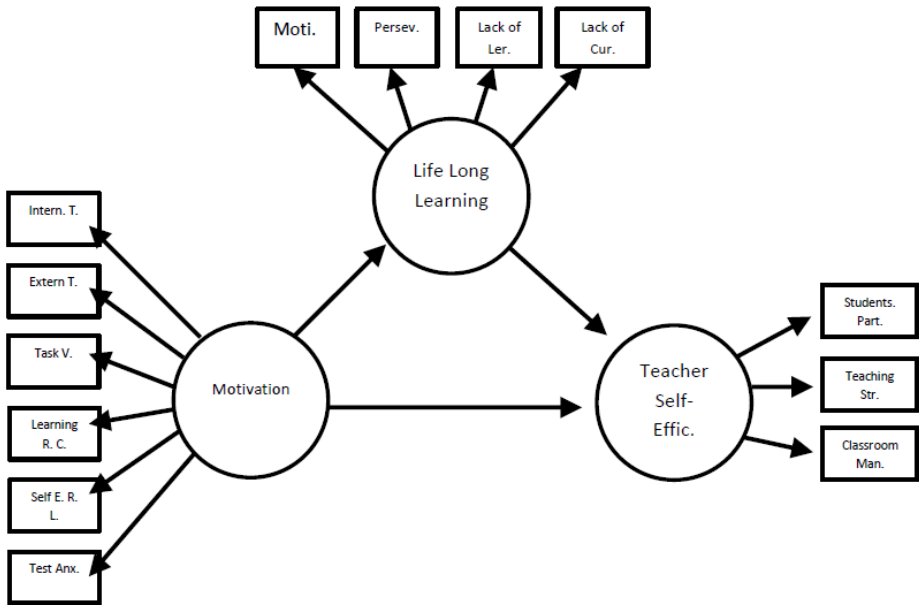


Figure 1. Theoretical model

1. What is the level of learning oriented motivation, teacher self-efficacy perceptions and lifelong learning tendency of candidate teachers?
2. Are there significant relationships between learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendencies and teacher self-efficacy of candidate teachers?
3. Is learning oriented motivation of candidate teachers directly related with teacher self-efficacy or is it related through lifelong learning tendencies which is a mediator variable?

Method

Research Design

In this research, descriptive method was used and structural equation modeling technique has been applied in order to test theoretical model which is formed by using variables which constitutes the research subject. Structural equation modeling is more powerful technique than other multiple analysis techniques in terms of presenting separate and complex relationships between a group of variables (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tahtam, 2006). In addition, structural equation modeling, unlike other techniques, allows including defined implicit variables in the studies instead of working with only observed variables (Bollen, 1989; Blunch, 2008; Kline, 2010; Turkmen, 2011; Hoyle, 2012).

Research Sample

The research population consists of 4419 candidate teachers studying in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University (ÇOMÜ) Faculty of Education. 382 candidate teachers who are chosen to represent ÇOMÜ Faculty of Education students and who are studying in 5 departments (Information technologies Teaching, English Language Teaching, Music Teaching, Classroom Teaching and History Teaching) take part in the sample. 151 (39.53%) of the students in the sample are male, and 213 (60.07%) are female. In addition, 85 (22.25%) of the candidate teachers in the sample study in classroom teaching, 111 (29.06) of them study in information technology teaching, 102 (26.70%) of them study in English language teaching, 52 (13.61%) of them study in history teaching, and 32 (8.38%) of them study in music teaching. Distribution of candidate teachers according to grades is; 106 (27.75%) of them 1th grade, 78 (20.43%) of them 2nd grade, 112 (29.32%) of them 3rd grade and 86 (22.51) of them 4th grade.

Research Instruments

The data collection tool which is formed by information form and "Learning Oriented Motivation", "Lifelong Learning Tendency" and "Teacher Self Efficacy" scales which are edited for candidate teachers within this research is used.

Learning Oriented Motivation Scale: This scale was developed by Pintrich, Smith, Garcia & Mckeachie (1991) and was adapted to Turkish by Buyukozturk, Akgun, Ozkahveci & Demirel (2004). The scale is 5-point Likert-type which consists of 31 items and 3 items are reverse scored. Learning Oriented Motivation Scale consists of 6 subcomponents; 'Internal Target Organizing', 'External Target Organizing', 'Task Value', 'Learning Related Control Belief', 'Self Efficacy Related to Learning and Performance' and 'Test Anxiety'. Reliability coefficients (Cronbach Alpha) of subcomponents of the scale were stated between .59 and .86 by Buyukozturk et al. (2004). In this study, the reliability coefficient for the whole scale was found as $\alpha=.86$.

Lifelong Learning Tendencies Scale: The scale has been developed by Diker Coskun (2009). Lifelong Learning Tendencies Scale is 5 point Likert type and consists of 27 items and 4 subcomponents (Motivation, Perseverance, Lack of Learning Organization and Curiosity). 15 items of 'Lack of Learning Organization' and 'Lack of Curiosity' subcomponents are negative and reverse scored. Reliability coefficient of the scale was found as $\alpha=.89$ by Diker Coskun (2009), it was calculated as $\alpha=.91$ in this research.

Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale: The scale, which is developed by Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy (2001) and adapted to Turkish by Capa Aydin, Cakiroglu, & Sarikaya (2005), consists of 24 items. According to the results of validity study made by Capa Aydin, Cakiroglu, & Sarikaya (2005), the scale consists of 3 subcomponents as 'Student Participation Oriented Self-Efficacy', 'Teaching Strategies Oriented Self-Efficacy' and 'Classroom Management Oriented Self-Efficacy'. The reliability coefficient of the scale is found as $\alpha=.93$ by Capa Aydin, Cakiroglu, & Sarikaya (2005), it is found as $\alpha=.91$ for this research.

Procedure and Data Analysis

In this study, which direct and indirect relationships between learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendency and teacher self-efficacy perceptions of candidate teachers were analyzed by theoretical model, SPSS 21.0 and Amos 20.0 statistical software were utilized. Organization of the data which were obtained in order to test theoretical model made by SPSS 21.0, and normal distribution of data sets and homogeneity of variances were examined. Then theoretical model which is constituted by transferring data sets to Amos 20.0 was tested with structural equation modeling (path analysis). Examining the relationships between structural equation modeling and the invisible structures (latent variables) can be ensured (Karadag, 2009). In this respect, in structural modeling's testing with structural equation modeling, path analysis was used in order to combine the measurement errors at latent and observed variables. The goodness of fit values of structural model obtained directed to theoretical modeling which is proposed in the research process were evaluated by; goodness of fit statistics. Goodness of fit statistics for structural equation modeling allows deciding whether a model is supported in a acceptable level as a whole by data or not (Hu, & Bentler, 1999). chi-square/degree of freedom (χ^2/df), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Root Mean Square Error of Aproximation (RMSEA) were determined as mostly used fitting values out of the path analysis results carried out in accordance with structural equation modeling of theoretical model which forms the basis of this research (Blunch, 2008).

Results

In this part of the study, the results are given in order to reveal the relationships among Learning Oriented Motivation, Lifelong Learning Tendencies and Teacher Self Efficacy Perceptions. Firstly, results for the question "What is the level of learning oriented motivation, teacher self-efficacy perceptions and lifelong learning tendencies of candidate teachers?" are analyzed. They are presented in Table 1.

Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics Belonging to Learning Oriented Motivation, Lifelong Learning Tendencies and Teacher Self Efficacy Perceptions of Candidate Teachers

<i>Latent And Observed Variables</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Mak.</i>	\bar{X}	<i>s.d.</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>
Learning Oriented Motivations	382	1.58	4.65	3.58	.48	-.24	.19
<i>Internal Target Organization</i>	382	1.50	5.00	3.48	.71	-.30	-.32
<i>External Target Organization</i>	382	1.00	5.00	3.60	.91	-.51	-.33
<i>Task Value</i>	382	1.33	5.00	3.57	.68	-.21	-.25
<i>Learning Related Control Belief</i>	382	1.25	5.00	3.73	.66	-.31	.35

Table 1 Continue

<i>Latent And Observed Variables</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Mak.</i>	\bar{X}	<i>s.d.</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>
<i>Learning and Performance Related Self-Efficacy</i>	382	1.38	5.00	3.65	.66	-.17	-.20
<i>Test Anxiety</i>	382	1.80	5.00	3.43	.59	.03	-.17
<i>Lifelong Learning Tendencies</i>	382	1.89	5.00	3.74	.62	-.19	-.78
<i>Motivation</i>	382	2.00	5.00	3.96	.71	-.48	-.35
<i>Perseverance</i>	382	1.17	5.00	3.43	.78	-.23	-.34
<i>Lack of Learning Organization</i>	382	1.00	5.00	3.87	.94	-.70	-.44
<i>Lack of Curiosity</i>	382	1.00	5.00	3.71	.93	-.57	-.33
<i>Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions</i>	382	2.54	4.92	3.91	.50	-.32	-.49
<i>Student Participation Oriented Self-Efficacy</i>	382	2.25	5.00	3.89	.52	-.42	-.16
<i>Teaching Strategies Oriented Self-Efficacy</i>	382	2.25	5.00	3.93	.55	-.35	-.32
<i>Classroom Management Oriented Self-Efficacy</i>	382	2.25	5.00	3.93	.57	-.40	-.27

Note: In the assessment of the averages of concepts, the ranges; "1.00-1.79= Very Low", "1.80-2.59= Low", "2.60-3.39= Medium", "3.40-4.19= High" and "4.20-5.00= Very High" were used.

According to the data shown in Table 1; learning oriented motivation ($\bar{X}=3.58$), lifelong learning tendencies ($\bar{X}=3.74$) and teacher self-efficacy perception ($\bar{X}=3.91$) of candidate teachers are high level. Correlation analysis results for the second question of the research "Are there significant relationships between learning oriented motivations, lifelong learning tendencies and teacher self-efficacy perceptions of candidate teachers?" are shown in Table 2.

When the data in Table 2 analyzed; it is seen that there are statistically significant correlation coefficients, which are $r=-.01$ and $r=.75$, between the majority of the observed variables. In addition, there are significant relationships found at the level of "between learning oriented motivation and lifelong learning tendencies $r=.40$, between learning oriented motivation and teacher self-efficacy $r=.42$ and between lifelong learning tendencies and teacher self-efficacy $r=.37$ " which are one of the concepts defined as latent variables in the process of the research. Theoretical model which is basis of the third question of the research "Is learning oriented motivation of candidate teachers directly related with teacher self-efficacy perceptions or is it related through lifelong learning tendencies which is a variable mediator?" is acceptable for testing according to Anderson, & Gerbing (1988). Additionally, path analysis results, which belong to theoretical model created towards the relationship between learning oriented motivation and teacher self-efficacy perceptions of candidate teachers is provided through lifelong learning tendencies, are shown in Figure 2.

Table 2.
Correlation Coefficients between Learning Oriented Motivation, Lifelong Learning Tendencies and Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions of Candidate Teachers

Observed Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Internal Target Organization	1.00												
2. External Target Organization	.19**	1.00											
3. Task Value	.53**	.45**	1.00										
4. Learning Related Control Belief	.34**	.16**	.47**	1.00									
5. Learning and Performance Related Self-Efficacy	.56**	.31**	.57**	.47**	1.00								
6. Test Anxiety	.24**	.14**	.23**	.22**	.34**	1.00							
7. Motivation	.53**	.13*	.37**	.29**	.49**	.22**	1.00						
8. Perseverance	.45**	.05	.33**	.17**	.38**	.11*	.60**	1.00					
9. Lack of Learning Organization	.21**	.02	.19**	.10*	.22**	.18**	.25**	.03	1.00				
10. Lack of Curiosity	.23**	-.01	.19**	.04	.15**	.17**	.31**	.21**	.69**	1.00			
11. Student Participation Oriented Self-Efficacy	.34**	.17**	.31**	.16**	.42**	.10	.45**	.34**	.24**	.19**	1.00		
12. Teaching Strategies Oriented Self-Efficacy	.34**	.14**	.30**	.19**	.42**	.14**	.47**	.32**	.23**	.17**	.72**	1.00	
13. Classroom Management Oriented Self-Efficacy	.27**	.13*	.30**	.20**	.40**	.14**	.36**	.17**	.22**	.10*	.71**	.75**	1.00
LATENT VARIABLES	1	2	3										
1. Learning Oriented Motivations	1.00												
2. Lifelong Learning Tendencies	.40**	1.00											
3. Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions	.42**	.37**	1.00										

* $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$

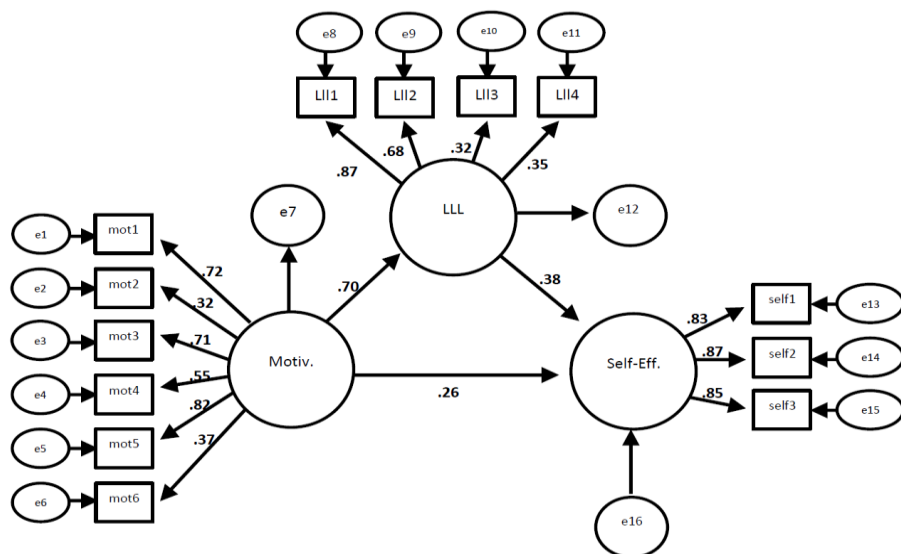


Figure 2. Structural equation diagram model results of learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendencies and teacher self-efficacy of candidate teachers

Theoretical model was tested by Maximum Likelihood Estimation method. Fit indexes are obtained from structural equation modeling test. Test results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3.
Fit Indexes Related to Theoretical Model

<i>Fit Index</i>	<i>Fit Values Belonging To Model</i>	<i>Reference Values</i>	<i>Description</i>
χ^2	148.323	p=.000 <2	p≤.050 Good fit
χ^2/df	2.514	<2,5 <3 <5	Small sample Medium fit
GFI	.944	>.90 >.90	Good fit
AGFI	.913	>.90 >.95	Perfect fit
CFI	.956	>.95 >.95 >.90	n<250
RMSEA	.063	<.05 <.06 <.08 <.10	Good fit n<250 Week fit

Note: Ranges and descriptions of fitting values are quoted from Turkmen (2009, 51).

When the fitting values from Table 3 analyzed, it is seen that theoretical model is a valid model with a good fitting level. In addition, it was determined that the whole relationship between learning oriented motivation and teacher self-efficacy of candidate teachers (direct relation estimates=.26) is provided through lifelong learning tendencies (indirect relation estimates=.27) and lifelong learning tendencies is full mediator variable for this theoretical model.

Discussion and Conclusion

Research results show that level of learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendencies and teaching profession oriented self-efficacy of candidate teachers are high. The other research result is that there are medium positive significant relationships between learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendencies and teaching related self-efficacy perceptions of candidate teachers. Lastly, it is seen that lifelong learning tendency is the full mediator variable for teaching profession oriented self-efficacy of candidate teachers in the frame of theoretical model of the research.

As the conclusion for this research, it is vital to emphasize the relation among learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendencies and teaching profession oriented self-efficacy of candidate teachers. Research results have proved that self-efficacy perceptions of candidate teachers are not a part of the their skills, but it can affect the results of their work, behaviour or condition independent from having qualifications to realize this work, behaviour or condition. On the other hand, candidate teachers' self-efficacy perception is not enough by oneself in order to accomplish the task, but it can affect achievement positively or negatively. This positive and negative effects caused by self-efficacy perceptions having impact on elements independent of task such as learning oriented motivation and lifelong learning tendency.

Teaching profession and the teacher are the two key concepts to direct the education to the whole shareholders of the society. The quality of education is connected to the quality of teachers and their training for the profession and specific qualities that they have in social and professional life (Aybek, 2016). One of the most crucial factor that makes the education well qualified is the training of pre-service teachers (Baysura et al, 2016). The features that a pre-service teacher is shaped by his/her personal tendencies and point of life because teaching profession requires being guide for students, supplying the suitable atmosphere for students' learning and being model for their personal and social development (Karatas, 2013; Isiktas, 2015).

After the analysis made corresponding to the aim of this study, the first of the results reached is that level of learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendencies and teaching profession oriented self-efficacy of candidate teachers are high. The research conducted in order to determine motivation, lifelong learning and

teacher self-efficacy of candidate teachers are located in the literature. A study which shows parallelism with the obtained findings was conducted by Oguz (2012) and the result that self-efficacy perceptions of candidate class teachers were high was found. Erdem and Gozel (2014) also stated that profession related motivation level of candidate class teachers was "agree". In lifelong learning perceptions component, Gencil (2013) reveals that candidate teachers perceive themselves as "adequate" about lifelong learning. In the light of this knowledge, it can be thought that educational and training activities applied in faculties of education contribute candidate teachers' motivation to the program and the profession they are in, feeling adequate for the profession they will have in the years and lifelong learning.

The other research result is that there are medium positive significant relationships between learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendencies and teaching related self-efficacy perceptions of candidate teachers. "Providing whole of the relationship between learning oriented motivation and teaching profession oriented self-efficacy of candidate teachers on lifelong learning motivation (full mediator variable) of candidate teachers" which is determined by testing theoretical model based on these relationships is one of the results of the research. Coskun and Demirel (2012), in line with this finding, emphasized the importance of the programs of higher education institution students by revising with the perspective of lifelong learning. As implied from the results of the research, lifelong learning tendency of candidate teachers, which enables them to held learning opportunities to meet their individual and professional needs for lifetime, gives the required way to get motivated to learn and reflect more. As Kazu and Demiralp (2016) states, in today's technological and innovative world, lifelong learning, besides personal and social education, includes work based education, which is very crucial for teaching profession as lifelong learning means encouraging acquisition of basic knowledge and skills, expanding flexible and innovative learning opportunities including invest more in people and knowledge.

When the results of the other researchers conducted in same fields are considered, it can be stated that adjuvant studies for learning oriented motivation level and lifelong learning competences should be made in order to make teaching oriented self-efficacy perceptions of candidate teachers more positive. In addition, the need of including lifelong learning concept to faculties of education and programs more effectively and the importance of reflecting it to candidate teachers by teaching staff should be arisen. However, lifelong learning opportunities in faculties of education should be diversified; candidate teachers' access to learning opportunities such as library, internet, courses and seminars should be facilitated; in this way efficacy perception for their professions and motivation for the programs they are in should be increased. Above all, lifelong learning tendency should be supported by revising the programs not only for university students but also for students from all levels starting from pre-school education, which will directly affect the candidate teachers positively towards the profession and themselves during their teaching education.

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Öğretmen Adaylarının Öz Yeterlik Algıları, Öğrenme Yönelimli Motivasyonları ve Yaşam Boyu Öğrenme Eğilimleri: Bir Modelleme Çalışması

Atıf:

- Akyol, B. (2016). Teacher self-efficacy perceptions, learning oriented motivation, lifelong learning tendencies of candidate teachers: A modeling study. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 19-34
10.14689/ejer.2016.65.02

Özet

Problem Durumu: Yaşam boyu öğrenme tüm bireyler için önem taşısa da, özellikle öğretmen ve öğretmen adayları için de bir yaşam felsefesi haline getirilmesi gereken ve aynı zamanda öğrencilerine aşılmalari günümüz yaşam koşullarında zorunluluk halini almış bir kavramdır. Kişisel ve sosyal eğitimin yanında, yaşam boyu öğrenmenin iş temelli öğrenme ve formal eğitim sisteminin tüm öğeleri ile ilişkisi bulunmaktadır. Bu bilgilerden yola çıkarak, yaşam boyu öğrenme, bilgi ve yetenekleri teşvik etme, yenilikçi öğrenme fırsatlarını ortaya koyma ve öğrenmeyi bir yaşam unsuru haline getirme olarak tanımlanabilmektedir. Bu sebepten dolayı, yaşam boyu öğrenmeyi bir yaşam felsefesi haline getiren öğretmenler tarafından yetiştirilen öğrenciler toplumun da öğrenme temelli şekil almasına katkıda bulunacaktır. Aday öğretmenler açısından bakıldığında, yaşam boyu öğrenme becerilerinin yanında bazı diğer bireysel özellikler de mesleki yaşamları açısından önem taşımaktadır. Bunlar içerisinde yer alan mesleki öz yeterlik kavramı bireylerin mesleki açıdan kendilerinden beklenen görevleri yerine getirme sürecinde sahip oldukları ve hissettikleri yeterlik algısını ifade ederken, motivasyon ise bir görevi yerine getirmeye yönelik bireylerin hissettikleri fiziksel ve psikolojik hazır olma durumudur. Yaşam boyu öğrenme, mesleki öz yeterlik algısı ve motivasyon

kavramları birlikte değerlendirildiğinde, öğretmen adaylarının yaşam boyu öğrenme konusundaki hazır bulunuşları, ileride gerçekleştirecekleri öğretmenlik mesleğine ilişkin yeterli tutumlarını ve mesleği icra etmeye yönelik motivasyonlarını olumlu yönde etkileyeceği söylenebilir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu araştırmanın amacı, öğretmen adaylarının öğrenmeye yönelik motivasyonları ve mesleki öz yeterlik algıları arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya koymak ve bu ilişkiyi yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimi aracılığı ile açıklamaktır. Bu amaç çerçevesinde şu alt problemlere yanıt aranacaktır;

1. Öğretmen adaylarının öğrenmeye yönelik motivasyon, öğretmen öz yeterlik algı ve yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimleri hangi düzeydedir?
2. Öğretmen adaylarının öğrenmeye yönelik motivasyon, öğretmen öz yeterlik algı ve yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki var mıdır?
3. Aday öğretmenlerin öğrenmeye yönelik motivasyonları ve öğretmen öz yeterlik algıları arasında direk bir ilişki mi vardır veya bu ilişki yaşam boyu öğrenme aracı değişkeni ile midir?

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: İlişkisel tarama modelindeki bu çalışmada araştırmanın değişkenleri arasında ilişkiyi ortaya koymak için yapısal eşitlik modellemesi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın evrenini 2013-2014 eğitim öğretim yılında Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi'ne devam etmekte olan 4419 aday öğretmen oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmanın evrenini ise basit tesadüfi örnekleme ile belirlenen ve Bilgisayar ve Öğretim Teknolojileri Eğitimi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Müzik Eğitimi, Sınıf Öğretmenliği ve Tarih Öğretmenliği bölümlerinde eğitimlerine devam eden 382 aday öğretmen oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmanın verilerini elde etmek için kullanılan ölçeklerden Öğrenme Yönelimli Motivasyon Ölçeği Pintrich, Smith, Garcia & Mckeachie (1991) tarafından geliştirilmiş ve Büyüköztürk, Akgün, Özkahveci & Demirel (2004) tarafından Türkçe 'ye uyarlanmış; Yaşam Boyu Öğrenme Eğilimi ölçeği Diker Coşkun (2009) tarafından geliştirilmiş; Öğretmen Öz Yeterlik Ölçeği ise Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001) tarafından geliştirilmiş ve Çapa Aydın, Çakıroğlu, & Sarıkaya (2005) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanmıştır. Araştırmanın verileri SPSS 21.0 ve Amos 20.0 istatistik programları kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Öncelikli olarak araştırmanın teorik modellemesi ortaya konmuş; verilerin normal dağılım gösterip göstermediği ve değişkenlerin homojenliği test edilmiş, ve yapısal eşitlik modellemesi uygulanmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Araştırmanın ilk problem cümlesi olan 'Öğretmen adaylarının öğrenmeye yönelik motivasyon, öğretmen öz yeterlik algı ve yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimleri hangi düzeydedir?' sorusuna yanıtı olarak, öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme yönelimli motivasyon seviyelerinin ($X = 3.58$), yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimlerinin ($X = 3.74$) ve öğretmen öz yeterlik algılarının ($X = 3.91$) yüksek olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Araştırmanın diğer problem cümlesi olan 'Öğretmen adaylarının öğrenmeye yönelik motivasyon, öğretmen öz yeterlik algı ve yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki var mıdır?' sorusuna cevap vermek için yapılan analiz sonucunda ise öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme yönelimli motivasyon ve yaşam

boyu öğrenme eğilimleri arasına $r=.42$, öğrenme yönelimli motivasyon ve öğretmen öz yeterlik algıları arasında $r=.42$ ve yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimleri ve öğretmen öz yeterlik algıları arasında da $r=.32$ seviyesinde anlamlı ilişki olduğu görülmüştür. Araştırmanın teorik temelini oluşturan ve son problem cümlesi olan 'Aday öğretmenlerin öğrenmeye yönelik motivasyonları ve öğretmen öz yeterlik algıları arasında direk bir ilişki mi vardır veya bu ilişki yaşam boyu öğrenme aracı değişkeni ile midir?' sorusuna cevap vermek için yapılan analiz sonucunda, teorik modelin çaştığı ve öğrenme yönelimli motivasyon ile öğretmen öz yeterlik algısı arasındaki ilişkinin tamamının yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimi ile ortaya çıktığı anlaşılmaktadır.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Araştırma sonucuna göre, öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme yönelimli motivasyon, yaşam boyu öğrenme ve öğretmen öz yeterlik algılarının yüksek olduğu görülmektedir. Ayrıca öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme yönelimli motivasyon, yaşam boyu öğrenme ve öğretmen öz yeterlik algıları arasında olumlu ve orta düzeyde bir ilişkinin de olduğu ortaya çıkmaktadır. Araştırmanın son sonucu ise yaşam boyu öğrenme eğiliminin öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme yönelimli motivasyon ve öğretmen öz yeterlik algıları arasındaki ilişkide tam aracı olduğudur. Bu sonuçlar göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, öğretmen adaylarının mesleğe ilişkin yeterlik algılarının olumlu olması için motivasyon seviyeleri ve yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimlerinin artırılmasına yönelik destekleyici çalışmalar gerçekleştirilmesi; yaşam boyu öğrenme kavramı eğitim fakültelerinin ders programları içeriğine alınmalı ve bu kavram öğretim elemanlarınca öğretmen adaylarına daha yoğun iletilmesi; ve öğretmen adaylarının yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimlerine direk etki edecek olan kütüphane, internet, ders ve seminerleri içeren öğrenme fırsatları artırılması önerilmektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Öğretmen öz yeterlik, öğrenme yönelimli motivasyon, yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimi, öğretmen adayı.

An Analysis of the Units “I’m Learning my Past” and “The Place where We Live” in the Social Studies Textbook Related to Critical Thinking Standards

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Various research have been conducted investigating the quality and quantity of textbooks such as wording, content, design, visuality, physical properties, activities, methods and techniques, questions and experiments, events, misconceptions, organizations, pictures, text selection, end of unit questions and assessments, indexes and glossaries, scientific content, readability, suitability for the target age group, and the opinions of teachers and students about specific textbooks. A literature review identified that no research has been carried out on social studies textbooks that has analyzed these textbooks in accordance with the standards of critical thinking. Therefore it was determined that such a study needed to be performed. With this study, it is thought that the standards of critical thinking should be considered when preparing textbooks in order to draw the attention of the authors so that the quality of textbooks will increase.

Purpose of the Study: The aim of the current study is to analyze the units “I am learning my past and the place where we live” in the primary education fourth grade social studies textbook, in accordance with the standards of critical thinking.

Method: A qualitative research model was used in the study. Data was collected through document analysis. Themes were formed within the framework of critical thinking standards (i.e., clarity, accuracy, significance/relevance, sufficiency, breadth/depth, precision) regarding

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the social studies textbook. Descriptive analysis was used to analyze the data.

Findings and Conclusion: According to the findings, the activities in the textbook meet critical thinking standards of clarity, accuracy, significance/relevance, sufficiency standards at a high rate, and partially meet the standards for breadth/depth and precision.

Recommendations: Arranging the activities in social studies textbooks so as to develop critical thinking skills will contribute to the development of higher level thinking skills of the students, which is one of the main objectives of education. The quality of education will improve provided that social studies textbooks are prepared according to the standards of critical thinking. Textbooks should be meticulously prepared by publishers. The preparation of social studies textbooks not only by the experts but also by other experts(e.g., program development specialist, field specialists from university, branch teachers, educational psychologists, etc.) to facilitate student acquisition of critical thinking skills within the context of modern education mentality along with performing pilot scheme will contribute to the improvement and advance in education.

Keywords: Elementary school, education, thinking, critical thinking

Introduction

In today's world of rapid globalization and decentralization, communities need trained and qualified manpower in areas such as science and technology. The training of qualified manpower is possible with quality education (Fullan, 1991). Quality education is defined as teaching and learning studies which are performed in a convenient and conducive environment by informed and motivated students who take the needs and priorities of country, society, and individuals into account, who are aware of the need for participating in education and training activities with well-trained teachers within the framework of training programs that have been created by taking the available human resources and physical conditions into consideration(Dinc&Dogan,2010). With the aim of achieving quality education, countries are required to update their curriculum in consideration of recent social, scientific, and technological developments. Indeed, in recent years, developed and developing countries have amended their curricula by taking into account these developments.

In Turkey, a student-centered approach that uses the constructivist approach was adopted in the 2005-2006 academic year. Thus, social studies curriculum was amended with this approach. The new social studies curriculum aims to implement a new approach that is student-centered and thus activity-centered, and which balances knowledge and skills and provides students opportunities for interacting with their environment by taking into account their own lives and individual

differences. In line with this new approach, the social studies curriculum has been designed with the aim of accepting that each student is a unique individual, and showing sensitivity to the development of the qualities expected from students by shedding light on their future life. It aims to keep the realization of “learning for the sake of learning” in the forefront by ensuring the development of the learner’s knowledge, concepts, values, and skills, encouraging students to think, ask questions and to exchange opinions, and attaching importance to the adoption of universal values by focusing on national identity. Moreover, it has been also designed to foster the development of individuals who are both aware of their rights and who fulfill their responsibilities. It also accounts for a diversity of teaching-learning methods and techniques that appeal to all students. Finally, it evaluates these learning and teaching processes by periodically inspecting student’s work files (Akdeniz & Kapicioglu, 2011).

In 2005, primary education social studies curriculum was arranged according to the constructivist approach and higher-order thinking skills. Critical thinking is one of these higher-order thinking skills, and is one skill that the social studies curriculum aims to foster. Critical thinking has been defined in different ways by different scientists. Critical thinking generally requires higher-level thinking in that it requires synthesis and evaluation more than application or analysis (Moore,2001). According to Grant (1988), critical thinking is involved as thinking processes or forms such as general reasoning, logical thinking, higher-level thinking, acting wisely and creative thinking. Paul and Elder (2007) define critical thinking as the art of analyzing and evaluating thinking with a view to improving it. In addition, critical thinking is a skill that provides students the opportunity to put what they already know into practice, and to refresh their prior learning by esteeming their own thoughts. Critical thinking is not only composed of mental processes but also covers skills, trends, academic achievement, reading and habits (Facione,1990; Halpern,1996; Maltepe, 2016; Paul et al.1990; Norris,1985; Tunca,2015). Individual differences in the learning mental skills and complex opinions that are necessary for developing a realistic and objective worldview and different views highlight that one of the main objectives of the training programs is critical thinking. Critical thinking is supposed to be at the heart of education and training systems (Sahinel,2002).

According to Ozdemir (2006), critical thinking helps to ensure the development of new solutions, thus questioning whether the evidence is sufficient. According to Beyer (1988), individuals who have critical thinking skills can clearly express an issue or a problem and they do not act without thinking; in addition they control their studies and are willing to create new ideas. They search and offer reasons and evidence for their claims, and they tend to remain doubtful until sufficient evidence has been found. These skills are regarded as a major objective of Social Studies, which is the school subject that most prepares individuals for life. In this regard, critical thinking skills in social studies lessons are of great importance. Education System of Turkish required that social studies textbooks prepare students to acquire critical thinking skills by improving critical thinking in social studies lessons.

Textbooks are complementary teaching materials that offer courses within teaching programs in a structured way and explain them on a regular basis. They guide students about the course objectives and are essential tools for the educational process (Unsal&Gunes,2004).Textbooks are the most common and easily accessible training materials around the world. Textbooks are also considered a training program for teachers, even as they constitute a source of knowledge for students. In addition, textbooks have a significant function as they reflect curriculum to the classroom. As such, the preparation of textbooks is one way to encourage students to think will contribute to the quality of education. Thus it has become critical to emphasize critical thinking in textbooks and to prepare textbook content so that it develops critical thinking (Ozturk&Razgatlioglu,2013). Preparing textbook of social studies learning activities so that they are in compliance with critical thinking training will enable students to acquire critical thinking skills. Pursuant to a new social studies curriculum whose aim is to educate individuals to possess critical thinking skills, the preparation of textbooks so that they meet the standards of critical thinking should improve the suitability and the quality of these textbooks.

Various research have been conducted investigating the quality and quantity of textbooks such as wording, content, design, visuality, physical properties, activities, methods and techniques, questions and experiments, events, misconceptions, organizations, pictures, text selection, end of unit questions and assessments, indexes and glossaries, scientific content, readability, suitability for the target age group, and the opinions of teachers and students about specific textbooks (Aybek et al.2014;Bakar et al.2009;Cecen et al.2016;Gecit&Ozen,2011; Gunes et al.2016; Karadas et al.2012; Kirbaslar&Ince,2010;Kosker&Akoz, 2011).A literature review identified that no research has been carried out on social studies textbooks that has analyzed these textbooks in accordance with the standards of critical thinking. Therefore it was determined that such a study needed to be performed. With this study, it is thought that the standards of critical thinking should be considered when preparing textbooks in order to draw the attention of the authors so that the quality of textbooks will increase.

Aim

The aim of the current study is to analyze the units "I am learning my past and the place where we live" in the primary education fourth grade social studies textbook to examine whether or not it meets critical thinking standards, including clarity, accuracy, significance/ relevance, sufficiency, breadth/depth, and precision, as presented by Nosich (2012).

Method

Research Design

Qualitative research model was used to examine the units "I am learning my past and the place where we live" that are available in primary education fourth grade

social studies textbook, in accordance with the standards of critical thinking presented by Nosich (2012).

Research Sample

The study population consisted of fourth-class social studies textbooks. The fourth grade social studies textbook put out Tuna Publishing (Tuysuz, 2013) constituted the study sample. This book was selected because it was accepted by the Board of Education and used throughout Turkey in the 2013-2014 academic year.

Research Instrument and Data Analysis

Data was collected using document review, which is a qualitative research method. Document review analyzes written materials that contain knowledge about case reports or targeted case investigation (Yildirim&Simsek,2011).It is a review process by which the records and documents related to a study are collected and coded according to a certain system (Karasar,2012).In this study, the units "I am learning my past and the place where we live" were analyzed in terms of critical thinking standards which was put forward by Nosich (2012). Yildirim and Simsek (2011) stated that document review consists of five phases. These are:

1. *Access to the Document:* In this phase, the researcher accesses the appropriate documents by identifying which ones will fit the research aim. In this study, a primary education fourth grade social studies textbook was identified and the appropriate book was found.

2. *Checking Authenticity:* The authenticity of the accessible documents should be checked, since the reliability of the research is damaged if documents are used without checking their authenticity. In this study, an original copy of the fourth grade social studies textbook was obtained; the second researcher in this study serves as a fourth grade teacher, which ensures the reliability of the research.

3. *Understanding the Documents:* In the third phase, the obtained documents must be correctly understood and resolved. The obtained documents should be examined within a particular system. In this study, the textbook units that were used as a part of the study were comparatively analyzed in terms of critical thinking standards. Thus, critical thinking standards were explained one by researchers and which standard should have which feature was explained.

4. *Data Analysis:* Descriptive analysis was used to explain the compliance of the units "I am learning my past and the place where we live" with the standards of critical thinking. According to Yildirim and Simsek (2011), descriptive analysis is made with the aim of presenting findings to the reader in a well organized manner. In descriptive analysis, the obtained data can be summarized and interpreted based upon predetermined themes. In this study, the obtained findings were arranged and interpreted depending on the themes within the context of previously defined standards of critical thinking. Throughout the study, the activities in the textbook were analyzed to evaluate which ones were appropriate for critical thinking standards. Results are shown in the tables. A plus sign (+) indicates that critical

thinking standards were met, whereas a negative sign (-) indicates that critical thinking standards were not met.

Reliability and validity are the two most important criteria used for ensuring or increasing the credibility of a study's results. "The fact that the collected data are reported in detail and the researcher explains how to get the results is among the most important criteria of the validity in a qualitative research (Yildirim&Simsek,2011).In the study, data collection and analysis process were analyzed in a detailed way with a view to ensuring the validity of the research results. The researchers separately examined the textbook and came to consensus as to whether the activities in the textbook appropriately met critical thinking standards (Silverman,2005).In case of disagreement, determination was conducted by researchers. One of the approaches for ensuring reliability is the analysis of the research by an expert, where researchers present their study to an expert for examination and the expert gives feedback by checking the analysis, findings, and results of the study(Merriam,1998).In this study, two social studies teachers reviewed the study. As a result of examination, the teachers expressed that the analysis, findings, interpretations, and results were appropriate.

5. *Data Report*: At the fifth phase, the results should be reported. In this study, the obtained results were also reported.

Results

The standards of critical thinking put forward by Nosich (2012) are explained below. Whether or not the units "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" meet these standards was clarified through examples.

Clarity

The criteria for the standard of "clarity" are given below, as are the results that indicate whether or not these criteria were covered in the units is presented in Table 1. A plus sign (+) indicates that it covers the criteria whereas a minus (-) sign indicates that the criteria was not covered.

The language used in the book was found to be appropriate for the level of fourth-grade students. The definitions of some of the concepts in the units (e.g., natural disasters, weather, directions, etc.) are provided, yet other concepts (e.g., national culture, republic, war, leadership and so on) are not explained. The questions that the activities ask of students and the activity instructions are written in a clear and understandable manner. Most of the activities are written in such a simple way that students can understand them clearly. However, some activities are described in a much more detailed way. For instance, the knowledge available in the unit "Traditions from past to present" on page 44 has plenty of detail and covers the previous activities. In contrast, the activities of the units called "Let's see and draw nature in our culture" should be described in detail, yet no detail is given. It is evident that examples are given and visuals are used with the aim of concretizing the

statements. The visuals used are suitable for the activities. The activities are appropriate for the level of the students, and they are written in a manner that can be easily understood by the students. Because the units "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" reflect most of the criteria of the clarity standard, these units meet clarity at a high rate.

Table 1.

Findings Related to the Standard of Clarity

<i>The standard of clarity</i>	<i>I'm learning my past</i>					<i>The place where we live</i>				
	<i>The history of family</i>	<i>The elements of national culture</i>	<i>Our games from past to present</i>	<i>A taturk and national struggle</i>	<i>Directions</i>	<i>Let's see and draw</i>	<i>Weather forecast</i>	<i>What about the environmet?</i>	<i>Naturae in our culture</i>	<i>Get ready against natural disasters</i>
It is written explicitly	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
It is easily understood	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Concepts are explained	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+
It is plain	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
It is described in detail	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+
It is concretized through examples	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
It is supported with visuals	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
It is appropriately expressed to the target group	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Accuracy

The criteria for the standard "accuracy" are given below, as are the results that indicate whether or not these criteria are covered in the units (Table 2).

Table 2.
Findings Related to the Standard of Accuracy

<i>The standard of accuracy</i>	<i>I'm learning my past</i>					<i>The place where we live</i>				
	<i>The history of family</i>	<i>The elements of national culture</i>	<i>Our games from past to present</i>	<i>Ataturk and national struggle</i>	<i>Directions</i>	<i>Let's see and draw</i>	<i>Weather forecast</i>	<i>What about the environment?</i>	<i>Natura in our culture</i>	<i>Get ready against natural disasters</i>
Knowledge presented is correct	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Knowledge is given in the correct sequence	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Examples are in line with the topic	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
There is cause and effect relationship	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+
Knowledge presented is based upon reliable sources	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-

The knowledge presented in the "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" is generally correct. Most of the knowledge in the units is given in the correct sequence. To illustrate, the section that describes Ataturk and the National Struggle and War of Independence is arranged chronologically. Nevertheless, in the activity "Games from past to present" that occurs between pages 48 and 51, knowledge about games played in the past is provided but no knowledge is presented about the games played today. Relevant examples are given that relate to all the activities of the units. While some of the activities of the units demonstrate a cause-effect relationship, some of them do not. For example, in the activity "Ataturk and the National Struggle," it is stated that the National Struggle was initiated on the basis of the occupation of Turkey, whereas in the activity "Directions" (pages 66-69) no cause-and-effect relationship is established about the reason why National Struggle has existed and why it is important for human life and how it facilitates the lives of humans. In the activities relevant to units "Games from past to present and Ataturk and the National Struggle," resources are given, however in other activities no resources are presented. In conclusion, the units "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" reflect most of the criteria of the accuracy standard. Therefore, these units meet the accuracy standard at a high rate.

Significance/Relevance

In Table 3, the criteria for the standard of "accuracy" are given, and the results of whether or not these criteria were covered in the units were presented.

Table 3.*Findings Related to the Standard of Significance/Relevance*

<i>The standard of significance /relevance</i>	<i>I'm learning my past</i>					<i>The place where we live</i>				
	<i>The history of family</i>	<i>The elements of national culture</i>	<i>Our games from past to present</i>	<i>Ataturk and national struggle</i>	<i>Directions</i>	<i>Let's see and draw</i>	<i>Weather forecast</i>	<i>What about the environment?</i>	<i>Natura in our culture</i>	<i>Get ready against natural disasters</i>
It has a significant role in students' daily life	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Main and sub-topics are separated	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Important points are emphasized	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	+
There is a connection between topics	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fundamental and dominant concepts are evident	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Analysis of the "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" units shows that in terms of the standard of significance /relevance, the topics of these units are necessary for the students' daily lives. In addition, the topics in the book are divided into main topics and sub-topics. For example, the Ataturk and the National Struggle activity (pages 52-59) and the Directions activity (pages 66-69) are separated from each other as the main and sub-headings. While some issues are paid greater attention, others are paid less. For instance, the activity "The history of family" has more detailed knowledge, but the "Let's see and draw" on pages 70 and 71 has less knowledge that is included. Some concepts present in the units have become more pronounced and they are written in bold compared to the other ones. Moreover, significant concepts are put in the boxes and shown in different colors. Important topics are supported with pictures. The units "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" meet the significance/relevance standard at a high rate.

Sufficiency

In Table 4, the criteria for the standard “sufficiency” are given, and the results of whether or not these criteria are covered in the units are presented.

Table 4.

Findings Related to the Standard of Sufficiency

The standard of sufficiency	<i>I'm learning my past</i>					<i>The place where we live</i>				
	<i>The history of family</i>	<i>The elements of national culture</i>	<i>Our games from past to present</i>	<i>Ataturk and national struggle</i>	<i>Directions</i>	<i>Let's see and draw</i>	<i>Weather forecast</i>	<i>What about the environment?</i>	<i>Natura in our culture</i>	<i>Get ready against natural disasters</i>
Knowledge relevant to the topic is sufficient	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
It includes enough activities	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Enough evidence is presented	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
The topic is viewed from many angles	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Time is enough	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+

The "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" units demonstrate sufficient knowledge to facilitate student achievement of the acquisitions. Some units include unnecessary and too much knowledge. Activities such as the history of family (pages 36-41), our national culture (pages 42-47), and Ataturk and the National Struggle (pages 52-61) all contain knowledge that is both too detailed and too much, which leads to confusion among students. Including too many activities and unnecessary knowledge is not considered sufficient but rather excessive. The units "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" were found to meet the sufficiency standard at a high rate.

Breadth/Depth

In Table 5, the criteria for the standard “breadth/depth” are given, and the results for whether or not these criteria are covered in the units are presented.

Table 5.*Findings Related to the Standard of Breadth/Depth*

<i>The standard of breadth/ depth</i>	<i>I'm learning my past</i>					<i>The place where we live</i>				
	<i>The history of family</i>	<i>The elements of national culture</i>	<i>Our games from past to present</i>	<i>Ataturk and national struggle</i>	<i>Directions</i>	<i>Let's see and draw</i>	<i>Weather forecast</i>	<i>What about the environment?</i>	<i>Natura in our culture</i>	<i>Get ready against natural disasters</i>
Topics are explained to the finest detail	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+
Wide knowledge is presented related to the topics	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+
Topics are discussed extensively	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+
Different perspectives are available	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

In "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" units, various explanations are made that relate to the activities. Topics are considered enough during the writing process of the books. In most of the activities, topics are explained to the finest detail, however, the activities "Let's see and draw and nature in our culture" are not explained in detail. In-depth knowledge regarding the topics is given in most of the activities. However, in the activity called "Games from past to present," in-depth knowledge about the games which are played at the present time is not presented. Similarly, in such activities as "Let's see and draw" (pages 70-71) and "Nature in our culture" (pages 80-83), no in-depth knowledge is given. The activities available in the units do not have different perspectives. The units "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" partially meet the criteria of the breadth/ depth standard.

Precision

In Table 6, the criteria for the standard "precision" are given, and the results of whether or not these criteria are covered in the units are presented.

Table 6.*Findings Related to the Standard of Precision*

<i>The standard of precision</i>	<i>I'm learning my past</i>					<i>The place where we live</i>				
	<i>The history of family</i>	<i>The elements of national culture</i>	<i>Our games from past to present</i>	<i>Ataturk and national struggle</i>	<i>Directions</i>	<i>Let's see and draw</i>	<i>Weather forecast</i>	<i>What about the environment?</i>	<i>Natura in our culture</i>	<i>Get ready against natural disasters</i>
It is accurate	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
It is detailed enough	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+
Activities are associated with acquisitions	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
The causes of events are explained	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	+
Results include precision	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Analysis of "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" units revealed some errors. Examples of these errors are given below the standard of accuracy and clarity. The presence of knowledge errors is inconsistent with the standard of precision. Most of the unit has sufficient detail, except for a few topics (please see the examples from the breadth/depth standard results section). The fact that the activities belonging to the unit contain accurate knowledge and causes and results of the events are specified is indispensable for the precision standard. Some statements that refer to precision are used in the activities. The activities were associated with knowledge acquisition, but more activities are presented related to some acquisitions, while few activities have been associated with some acquisitions. The units "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" meet some of the criteria of precision standard, and thus these units partially meet the precision standard.

Discussion and Conclusion

Assessing the results associated with the clarity standard, it was clear that the unit meets this standard at a high rate. The questions asked to the students and the instruction activities are written in a way that is clear and understandable and most of the activities are simple; in addition they are appropriate for the level of the students and facilitate their understanding of the activities. In the study conducted by Aybek et al. (2014) and Tas (2007), teachers also stated that textbooks are written in clear and understandable manner. In contrast, some activities had too many

details. This would cause students to be bored while reading the activities. Various examples and visuals are presented in order to concretize the expressions in the textbook and the visuals are in accordance with the activities. The study carried out by Ceken (2011) shows that when the visuals are presented incorrectly or no visuals are provided, they will negatively affect learning. In this regard, that the visuals in the textbooks are provided in accordance with the activities and can thus have a positive impact upon student learning.

Evaluating the accuracy standard's results, knowledge in relation to the units is generally judged to be valid. It is highly significant for social studies textbooks to allow students to recognize and understand the social environment, introduce customs and traditions, and provide knowledge about the past that includes complete and accurate knowledge. That these textbooks contain incorrect knowledge may result in students incorrectly learning some concepts. A study by Yukselir (2006) found that the definitions and properties of the concepts taught to students in social studies should be explained by using suitable examples. A cause-effect relationship was observed in some of the activities in the units but in others there was no cause-effect relationship. This may lead to a lack of learning of how to establish cause-effect relationship between events, which is one of the most important principles of social studies. This lack of emphasis on cause-effect relationships is a major shortcoming of the textbook.

The results for the standard of significance/relevance showed that the topics available in the textbook are extremely important for the student's daily lives. Social studies should be intertwined with daily life, as they are very important for socializing students to become individuals who are aware of current issues and who live without detaching themselves from society. Social studies intends to educate citizens so that they are sensitive to what is happening around them, are responsible, and are willing to produce solutions to problems (Gedik, 2008). Therefore, current issues and knowledge that can be used in daily life should be taught in social studies.

With regards to sufficiency, the textbook is sufficient for acquiring the acquisitions. However, unnecessary and different activities were found to be available, which might mean that students do not achieve the required acquisitions. In parallel with this finding, the study conducted by Ersoy and Rock (2009) also concluded that there were too many activities. When there are too many activities and texts are too long, there may not be enough time for students to do the activities. In a study conducted by Ozturk and Tuncel (2006), teachers also stated that performing activities takes a lot of time. Many activities in the textbook contain unnecessary knowledge, which may lead to confusion among students. Including too many activities and unnecessary knowledge is not sufficient but rather excessive, and reduces the quality of the book.

Given the results of breadth/depth standard, various explanations are made for the activities. In most of the activities, the topics are explained in a detailed way, but a small number of activities are not disclosed in a detailed manner. This finding is one of the shortcomings of the textbook. A study conducted by Akdag (2009)

revealed that the social studies textbook for seventh grade students has been prepared in a comprehensive manner. No different perspectives on the activities took place, which is considered to be a significant shortcoming of the textbook as one of the goals of social studies is to make students have different perspectives. Hence, textbooks must be prepared for achieving this goal.

With regards to the criteria for precision, some errors were found in the units. These errors are inconsistent with the standard of precision. Any textbook which meets the standard of accuracy knowledge should be accurate, sufficiently detailed, cause and effect relationships should be consistent, and they should include precision (Aybek et al. 2015). Sufficient detail was given except for a few topics (please see the breadth/depth standard for greater detail). It is indispensable for the standard of precision to contain accurate knowledge, to specify causes and results of the events. It was determined that some statements referring to precision are used in the activities of these units and they are associated with acquisitions.

Conclusion

Nowadays, education aims to train individuals in higher-order thinking skills such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, to look at events from different perspectives, to acquire accurate knowledge by referring to the required resources when evaluating an event, and to use necessary evidence to support ideas. These aims are closely related to critical thinking skills, thus including the objectives of social studies. Therefore, to have students acquire critical thinking skills in social studies lessons is of great importance. Thus, social studies textbooks should be prepared to develop student's critical thinking abilities. In the current study, an analysis of the units "I'm learning my past and the place where we live" available in the fourth class social studies textbook was carried out in accordance with the standards of critical thinking. The study found that the activities in the textbook met critical thinking standards of clarity, accuracy, significance/relevance, and sufficiency standards at a high rate, and that they partially meet those of breadth/depth and precision.

Recommendations

Arranging the activities in social studies textbooks so as to develop critical thinking skills will contribute to the development of higher level thinking skills of the students, which is one of the main objectives of education. The quality of education will improve provided that social studies textbooks are prepared according to the standards of critical thinking. Textbooks should be meticulously prepared by publishers.

The preparation of social studies textbooks not only by the experts but also by other experts (e.g., program development specialist, field specialists from university, branch teachers, educational psychologists, etc.) to facilitate student acquisition of critical thinking skills within the context of modern education mentality along with performing pilot scheme will contribute to the improvement and advance in

education. Finally, the courses and textbooks, which that are implemented across the country should be meticulously scrutinized and selected by the Board of Education.

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Sosyal Bilgiler Ders Kitabında Yer Alan “Geçmişimi Öğreniyorum ve Yaşadığımız Yer” Ünitelerinin Eleştirel Düşünme Standartları Doğrultusunda İncelenmesi

Atf:

Aybek, B., & Aslan, S. (2016). An analysis of the units “I’m learning my past” and “the place where we live” in the social studies textbook related to critical thinking standards. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 35-54
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Özet

Problem Durumu: Ders kitapları, öğretim programlarında yer alan konulara ait bilgileri planlı bir şekilde sunan, düzenli bir şekilde açıklayan, öğrenciyi dersin hedefleri doğrultusunda yönlendiren, eğitim sürecinin vazgeçilmez araçları olan tamamlayıcı öğretim materyalleridir. Ders kitabına yönelik yapılan çalışmalar incelendiğinde kitapların; anlatım biçimi, içerik, tasarım, görsellik, fiziksel özellikleri, içerdiği etkinlikler, kullanılan yöntem ve teknikler, içerdiği sorular ve deneyler, aktiviteler, kavram yanılgıları, organizasyonlar, resimler, metin seçimi, ünite sonu soruları ve değerlendirmeler, indeks ve ek sözlükler, bilimsel içerik, okunabilirlik, hedef yaş grubuna uygunluk, ders kitaplarına yönelik öğretmen ve öğrenci görüşleri gibi kitabın nicelik ve niteliğine yönelik pek çok araştırmanın yapıldığı görülmektedir. Alanyazın taramasında, sosyal bilgiler ders kitaplarındaki etkinliklerin eleştirel düşünme standartları doğrultusunda incelendiği herhangi bir araştırmanın yapılmadığı tespit edilmiştir. Bu nedenle böyle bir çalışmanın yapılmasına karar verilmiştir. Bu çalışma ile ders kitapları hazırlanırken eleştirel düşünme standartlarının göz önünde bulundurulması konusunda yazarların dikkatinin çekilmesi ve dolayısıyla ders kitaplarının niteliğinin artması düşünülmektedir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu çalışmanın amacı, ilkökul dördüncü sınıf sosyal bilgiler ders kitabında yer alan “geçmişimi öğreniyorum ve yaşadığımız yer” ünitelerinin Nosich’in ortaya koyduğu açıklık, doğruluk, önem/alaka, yeterlilik, derinlik/genişlik, kesinlik eleştirel düşünme standartları doğrultusunda incelemektir.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Bu çalışmada, ilkökul dördüncü sınıf sosyal bilgiler ders kitabında yer alan “geçmişimi öğreniyorum ve yaşadığımız yer” üniteleri Nosich’in ortaya koyduğu eleştirel düşünme standartları doğrultusunda inceleyebilmek için nitel araştırma modeli kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın evrenini ilkökul dördüncü sınıf sosyal bilgiler ders kitapları oluşturmaktadır. Örneklemi ise Tuna Yayıncılığa ait dördüncü sınıf sosyal bilgiler ders kitabı oluşturmaktadır. Bu kitap, Talim Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı tarafından kabul edilip, 2013-2014 eğitim-öğretim yılında ülke genelinde kullanılıyor olmasından dolayı seçilmiştir. Bu çalışmada, nitel araştırma yöntemlerinden biri olan doküman incelemesi yöntemi kullanılarak veriler toplanmıştır. Verilerin analizinde, dördüncü sınıf sosyal bilgiler ders kitabında yer

alan “geçmişimi öğreniyorum ve yaşadığımız yer” üniteleri eleştirel düşünme standartları doğrultusunda uygunluğunun incelenip var olan durumu açıklamak istenildiğinden betimsel analiz kullanılmıştır. Betimsel analizde, elde edilen veriler daha önceden belirlenen temalara göre özetlenip ve yorumlanabilir. Bu araştırmada da, elde edilen bulgular daha önceden belirlenen eleştirel düşünme standartları çerçevesinde temalara göre düzenlenmiş ve yorumlanmıştır. Araştırmada, incelenen ders kitabındaki etkinlikler eleştirel düşünme standartlarına uygun olup olmadığına tek tek bakılmıştır. Sonuçlar tablolarla gösterilmiştir. Tablolarda (+) işareti eleştirel düşünme standardının olduğunu, (-) işareti olmadığını göstermektedir.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Elde edilen bulgulara göre ders kitabındaki etkinliklerin eleştirel düşünme standartlarından açıklık, doğruluk, önem/alaka, yeterlilik standartlarını yüksek oranda, derinlik/genişlik ve kesinlik standartlarını kısmen karşıladığı belirlenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Açıklık standardı ile ilgili sonuçlara bakıldığında ünitelerin bu standardı yüksek oranda karşıladığı görülmüştür. Ünitelerde öğrencilere sorulan sorular ile etkinlik yönergelerinin açık ve anlaşılır bir şekilde yazıldığı, etkinliklerin çoğunun sade olduğu, öğrencilerin seviyelerine uygun bir dille yazıldığı belirlenmiştir. Bu da etkinliklerin anlaşılabilirliğini kolaylaştırmaktadır. Buna karşın, bazı etkinliklerin çok fazla ayrıntılı bir şekilde açıklandığı tespit edilmiştir. Bu da, öğrencilerin etkinlikleri okurken sıkılmalarına neden olacağını düşündürmektedir. Kitaptaki ifadelerin somutlaştırılması için örneklerin verildiği ve görsellerin kullanıldığı görülmüştür ve görsellerin etkinliklere uygun olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Doğruluk standardı ile ilgili sonuçlara bakıldığında üniteler ile ilgili olarak; verilen bilgilerin genellikle doğru olduğu görülmüştür. Öğrencilerin sosyal çevresini tanıyıp anlamasını sağlayan, çevresindeki gelenek, görenek ve adetleri tanıtan, tarih ile ilgili bilgiler veren sosyal bilgiler ders kitaplarının eksiksiz ve doğru bilgiler içermesi son derece önemlidir. Bu kitapların yanlış bilgiler içermesi, öğrencilerin kavramları yanlış öğrenmesine neden olabilir. Ünitelerdeki etkinliklerin bazılarında sebep-sonuç ilişkisi kurulurken, bazılarında kurulmadığı görülmüştür. Bu da, sosyal bilgiler dersinde en önemli ilklerden biri olan, olaylar arasında neden-sonuç ilişkisini kurmanın kazandırılmamasına neden olabilir. Bu durum, ders kitabının önemli bir eksikliği olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Önem/Alaka standardı ile ilgili sonuçlara bakıldığında üniteler ile ilgili olarak; ders kitabı içerisinde yer alan konuların öğrencilerin günlük hayatları için önem taşıdığı görülmüştür. Sosyal bilgiler dersi, günlük hayat ile iç içe olması gereken bir derstir. Öğrencilerin içinde yaşadıkları toplumdan kopmadan, güncel konulardan haberdar, bilgili birer birey olarak sosyalleşebilmesi için sosyal bilgiler dersi büyük önem taşımaktadır. Sosyal bilgiler dersi, öğrencilerin çevresinde olup bitenlere karşı duyarlı, sorumluluk sahibi, sorunlar karşısında çözüm üretmek için istekli vatandaşlar yetiştirilmesini hedefler. Bunun için de güncel olayların ve günlük hayatlarında kullanılacak bilgilerin sosyal bilgiler dersinde öğretilmesi önem arz etmektedir. Yeterlilik standardı ile ilgili sonuçlara bakıldığında üniteler ile ilgili olarak; kitapta yer alan bilgilerin kazanımları kazandırmak için yeterli olduğu görülmüştür. Ancak gereğinden fazla ve farklı etkinlik olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Bu durumda, öğrencilerin etkinlik sonucunda ulaşmaları gereken kazanımlara ulaşamayacaklarını düşündürmektedir. Ünitelerde

yer alan etkinliklerle gereksiz ve oldukça fazla bilgi yer almaktadır. Bu durum öğrencilerde kafa karışıklığına neden olmaktadır. Çok fazla etkinlik ve bilginin olmasının yeterli değil, abartılı olduğu düşünülmektedir. Ayrıca bu durum kitabın kalitesini de düşürmektedir. Derinlik/Genişlik standardı ile ilgili sonuçlara bakıldığında üniteler ile ilgili olarak; kitapta yer alan çoğu etkinlikler ile ilgili açıklamaların yapıldığı görülmektedir. Ünitelerde yer alan etkinliklerin çoğunda konular en ince ayrıntısına kadar açıklanırken, az sayıda etkinlik ayrıntılı bir şekilde açıklanmamıştır. Bu bulguda, kitabın bir eksikliği olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Ünitelerde yer alan etkinlikler ile ilgili farklı bakış açılarının yer almadığı tespit edilmiştir. Bu da kitabın önemli bir eksikliği olarak değerlendirilmektedir. Çünkü sosyal bilgiler dersinin amaçlarından birisi öğrencilere farklı bakış açıları kazandırmaktır. Bunun için ders kitaplarının da bu amacı gerçekleştirmeye yönelik hazırlanması gerekmektedir. Kesinlik standardı ile ilgili sonuçlara bakıldığında üniteler ile ilgili bazı hatalara rastlanılmıştır. Bilgilerde hataların olması kesinlik standardı ile bağdaşmamaktadır. Eleştirel düşünme kesinlik standardını karşılayan her hangi bir kitapta bilgiler; hatasız, yeterince ayrıntılı, sebep ve sonuç ilişkileri tutarlı olmalı ve kesinlik içermelidir. Üniteye birkaç konu dışında yeterince ayrıntıya girilmiş, bu durumun örnekleri de derinlik/genişlik standardı altında verilmiştir. Ünitelere ait etkinliklerin doğru bilgiler içermesi, olayların sebep ve sonuçlarının belirtilmesi kesinlik standardı için vazgeçilmezdir. Bu ünitelere ait etkinliklerde kesinlik içeren ifadeler kullanıldığı, ünitelere ait etkinliklerin kazanımlarla ilişkili olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Araştırma bulgularına dayalı olarak aşağıdaki öneriler geliştirilmiştir:

1. Sosyal bilgiler ders kitapları hazırlanırken sadece konu alanı uzmanlarının değil diğer uzmanlarla birlikte(program geliştirme uzmanı, üniversiteden konu alanı uzmanı, branş öğretmeni, eğitim psikoloğu, eğitim teknoloğu vb.) bir ekip çalışmasıyla, ciddi anlamda pilot uygulamalar yapılarak ve kitapların eleştirel düşünme becerisi gibi çağdaş eğitim anlayışına uygun becerileri öğrencilere kazandıracak şekilde hazırlanması eğitimin gelişip ilerlemesine katkı sağlayacaktır.
2. Talim Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı tarafından, ülke genelinde uygulanacak olan ders ve kitapları daha bir titizlikle incelenip seçilmelidir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: İlkokul, eğitim, düşünme, eleştirel düşünme.

An Assessment on Self-Efficacy of Candidate Turkish and Primary School Teachers for Teaching Profession

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Self-efficacy is not a passive characteristic or determiner of the self-system, but a dynamic aspect of the other factors that make up the self-system such as the capacity to do work, the success one experiences in that work, motives and self-regulation mechanisms. The self-efficacy perception level of the undergraduate students who study at the Turkish and Primary School Teaching Department changes when they are examined in accordance with the different variations?

Purpose: In the research, it was aimed to specify the self-efficacy perception of the candidate Turkish and primary school teachers.

Method: The study is screening model. The data of this study was obtained through "Self-Efficacy Scale" developed by Ülper and Bağcı (2012). The data obtained in this study was analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows 21.0 program. In comparing the quantitative data t-test was used to define the differences between two groups. One-Way ANOVA test was used to compare the parameters among the groups when the number of the group was more than two. The Scheffe test was used to identify the group causing the difference.

Findings and Results: The "teaching knowledge", "specific field knowledge", "general field knowledge" and "teaching implementations" level of the students, who participated in this study, is fair. Their "measurement implementations" are high. It is found that their "general self-efficacy" level is fair. Among the 400 student who participated in this study, the measurement implementation scores of the students at the grade 3 were found to be higher than those of the students at the grade 2. The measurement implementation scores of the students at the grade 4 were found to be higher than those of the students at the grade 2.

Conclusions and Recommendations: According to the findings of this study the self-efficacy perception of the candidate teachers is at the “fair” level. The self-efficacy perception of the candidates is not different from each other in terms of gender and grade level. The self-efficacy perception is different in according to the department they study. It is observed that some of our findings overlap with the findings obtained in the literature while some of them set totally opposite results forth. This may result from structural and contextual features of the measurement tools as well as the personal traits of the candidate teachers participated in this study.

Keywords: Perception. Expectancy. Belief. Positive expectancy. The negative expectancy. Preservice Teachers.

Introduction

Self-efficacy is not a passive characteristic or determiner of the self-system, but a dynamic aspect of the other factors that make up the self-system such as the capacity to do work, the success one experiences in that work, motives and self-regulation mechanisms. Self-efficacy can be clearly explained that individuals' belief about their own self-ability to perform in specific situations by executing the required actions (Bandura 1997). Since self-efficacy is based on one's belief in one's ability, it is essential for regulating and producing the kind of behaviour needed to achieve one's goals. It is a person's opinion or belief about whether he or she may be successful in responding to a specific situation, in solving a problem or in coping with challenges (Bikmaz 2004; Hamurcu 2006; Ozcelik & Kurt 2007;). Self-efficacy has garnered greater interest among researchers studying the educational applications of virtual worlds (Noyeles, Hornik & Johnson 2014).

Self-efficacy expectancy is the degree to which “one persuades himself about one's ability” (quoted by Yilmaz & Cokluk-Bokeoglu 2007 from Jerusalem 2002). Bandura defined the belief of self-efficacy belief as “one's belief to deliver a performance in specific situations successfully by organizing the required actions” (Bandura 1994). Self-efficacy perception, meanwhile, has an impact on determining one's emotions, opinions, motives and behaviours. It is one of the most important subjects stressed in education (Bandura 1994; Askar & Umay 2001). Positive self-efficacy expectancy may increase individuals' motivation level, help them cope with new and difficult tasks and encourage them to make an effort. Zimmerman (1995: 204-208) suggests that students who have higher self-efficacy perception may make more effort in their courses, show greater persistence and demonstrate better academic achievement. The term “teacher self-efficacy” may be described as how teachers assess themselves in terms of how well they carry out the requirements of the profession (Schunk 2009; Gibson & Dembo 1984). Some studies propound that positive relationship found between teachers' self-efficacy perception and their attitude towards their profession (Demirtas, Comert & Ozer 2011). These studies suggest that students who have higher self-efficacy expectancy are more willing to participate in learning activities, to make more numerous efforts as well as longer efforts when faced with challenges, to use more efficient strategies and to experience

greater success than students with lower expectancy (Eggen & Kauchak 1999; Schunk 2004). Altogether, teachers' and learners' beliefs about language learning affect their choices and behavior in the classroom; therefore, the success of the learning and teaching process is directly affected by learner and teacher beliefs. (Cephe & Yalcin 2015). Negative self-efficacy expectancy may cause a student to quit his work before he completes it. Saracaloglu, Karasakaloglu & Gencel (2010), Schunk (2009), Swackhamer, Koellner, Basile & Kimbrough (2009), Yilmaz et al. (2008), Capri & Celikkaleli (2008), Demirtas et al. (2011) and Bandura (1993) make explicit the importance of the term "teacher self-efficacy" as follows: Students' success level and motivation may be positively influenced by higher self-efficacy among their teachers. It may help the teachers effectively manage the classroom, prevent undesirable behaviours among students, steer them into using new teaching methods and enhance their dedication to the teaching profession. Teachers with lower self-efficacy levels may implement teacher-centred instruction methods while they avoid more effective teaching strategies.

In order to implement a successful native language education, well-trained instructors are needed. In this regard, teacher training programs should be strong in content, but enriching this content takes a long time (Saunders 2012). Teacher education has an important emphasis among the countries who has a successful implementations in educational settings (Alpan, Ozer, Erdamar & Subasu 2014). Preservice teachers pursuing four-year undergraduate degrees must demonstrate proficiency to meet the requirements of the teaching profession after they complete their studies. All teacher education programs include some form of practice teaching that allows experienced teachers to help prospective teachers gain necessary skills (Nergiş- Işık & Derinbay, 2015). The Turkish National Education Basic Law No 1739 stresses that "the preparation for teaching profession shall be provided through general knowledge, specific field education and pedagogical formation". In this regard, a teacher's preparation for his profession is closely associated with his competency in these three fields and in education, students must be confronted with situations that can be encountered in real life (Erdemli, 2015). The self-efficacy of a teacher has two dimensions: The first dimension may be defined as external efficacy while the second one may be defined as internal efficacy. External self-efficacy is one's evaluation as conducted by others through various measurement tools. It is not based on an individual's own perception. Internal self-efficacy, meanwhile, refers to how teacher evaluate themselves according to their own perceptions. In this paper, internal self-efficacy perception will be stressed.

Reviewing the literature on this topic, several studies have discussed the self-efficacy of preservice Turkish and primary school teachers (Coskun, Gelen & Ozturk 2009; Ulper & Bagci, 2012; Saracaloglu et al. 2010; Demirtas et al. 2011; Durdukoca 2010; Ekici 2008; Erisen & Celikoz 2003; ; Kurtulmus & Cavdar 2010; Sag 2010, 2011; Yilmaz et al. 2008; Bulut 2009).

The aim of this paper is to specify the self-efficacy perception of preservice Turkish and primary school teachers, in an attempt to answer the question, "How does the self-efficacy perception level of undergraduate students who are enrolled at

the Turkish and Primary School Teaching Department change when they are examined in accordance with the different variations?" From this main research question, the following sub-questions are considered:

1. How do preservice Turkish and primary school teachers score in self-efficacy perception based on the scale factors?
2. Do self-efficacy perception scores of preservice Turkish and primary school teachers differ at the class level?
3. Do the professional self-efficacy perception scores of preservice Turkish and primary school teachers differ according to the department in which they study?
4. Do the professional self-efficacy perception scores of preservice Turkish and primary school teachers differ according to gender?

Method

Research Design

In this study the self-efficacy perception of preservice Turkish and primary school teachers was examined. The study follows a screening model, which aims to describe a situation that has existed or still exists (Karasar 2013).

Research Sample

Table 1 describes the demographic properties of the participants. In terms of department variation, the number of students at the Turkish Teaching Department is 200 (50.0%), while the number of students at the Primary School Teaching Department is 200 (50.0%). In terms of gender variation, the number of female students is 247 (61.8%), while the number of male students is 153 (38.2%). In terms of grade level, the number of students is distributed as follows: 100 students (25.0%) at grade 1, 100 (25.0%) at grade 2, 100 (25.0%) at grade 3 and 100 (25.0%) at grade 4.

Table 1.
Demographic Characteristics of Participants

<i>Tables</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>Frequency (n)</i>	<i>Percentage (%)</i>
<i>Department</i>	Turkish Teaching	200	50.0
	Primary School Teaching	200	50.0
	Total	400	100.0
<i>Gender</i>	Female	247	61.8
	Male	153	38.2
	Total	400	100.0
<i>Grade Level</i>	1	100	25.0
	2	100	25.0
	3	100	25.0
	4	100	25.0
	Total	400	100.0

Research Instrument and Procedure

The data was obtained using the "Self-Efficacy Scale" created by Ulper and Bagci (2012). This measurement tool is a five-point likert scale. The preservice teachers choosed one of the following options: very poor, poor, fair, good or very good. The option "very poor" is graded as 1 point, while the option "very good" is graded as 5 points. Lower points indicate low self-efficacy, while higher points show strong self-efficacy. There is no reverse scoring for any option. The measurement tool is composed of 51 questions in total. The first 15 questions are asked to measure teaching knowledge; questions 16 through 26, specific field knowledge; questions 27 to 35, general field knowledge; questions 36 to 47, teaching implementation; and questions 48 to 51, measurement implementation. The alpha values related to the internal consistency of the measurement tool are changed for totals between 330 and 662.

Validity and Reliability

The aforementioned reasons, it is understood that the tool is valid and reliable and can be used to define self-efficacy perception of the preservice teachers (Ulper & Bagci 2012).

Data Analysis

The data obtained in this study was analysed using SPSS 21.0. In order to show descriptive statistics, the methods including number, percentage, average and standard deviation were used. In order to comparing the numerical data, the t-test was used to show the differences between the two groups. One-way ANOVA test was used to compare the parameters among the groups when the number of the group was more than two. in order to identify the differences of groups the Scheffe test was applied. The data obtained was assessed at a 95% confidence interval and 5% level of significance. In assessing the data, scores of 1-1.80 were coded as "very poor"; 1.81-2.60, "poor"; 2.61-3.40, "fair"; 3.41-4.20, "good"; and 4.21-5.00, "very good"

Results

Based on the findings, certain statements and comments can be made.

Sub-question 1: How do preservice Turkish and primary school teachers score in self-efficacy perception based on the scale factors?

Table 2 describes participants' average scores and subscales of the self-efficacy measure. Table 2 also shows the standard deviation minimum and maximum scores. It is found that the "teaching knowledge" level of the participants was fair (2.968 ± 0.709), their "specific field knowledge" fair (3.049 ± 0.705), their "general field knowledge" fair (2.873 ± 0.682), their "teaching implementations" level fair (3.336 ± 0.451), their "measurement implementations" level high (3.434 ± 0.521) and their "general self-efficacy" level fair (3.092 ± 0.497).

Table 2.*Self-efficacy Levels*

	<i>N</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Ss</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>
Teaching knowledge	400	2.968	0.709	1.200	4.000
Specific field knowledge	400	3.049	0.705	1.360	4.000
General field knowledge	400	2.873	0.682	1.220	4.000
Teaching implementations	400	3.336	0.451	1.000	4.000
Measurement implementations	400	3.434	0.521	1.250	4.000
General self-efficacy	400	3.092	0.497	1.730	3.980

Sub-question 2: Do self-efficacy perception scores of preservice Turkish and primary school teachers differ at the class level?

Table 3 shows the results of analysis of variance regarding the effect of class level on self- efficacy scores. Following the one-way variant analysis (ANOVA) carried out to find whether there is significant difference among the average measurement scores of the participants, in terms of grade variation, the statistical differences among the group averages were found to be statistically significant ($F=4.019$; $p=0.008<0.05$). A complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out in order to find the origins of the differences. It is found that the measurement implementation scores of the grade 3 students (3.498 ± 0.446) were higher than those of the grade 2 students (3.293 ± 0.599). Moreover, it is found that the measurement implementation scores of the grade 4 students (3.523 ± 0.443) were higher than those of the grade 2 students (3.293 ± 0.599).

Table 3.*Average self-efficacy scores at class level*

	<i>Group</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Ss</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Difference</i>
<i>Teaching Knowledge</i>	1	100	2.908	0.769	0.333	0.801	
	2	100	2.983	0.714			
	3	100	2.979	0.675			
	4	100	3.001	0.683			
	1	100	2.946	0.770			
<i>Specific Field Knowledge</i>	2	100	3.126	0.630	1.397	0.243	
	3	100	3.016	0.747			
	4	100	3.106	0.657			

Table 3 Continue

	Group	N	Average	Ss	F	P	Difference
<i>General Field Knowledge</i>	1	100	2.788	0.745	0.881	0.451	
	2	100	2.864	0.662			
	3	100	2.906	0.663			
	4	100	2.936	0.656			
<i>Teaching Implementations</i>	1	100	3.314	0.482	2.099	0.100	
	2	100	3.253	0.527			
	3	100	3.391	0.388			
	4	100	3.385	0.385			
<i>Measurement Implementations</i>	1	100	3.423	0.556	4.019	0.008	3 > 2
	2	100	3.293	0.599			4 > 2
	3	100	3.498	0.446			
	4	100	3.523	0.443			
<i>General Self-efficacy</i>	1	100	3.031	0.546	0.929	0.427	
	2	100	3.081	0.486			
	3	100	3.112	0.486			
	4	100	3.144	0.469			

Following the one-way variant analysis (ANOVA) regarding their teaching knowledge, specific field knowledge, general field knowledge, teaching implementations and general self-efficacy in relation to grade level, the differences among the group averages were found to be statistically insignificant ($p > 0.05$).

Sub-question 3: Do the professional self-efficacy perception scores of preservice Turkish and primary school teachers differ according to the department in which they study?

Table 4 shows the results of the t-test. Following the one-way variant analysis (ANOVA) carried out to determine whether there is a significant difference among the average measurement scores of the participants, in terms of grade variation, the differences among the group averages were found to be statistically significant ($F=4.019$; $p=0.008 < 0.05$). A complementary post-hoc analysis was carried out in order to find the origins of the differences. It is found that the measurement implementation scores of the grade 3 students (3.498 ± 0.446) were higher than those of the grade 2 students (3.293 ± 0.599), and that the measurement implementation

scores of the grade 4 students (3.523 ± 0.443) were higher than those of the grade 2 students (3.293 ± 0.599) as well.

Table 4

Average Self-Efficacy Scores According to Departments

	<i>Group</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Ave</i>	<i>Ss</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Teaching Knowledge</i>	Turkish Teaching	200	3.417	0.444	16.331	0.000
	Primary School Teaching	200	2.519	0.638		
<i>Specific Field Knowledge</i>	Turkish Teaching	200	3.591	0.426	24.127	0.000
	Primary School Teaching	200	2.506	0.472		
<i>General Field Knowledge</i>	Turkish Teaching	200	3.366	0.476	20.842	0.000
	Primary School Teaching	200	2.381	0.469		
<i>Teaching Implementations</i>	Turkish Teaching	200	3.433	0.511	4.420	0.000
	Primary School Teaching	200	3.238	0.359		
<i>Measurement Implementations</i>	Turkish Teaching	200	3.536	0.503	4.007	0.000
	Primary School Teaching	200	3.331	0.520		
<i>General Self-efficacy</i>	Turkish Teaching	200	3.459	0.383	21.836	0.000
	Primary School Teaching	200	2.725	0.281		

Following the one-way variant analysis (ANOVA) regarding their teaching knowledge, specific field knowledge, general field knowledge, teaching implementations and general self-efficacy in terms of the grade level, the differences among the group averages were found to be statistically insignificant ($p > 0.05$). The t-test shows that the difference among the group averages was statistically significant ($t = 20.842$; $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). It is found that the teaching knowledge scores of the Turkish Teaching Department students ($x = 3.417$) were higher than those of the Elementary School Department students ($x = 2.519$) ($t = 16.331$; $p = 0.000 < 0.05$).

It is found that the specific field knowledge scores of the Turkish Teaching Department students ($x = 3.591$) were higher than those of the Elementary School Department students ($x = 2.506$) ($t = 24.127$; $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). It is found that the general field knowledge scores of the Turkish Teaching Department students ($x = 3.366$) were

higher than those of the Elementary School Department students ($x=2.381$). It is found that the teaching implementation scores of the Turkish Teaching Department students ($x=3.433$) were higher than those of the Elementary School Department students ($x=3.238$) ($t=4.420$; $p=0.000<0.05$). It is found that the measurement implementation scores of the Turkish Teaching Department students ($x=3.536$) were higher than those of the Elementary School Department students ($x=3.331$) ($t=4.007$; $p=0.000<0.05$). It is found that the general self-efficacy scores of the Turkish Teaching Department students ($x=3.459$) were higher than those of the Elementary School Department students ($x=2.725$) ($t=21.836$; $p=0.000<0.05$).

Sub-question 4: Do the professional self-efficacy perception scores of preservice Turkish and primary school teachers differ according to gender?

Table 5 describes the results of the t-test, which was carried out to determine the difference between male and female participants. Based on this t-test, in terms of gender variation, the difference among the group averages was found to be statistically significant ($t=2.054$; $p=0.041<0.05$). It is found that the measurement implementation scores of the females ($x=3.476$) were higher than those of the males ($x=3.366$).

Table 5.

Average Self-Efficacy Scores in Terms of Gender

	Group	N	Ort	Ss	t	p
<i>Teaching Knowledge</i>	Female	247	3.018	0.704	1.805	0.072
	Male	153	2.887	0.713		
<i>Specific Field Knowledge</i>	Female	247	3.075	0.703	0.940	0.348
	Male	153	3.007	0.708		
<i>General Field Knowledge</i>	Female	247	2.897	0.688	0.864	0.388
	Male	153	2.836	0.673		
<i>Teaching Implementations</i>	Female	247	3.365	0.432	1.668	0.096
	Male	153	3.288	0.478		
<i>Measurement Implementations</i>	Female	247	3.476	0.515	2.054	0.041
	Male	153	3.366	0.525		
<i>General Self-efficacy</i>	Female	247	3.127	0.496	1.780	0.076
	Male	153	3.036	0.496		

Following the t-test carried out to find whether there is a significant difference among participants in terms of teaching knowledge, specific field knowledge,

general field knowledge, teaching implementations and general self-efficacy, the difference among the group averages was found to be statistically insignificant ($p>0.05$).

Discussion and Conclusion

The “teaching knowledge”, “specific field knowledge”, “general field knowledge” and “teaching implementations” level of the participants is fair, whereas their “measurement implementations” are high. It is found that their “general self-efficacy” level is fair. In this paper, then, the overall picture of the self-efficacy perception of preservice Turkish and Primary School teachers is at a “fair” level. Among the 400 students who participated in this study, the measurement implementation scores of the students at grade 3 and at grade 4 were found to be higher than those of the students at grade 2. In terms of grade level variation, the difference among the group averages was found to be statistically insignificant ($p>0.05$).

The teaching knowledge scores of the Turkish Teaching Department students were found to be higher than those of the Primary School Teaching students. The specific field knowledge scores ($x=3.591$), general field knowledge scores, teaching implementation scores, measurement implementation scores and general self-efficacy scores of the Turkish Teaching Department students were found to be higher than those of the Primary School Teaching students.

Following the t-test carried out to find whether there is a significant difference among the average scores of the participants, in terms of teaching knowledge, specific field knowledge, general field knowledge, teaching implementation and general self-efficacy, the difference among the group averages was found to be statistically insignificant.

According to the findings of this study, the self-efficacy perception of preservice teachers is at the “fair” level, and it does not vary according to gender or grade level. However, self-efficacy perception does vary according to the participants’ department. It is observed that some of our findings overlap with the findings obtained in the literature, while other findings show totally opposite results. This may result from structural and contextual features of the measurement tools, as well as the personal traits of the preservice teachers who participated in this study.

The “teaching knowledge”, “specific field knowledge”, “general field knowledge” and “teaching implementations” level of the students who participated in this paper is fair, while their “measurement implementations” are high. It is found, therefore, that their “general self-efficacy” level is fair. Kilic (2007) conducted a study on the 296 students at the Primary School Teaching Department. In his conclusion he observed that the students thought that they learned the courses well. In this study, the overall picture of the self-efficacy perception of preservice Turkish and primary school teachers is at the “fair” level. In this regard, the findings of this paper align with those of Coskun et al. (2009), who identify the self-efficacy

perception of preservice Turkish teachers in terms of planning, implementation and evaluation, and with those of Erisen and Celikoz (2003), who researched the competency of preservice teachers in terms of general teacher behaviour. According to their research, preservice Turkish teachers suppose that their self-efficacy is not adequate. According to Ulper and Bagci (2012), teaching knowledge, specific field knowledge, teaching implementation, measurement implementation and professional self-efficacy perceptions of preservice Turkish teachers stand at the "good" level. On the other hand, their general field knowledge is at the "fair" level. Gelbal and Kelecioğlu's (2007) study involving 242 teachers showed similarities with this paper's findings in terms of the measurement implementation of preservice teachers. According to Gelbal and Kelecioğlu's results, teachers find themselves sufficient at the "fair" and "very good" level regarding the measurement methods. Aslan (2010), who examined the self-efficacy perception of postgraduate students studying at the Turkish Teaching Department, applied content analysis to the data he collected using a semi-structured interview method, concluding that students supposed that they were incompetent in terms of measurement and evaluation. Cakan (2004), who carried out a similar study on teachers, came to a similar conclusion. According to Cakan's study involving 504 teachers, the participants thought that they were not competent in terms of measurement and evaluation. The data of the current study, however, shows that students perceive a higher self-efficacy in measurement and evaluation implementation. In this respect, the findings of Cakan (2004) and Aslan (2010) do not overlap with this paper's results.

Following the t-test carried out to find whether there is a significant difference among the participants in terms of teaching knowledge, specific field knowledge, general field knowledge, teaching implementations and general self-efficacy, the difference among the group averages was found to be statistically insignificant. This finding overlaps with those of Coskun et al. (2009), Ulper and Bagci (2012), Saracaloglu et al. (2010) and Yilmaz et al. (2008). In this study, however the measurement implementation scores of the female participants were found to be higher than those of the male participants. This is a statistically significant result. According to the study carried out by Capri and Celikkaleli (2008) to identify self-efficacy perception among preservice Turkish teachers, the self-efficacy of the females differed significantly from that of the males. This finding overlaps with the current study's findings about self-efficacy perception related to measurement implementation. However, in the study (Demirtas et al. 2011), who examined self-efficacy perception among preservice teachers, the results shows that the self-efficacy perception of the male preservice teachers was higher. Ulper and Bagci (2012) state that the self-efficacy perception of the female teachers is higher in terms of specific field knowledge. Taking into account the effect of the preparation of preservice Turkish and primary school teachers on their self-efficacy, professional development services can be given to improve preservice teachers skills in the areas of teaching knowledge, specific field knowledge, general field knowledge, teaching implementation and measurement implementation. Moreover, it is necessary to reorganize college teaching programs according to this perspective as well.

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Türkçe ve Sınıf Öğretmeni Adaylarının Öğretmenlik Mesleğine Dönük Özyeterlik Algılarının Değerlendirilmesi

Atf:

- Lule- Mert, E. (2015). An assessment on self-efficacy of candidate turkish and primary school teachers for teaching profession. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 55-70
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Özet

Problem Durumu: Vardarlı'ya (2005) göre öz yeterlik, benlik sisteminin edilgin bir özelliği ya da belirleyicisi değil, bireyin bir işi yapabilme yeterliğinin, yaptığı işlerdeki başarılarının, güdülerinin ve özdüzenleme mekanizmaları gibi benlik sistemini oluşturan diğer öğelerin bileşkesinden oluşan devingen bir yönüdür. Öz yeterlik yeteneklere olan inanca dayanır; amaçlara ulaşmak için gerekli bir davranışı düzenleyip ortaya koyabilmek için gereklidir; bireyin belirli bir durumda ya da sorun karşısında başarılı olup olmayacağına ya da bununla nasıl başa çıkacağına ilişkin kişisel görüşünü/inancını oluşturur (Bıkmaz, 2004; Hamurcu, 2006; Özçelik ve Kurt, 2007; Tuckman, 1991). Öz yeterlik algıları, kişilerin duygularını, düşüncelerini, güdülerini ve davranışlarını belirleyici bir etkiye sahiptir ve eğitimde üzerinde durulması gereken önemli özelliklerdendir (Bandura, 1994; Aşkar ve Umay, 2001). Olumlu öz yeterlik beklentisi, bireyin güdülenme derecesini artırmakta, yeni ve zor görevlerle başa çıkabilmesini sağlamakta, onu çaba harcamaya istekli kılmaktadır. Zimmerman'a (1995: 204-208) göre, öz yeterlik algısı yüksek öğrenciler, derslerde daha çok çaba harcamakta, başarıya ulaşmak için daha ısrarcı olmakta ve daha yüksek akademik başarıya sahip olmaktadır. Öğretmenlerin kendilerini öğretmenlik mesleğinin gereklerini yerine getirebilme açısından nasıl gördükleri "öğretmen özyeterliği" kavramıyla karşılanabilir (Schunk, 2009; Gibson, Dembo, 1984).

Araştırmanın Amacı: Amacı Türkçe ve sınıf öğretmeni adaylarının öz yeterlik algılarını belirleyebilmek olan çalışmanın problem tümcesi “Türkçe ve sınıf öğretmenliği lisans öğrencilerinin öz yeterlik algı düzeyleri farklı değişkenlere göre incelendiğinde değişiklik göstermekte midir?” olarak belirlenmiştir.

Araştırmanın problemi ışığında çözümü aranan alt problemler şunlardır:

1. Türkçe ve sınıf öğretmeni adaylarının meslekî öz yeterlik algı puanlarının ölçekteki faktörler bağlamında düzeyleri nedir?
2. Türkçe ve sınıf öğretmeni adaylarının meslekî öz yeterlik algı puanları sınıf düzeyi bağlamında farklılık göstermekte midir?
3. Türkçe ve sınıf öğretmeni adaylarının meslekî öz yeterlik algı puanları öğrencinin öğretim gördüğü bölüm bağlamında farklılık göstermekte midir?
4. Türkçe ve sınıf öğretmeni adaylarının meslekî öz yeterlik algı puanları öğrencinin cinsiyeti bağlamında farklılık göstermekte midir?

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Çalışma, tarama modelindedir. Tarama modeli, geçmişte ya da halen varolan bir durumu varolduğu biçimiyle betimlemeyi amaçlayan araştırma yaklaşımıdır. Araştırmaya konu olan olay, birey ya da nesne kendi koşulları içinde ve olduğu gibi tanımlanmaya çalışılır (Karasar, 2013). Araştırmanın verileri Ülper ve Bağcı (2012) tarafından geliştirilen “Öz yeterlik Algısı Ölçeği”nden elde edilmiştir. Bu ölçme aracı beşli likert tipi bir ölçme aracıdır. Öğretmen adaylarının her bir maddeye ilişkin görüşlerini çok zayıf, zayıf, orta, iyi ve çok iyi seçeneklerinden birini seçerek belirtmeleri gerekmektedir. Çok zayıf seçeneği bir puan, çok iyi seçeneği ise 5 puan olarak puanlanmıştır. 51 soruluk ölçme aracında ilk 15 soru öğretim bilgisini; 16-26 sorular (16 ve 26 dâhil) özel alan bilgisini; 27- 35 sorular genel alan bilgisini; 36-47 sorular öğretim uygulamalarını; 48- 51 sorular ise ölçme uygulamalarını ölçmeye yöneliktir. Araştırmada elde edilen veriler SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows 21.0 programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Niceliksel verilerin karşılaştırılmasında iki grup arasındaki farkı t-testi, ikiden fazla grup durumunda parametrelerin gruplararası karşılaştırmalarında tek yönlü (One way) Anova testi ve farklılığa neden olan grubun tespitinde Scheffe testi kullanılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları, Sonuç ve Önerileri: Araştırmaya katılan öğrencilerin “öğretim bilgisi”; “özel alan bilgisi”; “genel alan bilgisi”; “öğretim uygulamaları” düzeyleri ortadır; “ölçme uygulamaları” düzeyleri ise yüksektir. “Öz yeterlik genel” düzeyleri ise orta olarak saptanmıştır. Kılıç (2007), sınıf öğretmenliği bölümünde okuyan toplam 296 öğrenci üzerinden bir araştırma yapmıştır; sonuçta da öğrencilerin dersleri iyi düzeyde öğrendiklerini düşündükleri gözlemlenmiştir. Bu çalışmada ise Türkçe ve sınıf öğretmeni adaylarının öz yeterlik algılarına ilişkin genel görünüm “orta” düzeydedir. Bu bağlamda araştırmanın bulguları Coşkun, Gelen ve Öztürk (2009) tarafından Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının planlama, uygulama ve değerlendirme boyutlarından oluşan öz yeterlik algılarını saptamak amacıyla gerçekleştirilen araştırmanın bulgularıyla ve öğretmen adaylarının genel öğretmenlik davranışları açısından yeterliklerini araştıran Erişen ve Çeliköz’ün (2003) bulgularıyla uyumaktadır. Onların araştırma bulgularına göre Türkçe öğretmeni

adayları öz yeterlik açısından kendilerini yeterli düzeyde bulmamaktadır. Ülper ve Bağcı'ya (2012) göre ise, Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının öğretim bilgisi; özel alan bilgisi; öğretim uygulamaları, ölçme uygulamaları ve mesleki öz yeterlik algıları "iyi" düzeydedir. Buna karşın genel alan bilgisine ilişkin durumları ise "orta" düzeydedir. Gelbal ve Kelecioğlu (2007) tarafından 242 öğretmen üzerinden yapılan araştırmanın sonuçları da öğretmen adaylarının ölçme uygulamalarına ilişkin algıları bakımından bu araştırmanın bulgularıyla benzerlik göstermektedir. Gelbal ve Kelecioğlu, bu araştırmalarının sonucunda öğretmenlerin ölçme yöntemleri hakkında kendilerini "orta" ve "çok" düzeyde yeterli gördüklerini bulgulamıştır.

Araştırmaya katılan 400 öğrencinin, sınıf düzeyi 3 olanlarının ölçme uygulamaları puanları, sınıf düzeyi 2 olanların ölçme uygulamaları puanlarından yüksek bulunmuştur. Sınıf düzeyi 4 olanların ölçme uygulamaları puanları, sınıf düzeyi 2 olanların ölçme uygulamaları puanlarından yüksek bulunmuştur: sınıf düzeyi değişkenine göre grup ortalamaları arasındaki fark istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunmamıştır ($p>0.05$). Türkçe Öğretmenliğinin öğretim bilgisi puanları, sınıf öğretmenliğinin öğretim bilgisi puanlarından yüksek bulunmuştur. Türkçe Öğretmenliğinin özel alan bilgisi puanları ($x=3.591$), sınıf öğretmenliğinin özel alan bilgisi puanlarından yüksek bulunmuştur. Türkçe Öğretmenliğinin genel alan bilgisi puanları, sınıf öğretmenliğinin genel alan bilgisi puanlarından yüksek bulunmuştur. Türkçe Öğretmenliğinin öğretim uygulamaları puanları, sınıf öğretmenliğinin öğretim uygulamaları puanlarından yüksek bulunmuştur. Türkçe Öğretmenliğinin ölçme uygulamaları puanları, sınıf öğretmenliğinin ölçme uygulamaları puanlarından yüksek bulunmuştur. Türkçe Öğretmenliğinin öz yeterlik genel puanları, sınıf öğretmenliğinin öz yeterlik genel puanlarından yüksek bulunmuştur.

Araştırmaya katılan öğrencilerin öğretim bilgisi, özel alan bilgisi, genel alan bilgisi, öğretim uygulamaları, öz yeterlik genel puanları ortalamalarının cinsiyet değişkenine göre anlamlı bir farklılık gösterip göstermediğini belirlemek amacıyla yapılan t-testi sonucunda grup ortalamaları arasındaki fark istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Bu bulgu, Coşkun, Gelen ve Öztürk (2009); Ülper ve Bağcı'nın (2012); Saracaloğlu, Karasakaloğlu ve Gencel'in (2010); Yılmaz ve Çokluk Bökeoğlu'nun (2008) bulgularıyla örtüşmektedir; ancak araştırmada kızların ölçme uygulamaları puanları, erkeklerin ölçme uygulamaları puanlarından yüksek bulunmuştur ve bu fark istatistiksel açıdan da anlamlıdır.

Araştırmadan elde edilen bulgulara göre öğretmen adaylarının öz yeterlik algıları "orta" düzeydedir. Adayların öz yeterlik algıları cinsiyet ve sınıf düzeyi bakımından farklılık göstermemektedir. Bölüme göre ise öz yeterlik algısı fark göstermektedir. Alanyazındaki ilgili çalışmalarda elde edilen bulguların bazılarının tarafımızdan elde edilen bu bulgularla örtüştüğü buna karşın bazılarının ise tam karşıtı bir sonuç ortaya koyduğu gözlenmektedir. Bu durum ölçme araçlarının yapısal ve içeriksel özellikleriyle ilgili olabileceği gibi, araştırmaya katılan öğretmen adaylarının özellikleriyle de ilgili olabilir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Algı, inanç, olumlu algı, olumsuz algı, öğretmen adayları.

The Use of Communicative Approach in 9th Grade EFL Classes

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Having appeared in the 60s, the Communicative Approach still keeps its popularity in language teaching contexts. There is almost no doubt that its application varies depending on the teacher's understanding of the methodology. Likewise, some studies on the application of the Communicative Approach in Turkey have revealed that foreign language teaching is not performed in a communicative way due to some challenges and problems.

Purpose of the Study: This paper aims to depict the use of the Communicative Approach in 9th grade classes as well as the opinions of the teachers and students on its implementation.

Method: This is a qualitative study since it aims to describe behaviors by looking at patterns to emerge in order to learn how they happen as well as by interpreting those patterns so as to find out why they happen in that particular way. The students and teachers of two 9th grade classes in 2012-2013 academic year were observed for one hour per week in a semester. The data were collected via COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) observation scheme and the interview questions. The data from the observation scheme were analyzed by proportion calculations while a content analysis was performed with the interview data. The coding for the observations and transcriptions for the interviews were done more than once at different times to check consistency and to achieve reliability and validity.

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Findings: The findings have showed that the application of the Communicative Approach highly varies according to the teacher and the teaching context. When compared, the language learning context at the Anatolian high school is much more communicative than the one at the general high school. Still, it is not the ideal communicative classroom depicted in the text of the national curriculum. It has also been found that although the learners have similar attitudes, beliefs and expectations about their language learning, they do not receive the same teaching practices.

Conclusion and Recommendations: In order to adopt the communicative approach successfully in EFL countries like Turkey, the change and the employment should be steady and the countries' particular EFL contexts and the teachers' perceptions of an innovation as well as students' previous educational habits should be considered. Also, continuous teacher training and teacher development opportunities focusing on real classroom applications, especially within the crucial first few years of the innovation period are needed to support the application of any innovation in a curriculum.

Keywords: English language teaching, learner beliefs, teacher beliefs, classroom observation.

Introduction

Learning and teaching of a second language has become a vital need rather than a luxury in today's world due to the fact that multilingualism has gained significant importance as people are to follow the rapid developments in various areas. Teaching of English, which is the most common language used for international communication, has always been important and prior in Turkish education system (Kirkgoz, 2007; Oral, 2010; Alptekin & Tatar, 2011; Di Pajojo & Tansel, 2015). However, it is also one of the most serious educational problems that need to be urgently considered since Turkey has not been much successful in second language teaching despite making students study a language for long years (Akalin & Zengin, 2007; Isik, 2008; Alptekin & Tatar, 2011; Solak & Bayar, 2015). Akpınar and Aydın (2009) and Paker (2012) state that there are undoubtedly serious problems in second language teaching in Turkey since learners who spend over ten years studying a second language can only achieve a little grammar, but almost no communication skills. Therefore, the previous curriculum of second language teaching has been changed according to the principles of the new movements and approaches of teaching which favor student-centered learning environments rather than the traditional teacher-centered ones and which emphasize learning processes rather than learning products.

Since 2005, the Turkish government has been trying to standardize English language teaching as a government policy in order to achieve the harmony with the

European Union and get the full membership. Therefore, the 1997 curriculum, which introduced the concept of communicative approach to language teaching in Turkey, has been revised a couple of times to adapt it into the European standards (Arslan & Coskun, 2012). In the latest version of the curriculum for English language teaching in high schools published by the Ministry of National Education (MNE) in 2011, it is clearly stated that this new program is primarily and dominantly based on the communicative approach and has been prepared to be in harmony with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. That is, students should be directed to understand and use rather than to memorize what they are learning since communication is a process to meet their needs, to improve themselves as well as to survive in the social life (Paker, 2012; Zorba & Arikan, 2016).

The Communicative Approach

The birth of the communicative approach goes back to the late 1960s when situational language teaching started to gain importance in Britain. After the discovery of the creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences, it was realized that the functional and communicative potential of language had a crucial role in language learning and teaching. In the early 1970s, Wilkin studied on the communicative meanings to be understood and expressed. His studies resulted in a new way to describe the core of language: notional categories and communicative functions rather than the traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary. Thus, he produced “notional syllabuses” which led to the development of the communicative approach (Richards & Rodgers, 2002).

Therefore, it is obvious that in terms of language teaching, the communicative approach puts the emphasis on communicative competence. Brown (2000, 246) defines communicative competence as the one that allows us to exchange meanings between persons in particular circumstances. Dealing with activities consisting of real communication, which let the learner use meaningful language to carry out meaningful tasks enhances learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2002). Harmer (1987, 37) explains the learning principles in accordance with the communicative approach and puts the emphasis on communicative activities in which language is utilized as a tool to accomplish an interactive assignment.

On the other hand, Richards (2006), highlights that the implementation of the communicative approach alters according to the teacher’s perception of it. Moreover, Crawford (2004) emphasizes the significance of the teacher’s implementation skills in the application of a new curriculum. Mowlaie and Rahimi (2010) state that teachers’ beliefs concerning the approach have a crucial role in their classroom practices and many language teachers do not have conviction in enabling their learners to communicate.

Therefore, the theoretical reconstruction of the new curriculum in accordance with the Communicative Approach in Turkey does not necessarily reflect what is going on within the classroom. In fact, it is known that there has been variety as well as inconsistency in foreign language instruction practices in Turkey (Kırkgöz, 2008). This is mainly because teachers face some difficulties with the implementation of any

innovation or change in the educational programme (Oral, 2010; Ari, 2014). It is not an easy task to replace their habits with a new approach especially for the teachers with established teaching practices of long years (Akpınar-Dellal & Cinar, 2011). Novice teachers and pre-service teachers are also put to create a communicative classroom due to the lack of practice in real teaching contexts throughout their teacher training programs (Celik & Arikan, 2012; Liao & Zhao, 2012; Lalor, Lorenzi & Rami, 2015; Ortactepe & Akyel, 2015). Likewise, the in-service training programs tend to be rather insufficient due to their one-shot, top-down and mainly transmission-based quality (Uysal, 2012). In general, teachers are not knowledgeable enough about the requirements of the new curriculum or even if they gain some understanding in theory, they are not motivated to implement it efficiently because they do not know how to put it into practice in real classroom settings (Demir & Demir, 2012; Karakas, 2013). For instance, Sarıcoban (2013) expresses that despite their interest in computers and technology, many language teachers in Turkey do not know how to use them as a teaching tool.

Altan (2006) states that foreign language teachers in Turkey encounter serious challenges while meeting the demands of the 21st century and therefore need efficient support to improve their quality and to continue their professional development. It is also argued that foreign language education policies affected by current issues and administrative approaches without analyzing the needs and demands of the target group in a scientific way have led to an undesirable failure in language teaching in Turkey (Li, 1998; Isik, 2008; Incecay & Incecay, 2009; Nergis, 2011). Sarıcoban and Oz (2014) underline the importance of the consideration of learners' sociocultural backgrounds and educational settings and they state that teachers and program developers should be cautious in the process of determining appropriate materials and pedagogical approaches for specific contexts.

It is not possible to claim that a change in theory will guarantee a change in practice. Consequently, whether the application of the new curriculum by MNE in actual teaching contexts is as successful as it is in the theoretical base still remains as a question. This means that there is a need for an effective feedback about the successful and inefficient facets of the curriculum in terms of its application and this is the need which is aimed to meet by this paper. It is obvious that the new program aims to enable teachers to create communicative language classrooms in high schools, but is it so in reality? So, this is the question in general to be answered in this paper.

The Objectives

The objective of this paper is to depict how effectively the communicative approach is being applied in high school 9th grade classrooms and to find out the beliefs of the teachers and students on the use of this approach in terms of classroom practices.

Research Questions

1. To what extent are the 9th grade English classes in two high schools in Izmir, Buca based on communication?
2. What do the 9th grade students in two high schools in Izmir, Buca think about the communicative features of their English classes?
3. What do the teachers who teach English to the 9th grades in two high schools in Izmir, Buca think about the communicative features of their classes?

Method

Research Design

This is a qualitative study which focuses on emerging patterns to depict behaviors by analyzing descriptive data to understand how and why these behaviors and patters come about in that specific style (Richards, 2003; Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Research Sample

In this study, typical sampling technique was used. Typical sampling is a technique which allows the researcher to choose the most typical one or ones to study among the contexts in which an application is being implemented. With this technique, the aim is to study the average contexts in order to get a general idea about a particular phenomenon (Yildirim & Simsek, 1999). The sample of this study included the students and teachers of two 9th grade classes: one from a general high school (HAYL) and the other from an Anatolian high school (FSAL) in Buca-Izmir, in 2012-2013 academic year.

Research Instrument and Procedure

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Observation Scheme: The data were collected with the COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) scheme by Allen, Frohlich and Spada (1983). It was created to depict the characteristics of communication and aims to portray each activity in terms of five parameters which were determined considering the current theories of communicative competence and other related literature in first and second language learning (Allen et al., 1983). These parameters include time, activities and episodes, participant organization, content, content control, student modality and materials (Spada & Frohlich, 1995). Coding was done by putting check marks into the appropriate boxes under each of the five major categories.

Interview Questions: The participant teachers and some of the students were interviewed. The interview questions were formed according to the basic principles of the communicative approach so as to discover both the teachers' and students' opinions and beliefs about how the language was taught. Questions were also included to reveal what they thought about the support of their textbook in this process. The interview included questions like "What do you think about inclusion of pair work and group work activities in your language class?", "Can you give an example of

your favorite activities?”, *“What are your responsibilities as a teacher / student in the classroom?”*, *“Which language skill(s) should be given importance in language instruction?”*.

Validity and Reliability

To achieve reliability and validity in the observations, the two classes were observed for seven weeks and the effects of the observer on the participants were minimized. The coding was done three times at different times with the help of the tape-recordings and controlled by three different supervisors to check consistency. In the interviews, all the participants were asked the questions without changing the wording and they were assured that they would not be panelized because of what they would tell since their identity would not be revealed. Additionally, some random parts of the interviews were transcribed twice at different times to check consistency (Turnuklu, 2000; Seferaj, 2009).

Data Analysis

The analysis for the observation data started with the calculation of time for each activity and episode. The percentage of time spent on each of the categories was calculated under the major features. On the other hand, a content analysis was implemented on the interview data in order to draw the common themes.

Results

Results for the Classroom Observations

The results for the analysis of the classroom observation data collected with the COLT have been presented in this section under the five main categories provided in the observation scheme. These categories include participant organization, content, content control, student modality and material types.

Table 1.

Participant Organization by Institution

	<i>Participant organization</i>						
	<i>Class</i>			<i>Group</i>		<i>Individual</i>	
	<i>T- S/C</i>	<i>S-S/C</i>	<i>Choral</i>	<i>Same task</i>	<i>Different tasks</i>	<i>Same task</i>	<i>Different tasks</i>
FSAL	42.96	2.96	-	32.22	-	21.85	-
HAYL	86.06	-	-	-	-	13.93	-

As can be seen in Table 1, the teacher at FSAL spent the 45.92 per cent of the time for whole class interaction, the majority of which was between the teacher and the student or the whole class (42.96%) while the 32.22 per cent of the time was devoted to group work and the 21.85 per cent was used for individual studies. The teacher in HAYL spent the 86.06 per cent of the time on whole class interaction which was totally between the teacher and the students and the 13.93 per cent of the time was devoted to individual studies.

Table 2.

Content by Institution

	<i>Content</i>							
	<i>Management</i>			<i>Language</i>			<i>Other topics</i>	
	<i>Procedure</i>	<i>Discipline</i>	<i>Form</i>	<i>Function</i>	<i>Discourse</i>	<i>Sociolinguistics</i>	<i>Narrow</i>	<i>Broad</i>
FSAL	2.59	1.48	57.03	7.40	2.22	-	11.48	25.92
HAYL	-	-	100	-	-	-	-	-

According to Table 2, the teacher at FSAL spent the 4.07 per cent of the time for management, the 62.69 per cent for language and the 37.4 per cent for other topics whereas the teacher at HAYL spent the 100 per cent of the class time to focus on language form. It is also seen that the teacher at FSAL devoted most of the class time (57.03%) to deal with language form rather than function, discourse or sociolinguistics.

Table 3.

Content Control by Institution

	<i>Content control</i>		
	<i>Teacher/text</i>	<i>Teacher/text/student</i>	<i>Student</i>
FSAL	61.11	38.88	-
HAYL	100	-	-

As Table 3 presents, the 61.11 per cent of the content of the classroom instruction was controlled by the teacher and/or the text whereas the 38.88 per cent was decided by the teacher, the text and the student at FSAL. The whole content was determined by the teacher and/or the text at HAYL without giving the students any chance to control the content of the instruction in the class.

Table 4.*Student Modality by Institution*

	<i>Student modality</i>				
	<i>Listening</i>	<i>Speaking</i>	<i>Reading</i>	<i>Writing</i>	<i>Other</i>
FSAL	65.55	35.92	46.66	42.59	-
HAYL	-	-	-	100	-

According to Table 4, the students at FSAL spent the 65.55 per cent of the class time by listening, the 35.92 per cent by speaking, the 46.66 per cent by reading and the 42.59 per cent by writing whereas the students at HAYL spent the whole class time by writing (100%). That is, all the four language skills were almost equally emphasized at FSAL while they were completely ignored at HAYL.

Table 5.*Material Types by Institution*

	<i>Materials</i>							<i>Student made</i>
	<i>Type</i>			<i>Source</i>				
	<i>Text</i>		<i>Audio</i>	<i>Visual</i>	<i>L2-NNS</i>	<i>L2-NS</i>	<i>L2-NSA</i>	
	<i>Minimal</i>	<i>Extended</i>						
FSAL	62.59	2.59	7.77	25.92	61.11	-	-	25.92
HAYL	83.08	-	-	-	71.67	-	-	-

Table 5 indicates that at FSAL the 65.18 per cent of the class time was spent with texts, the majority of which were minimal texts (62.59%) while the 7.77 per cent was spent with audio and the 25.92 per cent was spent with visual materials. The 83.08 per cent of the class time was spent with minimal texts at HAYL and the students

passed the 16.02 per cent of their time with no materials at all. Moreover, the 61.11 per cent of the class time was spent with the materials produced by non-native speakers and the 25.92 per cent was passed with student-made materials at FSAL. Table 5 also indicates that the 83.08 per cent of the class time was spent with the materials produced by non-native speakers at HAYL.

Results from the Interviews

The results for the interviews with the teachers and the students have been presented in this section under eight main themes concerning the assumptions of the Communicative Approach. These categories include use of pair/group work activities, fluency versus accuracy, use of the native language in the classroom, error correction, teacher roles, learner roles, language skills and the course book.

Use of Pair/Group Work Activities: In the interviews, both the teachers and the students were asked about their opinions about the pair/group work activities in English classes and except one teacher and one student, the rest stated that they found these activities advantageous for language learning and they should be included in the lessons since these activities:

- provide a chance to speak and practice the language,
- help students to learn from each other,
- let students check what they have learnt,
- are motivating, encouraging and fun to do and so improve learners' self-confidence.

However, the other teacher from the general high school claimed that such activities could be used with learners of a certain language level and it was not possible or useful to do them with lower level learners like his own students as it was not possible to involve the students in the activities.

Fluency versus Accuracy: When asked about the significance of fluency and accuracy in language learning, the majority of the participants agreed on the significance of fluency since they believed that accuracy was not important as long as people could communicate with each other. Moreover, they stated that they could speak their native language fluently but not in a complete accuracy which was perfectly fine in all languages. Only the teacher from the general high school and one of his students favored accuracy. The teacher claimed that it was not possible to achieve fluency without accuracy and the student expressed that people could not understand each other without accuracy.

Use of the Native Language in the Classroom: When they were asked to consider the use of the mother tongue in the lesson, the majority of the participants stated that their native language should be included in their lessons adding that this would be advantageous for their learning. Additionally, they preferred Turkish as their native language in teaching or learning grammar whereas they believed that they should be using the target language for meaningful and communicative activities. However,

there are two learners who favored using English all the time even though they found it challenging because they believed that being challenged would contribute to their learning.

Error Correction: In terms of error correction, there was a confirmation that learners should be given a chance for self-correction first. They stated that it should be the teacher who would provide the necessary feedback if learners could not correct themselves and also learners should not be interfered while speaking so that they would not get anxious, excited, distracted or confused, rather, they should be given the opportunity to complete their speech before they received the feedback. On the other hand, there are a few students who would rather get corrected by their friends since they feel themselves closer to them and so they feel more comfortable with their friends.

Teacher Roles: When they were asked about the roles and responsibilities of a language teacher in the classroom, the participants mainly stated that a good teacher should:

- teach the language well, provide efficient feedback and support for the learners;
- enable the learners to speak the language and become a model with his/her way of speaking the target language;
- challenge, encourage and motivate the learners;
- behave in a friendly way and share some information about real life and the outside world.

Learner Roles: When they were asked about the roles and responsibilities of a language learner, the participants stated that the most important things for a student were to pay attention to the lesson and the teacher, not to get engaged with other things and not to get distracted, to participate in the classroom activities, to be determined and to try to learn and speak English both inside and outside the classroom.

Language Skills: When the participants were asked to consider the significance of language skills for their learning, the majority expressed that speaking should be given the priority because they perceived this skill as the main means of communication in real life. There were also some students who valued listening in addition to speaking as they believed these two skills were complementary. However, they did not find themselves successful in these skills. They believed they were better at grammar, writing and vocabulary because they were on their own when they were writing something and so they did not feel much anxious and they were accustomed to writing and grammar rather than speaking due to their classroom routine. However, the teacher of the general high school gave the priority to grammar as he believed that grammar was the main skill in language learning and other skills could not be developed without it whereas the teacher of the Anatolian

high school attributed equal importance to all language skills since she believed all were complementary for one another.

The Course Book: When the participants were asked to evaluate the contribution of their course book to their language learning, the participants from the general high school said that they had no idea about their book since they had never used it, but it could have been useful as it would have given a chance to revise or study the topics covered in the classroom when they went home. Their teacher also criticized the book severely claiming that the content and the level of the book were not suitable for his learners. Likewise, the participants from the Anatolian high school also criticized the book because they found it too simple for their level and it did not include anything new for them so they felt that it did not help them to improve their language abilities. On the other hand, they said that they also enjoyed the simplicity of the book since it was stress free for them. The teacher of this school agreed with the learners on this stating that she got disappointed with the level of the book because it turned out to be much simpler for her learners.

Discussion and Conclusions

This paper has aimed to find out how effectively the communicative approach is being applied in high school 9th grade classrooms and to see the case from the viewpoint of the teachers and students.

First, the dominant participant organization in the observed classes is between the teacher and the students or the whole class. So, there is a tendency for teacher-centered instruction and very little or no interaction between the learners. On the other hand, the majority of the participants are highly aware of the advantages of such activities and favor the inclusion of them in their lessons. However, like the teachers in this study, language teachers in Turkey face some challenges in implementing such activities due to big classroom sizes, traditional grammar-based testing and the time pressure to cover the schedule (Ozsevik, 2010; Coskun, 2011; Karakas, 2013; Al Asmari, 2015). Moreover, some teachers avoid such activities because they simply do not believe that they can make their students communicate in the target language (Mowlaie & Rahimi, 2010).

Despite the primary focus on meaningful interaction in the communicative approach, the dominant content of the interaction in the observed classrooms is language; namely language form. That is, these classrooms lack meaningful communication and the students learn about the usage of the language rather than using the language as an instrument to convey some kind of meaning or to accomplish a task in a meaningful way. An average Turkish student wants to get explicit grammar instruction, and to be checked strictly by his teacher (Çelik, 2006). Moreover, Phipps and Borg (2009) state that language teachers in Turkey tend to adopt a 'focus-on-forms' approach in their language instruction. Such a tendency mainly stems from the common grammar-based discrete point testing methods which confront both teachers and students with a dilemma between the

communicative approach and the traditional teaching methods (Ngoc & Iwashita, 2012). Specifically for high schools in Turkey, teachers feel the responsibility of preparing their students for the university entrance exam which is made up of multiple choice question items. When they attempt to implement a new methodology and to prepare their students for such a traditional test, they do not have enough time to achieve both. This also conduces teachers to focus on form, vocabulary and particularly reading comprehension by using multiple choice tests to enhance their teaching (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011; Demir & Demir, 2012; Yigit, Kiyici & Cetinkaya, 2014).

The communicative approach aims to give learners more control and autonomy of their own learning via student-centered group work activities and the chance to control the content of the classroom instruction. However, in the observed classes, the content of the instruction is mainly determined by the teacher and occasionally by the teacher and the learners together, but never merely by the learners. Therefore, the teacher is regarded as the expert in the classroom by both the students and the teachers themselves. This is also consistent with the participants' opinions about error correction, teacher and learner roles. Likewise, in Tok's (2010) study, the language learners preferred explicit grammar instruction and correction provided by the teacher. All such perceptions might create a tendency to give the control of everything to the teacher in the classroom. The previous learning experiences focusing on traditional and grammar-based methods might induce teacher-dependent learners who avoid taking the responsibility of their own learning (Karakas, 2013).

Moreover, the results have shown that the student modality is distributed almost equally among the four language skills in the Anatolian high school whereas in the general high school the only modality is writing which is not a contextualized, meaningful or creative writing, but rather copying the discrete grammar exercises into the students' notebooks.

The communicative approach recommends the use of contextualized, authentic or authentic-like materials with audio visual components which will engage learners in purposeful and meaningful use of language (Newby, 2015). However, the most frequently used material in both classrooms is minimal texts prepared by non-native speakers. Almost no extended texts or authentic materials have been used in these classes. The course book provided by the MNE has also been avoided by the teachers claiming that the level of the book is not suitable for their students. The students also agree with their teachers on the suitability of the book. Similarly, the research on different course books provided by the MNE for language learners in different levels and grades has shown that these materials do not promote communicative targets, or support learner-centeredness and student autonomy and that they do not include realistic and motivating content, and that there is a need for English course books to construct student-centered and student-initiated activities (Haznedar, 2009; Karababa, Serbes & Sahin, 2010; Isik, 2011; Saricoban & Can, 2012; Basal, Celen, Kaya & Bogaz, 2016).

The communicative approach values the important benefits of the native language knowledge since the research has proven that important amount of conceptual knowledge and skills is transmitted across languages (Spada, 2007). The most of the participants also consider the advantage of using their native language while teaching or learning grammar structures since it would be harder and more time-taking to understand such structures in the target language, but they prefer using the target language for meaningful and communicative activities.

In conclusion, the extent to which the Communicative Approach is being utilized in the lessons highly varies according to the teacher and the teaching context. Despite the students' similar attitudes, beliefs and expectations about their language learning, there is not a standard in their learning practices as opposed to the requirements of the general curriculum provided by the MNE. This appears to be mainly due to the discrepancies in the teachers' perceptions of their learner profiles, teaching preferences and so their teaching philosophies.

In order to adopt the communicative approach successfully in EFL countries like Turkey, the change and the employment should be steady and the countries' particular EFL contexts and the teachers' perceptions of an innovation should be considered. Also, changes should be done by considering students' previous educational habits and so non-English speaking countries should combine communicative and non-communicative activities in English lessons since combining the communicative approach with traditional teaching techniques is advantageous for EFL students. Moreover, pre-service and in-service teacher training programs are not sufficient enough for teachers to implement such an innovation in actual teaching contexts; therefore, continuous teacher training and teacher development opportunities focusing on real classroom applications, especially within the crucial first few years of the innovation period are needed to support the application of any innovation in a curriculum.

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9. Sınıf İngilizce Sınıflarında İletişimsel Yaklaşımın Kullanımı

Atıf:

Dencki-Akkas, F. & Coker, B. (2016). The use of communicative approach in 9th grade efl classes. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 71-90
10.14689/ejer.2016.65.05

Özet

Problem Durumu: Günümüzde pek çok alanda yaşanan hızlı gelişmeleri takip edebilmek adına çok dillilik, bunun sonucunda da ikinci yabancı dil eğitimi bir lüks olmaktan çıkarak bir gereklilik haline gelmiştir. Uluslararası iletişimde en geçerli dil olan İngilizcenin öğretimine Türk eğitim sistemi içinde de her zaman önem ve öncelik verilmiştir. Yabancı dilin daha iyi ve etkili öğretilmesini sağlamak için yapılan araştırmaların ortaya çıkardığı yenilikler doğrultusunda Türkiye’de de değişikliklere gidilerek öğretmeni merkezden çeken, daha çok öğrenci merkezli ve süreç odaklı bir yaklaşıma göre ikinci yabancı dil öğretim müfredatı yeniden yapılandırılmıştır. Böylece süreç odaklı yeni bir yaklaşım benimsenmiş ve öğrencinin söylemi anlamasını ve üretmesini sağlayan her türlü beceri ve strateji ile öğrencilerin beceri ve potansiyellerini keşfedeceği öğrenme ortamları önem kazanmıştır. Öğrencilerin sınıf dışında öğrendikleri dili kendi kendilerine kullanmalarını ve karşılaştıkları sorunları kendi kendilerine çözmelerini sağlamak hedeflenmiştir. Bu çalışmanın odaklandığı ortaöğretim 9. sınıfları da kapsayan program da iletişimsel yaklaşım temel alınarak hazırlanmış, kazanımlar dört dil becerisine ve öğrenciyi merkeze alacak şekilde düzenlenmiştir.

1960’ların sonlarında ortaya çıkan iletişimsel yaklaşımın odağında belirli bağlamlarda anlamın kişiler arasında iletilmesini, yorumlanmasını ve müzakere edilmesini sağlayan iletişim edinci yer alır. İletişim edinci; dilbilgisi edinci, söylem edinci, strateji edinci ve toplumsal dil edinci gibi alt faktörlerden oluşur. Bu yetilerin kazanılması ve öğrenmenin desteklenmesi için bireyin gerçek iletişime dayalı, dili anlamlı görevleri yerine getirmek üzere bir araç olarak anlamlı bir şekilde kullandığı etkinlikler yapması gerekmektedir. İletişim edincinin tüm alt faktörleri eşit derecede önemlidir. Öğrenciler anlamlı bir hedefe ulaşmak için dili pragmatik, otantik ve fonksiyonel bir şekilde kullanabilmelidirler. Bu nedenle, iletişimsel etkinliklerde dil, verilen görevi tamamlamak üzere bir araç olarak kullanılmalıdır.

Öte yandan, iletişimsel yaklaşım uygulamalarının özellikle öğretmenlerin bu yönteme ilişkin anlayışlarına bağlı olarak çeşitlilik gösterdiği; öğretmenlerin hem bu yönteme karşı algılarının birbirlerinden farklı olduğu hem de algıları ile gerçekteki uygulamalarının tutarlı olmadığı görülmektedir. Bu da, eğitim-öğretim uygulamalarındaki değişikliklerin uygulanmasında öğretmenlerin önemli bir faktör olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Aynı durum, Türkiye’deki yabancı dil öğretimi uygulamaları için de geçerlidir. Özellikle uzun süreli yerleşmiş öğretim uygulamalarına sahip olan öğretmenler için alışkanlıklarını yeni bir yaklaşımla

değiřtirmek kolay bir iř deęildir. Bu nedenle, program metinlerindeki teorik deęiřimlerin uygulamada arzu edilen deęiřimleri garanti edeceęini varsaymak m¼mk¼n deęildir.

Arařtırmanın Amacı: Bu çalıřmanın amacı da MEB (Milli Eęitim Bakanlığı) tarafından okullara ücretsiz olarak daęıtılan ders kitaplarının kullanıldıęı 9. sınıf İngilizce derslerinin ne kadar iletiřime dayalı olduęunu belirlemek ve mevcut durumu öęretmen ve öęrenci açasından incelemektir.

Arařtırmanın Yöntemi: Bu çalıřmada betimsel verilere dayanan nitel arařtırma yöntemleri kullanılmaktadır. Bu çalıřmada veriler “Dil Öęretiminin İletišimsel Odaęı” (COLT) gözlem formu ve görüřme soruları ile toplanmıřtır. 9. sınıf İngilizce dersleri doęal ortamında gözlemlenmiřtir. Öęrenme-öęretme süreçlerine herhangi bir müdahale yapılmamıř, yalnızca var olan durum betimlenmiřtir. Ancak gözlem formlarıyla elde edilen veriler oran hesaplamaları yapılarak analiz edildięinden betimleme sayısal deęerlerle yapılmıřtır. Bu durum, arařtırmaya nicel bir özellik de katmaktadır. Bu betimlemeye görüřme soruları yardımıyla arařtırma konusu olan öęrenci ve öęretmenlerin de bakıř açıları katılmıřtır. Görüřme soruları ile toplanan veriler için içerik analizi yapılarak genel temalar ortaya konmuřtur. Bu arařtırmanın katılımcılarını, 2012-2013 eęitim-öęretim yılında İzmir ili Buca ilçesinde bulunan iki liseden birer 9. sınıfın öęrencileri ve bu sınıflarda derse giren İngilizce öęretmenleri oluřturmaktadır. Bu iki okul MEB’e baęlı birer tipik genel lise ve Anadolu lisesi olmaları nedeniyle seçilmiřlerdir. Her iki okulda da bir dönem boyunca her hafta bir ders saati gözlemlenmiřtir.

Arařtırmanın Bulguları: Arařtırmanın bulguları, gözlem yapılan sınıflarda iletiřimin çoęunlukla öęretmen ile öęrenciler ya da sınıf arasında geçtięini, öęrencilerin birbirleri ile iletiřiminin hemen hemen hiç olmadıęını, iletiřimin içerięinin çoęunlukla dilbilgisi üzerinde odaklandıęını, bu içerięin de baskın şekilde öęretmen tarafından belirlendięini, öęrencilerin hemen hemen hiçbir zaman kendi kendilerine içerik seçme řansına sahip olmadıęını, özellikle genel lise için dört dil becerisinden sadece yazma becerisi üzerinde durulduęunu ve sınıf içinde kullanılan materyallerin büyük ölç¼de anadili İngilizce olmayan kiřiler tarafından hazırlanan minimal metinlerden oluřtuęunu, otantik materyallere hiç yer verilmedięini ortaya koymaktadır. Buna karřın, öęretmen ve öęrencilerle yapılan görüřmeler; öęrencilerin birbirleri ile iletiřim kurmalarına imkân veren grup çalıřmalarını dil öęrenme süreçleri için yararlı bulduklarını, bir dili akıcı konuřabilmeyi önemsediklerini, yeni ya da zor dilbilgisi kalıplarının öęretiminin dıřında hedef dil kullanılmasını istediklerini, hatalarının iletiřimi kesmeyecek şekilde ve genellikle öęretmen tarafından düzeltilmesini tercih ettiklerini, öęretmenin dil öęretimi sırasında iyi bir rol model olmakla, öęrencinin de sorumluluklarını yerine getirerek bu modeli izlemekle yük¼ml¼ bulduklarını, iletiřimin temeli olarak gör¼len konuřma becerisini önemsediklerini ve sınıfta kullanılan ders kitabını seviyelerine uygun olmadıęı için yararlı bulmadıklarını göstermektedir.

Arařtırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Arařtırmanın sonuçları, öęrenciler arası iletiřimi destekleyen grup çalıřmalarının yararlarına olan inanca raęmen sınıf içinde daha çok

öğretmen merkezli bir öğretimin yapıldığını ortaya koymaktadır. Çeşitli araştırmalar, öğretmenlerin bu tür etkinlikleri yapmaktan kaçınmalarına neden olan çeşitli güçlüklerin varlığını ortaya koymuştur. Bu nedenle, bu güçlüklerin aşılması için öğretmenlere destek olunabilir ve yabancı dil öğretimini daha öğrenci merkezli hale getirecek olan grup çalışmalarından faydalanmaları için öğretmenlere destek olunabilir. İletişimsel yaklaşımın ana hedefi öğrencinin anlamlı iletişim kurmasını sağlamak olmasına rağmen, gözlemlenen sınıflarda dilbilgisi yapılarına odaklanıldığı görülmüştür. Öğretmenlerin bu yönde eğilim göstermelerinde dilbilgisi yapılarına ve kelime bilgisine odaklanan ve çoktan seçmeli soru tipini kullanan ulusal sınavlar etkili olabilir. Öğrencilerin iletişim becerilerini ölçen bir sınav sistemi öğretmenlerin bu eğilimlerini değiştirmelerinde etkili olabilir. İletişimsel yaklaşıma göre, yabancı dil öğretim sürecinde otantik materyallerin kullanımı anlamlı öğrenmeyi desteklemektedir. Ancak, derslerde bu tür materyallere hiç yer verilmediği gözlenmiştir. Kullanılan ders kitabının da iletişimsel yaklaşıma dayanan bir dil öğretim sürecini desteklemediği ifade edilmiştir. Genel olarak yabancı dil öğretimi için devlet tarafından sağlanan kaynakların bu bakımdan yetersiz olduğunu ortaya koyan çeşitli araştırmalar vardır. Materyallerin yetersiz görülen yönleri geliştirilerek dil öğretim sürecinin daha fazla iletişime dayanmasına katkı sağlanabilir. Ayrıca, iletişimsel yaklaşımın sınıf içinde uygulanma düzeyinin büyük oranda öğretmene ve eğitim ortamına bağlı olduğu görülmektedir. Bu durumun temelde öğrencilerin profillerine, öğretmenlerin eğitim önceliklerine ve dolayısı ile eğitim felsefelerine ilişkin bakış açılarındaki farklılıklardan kaynaklanıyor olabileceği söylenebilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İngilizce öğretimi, öğrenci görüşleri, öğretmen görüşleri, sınıf içi gözlem.

Qualification Journey in Teacher Training: Case in Northern Cyprus

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Abstract

Problem Statement: The identification of professional teaching standards has great value on initial teacher training, hiring teachers, assessing teacher performance, as well as planning and organizing teacher professional development. In Northern Cyprus there are not any identified professional teaching standards. This study aimed at filling this gap in the Northern Cyprus education system.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of the study was to identify the developmental process (DP), dimensions of professional teaching standards (DoPTS), and draft professional teaching standards (DPTS) as an initial step for proposing a national framework for professional teaching standards (PTS) in Northern Cyprus (NC).

Method: Case study under a qualitative paradigm was used as the research strategy in this study. Participants were 7 educational experts (7-EEs) and 17 working group members (17-WGMs). Data were collected using semi-structured interviews. Data were analysed through content analysis.

Findings: As a result of the face-to-face interviews with WGMs, 4 DoPTS and 52 DPTS were identified.

Conclusion and Recommendations: The conclusion revealed categories in the DP, DoPTS, and DPTS. As a result, category DP involved the themes of existing-situation, procedures, working group, format of the study, and study techniques. Category DoPTS yielded the themes of professional values and practice (PVaP), professional development and practice (PDaP), teaching and learning process (TaLP), and professional relationships and practice (PRaP). Category DPTS included the categories PVaP, PDaP, TaLP, and PRaP. Category PVaP generated the themes of valuing learners, being a role model, and entrepreneurship. Category PDaP included the themes of focus on learning strategies, expertise, research skills, curricular

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knowledge, and active leadership. Category TaLP gave rise to the themes of pedagogical content knowledge, learning as cycles of monitoring assessment and feedback, planning learning, learners' responsibilities, and special needs. Category PRaP included the themes of communication and collaboration. Using further statistical analysis, PTSs and performance statements were required to be identified. Similarly, PTSs related to each field of study were recommended for identification based upon the PTSs.

Keywords: Professional development and practice, professional relationships and practice, professional values and practice, teaching and learning process

Introduction

Teacher standards provide some valuable features, such as they clearly state the aims and objectives of teacher training courses, how teacher training courses are assessed, how to progress as initial teacher training students both summatively and formatively, the roles of higher education providers, and what to expect from newly qualified teachers (Winter, 2000). Thus, teacher standards support professionalism and professional qualities, such as increasing public trust (Goepel, 2012). Similarly, the important quality of education reform in England, France, and Germany is closely related to the introduction of professional standards and competences for secondary school teachers in initial teacher education (Page, 2015). Page (2015, 180) agrees that the introduction of such standards and competences offers "challenges for policy makers, teacher educators, student teachers and teachers alike. The concept of standardized teacher education feeds into the idea that there is some convergence towards a uniform teacher ideal". Therefore, teachers need to be trained truly with the knowledge and application of PTS. Developing a national framework on PTS requires identifying the DP, DoPTS, and DPTS.

The Teacher's Act of 1985 asserts that every appointed teacher in NC public secondary schools needs to have a diploma from a relevant faculty, has a pedagogical certificate and/or has completed a 3-month accelerated course after teaching as a temporary-teacher to be appointed as a teacher (The Teacher's Act, 1985); these are based upon very general law articles (Erden, 2015). It is essential to train qualified teachers according to identified definite standards in order to include both universal and local circumstances in the NC education system. However, only written exam subjects are identified in the teacher exam regulations (Alibaba Erden & Ozer, 2013). It should be noted that identified professional teaching standards should be applied while hiring teachers, appointing teachers, promoting teachers, assessing teachers, training pre-service teachers, and planning and presenting professional development of the teachers in the education system of NC. There are state, semi-state, and private higher education providers in NC. Therefore, the DP, DoPTS, and DPTS of a national framework study, should be produced as an initial step for producing the PTS. This has privacy in identifying the PTS as a national framework for NC. Therefore, in order to manage working PTS, it is necessary to identify the DP, DoPTS, and DPTS clearly. Current research has emerged due to

requirements for identifying the DP, DoPT, and DPTS to be able to identify the PTS. Giving a start to the qualification journey emerged due to these requirements.

The purpose of the study is to identify the DP for identifying the PTS, DoPTS and DPTS. The research questions guiding the study are:

1. What kind of DP should be implemented for identifying the PTS in Northern Cyprus?
2. What dimensions are necessary for PTS in Northern Cyprus?
3. Of what DPTS should the dimensions consist?

Method

Research Design

A case study under the qualitative paradigm was used as the research strategy in the current study. In case studies, the researcher explores a program, an event, or an activity in a comprehensive way. This study evoked an instrumental case study as the researcher was interested in identifying the developmental process, dimensions, and draft professional teaching standards (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2010).

Research Sample and Instrumentation

Participants of the study, 7-EEs and 17-WGMs, were chosen through purposive sampling. The data collection of the current study was completed using three semi-structured interview forms named Interview Form for Developmental Process (IFDP), Interview Form for Key Stakeholders-1 (IFKS1), and Interview Form for Key Stakeholders-2 (IFKS2). WGMs represented the key stakeholders of the study.

Data Analysis

Recorded interviews were transcribed for data analysis. Each participant of the study was assigned an ID. Through content analysis, data were put into categories and then themes and sub-themes were identified due to the responses taken from the educational experts and the WGMs. Categories, themes, and sub-themes were identified manually.

Validity and Reliability

Content validity of the semi-structured interview forms was managed through the reviews of the curriculum and instruction experts. They reviewed the research instruments and the data. Based on their feedback, ambiguous and/or uncertain questions were redesigned. Complex/unclear items were re-worded, and ineffective and nonfunctioning questions were either removed or re-shaped. In addition to this, the experts face validated the questions. Internal validity was managed through the member checks, the participatory/collaborative modes of research, and the researcher's bias (Merriam, 1998).

Results

The results obtained from the data collected from multiple key stakeholders for identifying the DP, the dimensions, and DPTS are presented in this section. Three categories were identified. Among these 3 categories there were twenty-four themes and various sub-themes identified.

Category 1: Developmental Process

Analysis showed there were 5 themes that emerged under category 1, called DP. The first emerging theme, existing-situation, included 3 sub-themes. The sub-theme of recent-studies was coded 10 times; importance-of-identifying-PTS was coded 70 times; and pros-and-cons-of-PTS was coded 42 times. Sub-themes were coded 25 times by experts and 97 times by faculty members (FMs). The next emerging theme, procedures, involved 5 sub-themes. The sub-theme of literature-review was coded 20 times; identifying-WGMs was coded 10 times; identifying-dimensions was coded 17 times; identifying-DPTS was coded 14 times; and implementing-a-scale was coded 24 times. Sub-themes were coded 33 times by experts and 52 times by FMs. The third emergent theme, working-group, had 8 sub-themes. However, the 5 sub-themes that received the most attention from participants were taken into consideration. The sub-theme of FMs was coded 16 times; of teachers was coded 12 times; and of School Administrators (SAs) was coded 11 times. The sub-theme of the-educational-secretaries-of-teachers'-trade-unions (ESoTTUs) was coded 13 times, whereas the sub-theme of the-experts-from-the-Ministry-of-National Education (EfmNE) was coded 27 times. Sub-themes were coded 24 times by EfmNE, and 59 times by FMs. The next emerging theme, format-of-the-study, had 2 sub-themes. The sub-theme of dimensions was coded 6 times, whereas the sub-theme of PTS was coded 7 times. Sub-themes were coded 6 times by EfmNE, and 7 times by FMs. The final emergent theme of study-techniques involved 3 sub-themes. The two sub-themes that received the most attention by the participants were taken into consideration. The sub-theme of face-to-face-interviews-with-WGMs was coded 29 times, whereas the sub-theme of implementing-the-PTSS was coded 18 times. Sub-themes were coded 16 times by EfmNE and 32 times by FMs.

Category 2: Identifying DoPTS

Four themes emerged under the category called dimensions of the PTS. The first, PVaP, included 3 sub-themes. Sub-themes of commitment and understanding were coded 26 times. The sub-theme of respect was coded 31 times. Sub-themes were coded 22 times by teachers; 13 times by SAs; 23 times by FMs; 14 times by EfmNE and 11 times by ESoTTUs.

The second emerging theme, PDaP, involved 2 sub-themes. The sub-theme of ongoing-development was coded 50 times and the sub-theme of inquiry-orientation was coded 48 times. Sub-themes were coded 18 times by teachers; 17 times by SAs and by ESoTTUs; and 23 times by FMs and by EfmNE.

The third emerging theme was TaLP. The sub-themes of content-knowledge, ICT-usage and teaching-and-learning-environment were coded 42 times. The sub-theme

of subject-matter-knowledge was coded 40 times, and the sub-theme of program-knowledge was coded 36-times. The sub-theme of instructional-planning-and-strategies was coded 47 times; classroom-management was coded 51 times; and research-skills was coded 39 times. The sub-theme of diverse-learning-needs was coded 33 times and assessment was coded 52 times. Sub-themes were coded 78 times by teachers; 73 times by SAs; 98 times by FMs; 96 times by EFMNE; and 79 times by ESfTTUs.

The next emerging theme, PRaP, involved 5 sub-themes. The sub-theme of school-family-community-relationships was coded 35 times; socio-cultural-and-economic-characteristics-of-environment was coded 32 times; teamwork and communication were coded 37-times. In addition to this, sub-theme of cooperation was coded 38 times. Sub-themes were coded 37 times by teachers; 33 times by SAs; 42 times by FMs; 41 times by EfmNE, and 26 times by ESoTTUs.

Category 3: Identifying DPTS

The third research question aimed to identify DPTS for the national framework produced for NC. The findings revealed certain elements critical for consideration of DPTS. During the interviews, the opinions of the WGMs were taken and then analyzed among the pre-determined DPTS. Each WGM expressed their opinions on the pre-determined DPTS necessary for the national framework for identifying the PTS and added/changed/reshaped the DPTS they found important. They decided that the DPTS should be comprised of PVaP, PDaP, TaLP, and PRaP. Each category has its own themes and each theme has its own sub-themes.

The initial category was related to the-DPTS-on-PVaP. The first emerging theme was valuing-learners. This theme involved 6 sub-themes. The sub-theme of respecting cultural and individual differences was coded 25 times; treating learners equally was coded 29 times; being constructive and positive was coded 30 times; having belief in cooperation and continuous development was coded 27 times. Also, the sub-theme of having belief in learners' interaction and learning from each other was coded 29 times and learners' critical skills was coded 26 times. Sub-themes were coded 35 times by teachers; 29 times by SAs; 38 times by FMs; 38 times by EfmNE; and 26 times by ESoTTUs. The next emerging theme, being-a-role-model, included 2 sub-themes. The sub-theme of being a public model was coded 30 times and fostering intellectual development was coded 28 times. Sub-themes were coded 11 times by teachers and SAs; 14 times by FMs; 13 times by EfmNE; and 9 times by ESoTTUs. The final emergent theme was entrepreneurship. The sub-theme of developing school was coded 29 times and valuing national universal values was coded 30 times. Sub-themes were coded 13 times by teachers and FMs; 12 times by SAs and EfmNE; and 9 times by ESoTTUs.

Analysis results showed that 5 themes emerged under the category called the-DPTS-on-PDaP. The first emerging theme, focus-on-learning-strategies, included 3 sub-themes. The sub-theme of effective learning strategies for students was coded 32 times; having expectations was coded 24 times, and taking responsibility was coded 32 times. Sub-themes were coded 19 times by teachers; 15 times by SAs; 20 times by

FMs; 20 times by EfmNE; and 14 times by ESoTTUs. The next emerging theme, expertise, included 3 sub-themes. The sub-theme on instructional organizational conditions was coded 36 times; general legal duties and responsibilities of teachers was coded 39 times; and legal knowledge was coded 39-times. Sub-themes were coded 29 times by teachers; 21 times by SAs and FMs; 19 times by EfmNE; and 24 times by ESoTTUs. The third emerging theme was research-skills. The sub-theme of integrating theory and practice was coded 40 times; adapting-emphasis was coded 38-times; and engaging debates was coded 42 times. Sub-themes were coded 20 times by teachers; 19 times by SAs; 37 times by FMs; 16 times by EfmNE; and 28 times by ESoTTUs. The subsequent emerging theme, curricular-knowledge, had 1 sub-theme. The sub-theme of organization of curriculum/educational program was coded 33 times. The sub-theme was coded 6 times by teachers; 5 times by SAs; 12 times by FMs; 6 times by EfmNE; and 4 times by ESoTTUs. The theme of active-leadership gave rise to a sub-theme of leading learning, which was coded 39 times. The next sub-theme of organizing learning opportunities was coded 46 times; engaging was coded 42 times; and developing self-regulatory learning skills and sub- organizing opportunities to process new learning with others were coded 49 times. Sub-themes were coded 40 times teachers; 41 times SAs; 61 times by FMs; 43 times by EfmNE; and 40 times by ESoTTUs.

Analysis results revealed 5 themes that emerged under the category of the-DPTS-on-TaLP. The first emerging theme, pedagogical content knowledge, involved 4 sub-themes. The sub-theme of subject knowledge was coded 55 times; pedagogical knowledge was coded 59 times; curricular knowledge was coded 48 times; and knowledge of educational contexts was coded 47 times. Sub-themes were coded 38 times by teachers; 44 times by SAs; 61 times by FMs; 37 times by EfmNE; and 29 times by ESoTTUs. The following emerging theme was called learning as cycles of monitoring assessment and feedback. This theme involved 3 sub-themes. The sub-theme of monitoring learning was coded 47 times; assessment of learning was coded 49 times; and giving differentiated feedback was coded 48 times. Sub-themes were coded 34 times by teachers; 28 times by SAs; 36 times by FMs; 24 times by EfmNE; and 22-times by ESoTTUs. The third emerging theme, planning learning, involved 2 sub-themes. The sub-theme of class instruction was coded 49 times and the sub-theme of differentiated instruction for learners was coded 49 times. Sub-themes were coded 25 times by teachers; 17 times by SAs; 23 times by FMs; 15 times by EfmNE; and 18-times by ESoTTUs. Planning learning covers identifying needs, learning objectives and aims, designing and using effective teaching and learning activities, effective teaching methods and techniques, preparing teaching and learning materials, organizing the teaching and learning environment, designing and using technologies effectively, and designing activities for improving the basic skills of learners. The next emerging theme, learners' responsibilities, had 4 sub-themes. The sub-theme of learning strategies was coded 37 times; ICT-usage was coded 35 times; skills on assessment was coded 39 times; and self-assessment was coded 34 times. Sub-themes were coded 33 times by teachers; 26 times by SAs; 36 times by FMs; 27 times by EfmNE; and 23 times by ESoTTUs. The final theme, special needs, included 3 sub-themes. The sub-theme of planning designing and implementing teaching and

learning activities was coded 45 times; learning environment was coded 42 times; and of using educational technologies was coded 43 times. Sub-themes were coded 28 times by teachers; 25 times by SAs; 34 times by FMs; 23 times by EfMNE; and 19 times by ESoTTUs.

Analysis results showed that 2 themes emerged under the-DPTS-on-PRaP. The first emerging theme was communication. This theme involved 4 sub-themes. The sub-theme of effective-teacher-learner-parent-community-communication-practice was coded 43 times; equity-and-diversity was coded 43 times; effective-respectful-relationships was coded 48 times; and effective-responsive-engagement was coded 50 times. Sub-themes were coded 31 times by teachers; 47 times by SAs; 43 times by FMs; 35 times by EfMNE and 28 times by ESoTTUs. The final emerging theme, collaboration, included two sub-themes. The sub-theme of learner-parent-community-collaboration-practice was coded 44 times and the sub-theme of practice-with-professionals was coded 45 times. Sub-themes were coded 22 times by teachers; 20 times by SAs; 19 times by FMs; 15 times by EfMNE; and 13 times by ESoTTUs.

Discussion and Conclusion

Three categories were identified in the current study: developmental-process, identifying-dimensions-of-professional-teaching-standards, and identifying-draft-professional-teaching-standards.

Developmental-process, as the initial category yields, themes of existing-situation, procedures, working-group, format-of-the-study, and study-techniques. The developmental process of the study affects the quality of the study. The contribution of educational stakeholders to teacher training creates effective training, providing the opportunity to present different perspectives of the stakeholders. The participants stressed the importance of the development of professional teaching standards throughout the process. They believed that studies conducted without identifying the existing process are not healthy. And existing situation needs to be determined before planning a study. In addition, it is necessary to identify the existing process for effective use of resources. Key stakeholders' active and effective participation to the study can only be managed through cooperation and dedication. While conducting studies in identifying the professional teaching standards, study techniques should be scientific to be tested and provide objectivity. Regarding the determination of the working group, it is important to work with members of a working group who work voluntarily. Voluntary work enables key stakeholders to contribute to the process more effectively.

Similarly, there are four dimensions identified throughout the current study: PVaP, PDaP, TaLP, and PRaP. Each dimension yields various themes and each theme generates various sub-themes. The themes identified for PVaP are valuing-learners, being-role-model, and entrepreneurship. Similarly, the themes generated for PDaP are focus-on-learning-strategies, expertise, research-skills, curricular - knowledge, and active - leadership. The themes yielded for TaLP are pedagogical - content - knowledge, learning - as - cycles - of - monitoring - assessment - and-feedback,

planning - learning, learners' - responsibilities, and special - needs. Similarly, the themes generated for PRaP are communication and collaboration.

Initially, themes emerged for PVaP called valuing-learners, being-role-models, and entrepreneurship. Valuing learners and professional values are interconnected. Teachers developing a group of values throughout teaching careers leads them to dedicate themselves to their profession (Day, Elliot, & Kington, 2005). Similarly, the self-concept of teachers and their self-valuing perceptions have a strong effect on promoting self-behaviors and self-beliefs. Therefore, integrating self-concept activities with teaching skills and values as part of teacher training programs to enable the effectiveness of student learning is strongly suggested (Yeung, Craven & Kaur, 2014). Teachers are role models for encouraging pre-service teachers to participate in their roles from top to bottom and to take the necessary responsibilities their profession require (Dunn, 2016). However, role modeling is hardly ever used as a clearly stated teaching method and only a small percentage of young people recognize teachers as role models (Sanderse, 2013). This ensures that role modeling needs to be used as an explicit teaching method in order to make teachers role models for students and the public in general, as well as to foster the intellectual development of teachers and students. Similarly, professional values have positive relationships with teachers as entrepreneurs. One of the characteristics for teachers as change agents has been teachers as entrepreneurs, innovative teachers, and teachers who feel responsible (Van der Heijden, Geldens, Beijaard and Poperijus, 2015). It is the teachers who can give positive or negative direction to the public and to the students. Therefore, as change agents of the public and students, teachers should be very careful in their steps. Strategies for promoting impressive emotional regulation, like re-appraising and strategies for supplying challenges to the teacher from pre-service to in-service years, provide more adaptability and understanding towards teacher education programs. Similarly, valuing beliefs of building empathy towards teacher education can facilitate understanding challenging cases, controlling the emotional experiences, and developing fruitful relationships with learners (Jiang, Vauras, Volet & Wang, 2016).

The themes generated for PDaP are called focus-on-learning-strategies, knowledge-expert, research-skills, curricular-knowledge, and active-leadership. The professional development of teachers intensifies teacher learning, which gains global acceptance as a vital destination for developing students and for contributing to the economic competitiveness of each country (Kennedy, 2015). The professional development of teachers has a direct relationship to student learning styles, since teachers then understand how their students learn, which helps teachers to plan, present, and evaluate their lessons and learner outcomes. Development of learning strategies for students has been enhanced by the components called "classroom culture, scaffolded learning, and the creation of learning opportunities", as well as has helped teachers create their own theory of practice for feeding learner strategic learning (Coyle, 2007, 65). Similarly, learning strategies and learning outcomes have positive relationships (Graham, 2007). Conversely, establishing a valuing learning environment starts with getting to know each learner as an individual. Similarly,

maintaining a valuable learning environment requires knowing each student as an individual to be able to facilitate the teachers for developing a close and harmonious relationship supporting the teaching and learning process.

Also, having a good relationship between teacher and learners enables teachers to evaluate the best ways to teach each learner. Each learner has their own unique learning style and teachers become more successful with learners when they find a method to feed the learning style of each learner. The process of getting to know each learner can be started with knowing each learner's name, which lets learners acknowledge that their teacher respects them and helps them not see their teachers as bodies sitting at the teacher's desk. Likewise, professional development programs are expected to increase teacher expertise. Years of teaching are not associated with teacher expertise, competence, or effectiveness (Hollins, Luna & Lopez, 2014). A research result indicates that a combination of continuous joining of professional development trainings, individual teacher values, leadership on forming a positive learning atmosphere, and leadership through gaining experience are the strong influencers for teachers becoming experts (Hashim & Ahmad, 2013). Similarly, expert teachers have critical differences over non-expert teachers, as expert teachers who want to develop their expertise more crucially need to engage in teaching and learning exploration and experimentation, solve problematic issues and engage more in challenging tasks and extending their competencies (Tsul, 2009). Teacher expertise can also be developed through creating opportunities to share the expertise of colleagues and professionals (Fleming, 2014). Fiona (2014) developed a framework facilitating systematic and adjusted evaluations of teachers for sustaining their professional development. The framework includes helping teachers assess their professional developmental needs and the effect of professional development activities in teacher practices. This kind of framework might be useful in identifying and assessing the needs of teachers on professional developmental activities and promoting the effect of professional development activities. Similarly, like indispensable parts of a table, teacher education can only be completed when learning; the development and inquiry of teachers support each other simultaneously (Orlando-Barak, 2014). The next generation of teachers requires fulfillment of their skills by combining research based learning and professional practice, because teaching is continuously changing (Bower, 2010). Teachers report they have positive changes in their educational role, better eyes on understanding and meeting the needs of the students, as well as understanding from a researcher perspective as they engage in research projects (Vaughn, Parsons, Kologi & Saul, 2014). At the same time, the professional development of teachers includes improving teacher knowledge of the curriculum. While developing a curriculum, the aim of the curriculum, the principles of foundation, how to present the model, the structure of the curriculum, and how to manage the assessment procedure should be explored briefly. Similarly, what role the teachers have as teaching professionals, the role of the context, content knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge are discussion points to manage the process of curriculum design (James, Bansilal, Webb, Goba & Khuzwayo, 2015). In contrast, the educational leadership of teachers has been gaining acceptance day-by-day, by which "educational reform and instructional improvement can be

accomplished through ongoing, site-based professional development for teachers" (Poekert, 2012). Thus, this has facilitated the prevailing "limitations of established approaches to continuing professional development as a strategy for school improvement by mobilizing the massive untapped potential of teachers as leaders of innovation" (Frost, 2012, 205). Developing teachers as leaders has been recognized internationally and resources, time, and finances are effectively spent on leadership development programs. Policies and educational leadership programs should be supported by foundations, including foundations on framework and philosophy of leadership development (Nicolaidou & Petridou, 2011). The professional development of teachers increases their capacity for enhancing instruction when there is a complete support system comprising support to profession-embedded and accountability-based instructional and collaborative practices, as well as comprising direct support to principals developing themselves professionally as part of a school-wide strategy (Stosich, 2016).

Pedagogical-content-knowledge, learning-as-cycles-of-monitoring assessment-and-feedback, planning-learning, learners'-responsibilities, and special-needs-learners have a significant effect on teaching and learning processes. Particularly, TaLP has a close relationship with content-knowledge. Content-knowledge can be defined as the distinctive bodies of knowledge for teaching. It represents the combination of content-knowledge and pedagogy-knowledge into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, designed to take the diverse interests and abilities of learners into consideration, and presented for instruction. Pedagogical content knowledge has been defined as the "interaction of several bases upon which a teacher makes decisions about what and how to teach" (Iserbyt, Ward & Li, 2015). It facilitates designing the best materials for teachers, increasing the teacher training and ongoing development of teachers (Ball, Thames & Phelps, 2008). Planning the learning in educational environments for supplying purposeful learning requires this to be parallel with curriculum suitable for supporting rationale, suggesting appropriate pedagogies and assessment, as well as entrusting its implementation (Drew & Mackie, 2011). This has been named active learning. The development of the professional understanding of its meaning and pedagogical implications has importance in supporting educational practices. Additionally, having an affirmative sense of teacher professional health and wellbeing has a close relationship with teachers perceiving confidence, respect, independence, and efficacy. Having these kinds of feelings gives rise to being willing to take risks, committing themselves, being creative, developing themselves professionally, and solving problems and challenges appearing between student-teacher learning. When teachers feel successful, they feel willing to take on new responsibilities and develop themselves professionally. Conversely, content knowledge needs to be planned properly; designed according to the needs and interests of the learners; presented using the necessary instructional tools, materials, techniques and methods; evaluated for learning feedback, self-assessment, and improvement purposes in order to develop critical skills in learners; and make learners independently use learning tools. Learning in higher education goes ahead of the assessment. Students are responsible for their own learning and assessment

processes. This opportunity makes students develop tools needed for managing their learning (Nicol and Macfarlane, 2006). Alternatively, as part of the teaching and learning process, teachers are strongly suggested to give effective feedback to student outcomes in order to develop lesson standards, increase student learning performance, control their understanding level of the learning pieces, control misunderstandings regarding the learning piece, and supply instant assistance to the problems that may arise in the teaching and learning process (Freeman & Lewis, 1998). Thus, feeding the process with feedback makes the teaching and learning mechanism more perceivable and detectable (Demerath & Mattheis, 2015). The teaching and learning process has a close relationship with planning learning. Thus, planning learning is a vital skill that pre-service teachers need to adopt. Teachers promote themselves in planning their lessons to learn about teaching and to develop themselves in teaching their lessons (Mutton, Hagger & Burn, 2011). There is a positive relationship and a cycle between planning and teaching and between teaching and planning: they feed each other continuously. Lesson planning effectively increases the performance of each classroom (Ruzsnyak & Walton, 2011). In contrast, the teaching and learning process covers promoting a sense of responsibility. Promoting a sense of responsibility and the capacity for having responsibility in students raises transformability and accountability skills (Cook-Sather, 2010). While teachers take responsibility for their teaching, students take responsibility of their learning. Teachers can make use of some strategies, including students verbalizing why they are taking the class, putting students into the classes appropriate for their level, forming homework and assignments in such a way that students can attend classes well-prepared, students monitoring each other, acting responsibly in group-work, and students analyzing their learning experiences (Coffman, 2003). The teaching and learning process involves having effective teaching methods and techniques (Seferoglu, 2004). Thus, designing classes using ICT in the teaching and learning process has been strongly suggested for improving the quality of the teaching and learning process (Hauge, 2014). Designing teacher education that covers developing tools to improve pre-service teachers' teaching practices is also suggested (Chung & Van Es, 2014). Likewise, the issue of special needs students takes great attention in the teaching and learning process. Teaching special needs students is an issue in every classroom. Special needs students require social participation for gaining friends, establishing relationships and contacts, improving social-self-perception, and gaining the acceptance of other classmates (Koster, Piji, Nakken & Houten, 2010). Teachers need to be aware of the requirements of special needs students while planning, designing, and implementing activities, establishing the learning environment, and using educational technologies.

Finally, the themes generated for PRaP are communication and collaboration. Communication and collaboration have an important place in professional relationships and practice. Professional relationships have a positive relationship with communication. Communication occurs when a person intentionally demands to communicate, has the knowledge of how to communicate, and is well equipped with communication skills in a particular context as well as in particular relationships (Spitzberg, 1983). Schools, teachers, parents, and public communication

are important since they are an indispensable part of the teaching and learning process. Healthy communication among these players offers a healthy teaching and learning process. Similarly, professional relationships and collaboration positively affect each other. Klieger and Oster-Levinz (2015) offer a model called the professional development school, which is based primarily on collaboration between higher education providers and schools for connecting theory and practice, and gives rise to a mentoring system for pre-service teachers (Hennissen et al., 2011). Thus, an increased level of school-level teachers' qualification improves the level of perception of teachers in professional learning community practices (Ho, Lee & Teng, 2016). Alternatively, Klieger and Oster-Levinz (2015, 115) suggest that mentor teachers develop themselves professionally and each school model conceptually perceive their roles. Actually, supplying positive collaboration among indispensable parts of the teaching and learning process will help schools and their students, teachers and/or parents successfully develop and go further.

Conclusion

The qualitative data yielded the category DP. This category involved the following themes: existing-situation, procedures, working-group, format-of-the-study, and study-techniques. The category DoPTS yielded the themes PVaP, PDaP, TaLP, and PRaP.

Then the category of the-DPTS-on-PVaP was generated. This category involved three themes: valuing-learners, being-a role-model, and entrepreneurship. The theme of valuing learners yielded the sub-themes of treating-learners-equally, being constructive and positive, respecting cultural and individual differences, believing in cooperation and continuous development, believing in learners' interaction and learning from each other, and learner critical skills. The theme of being-a-role-model gave rise to the sub-themes of being a public model and fostering intellectual development. Also, the theme of entrepreneurship generated the sub-themes of developing school and valuing national universal values. However, the statement on treating learners equally, respecting them, and acting constructively was changed to treating learners equally and acting constructively towards them.

The qualitative data yielded the category the-DPTS-on-PDaP. This category generated the following themes: focus-on-learning-strategies, expert, research-skills, curricular-knowledge, and active-leadership. The theme of focus-on-learning-strategies yielded the sub-themes of having effective learning strategies for students, having expectations, and taking responsibility.

Additionally, the theme of expertise gave rise to the sub-themes of instructional organizational conditions, general legal duties and responsibilities of teachers, as well as legal knowledge. The theme of research skills involved the sub-themes of integrating theory and practice, adapting the emphasis, and engaging the debates. Similarly, the theme of curricular knowledge gave rise to the sub-theme of organization of the curriculum/educational program. The theme of active leadership generated the sub-themes of leading learning, organizing learning opportunities,

engaging developed self-regulatory learning skills, and organizing opportunities to process new learning with others.

The qualitative data generated the next category: the-DPTS-on-TaLP. This category yielded the themes of pedagogical content knowledge, learning as a cycle of monitoring assessment and feedback, planning learning, learner responsibility, and special needs. The theme of pedagogical content knowledge gave rise to the sub-themes on subject knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, curricular knowledge, and knowledge of educational context. The theme of learning as cycles of monitoring assessment and feedback generated the sub-themes of monitoring learning, assessment of learning, and giving differentiated feedback. The theme of planning learning gave rise to the sub-themes of class instruction and differentiated instruction for all learners. The theme of learner responsibilities generated the sub-themes of learning strategies, ICT usage, skills on assessment, and skills on self-assessment. Finally, the theme of special needs involved the sub-themes of planning, designing, and implementing teaching and learning activities, learning environment, and using educational technologies.

The qualitative data yielded the category the-DPTS-on-PRaP. This category gave rise to the themes of communication and collaboration. The theme of communication generated the sub-themes of effective-teacher-learner-parent-community-communication-practice, inquiry-and-diversity, effective-respectful-relationships, and effective-responsive-engagement. The theme of collaboration involved the sub-themes of learner-parent-community-collaboration-practice and practice-with-professionals.

Recommendations

The recommendations for identifying the DP, DoPTS, and draft professional teaching standards as an initial step for proposing a national framework for professional teaching standards in NC are as follows:

1. The opinions of a wider group of key stakeholders should be considered in order to explore to what extent they agree with the identified draft professional teaching standards and to identify professional teaching standards as a national framework.
2. Identification of professional teaching standards as a national framework requires identification of performance statements. Performance statements should be identified as a further step to describe acceptable levels of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values.
3. Teaching standards identified in the study are general standards for teachers of all levels of the education system of NC. The field specific professional teaching standards should also be identified basing upon these standards.

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Öğretmen Eğitiminde Kalite Yolculuğu: Kuzey Kıbrıs Örneği

Atf:

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Özet

Problem Durumu: Öğretmenlik mesleki yeterlikleri, öğretmenlere ve öğretmen adaylarına kalite anlayışı ve birtakım yazılı standart getirmektedir. Öğretmen eğitiminin amaç ve hedeflerine uygun öğretmen adayı yetiştirme vizyonuna sahip eğitim fakültelerinin belirlenen amaç ve hedefler doğrultusunda belirli yeterliklere uygun öğretmen adayı yetiştirmeleri; Milli eğitim bakanlığı öğretmen alımını önerirken ve Kamu Hizmeti Komisyonunun öğretmen alımlarında belirli kriterlere sahip olması; eğitim-öğretim sisteminde öğretmen sıfatını kazanan bireylerin hizmeti-içi eğitimlerinin düzenlenmesi, süreç içinde değerlendirilmelerini sağlamak ve mesleki gelişimlerinin teşvikini sağlamak ve kalitenin artmasına olanak verebilmek için öğretmenlik mesleki yeterliklerinin belirlenmesi gereklidir.

Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti (KKTC) eğitim-öğretim sisteminde öğretmenlerin uymakla yükümlü olduğu 25/1985 sayılı Öğretmenler Yasasına göre, öğretmen adayı başvuru alanına uygun bir diploma ve/ya pedagojik sertifika sunduğu takdirde ve/ya 3 aylık hızlandırılmış öğretmenlik kursunu tamamladığı takdirde öğretmen olarak atanmasında hiçbir sakınca yoktur. Halbuki, KKTC eğitim-öğretim

sisteminde öğretmenleri değerlendirmek, öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişimini teşvik etmek, öğretmen alımı sırasında belirli kriterlere göre öğretmen alımını sağlamak ve en kaliteli şekilde yetişmelerine olanak sağlamak, hizmet öncesi öğretmen planlaması ve kalitenin yükselmesi için önemlidir. Ulusal bir çerçeve oluşturmak ve öğretmenlik mesleki yeterliklerini belirlemek amacıyla çalışmanın gelişim sürecinin, öğretmenlik mesleki yeterlikleri boyutlarının ve taslak öğretmenlik mesleki yeterliklerinin belirlenmesine gereksinim vardır.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu araştırmanın amacı, KKTC Öğretmenlik Mesleki Yeterliklerini oluşturmak için sırasıyla çalışma boyunca izlenmesi gereken sürecin belirlendiği gelişim sürecini, öğretmenlik mesleki yeterlikleri boyutlarını ve taslak öğretmenlik mesleki yeterliklerini belirleyip ulusal çerçeve olarak önermektir.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Bu çalışmada, nitel araştırma yaklaşımının temellendirdiği yorumsamacı paradigma kullanılmıştır. Araştırma stratejisi olarak, durum çalışmasına yer verilmiştir. Çalışma, 7 eğitim uzmanının ve 17 çalışma grubu üyelerinin çalışmaya katılımıyla gerçekleşmiştir. Yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmeler aracılığıyla veriler toplanmıştır. Veri analizi için içerik analizi yapılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Araştırma sonuçlarına göre, öğretmenlik mesleki yeterliklerinin ortaya konulması amacıyla 3 boyut belirlenmiştir. Bunlar: i) çalışmanın gelişim süreci kategorisi, ii) çalışmanın boyutları kategorisi, ve iii) taslak öğretmenlik mesleki yeterlikleri kategorisidir.

Çalışmanın gelişim süreci kategorisi, varolan durum, süreçler, çalışma grubu, çalışmanın formatı ve çalışma teknikleri temalarını içermektedir. Çalışmanın boyutları kategorisi, mesleki değerler ve uygulama, mesleki gelişim ve uygulama, eğitim-öğretim süreci ile mesleki ilişkiler ve uygulama temalarını içermektedir. Taslak öğretmenlik mesleki yeterlikleri kategorisi, mesleki değerler ve uygulama, mesleki gelişim ve uygulama, eğitim-öğretim süreci ile mesleki ilişkiler ve uygulama alt kategorilerini içermektedir.

Çalışmanın gelişim süreci kategorisinin temalarının alt konuları bulunmamaktadır. Çalışma boyutları alt kategorisinin alt boyutlarının temaları şöyledir: Mesleki değerler ve uygulama alt kategorisi, öğrenciye değer vermek, rol model olmak ve girişimcilik temalarını içerirken, mesleki gelişim ve uygulama alt kategorisi, öğrenme stratejileri, uzmanlık, araştırma becerileri, program bilgisi ve aktif liderlik temalarını içermektedir. Ayrıca, eğitim-öğretim süreci alt kategorisi, pedagojik içerik bilgisi, değerlendirme ve geridönüt döngüsünü öğrenme, öğrenmeyi planlama, öğrencilerin sorumluluğu ve özel gereksinimler adlı temaları içermektedir. Son olarak, mesleki ilişkiler ve uygulama alt kategorisi, iletişim ve işbirliği temalarını içermektedir.

Öğretmenlik mesleki yeterlikleri kategorisinde 52 taslak öğretmenlik mesleki yeterlik belirlenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Öneriler: Araştırma sonucunda izlenmesi gereken yöntem ve çalışmanın boyutları yanısıra taslak öğretmen yeterlikleri belirlenmiştir. Bu çalışmada belirlenen taslak öğretmenlik mesleki yeterliklerin bir ölçme aracına dönüştürülerek alanda uygulanması gerekmektedir. Uygulama sonucunda asıl

mesleki yeterliklerin ileri istatistiki analizler (Rach Model gibi) ile ortaya konulması oldukça önemlidir. Yine bu çalışmaya dayalı performans göstergelerinin belirlenmesi önerilmektedir. Ayrıca öğretmenlik mesleğinin her branşına yönelik özel standartların geliştirilmesi önerilmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Mesleki gelişim ve uygulama, mesleki ilişkiler ve uygulama, mesleki değerler ve uygulama, öğrenme ve öğretme süreci.

The Visual Memory-Based Memorization Techniques in Piano Education

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Johann Sebastian Bach is one of the leading composers of the baroque period. In addition to his huge contributions in the artistic dimension, he also served greatly in the field of education. This study has been done for determining the impact of visual memory-based memorization practices in the piano education on the visual student. Problem statement is what is the effect of memorization techniques and visual elements usage in reciting skill?

Methods: This research is an empirical study, which was done with the control group. 12 sophomore students from the Bolu University Division of Musical Education were chosen to form the groups. Their levels were determined, and the experiment and control groups were built up with 6 students in each. Following the preliminary test implemented on the experiment and control groups, the students in experiment group were informed about the memorization techniques for 6 weeks. Then the inventions were practiced by them. The students in the control group were not trained or informed about the memorization techniques. At the end of this period, the measurements applied in the preliminary test were re-implemented to the members of both of the groups. The data extracted out in the preliminary and final tests were statistically analyzed.

Findings and Results: As a result of applying the Mann Whitney U and Wilcoxon signed rank tests to the data obtained from the tests, it was found out that there were no differences between experiment and control groups in the level of preliminary tests. Moreover, it was pointed out that in the final test, a substantial difference of level emerged in favor of the experiment group. As a result of this case, it was concluded that the experiment group that had memorization practices acquired positive development in favor of playing the inventions from their own memory. The proposals around this result were introduced in the study.

Keywords: Piano education, learning styles, memorization, invention.

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Introduction

Johann Sebastian Bach was one of the greatest composers of the baroque era, and he made pieces in all musical genres. Bach, who made the greatest pieces in the artistic dimension, also made significant works in the educational area. Bach's works in education have been used constantly at conservatoires, fine arts faculties and education faculties. The most important of all these educational materials are minuets, little preludes- fugues, inventions and prelude- and fugues. These works, which include the basic techniques of piano education, have supreme counterpoint style. Besides their basic qualities, Bach's works are very important in gaining behaviors for piano education. These works play important roles in improving the concept of baroque style; teaching polyphonic perception, ornaments and theme structure; making students comprehend hand coordination and improving students' dominance in touch (Eskioglu 2003). Reasons such as hardness to perceive besides basic gains, the complexity of the harmonic structure, the differences of the relations between the themes and right-left hands' releasing themes in different tunes make these works difficult to memorize. The difficulty of memorizing these works causes difficulty in playing as a whole, anxiety at concerts, confusion in locating the themes and similar negative effects. In this work, diaphonic inventions have been chosen among the educational works of Bach, and visual memorization techniques for students have been explained.

Piano training is one of the sub-branches of musical instrument training. Piano training as a whole includes applicable and theoretical aspects. To achieve a valid level of teaching and learning, the applicable and theoretical areas must be shown to support each other simultaneously in lessons. The famous pedagogue Ernst(1991)divided the content of piano lessons into primary and secondary learning areas:

Primary learning areas:

- Playing decrypted
- Reciting
- Interpretation
- Playing together
- Improvisation
- Composition

Secondary learning areas:

- Playing technique
- Physical training
- Music theory
- Piece analysis
- Music history
- Audio training

In the primary learning area, applicable training is used, but in the secondary learning area, theoretical knowledge is used (Kahramansoy 2006, p.13). Piano training is a form of musical instrument training that is accepted worldwide. Piano training in our country is provided by fine arts colleges, fine arts faculties' music departments, private and public conservatoires, faculties' fine arts music education departments, special courses and private music classes. Notes reading skills are one

of the first skills that an individual acquires in the early years of education. (Ulu, Akyol, 2016, p.226).

There are reasons that piano training is compulsorily provided in the above-mentioned institutions. These reasons include the following: The people playing the piano find opportunities to improve their understanding of polyphony, decryption, musical hearing and harmony, and they are informed about musical forms. In addition to being a self-contained solo instrument, the piano's role in accompanying the sounds of other instruments or the human voice increases its importance in music education (Kutluk 1996, p.4).

In piano training, not every student should be appealed to by the same method, because each student has a different way of learning. Piano training concludes the role of gestures within teacher-student communicative interaction in one-to-one piano lessons (Simones, Schroeder and Rodger 2015, p.1). According to Alpan et al. (2014: 54), "Practice teaching is an important element in teacher education programs and it plays an active role in student teacher's obtaining and improving their teaching skills." For this reason, three types of students could be identified in piano training: visual students, audio students and kinesthetic students.

In the visual student type, the student only cares about what he sees, and he perceives notes as figures. This kind of student is a good note reader. However, he may not be able to repeat a melody when asked. He cannot memorize while listening. He repeats all the details of the notes without mistakes. However, the memorization stage creates problems for this kind of student. This problem could be handled by supporting visual elements (Gokbudak 2003).

In piano training, for the simple memorization of pieces by students, pieces should be determined on the basis of the type of student, and the facilitating techniques should be formed according to their learning attitudes. Piano training's most important aspect is to select student pieces in an accurate manner that is compatible with the targets. Kasap's research (2004, p.6), conducted with 38 professors in seven education faculties, aimed to determine the most used resources in institutions. Resources which have been come up with research are stated with frequencies and percentages of usage. J. S. Bach's pieces are also among these resources. Out of 38 professors, 37 claimed they use Bach's *Der Erste Bach* album, and seven of them claimed they use his inventions in piano training. As a result, it emerged that these pieces play a significant role in piano training. This research about Bach's educational pieces has been restrained only with his diaphonic inventions. So finally, it would be suitable to mention about invention and these pieces' importance in piano training.

The word "invention" began to circulate in 1689 with G. B. Vitali naming one of his pieces, and it gained continuity after Bonporti's violin parties were named as inventions in 1712. The name invention was chosen because it brought innovations to techniques for pieces written for clavier instruments (Eskioglu 2003). J. S. Bach also composed these pieces for the education of his son Friedemann and gathered the inventions and symphonies that he composed into one volume, which includes the

headline a sincere guide for those who like clavichord and especially for those who like to concentrate on learning this instrument; an open and written method for playing two voice cleanly and after furthering a little three voice plainly, flawless and proper; this guide, will not only give nice inventions but also will teach a style for playing good these pieces, especially will provide a harmonious play and finally will give a prior pleasure about art of composing" (Cicekoglu 1958). These pieces that were composed with a contrapuntal style were afterwards called inventions by Forkel. Today, these pieces are used for educational purposes and are called diaphonic and triphonic inventions. As a result, these pieces' authentic names are not inventions (Eskioglu 2003).

Bach composed all of his pieces in forms used by the composers before him; however, he did not stick to this rule for his dual and triphonic inventions. In 1723, he summed these pieces under the title of "Aufrichtige anleitung" (right channeling) for solely educational purposes without any effort to gain sympathy from the public, and these pieces are still serving this need (Buke 2005). The word invention has been written in these pieces because they provide some hints for playing techniques in a short piece. The great genius who composed 15 diaphonic and 15 triphonic inventions used the same tone arrangements for both groups: Do Major, Do minor, Re Major, Re minor, Mi bemol Major, Mi bemol minor, Fa Major, Fa minor, Sol Major, Sol minor, La Major, La minor, Si bemol major and Si bemol minor.

The inventions that usually take place in piano training are not for concert music but are known as etudes for clavier. These pieces are composed for education area in the music world, and the gathered educational qualities in themselves. These pieces' taking place in auditions depends on the preferences of the instructors working at the education faculties or this kind of institution. However, after the researchers conducted in this field general jurisdiction as follows: "Inventions are not concert music, they are much likely educational pieces, technical and institutional difficulties generally arising in the process of teaching/learning of inventions and these pieces difficulty of memorization for concerts" (Eskioglu 2003, p.2).

As we look into inventions, although they are written with replicate letters, each of them has a different structure. In every piece of fiction established by themes, the intermedius and tonal relations are different. The word invention is not limited to inventions in playing techniques as if it were hidden in each piece's structural features. At a certain level, after playing Bach's little preludes, students start with the do major diaphonic invention, because among these pieces, they are both capable of illustrating the main ideas and are enriched with melodic understanding (Buke and Altinel 2006).

The pieces composed for educational purposes have always retained their importance in music education. There could be some difficulties in learning and teaching these pieces. First among these difficulties is following the contrapuntal writing style that is characteristic of the baroque era. For this reason, it is important to study J. S. Bach's life well, to comprehend how he composed these pieces and to apply the contrapuntal writing style well. J. S. Bach systematically put his works

written for the purposes of education in line such as *Das Wohltemperierte, Little Organ Book and Art of Fugue* (Oransay 1986).

As a result of the examination of these Bach's pieces chronologically it is possible to observe that these pieces show a progress within a disciplined and systematic compositional approach. Bach also stated that these pieces are written for education, and when he was writing the first he considered was systematic way of studying. Thus, Bach's pieces, treated with imitation, contrapuntal, two-handed coordination and systematic thinking, have an important place in today's piano training (Eskioglu 2003).

Besides, it is really hard to memorize an invention. However, teaching techniques should be improved to overcome this difficulty. Initially, students' learning domains should be determined very well. In this study, inventions contain memorization techniques that are directed to the visual student type. There are several ways to show about inventions' learning and memorization according to visual learning type. However, a piano teacher could evaluate these ways and methods according to his or her experiences in guiding students. The most central feature of memorization is the structural analysis of the piece. Structural analysis includes formal structure analysis, harmonic structure analysis, melodic structure analysis, hand-position analysis and dynamic structure analysis (Gordon 1995).

According to Matthey (1979), to memorize anything, connotation bonds should be established via analytic transactions. Each part of the passage that is played should stimulate the next melodic, harmonic and emotional structure, and even the next note should be in mind. To provide this, a piece's rhythmic, harmonic, melodic, formal and emotional progression should be analyzed (Eroglu 2010).

It is very important for visual students to examine inventions with formal and harmonical perspectives. A memorization activity could be facilitated by formally expressing the place of themes, interval themes and reverse themes with colored pens. Harmonically, to see themes progress with functions and writing degrees under these functions plays a significant role in students' memories. Besides, it is important to examine the piece completely. While examining a piece completely, the quality we should be careful are themes, because the most difficult thing in memorizing inventions is to locate the themes and their conditions. As there are a lot of themes in the piece, they should be emphasized in line with visually. For this reason, we could color, name or put shapes into themes. Grouping these themes is important for memorization. In this study, while works have been conducted with the experimental group, the below instruments were used. These elements were shaped by the influence of research conducted by Aydin Buke and İpek Mine Altinel (Buke and Altinel 2006).



Fig. 1. Bach BWV 772, Diaphonic invention's General Scheme

Figure 1. Bach BWV 772, Diaphonic invention's general scheme

According to Figure 1, the Do major invention has been completely examined above; the frequent themes, counter themes and other elements are removed from the piece and are grouped with different colors and visual shapes. These kinds of elements have been placed on the note cards to be given to students, and the tonalities have been written under the elements; thus, the memorization of the piece has been facilitated.



Fig. 2. BWV 772, Do major Diaphonic invention's 18 bar General Scheme

Figure 2. BWV 772, Do major diaphonic invention's 18-bar general scheme

According to Figure 2, the scheme's main themes are red, the counter themes are green, the frequent theme comprising four quavers is yellow and the long voices are shown in purple. With these shapes, not only the themes are seen but also the harmonic and formal elements.

Method

Research Design

Since the aim of the research is to understand visual students' memory-based memorization techniques in inventions, a case study is used as the main research approach. This study can be qualified as an experimental research study, and a pre-test/post-test research model with a control group is used in the execution process.

Research Sample

Students participating in this research as part of experimental and control groups have been selected with a learning-styles measure prepared by the Ministry of National Education; thus, a new dimension is prepared for this study. The learning-styles questionnaire was applied to 30 classmates, and as a result 13 students who had a strong visual memory were selected. However, to equate the experimental and control groups, 12 students were included and one student was not included in the research process. For analyzing the questionnaire results, the central distribution measures, frequency and percent measures were used. The results of the applied questionnaire showed that the weighted visual weighted learning style was 43.3percent of students (13), the weighted audio learning style was 30 percent of students(9) and the weighted kinesthetical learning style was 26.7percent of students (8).

Research Instrument and Procedure

The behaviors that need to be gained for reciting in the experimental process have been determined with the help of literature or by the views of experts to establish a surveillance form. The pieces played by experimental and control groups in the research were selected according to the "invention playing order" from Eskioglu's (2003) master's thesis about inventions. Students were made to play the do major and re minor inventions in line with this result. While selecting the experimental and control groups on the basis of learning styles, the levels of piano playing were taken into consideration, attention is shown to have different levels student in both groups. The test group received explanations about the methods of memorizing the works for six weeks.

According to the specific form determined in the pre-testing phase, inventions were applied to all of the students in the experimental and control groups without teaching any methods, and the resulting data were recorded. In the experimental process before and during the process of playing inventions, the memorization

techniques were described, information about the visual elements was given and inventions were played on a regular basis for six weeks. In the post-testing phase, the experimental group that learned the methods of memorization and the control group that did not learn them were given the same pieces to play, and the data were recorded. The data obtained as a result of the pre-test and post-test applications were evaluated and compared. The pre-and post-test records, using the existing observation form, were observed by a researcher and two specialists.

The survey data were obtained by using the SPSS13.0statisticalpackage program. The difference between the experimental group that was aware of both the memorization and visual elements and the control group that was not aware of them were examined by applying a Mann-Whitney U test. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test, which is the non-parametric equivalent of a "t" test (Yazicioglu2011, p.227). Besides, a Wilcoxon sign test was used to differentiate the control and experimental groups in the pre-test and final test. A Wilcoxon test is the non-parametric equivalent of a "t" test (Yazicioglu2011, p.231).

The Problem of the Case Study

In the case study, data were collected by using the following problem: "What are the effects of memorization techniques and visual elements usage in reciting skill?"

In the case study, data were collected first by using the following sub-problem: "What is the effect of memorization techniques in 'gaining reciting behavior, 'rhythm patterns reciting behavior' and 'tonality reciting behavior' for visual students playing invention themes?" In addition, the second sub-problem asked "What is the effect of memorization techniques in 'gaining perception in a right manner of the invention themes, 'remembering the location of invention themes' and 'seeing the piece holistically behavior of the recited invention themes 'that visual students play by reciting behavior?"

Validity and Reliability

To ensure reliability, the data obtained as a result of observation were revised again by two experts; and re-scoring was conducted according to the scale. A Spearman's rank correlation analysis was applied to measure this reliability. According to Yazicioglu (2011, p.261), a "Spearman's correlation is applied at the level of ranking." The pre-test and post-test scores are indicated below.

Table 1.*Correlation between Pre-Test and Final Test Scores Given By the Researchers*

<i>Pre-Test</i>	<i>ResearcherI</i>	<i>ResearcherII</i>	<i>Expert</i>
Researcher I	1	.898*	.788*
Researcher II	.898*	1	.775*
Expert	.788*	.775*	1
<i>Final-Test</i>	<i>ResearcherI</i>	<i>ResearcherII</i>	<i>Expert</i>
Researcher I	1	.750*	.889*
Researcher II	.750*	1	.889*
Expert	.889*	.889*	1

*Correlation meaningful at 0.01 levels

As seen in Table 1, a significant correlation in the positive direction exists between the pre-test scores given by the researcher and two experts participating in the evaluation. In addition, Table 1 shows that a significant correlation in the positive direction exists between the final tests scores given by the researcher and two experts participating in the evaluation. According to these results, the performance assessment made by the researcher and two experts can be said to have a high level of reliability.

Data Analysis

Concerning the research, the written reports of multiple case studies were used. The visual students' knowledge-construction processes were investigated with recognizing, building with, and constructing in Bach invention. The patterns which were noticed from the case study are determined and interpreted.

Results

This section includes the research findings on the sub-problems and comments based on these findings. Each sub-problem of the study is given in a separate title. The pre-test and post-test analysis of each sub-problem is shown in the same table and, finally, a separate table for ranking the test findings is given.

Findings and Comments about Status of Winning Methods of Memorization of Themes' Behaviors

Table 2.

Results of the Mann-Whitney U Test of Pre-Test And Post-Test Scores for the Experimental And Control Groups On Gaining "Reciting Notes Themes," "Reciting the Rhythm Patterns Truly" and "Reciting Themes Tonalities Truly" Behaviors

Test	Group	n	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	U	p
Pre test	Experiment	6	6.50	39	18	1
	Control	6	6.50	39		
Post test	Experiment	6	9.42	56.50	.500	.004
	Control	6	3.58	21.50		
Pre test	Experiment	6	6.17	37.00	16	.733
	Control	6	6.83	41.00		
Post test	Experiment	6	9.50	57.00	.000	.003
	Control	6	3.50	21.00		
Pre- test	Experiment	6	6.08	36..50	15.5	.652
	Control	6	6.92	41.50		
Post test	Experiment	6	9.50	57.00	.000	.002
	Control	6	3.50	21.00		

As seen in Table 2, the results of the analysis of the experimental and control groups were different for the pre-test ($U=18$; $p=1$). According to this situation, the experimental and control group students were not aware of the behavior of reciting the notes truly. The result of the analysis between the experimental and control groups for the post-test showed a significant difference in favor of the experimental group ($U =.500$; $p =.004$). This situation could be interpreted as the students in the experimental group improving their reciting after learning memorization techniques; on the contrary, the control group students who did not learn memorization techniques did not gain this behavior.

The results of the analysis of the experimental and control groups were not significantly different for the pre-test ($U=16$; $p=.733$). According to this situation, the experimental and control group students were not aware of the behavior of reciting the rhythms patterns truly. The results of the analysis between the experimental and control groups for the post-test showed a significant difference in favor of the

experimental group ($U=.000$; $p=.003$). This situation could be interpreted as the students in the experimental group improving their reciting of rhythm patterns after learning memorization techniques; on the contrary, the control group students who did not learn memorization techniques did not gain this behavior.

The results of the analysis of the experimental and control groups were not significantly different for the pre-test ($U=15.5$; $p=.652$). According to this situation, the experimental and control group students were not aware of the behavior of reciting themes' tonalities truly. The results of the analysis between the experimental and control groups for the post-test showed a significant difference in favor of the experimental group ($U=.000$; $p=.002$). This situation could be interpreted as students in the experimental group improving their reciting of rhythm patterns after learning memorization techniques; on the contrary, the control group students who did not learn memorization techniques did not gain this behavior.

Table 3.

Results of the Mann-Whitney U Test of Pre-Test And Post-Test Scores for the Experimental and Control Groups On Gaining "Comprehending the Structure of The Themes Accurately," "Remembering the Location of Invention Themes In the Piece" and "Understanding the Themes Holistically" Behaviors

Test	Group	n	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	U	p
Pre test	Experiment	6	6.17	37.00	16	.733
	Control	6	6.83	41.00		
Post test	Experiment	6	9.42	56.50	.500	.004
	Control	6	3.58	21.50		
Pre test	Experiment	6	6.50	39	18	1
	Control	6	6.50	39		
Post test	Experiment	6	9.50	57.00	.000	.003
	Control	6	3.50	21.00		
Pre- test	Experiment	6	6.17	37.00	16	.733
	Control	6	6.83	41.00		
Post test	Experiment	6	9.50	57.00	.000	.003
	Control	6	3.50	21.00		

As seen in Table 3, the results of the analysis of the experimental and control groups were not significantly different for the pre-test ($U=16$; $p=.733$). According to this situation, the experimental and control group students were not aware of the behavior of comprehending the structure of the themes accurately. The results of the

analysis between the experimental and control groups for the post-test showed a significant difference in favor of the experimental group ($U=.500$; $p=.004$). This situation could be interpreted as students in the experimental group improving their accurate comprehension of the structure of the themes after learning memorization techniques; on the contrary, the control group students who did not learn memorization techniques did not gain this behavior.

The results of the analysis of the experimental and control groups were not significantly different for the pre-test ($U=18$; $p=1$). According to this situation, the experimental and control group students were not aware of the behavior of remembering the location of invention themes in the piece. The results of the analysis between the experimental and control groups for the post-test showed a significant difference in favor of the experimental group ($U=.000$; $p=.003$). This situation could be interpreted as students in the experimental group having improved about remembering the location of invention themes in the piece after learning memorization techniques; on the contrary, control group students who did not learn memorization techniques did not gain this behavior.

The results of the analysis of the experimental and control groups were not significantly different for the pre-test ($U=16$; $p=.733$). According to this situation, the experimental and control group students were not aware of the behavior of understanding the themes holistically. The results of the analysis between the experimental and control groups for the post-test showed a significant difference in favor of the experimental group ($U=.000$; $p=.003$). This situation could be interpreted as students in the experimental group improving their holistic understanding of the themes after learning memorization techniques; on the contrary, control group students who did not learn memorization techniques did not gain this behavior.

Findings and Interpretations on the Effect of Memorization Methods for Gaining Theme-Memorization Skills

Table 4.

Wilcoxon Test Results on the Effect of the Control and Experimental Group's Work on the Invention Pieces for Gaining Memorization Skill

Group	Pre-post test	n	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	z	p
Control Group	Negative rank	2	2.00	4.00	.942	.366
	Positive rank	3	3.67	11.00		
	Equal	1				
Experimental Group	Negative rank	0	.00	.00	2.251	.024
	Positive rank	6	3.50	21.00		
	Equal	0				

As seen in Table 4, the result of the observations made in the control group indicate that there is no difference between the pre-test and post-test ($z= .962$;

$p=.336$). Researchers who looked at the results of statistics found that the control group students who did not study the memorization techniques while working with inventions did not gain memorization skills at the end of the research.

According to the observations made in the experimental group, there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test ($z= 2.251$; $p=.024$). Researchers who looked at the results of statistics found that the experimental group students who studied the memorization techniques while working with inventions gained memorization skills at the end of the research.

Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this study on visual memory-based learning techniques is to determine the effectiveness of the baroque heart play artifacts used in piano education. Students with high learning the power of the visual memory, visual materials to be supported by lectures had no trouble in memorizing the works and the works have been observed as a result be able to play in integrity. Duru (2013), playing the violin and training in memorization-method-based curriculum, has made an experiment based on the performance effectiveness of students. As a result of these experiments, memorization students revealed that increased levels of success play progresses. Students who have a visual memory said that a factor in accelerating their learning methods was keeping in mind various colors and shapes. Luck and Vogel (1997) say that the most effective learning styles for visual memory are realized with a variety of colors and shapes. In line with these views, using certain colors and shapes on the piano sheet music teachers in training, memorization is important in terms of ease of learning and will give students direction. Although a lot of positive opinions for memorization techniques memorization techniques used in training for is available in a negative opinion. Ayvaci and Devencioglu (2002), memorizing and learning due to a mistaken concept of learning through imitation say the future be carried out quickly forgotten cause. These views can be true of course. But students on strong visual memory, use the memorization method, it is also an undeniable fact that students permanently information on.

Memorization techniques based on visual learning significantly enhance students' behaviors including the playing invention themes by heart, reciting the rhythm patterns truly, reciting themes' tonalities truly, comprehending the structure of the themes accurately remembering the location the structure of the invention themes in the piece accurately and understanding the themes holistically.

Inventions are important pieces for piano training. Students often struggle to play these pieces that provide instruction for playing counterpoint style perfectly. Although these works are difficult, they provide people with skills such as technique, musicality and interpretive power, and it adds features such as. For this reason, piano educators think that having inventions in the repertoire will improve a

student's skill level significantly. The learning styles in the field of education have an important place. Each person could have his own learning sphere. Determining the learning sphere of piano students will increase success by changing the shape of the course operation. Visual students should use visual memorization for improving accurate playing behavior in the inventions they recite. The items used in this study are solely researched for visual students. However, educational staff should shape these elements with reference to their own background or other resources. New research studies should be conducted for students having a different learning sphere than visual students.

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Piyano Eğitiminde Görsel Hafızaya Dayalı Ezberleme Teknikleri

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Özet

Problem Durumu: Johann Sebastian Bach, neredeyse her türde eserler veren barok dönemin en büyük bestecilerinden biridir. Sanatsal boyutta çok büyük eserlere imza

atan Bach, eğitim alanında da önemli yapıtlar vermiş, bu alanda büyük hizmetlerde bulunmuştur. Gerek konservatuarlarda, gerek güzel sanatlar fakültelerinde, gerekse eğitim fakültelerinin müzik bölümlerinde Bach'ın eğitim amaçlı bestelediği eserler sıklıkla kullanılmaktadır. Eğitim amaçlı yazılan eserlerinin arasında envansiyonlar, barok stil kavramının geliştirilmesinde, polifoni anlayışının öğretilmesinde, süslemelerin öğretilmesinde, tema yapısının öğretiminde, iki el koordinasyonunun kavratılmasında ve tuşe hâkimiyetinin geliştirilmesinde önemli rol oynadığı için önemli olduğu düşünülmektedir. Yapılan bu çalışmada Bach'ın eğitimsel yapıtları arasından iki sesli envansiyonlar seçilmiş, eserlerin görsel öğrenciye yönelik ezberleme tekniklerinden bahsedilmiştir. Böylelikle bu çalışma, piyano eğitiminde önemli yere sahip olan envansiyonların öğrenciler tarafından daha kolay kavranabilmesi, algılanabilmesi, zihinde tutabilmesi ve ezberlenebilmesi açısından önemli olduğu düşünülmektedir. Bu çalışmada, envansiyonları çalışırken görsel hafızaya yönelik ezberleme tekniklerinin kullanılması bu eserlerin kolay öğrenilmesi açısından önemli olduğu vurgulanmıştır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda "piyano eğitiminde ezberleme tekniklerinin ve görsel öğeler kullanılmasının ezber çalma becerisi üzerindeki etkisi nedir?" problem durumundan yola çıkılarak alt problemler geliştirilmiş ve sonuçlara ulaşılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu araştırmanın amacı, Bach'ın eğitim amaçlı bestelediği envansiyonların piyano eğitiminde görsel hafızaya dayalı ezberleme çalışmalarının görsel öğrenci üzerindeki etkisini tespit etmektir. Görsel hafızası yüksek ve düşük olan öğrencilerin ezberleme teknikleri hakkında bilgi oluşturma süreçleri birbirleriyle karşılaştırılmakta ve öğrencilerin görsel hafızasını güçlü yapan yönler tartışılmaktadır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Bu çalışma deneysel araştırma niteliğindedir ve araştırmanın yürütülmesinde kontrol gruplu ön test-son test araştırma modeli kullanılmıştır. Çalışmaya katılan deney ve kontrol grubu öğrencileri, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından hazırlanan "öğrenme stilleri" ölçeği kullanılarak seçilmiş ve böylece çalışmaya yeni bir boyut kazandırılmıştır. Aynı sınıfta okuyan 30 öğrenciye "öğrenme stilleri" anketi uygulanmış ve sonucunda görsel hafızası güçlü olan 13 öğrenci seçilmiştir. Ancak deney ve kontrol gruplarının eşitlenmesi bakımından 12 öğrenci araştırmaya alınmış, 1 öğrenci ise bu araştırma dışında bırakılmıştır. Yapılan anket sonuçlarının çözümlenmesinde merkezi dağılım ölçülerinden frekans ve yüzdelik ölçmelerden yararlanılmıştır. Deneysel süreçte ezber ile ilgili kazandırılması gereken davranışlar gerek literatür yardımıyla gerekse uzman kişilerin görüşleriyle belirlenerek gözlem formu oluşturulmuştur. Araştırmada deney ve kontrol grubunun kullandıkları eserler, Eskioğlu'nun envansiyonlar üzerine yapmış olduğu yüksek lisans tezinde "envansiyonların kaldırılma sırası" bulgularına göre seçilmiştir. Bu sonuç doğrultusunda öğrencilere do majör ve re minör envansiyonlar kaldırılmıştır. Öğrenme stillerine göre seçilen deney ve kontrol grupları oluşturulurken piyano çalma seviyeleri göz önünde bulundurulmuş, her iki grupta da farklı seviyelerde öğrencilerin bulunmasına özen gösterilmiştir. Deney grubuna 6 hafta boyunca eserlerin ezberleme yöntemleri anlatılarak çalıştırılmıştır. Ön test ve son test uygulamaları sonucu elde edilen veriler karşılaştırmalı olarak

değerlendirilmiştir. Ön test ve son test kayıtları, var olan gözlem formu kullanılarak araştırmacı ve iki uzman kişi tarafından gözlemlenmiştir.

Araştırmadaki veriler SPSS 13.0 istatistiksel paket programı kullanılarak elde edilmiştir. Ezberleme ve görsel öğelerden haberdar olan deney grubu ve bunlardan haberdar olmayan kontrol grubu arasındaki fark Mann-Whitney U testi uygulanarak incelenmiştir. Bunun yanında deney grubunun ön test-son test ve kontrol grubunun ön test-son test arasındaki farkı görmek için Wilcoxon işaret testinden yararlanılmıştır. Gözlem sonucu elde edilen veriler, güvenilirlik sağlayabilmek açısından araştırmacı ve iki uzman tarafından tekrar gözden geçirilmiş ve var olan ölçek üzerinden tekrar puanlama yapılmıştır. Bu güvenilirliği ölçmek için ise Spearman Sıra Korelasyonu Analizi uygulanmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Araştırmacı ve iki uzmanın geçerlilik ve güvenilirliği ölçmek için yapılan Spearman Sıra Korelasyonu bulgularında ön test ve son test puanları arasında pozitif yönde anlamlı bir korelasyon olduğunu göstermektedir.

Yapılan Mann Whitney U testi analiz sonuçlarında deney-kontrol grupları arasında ön test için anlamlı bir farkın olmadığı ($U=18$; $p=1$) görülmektedir. Bu duruma göre deney ve kontrol grubundaki öğrencilerinin notaları, ezbere doğru çalabilme davranışından haberdar olmadığı görülmektedir. Yapılan Mann Whitney U testi analiz sonuçlarında deney-kontrol grupları arasında son test için deney grubunun lehine anlamlı bir fark olduğu ($U=.500$; $p=.004$) görülmektedir. Bu durum, deney grubundaki öğrencilerin ezberleme tekniklerini öğrendikten sonra notaları ezbere çalabilme davranışı kazanımında olumlu yönde gelişme gösterdiği, ezberleme teknikleri öğretilmeyen kontrol grubunun ise bu davranışı kazanmadığı şeklinde yorumlanabilir.

Yapılan Wilcoxon testi bulgularında kontrol grubu için yapılan gözlem sonucunda ön test ve son test arasında fark yoktur. ($z= .962$, $p=.336$) İstatistiksel sonuçlara bakıldığında envansiyon eserlerini çalışırken ezberleme ile ilgili çalışmaları yapmayı sadece nota çalmaya devam eden kontrol grubunun çalışma sonunda ezberleme becerisinin kazanılmadığı görülmüştür. Deney grubunun yapılan gözlem sonucunda ise ön test ve son test arasındaki gelişim düzeyi anlamlıdır. ($z= 2,251$, $p=.024$) İstatistiksel sonuçlara bakıldığında envansiyon eserlerini çalışırken ezberleme ile ilgili çalışmaları düzenli olarak yapan ve ezberleme tekniklerine göre eseri izleyen deney grubunun çalışma sonunda ezberleme becerisinde başarı sağladıkları görülmüştür.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Görsel öğrenmeye dayanan ezberleme teknikleri, öğrencilerin, envansiyon temalarındaki notaları ezbere çalabilme davranışını önemli ölçüde geliştirmektedir. Görsel öğrenmeye dayanan ezberleme teknikleri, öğrencilerin, envansiyon temalarının ritim kalıplarını ezbere doğru uygulayabilme davranışını önemli ölçüde geliştirmektedir. Görsel öğrenmeye dayanan ezberleme teknikleri, öğrencilerin, envansiyon temalarının tonalitelerini ezbere doğru çalabilme davranışını olumlu yönde geliştirmektedir. Görsel öğrenmeye dayanan ezberleme teknikleri, öğrencilerin, envansiyon temalarının yapısını doğru kavrayabilme davranışını büyük ölçüde geliştirmektedir. Görsel öğrenmeye dayanan ezberleme

teknikleri, öğrencilerin, envansiyon temalarının eser içerisindeki yerlerini hatırlayabilme davranışını önemli ölçüde geliştirmektedir. Görsel öğrenmeye dayanan ezberleme teknikleri, öğrencilerin, envansiyon temalarını bütün olarak görebilme davranışını büyük ölçüde geliştirmektedir.

Envansiyonlar piyano eğitiminde önemli eserlerdir. Kontrpuan stilini mükemmel bir biçimde sağlayan bu eserleri çalarken öğrenciler zorlanmaktadır. Ancak bu eserler zor olmasına rağmen kişiye teknik, müzikalite, yorum gücü ve bunun gibi özellikleri kazandırmaktadır. Bu yüzden piyano eğitimcileri envansiyonları repertuarlarına alıp öğrenciye çaldırmaları öğrencinin seviyesinde önemli ölçüde artış olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Öğrenme stilleri konusu eğitim alanında önemli bir yere sahiptir. Her kişinin farklı bir öğrenme alanı olabilir. Piyano çalan öğrencilerin öğrenme stilleri belirlenerek o öğrenme şekline göre dersin işleyiş şeklini değiştirerek başarının artacağı düşünülmektedir. Görsel öğrenciler, ezberlediği envansiyonların içerisindeki bütün öğeleri doğru çalabilme davranışlarını geliştirmeleri açısından, görsel ezberleme yaklaşımını kullanmalıdırlar. Bu araştırmada kullanılan öğeler sadece görsel öğrenciler için çalışılmıştır. Ancak öğretim elemanları bu öğeleri kendi eğitim deneyimlerine veya başka kaynaklara başvurarak şekillendirmelidirler. Görsel öğrenme stiline uygun olan öğrenciler haricinde başka öğrenme alanına sahip öğrenciler için de buna benzer yeni çalışmalar yapılmalıdır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Piyano eğitimi, öğrenme stilleri, ezber çalma, envansiyon.

Primary School Teachers' Views About Global Education in Social Studies Courses¹

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Abstract

Problem Statement: In recent years in Turkey, studies have been conducted that focus on the effects that globalisation has on education, but there have not been any papers based on the historical and conceptual framework of global education. Examining the literature, it can be argued that social studies courses have played a role in preparing individuals for the social and cultural lives in which they live. For this reason, it seems to be necessary to reveal the relationship between social studies courses and global education, as well as the extent to which the courses serve the aims of global education from the perspectives of primary school teachers. This study aims to reveal primary teachers' views on training individuals who can adapt to today's world based on the basic framework of global education in the context of social studies courses, and will also present solutions for preparing students for an increasingly global world.

Purpose of the Study: This study aims to investigate primary school teachers' views about global education in social studies courses.

Method: Semi-structured interviews and documentary analyses were implemented in this phenomenological paper. Interviews were conducted with 12 primary school teachers at six different primary schools in Eskisehir. Documentary analyses were based on the students' assignments from the interviewed teachers' classes. In this process, 105 assignments

¹ This paper is based on a Master's thesis titled "Primary School Teachers' Views on Global Education Within the Context of Social Studies Course" completed at Anadolu University Graduate School of Educational Sciences under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Sefik Yasar in 2013. Also it is partially presented in the 1st EJER congress in Istanbul.

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were analysed. Content analysis was used to analyse both interviews and assignments.

Findings: According to the analysis process, four main themes emerged: (1) definitions about globalisation, culture and global education; (2) global education in social studies courses; (3) suggestions about infusing global education in social studies courses; and (4) students' assignments in social studies courses.

Conclusion and Recommendations: According to the findings, it is found that there are misconceptions about global education and globalisation in teachers' identifications. In the paper, it was found that the teachers' definitions of globalisation and culture were mostly positive. Respect to differences toward multiple perspectives was mentioned in the social studies courses; however, this was not reflected in the students' work. It was found that activities that can be regarded in the context of global issues and global connections were insufficient and superficial.

Keywords: Three-interview Model, Phenomenology, global issues, global interconnectedness, cultural awareness

Introduction

Today, we experience an era in which the dynamics of the world are constantly changing in many areas, and problems ranging from the economy and sports to politics and natural disasters are due to technological and scientific developments. The magic word of this era is "globalisation". Globalisation was the word used when it was felt that the whole world was connected (Chanda 2009). In literature, there seem to be definitions of or approaches to globalisation that are both similar to and different from each other.

In examining statements on when globalisation started, it can be argued that there are two groups of authors: those stating that it is a process that began at the existence of humanity and the world and emphasized interaction among people (Kacmazoglu, 2002; Chanda 2009), and those asserting that it is a phenomenon that arose and affected societies in the last 50 years (Ozkan, 2006; Abali, 2005). The common point of these two approaches is the view that interaction among people and societies has increased incredibly in recent years.

Negative views on globalisation highlight points such as "inequality and imbalance among people and not being able to maintain environmental, economical and social sustainability" (Gibson et al. 2008). Besides, there is also an understanding that globalisation is perceived as an effort by international companies to make the world a market. In this regard, financial organizations have aimed to weaken the nation-state concept and highlight localization, subcultures, traditions, individuals and differences in beliefs to make the world a common market. Therefore, it is aimed at forming societies that lose their nation-state mentality and are weak and open to

assimilation. By hiding their ulterior motives, such as exploitation and increasing income per capita between the rich and the poor, these financial corporations make an effort for world peace, development, human rights, improving the welfare level and solving the problems that people face (Sonmez, 2002).

In addition to the negative consequences of globalisation and the mutual dependence and connectivity among countries, cultural differences and global interaction have become concepts or have made themselves more evident with globalisation (Gibson et al. 2008). Moreover, the basic characteristics of globalisation include the global communication network; technological, economical, social, political and cultural transfers in global terms; and an increase in international connections, cooperation and mutual dependence (Gul, 2008).

Another view argues that globalisation is a natural result of changes experienced in science and technology. This view states that networks of communication, transportation, production, consumption and culture have been a natural and impartial result of scientific and technological developments (Bulut, 2003). According to another view, globalisation is a process that cannot be suppressed; it would be pointless to resist the dynamics supporting globalisation (Balay, 2004).

As a result of globalisation, as stated above, the world has simply become a "Global Village". In this sense, the primary aim of global education is to ensure that members of this Global Village—who are to be trained as its future individuals—are equipped with necessary and sufficient knowledge, skills and attitudes (Kirkwood 2001). According to global education, students need to be equipped with the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be able to cope with the necessities of a developing and changing world in addition to bearing the responsibility and having the conscience of a citizen of their state and the world. With this responsibility and conscience, all individuals are expected to adapt to the world. The primary aim of social studies is to equip young people with the knowledge and decision-making mechanisms necessary for taking part in public life, as they will need to be individuals of a democratic society that has cultural diversity in a world where everyone is dependent on one another (National Council for the Social Studies 1994). Similarly, based on definitions proposed by researchers in the field, an understanding of social studies education has basic common points with global education, such as cultural diversity, global dependency, and training competent, decision-making individuals for a democratic society (Zarrillo, 2004; Kirkwood, 2001; Martorella, 2001; Merryfield, 1997; Hanvey 1982).

To take on the task of meeting the needs of society, educational institutions may choose to change and reorganize the training of individuals so they will understand the current era. In this sense, it has been one of the primary goals of educational institutions to train individuals who can adapt to changes, are aware that they are individuals of their country and the world, can view events from different perspectives, and are tolerant and respectful to all individuals and cultural differences. Standish (2014) stresses that "*nation states education was tied to subject knowledge and national culture, both of which are less valued*" in this age. On the other

hand, the educators of this age now face linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms and those educators should must take steps to maximize skills of diverse students' (Mori et al 2016). Also as Kirkwood (2001) states, the global era has made global education a necessity. Global education also aims to train individuals who can adapt to rapid changes in social, cultural, economical and political areas within the second half of the 20th century.

Researchers or experts interested in global education provide conceptual and theoretical definitions that will help train individuals who can adapt to the changing and developing world. In literature, there are different but closely related approaches and definitions regarding the conceptual structure of global education, which is also referred to as global perspective, global awareness or world-centered education. Global education practices first started in the United States and England. Although it went by a different name until the 1970s, primary papers came out in a report prepared by Becker and Anderson in the United States and in the World Studies Project implemented between 1973–1980 by Richardson in England (Pike, 2015; Kasai 2007; Hicks 2008).

The definitions of global education that were proposed in the historical process show that its conceptual and theoretical framework has changed (Marshall, 2015; Pike, 2015). Three different views were presented on whether these differences are right or wrong (Acikalin, 2010): While some field experts think that a single definition of global education might prevent the development of global education, a second view suggests that not having strict rules in the field provides flexibility to educators and researchers who may contribute to the development of the field. A third view advocates an understanding of global education that can be adapted based on local educational, sociopolitical and cultural aims (Merryfield, 1997). Adopting the third view, Pike (1993) and Hicks (2003) state that global education is related to "international understanding" and "individual-centred learning" (cited in Marshall 2007).

Although the first papers and practices on global education started in the United States and England (Hicks 2003; Kasai 2007; Merryfield, 1997), it is now a field studied by academics in many countries and has directly or indirectly affected the educational policies, institutions and programs of many countries. In recent years in Turkey, papers have been conducted that focus on the effects that globalisation has on education, but there have not been any papers based on the historical and conceptual framework of global education. Examining the literature, it can be argued that social studies courses have played a role in preparing individuals for the social and cultural lives in which they live. For this reason, it seems to be necessary to reveal the relationship between social studies courses and global education, as well as the extent to which the courses serve the aims of global education from the perspectives of primary teachers. In this regard, it would reveal how global education, as studied by field experts around the world within the last 50 years, is emphasized in social studies courses in Turkey. In looking at the literature, it is apparent that most papers abroad are practical, and these practical papers are conducted suitably to the definitions of global education in the literature. As

mentioned above, the papers conducted in Turkey are mostly related to globalisation and its reflection on education, but less are directly related to global education (Ozturk & Gunel, 2016; Ozkan, 2006; Balkar et al. 2010; Mori & Takeuchi, 2016; Yasar et al. 2002; Abali, 2005; Gul, 2008; Kilpatrick, 2010; Kasai, 2007; Yang, 2010; Marshall, 2007; Ogle 2010; Reynold Thomas, 2010; Kandra, 2007; Natalie, 2009; Mulvaney, 2014; & Ferguson Patrick et al. 2014). This paper aims to reveal primary teachers' views on training individuals who can adapt to today's world based on the basic framework of global education in the context of social studies courses, and will also present solutions for preparing students for an increasingly global world.

This paper aims to reveal 4th and 5th grade primary teachers' views on global education in the context of the Social Studies course. The following research questions were addressed based on this aim:

What are primary teachers' views on:

1. The concepts of globalisation, culture and global education?
2. Teaching students multiple perspectives in the Social Studies course?
3. How they cover cultural topics in the Social Studies course?
4. How they cover global events, problems and developments in the Social Studies course?
5. How they cover global connections and global dependency in the Social Studies course?
6. How global education should be included in the Social Studies teaching program?
7. How the elements of global education are used in student works in the Social Studies course?

Method

Research Design

The topic of this research is the past experiences and current practices of global education that were preferred by primary teachers in this paper, including what the concept itself meant for them, its in-depth analysis and phenomenology design. Phenomenology designs enable in-depth examinations of phenomena that affect us, even if we cannot be fully aware of how it affects us (Yildirim et al. 2011).

Participants

In this paper, the participants were selected using criterion sampling. The criteria identified for the selection were "(1) teaching fourth or fifth graders in the 2011–2012 school year, and (2) having taught both the 2004 and 1988 Social Studies Teaching Programs in Turkey". Within this framework, interviews were conducted with 12 primary teachers from six different schools.

Data Gathering Tools

The interviews were based on the "three-interview model" in order to be able to conduct an in-depth examination of primary teachers' past experiences regarding global education and global education in the Social Studies course. The three-interview model was designed by Dolbeare and Schuman (cited in Seidman 2006; Miller Clearly et al. 1990).

In the three-interview model, the aim is to make each participant's past experiences more meaningful and comprehensible by contextualizing them. In this sense, the first interview reveals the participant's past experiences. The second enables the participant to restructure the details of their experiences in the first interviews in consideration of the current context. The third lets the participant reflect on how they make his or her past experiences meaningful (Seidman 2006).

In the process of developing the data-gathering tools, interview questions were developed by the researchers. These questions were presented to two field experts, one language expert and one research methodology expert for their opinions. Based on the feedback received from the experts, the questions were revised. Then, the piloting of the interview questions was conducted with two primary teachers. The questions were finalized as a result of the pilot interviews with the teachers. The personal information form and the semi-structured interview questions developed for the teachers were the primary data-gathering tools of the paper. In addition, the works of the students in the social studies courses whose teachers were interviewed were also examined. In the process of examining these documents, there were no criteria identified, but all the available documents were examined. By examining the students' works, the aim was to ensure trustworthiness in addition to accessing the reflections of the students' statements in the classroom.

Data Analysis

In this paper, the content analysis approach was adopted to analyze the data gathered through the interviews and the documents. In content analysis, concepts and themes are brought together depending on their relationships and are interpreted in a way that readers can understand (Yildirim et al. 2011). The analysis process followed in the paper can be briefly summarized as follows:

- First, the interviews were transcribed. The total time of the interview recordings is 22 hours, 43 minutes and 38 seconds. Their transcriptions are a total of 497 pages. These transcriptions were done by the researchers and checked by a field expert; necessary revisions were done and spelling errors were corrected.
- Codes were revealed from the data obtained. The researchers used NVivo 10 trial edition in the coding process while the social studies education expert coded the data by hand. Then, similarities and differences regarding the codes and themes were discussed and an agreement was reached. Based on Barber and Walczak's work (2009), 20% of the coding was checked by field experts.

- To make the themes more meaningful, two field experts revised the codes and themes revealed in the analysis.
- Content analysis technique was again adopted to analyze 105 documents collected from the students. A summary introducing the homework was written by the researchers. This process helped the researchers gain an idea of the students' works and the number of documents. Finally, an expert revealed codes and themes simultaneously with the researchers, and an agreement was reached for the similarities and differences.

Results

Four main themes were revealed as a result of the analysis. Based on the primary teachers' views, there were three main findings: "globalisation, culture and global education definitions; global education in the Social Studies course; and activity suggestions for presenting global education more effectively in the Social Studies course". The findings obtained from the students' documents included a set of findings such as "multiple perspectives, cultures, global problems, global connections, values and technological developments".

The primary teachers' definitions related to the concepts of globalisation, culture and global education were mostly positive; they related to global interaction and sharing information and culture. With respect to the positive definitions of globalisation, the primary teacher who thought that the formation of common culture and values was a positive aspect expressed his views by saying, "The same behaviours, same habits, clothes. It is like common global people are coming in sight. I think it is at the beginning stage (T8)". Related to the subcategory of thinking at the world-scale, the teachers stated that students should know that there are other people living in the world other than themselves, and thus students' horizons should be broadened. For example, regarding world problems, the teacher who emphasized that people should fulfil their responsibilities stated his views, saying, "Even in the global sense, this world is for us, all of us. So, everybody should fulfil their responsibilities; we all have a responsibility of protecting the nature. Using the information for good is essential for all people globally (T6)". The teachers who related globalisation to the removal of borders provided views such as the right to move freely and travel around the world with no boundaries. For instance, T12 said, "I think globalisation is the removal of borders gradually, which is I think what it should be like. It isn't the solution to draw more boundaries. Boundaries should only be symbolic; anyone should be able to go to any place and get to know many cultures, which develops individuals in a positive way".

The statements of the teachers who provided negative views about globalisation included "uncertainties, manipulation of the global problems, technology putting barriers among individuals, cultural degeneration, consumer society, conflict of interests among countries". With respect to the uncertainties, T8 stated his concerns, saying, "I think globalisation has a great potential for humanity. But, if it's not

perceived and evolved properly, it can be a big threat. In that sense, it shouldn't turn to someone smashing another, although I find globalisation positive".

Referring to technology as placing barriers among people, T3 emphasized that there is a social degeneration by saying, "Human communication has decreased, I must say it. Technology reduced the communication among people who get distant from each other. For example, I watch TV. In the past when I was a child, we used to have a better communication with our family. The same for our neighbours." About becoming a consumer society, T9 asserted that people found their lives based on consumption. T9 stated his views, saying, "Look at the adverts. Look at the desire for luxurious consumption. Now, everything is about money. How do I buy it, how do I live more comfortably?".

The teachers' views toward multiple perspectives in social studies fell into categories including "subjectivity of the individual, adopting the dominant culture, and respect to differences". T1 highlighted the subjectivity of the individual, saying, "We firstly taught the students to recognize themselves in our units. When I said 'everyone's fingerprint is different', they found it interesting and we did an activity in which everybody painted his/her hand and compared each other's fingerprint". In regard to respecting different ideas, T9 conveyed an experience from his classroom, saying, "For instance, that happens in lessons. A student interrupts another, or he/she feels upset when another says, 'that's wrong'. Then, I say, 'would you like it if your friend does you the same?' Then, he says, 'I would be upset, teacher'. Then, say it softly".

According to the findings related to culture in social studies, the teachers mentioned topics such as "national culture, different cultures in the world, globalisation with the national identity, April 23, and social studies' function of delivering culture". Stating that social studies subjects mainly emphasize national culture, T1 said: "It's more valid for our country, particularly. They say 'I'm learning my past', they refer to the past of their families, learning the family history. Since it is the case, globalisation does not occur to a large extent". Arguing that different cultures in the world are only covered superficially, T10 reported that they compared the similarities and differences of other cultures with Turkey's. T10 expressed his views, saying, "For example, we talked about Mexico, their most obvious characteristic, we asked how they would recognize a Mexican. 'From their clothes, hats'. There are lots of cactuses, they are short. We only give some preliminary information, not the details". Based on these statements, it can be argued that topics such as national culture, different cultures in Turkey, different cultural elements in the world, the importance of social studies in delivering the culture, that students should go through globalisation with their national identity, and the importance of April 23 in learning different cultural elements were included in the Social Studies course.

It was observed that global problems were not included in the Social Studies course, but the teachers mentioned events happening abroad when the occasion arose. The teachers touched upon environmental problems, and the students

obtained information related to global events from the media. In addition, the topics covered in the program were sufficient, considering the age and the level of the students were among the revealed views. For example, T1 said, "It doesn't cover the event much. I don't know if it does in the fifth grade, but it hasn't so far. Sometimes a topic brings up another topic and we mention an event as an example so that they learn it". Stating that they mention events that are currently happening when the occasion arises, T3 asserted, "For example, Syria is our neighbour, what's happening there? Why do the people in Syria come to our country? Where is Syria located? What kind of relationships do we have?" According to the findings, it can be argued that the teachers' perceptions of global events were in the form of constantly changing events. The social studies teaching program was not sufficient in presenting information regarding global events, which burdened teachers with responsibilities and duties. Furthermore, it is mostly the case that the framework of the program identifies activities to be done, and teachers touch upon those topics as the occasions arise.

It was reported that the global interconnectedness among countries and societies related to global connections was not included in the Social Studies course. Besides, they mentioned economic connections and import-export relationships among countries. For example, T2 reported that global connections were not included, saying, "Let's move on to another issue. I don't have much to say about that. I think we do nothing about global connections. We don't have a connection. I think we are a little introverted". Stating that economic relations are mentioned, T12 said, "Yes, we have a subject about that. In the unit 'Our World', we cover issues such as what we buy from or sell to which countries, what our relationships are like. We have subjects about economic relations. But they are not very detailed". In this regard, it can be argued that the students are not provided the opportunity to see the world from a holistic perspective, as the program does not include such activities.

The activity suggestions for presenting global education more effectively in the Social Studies course were combined in the "Suggestions" theme. Within this theme, the teachers' views were presented in four sub-dimensions, including the suggestions "teaching-learning process, the student, the program and evaluation-assessment". It can be argued that the suggestions seemed to be quite useful for presenting global education, but most of these were not implemented.

As a result of the analysis of the students' works, the categories revealed included "multiple perspectives, culture, global problems, global connections, values and technological developments". Based on the documents examined, it was apparent that there were no activities conducted directly toward multiple perspectives. However, in D-62, concepts such as "duty, group, identity, individual, responsibility, rights, law rules, roles, identity cards and institutions" were defined with respect to the unit "I am learning my rights". Accordingly, only one document among 105 documents was related to multiple perspectives, which was limited and superficial.

Examining the available documents, 20% of the homework and projects were geared toward recognizing the culture in Turkey, particularly the culture in Eskisehir. It can be said that the data on other cultures was too general and mostly based on historical information. For example, in D-80, the student referred to his/her past experiences of writing: "In Egypt, schools were only for the male children of wealthy families. Most were poor and did not care about their appearance because of the heat". In another document (D-97), the student explained the unique characteristics of Germany, Denmark, Niger and Uzbekistan.

With regard to global problems, the student introduced AKUT (that is, the Research and Rescue Association) in D-2. Some of the values adopted by AKUT were provided. According to the available documents, it was apparent that national and international functions of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) regarding the global and environmental problems in Turkey were included in the students' homework and projects in the Social Studies course.

The effects of NGOs in relation to global connections at an international scale appeared as a countries' membership to international organizations, awards of a businessman in Turkey, and lastly, a project thought to be effective worldwide over a website. It can be argued that the documents that were examined were not geared toward mutual connections among countries or individuals.

Discussion and Conclusion

It was revealed that the teachers' perceptions in relation to multiple perspectives were based on diversity; however, this was not reflected in the students' works. The participants in Natalie's paper (2009) stated that students' perspectives should be broadened. It can be said that Natalie's paper (2009) is consistent with the current paper in terms of diversity. On the other hand, in Yang's paper (2010), teacher candidates took courses related to "the discrimination among countries, people or cultures". In this sense, it can be argued that teachers should take courses in preservice education to be made aware of multiple perspectives, and these concepts should also be reflected in the programs.

With respect to culture in the Social Studies course, it was observed that the culture of Turkey is covered and the course is an important conveyor of that culture, but different cultures are only briefly mentioned. Some papers recognize and raise awareness of different cultures and diversity (Jean-Sigur et al 2016; Tonbuloglu et al 2016; Ferguson Patrick et al. 2014; Mori et al 2016; Ozkan, 2006; Kasai, 2007; Yang, 2010; Kilpatrick, 2010; & Reynold Thomas, 2010) and emphasize practices toward raising awareness to different cultures in the world. In related studies, it is apparent that global education is usually conducted systematically within the scope of a school or regional program. In regard to the cultural awareness aspect of related papers, practices toward enhancing cultural interaction and awareness are highlighted in Kilpatrick's paper (2010). Similarly, in Roynald Thomas's paper (2010), it was revealed that the culture of the country was maintained and a global perspective was

presented, combining global educational thoughts and cultural values at the schools examined. Parallel with these papers, Mulvaney's (2014) paper stated that learning about various countries and cultures increases students' interest in other cultures. As a result of this paper, it is apparent that the Social Studies course should take a broader perspective regarding cultural awareness in terms of the course structure and content, besides being an important conveyor of culture.

It was also observed that global issues were not directly included in the course, but some of the events happening in the world were mentioned when the occasion arose. Some environmental problems and the function of NGOs in natural disasters in the world were also included. Although the content of the course was suitable in terms of making students aware of global problems and the results of these problems, it was observed that the teachers did not cover the topics with this perspective. Related to this observation, in papers conducted by Hazelkorn (2014), Ozkan (2006) and Kasai (2007), students should be equipped with competencies related to global events in the context of global education. Besides, it is stated that the teacher candidates should see themselves as a part of a global society (Jean-sigur et al 2016).

It was seen that only import-export relations among countries are mentioned in the Social Studies course in respect to global connections. In this sense, students are not provided with information related to mutual connections that are presumed in global education at a desired and effective level, and are not able to gain information about interactions in the world. In the literature, the papers on interconnectedness in global education (Ozkan, 2006; Kasai, 2007; Yang, 2010) suggest that students should be equipped with the knowledge of interconnectedness.

In the paper, it was found that the teachers' definitions of globalisation and culture were mostly positive, but they also mentioned the negative aspects of globalisation and the effects that technological developments have on it. It was also apparent that the teachers' definitions of global education were related to developing the knowledge, culture and awareness of the world. Examining the teachers' definitions in relation to the contents of the Social Studies course, it was observed that the course content was suitable for global education, but the contents were not presented with a global perspective, based on both the students' documents and the teachers' views. A respect to differences toward multiple perspectives was mentioned in the course; however, it was not reflected in the students' works. The activities in the Social Studies course mainly emphasized the national culture, and the activities geared toward recognizing other cultures in the world were not sufficient. The teachers only mentioned global events in the Social Studies course when the occasion arose; then, they mostly touched upon the roles of NGOs in natural disasters. It was found that activities that can be regarded in the context of global connections were insufficient and superficial.

Based on the results of the paper, it can be concluded that social studies is an important course in terms of the framework identified in the global education literature, but too brief in the sense of global education, as it was revealed from both

the students' works and the teachers' views. At this point, it can be suggested that the deficiencies in the conceptual framework of global education and its implementation should be improved to carry out the Social Studies course more effectively.

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Sınıf Öğretmenlerinin Sosyal Bilgiler Dersinde Küresel Eğitim Hakkındaki Görüşleri²

Atf:

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Özet

Problem Durumu: Bugün, teknolojik ve bilimsel gelişmelerin yoğun etkisiyle ekonomiden siyasete, spordan doğal felaketlere kadar birçok alanda ve sorunda dünya dinamiklerinin sürekli olarak değiştiği bir çağ yaşanmaktadır. Bu çağın sihirli sözcüğü ise küreselleşmedir. "Küreselleşme" ya da "Globalleşme", tüm dünyanın birbirine bağlanmasının yakından hissedilmesi üzerine gereksinim duyulmuş bir sözcüktür. Alanyazın incelendiğinde küreselleşmeye ilişkin birbiriyle benzer ve farklılaşan yönleriyle kimi tanımlamalara ya da yaklaşımlara rastlandığı görülmektedir. Küreselleşmenin belirtilen boyutlarının sonucu olarak dünya adeta "Global Köy" haline gelmiştir. Küresel eğitimin en temel amacı da bu "Global Köy" toplumunun üyeleri olarak yetişecek bireylerin gerekli ve yeterli bilgi, beceri ve tutumlarla donatılmış bir biçimde yetişmelerini sağlamaktır. Küresel eğitime göre, öğrencinin, gelişen ve değişen dünyanın getirdikleriyle başa çıkabilecek bilgi, beceri ve tutumlarla donatılmış; yaşadığı toplumun, devletin ve dünyanın vatandaşı olmanın getirdiği sorumluluk ve bilinçle sahip olması gerekmektedir. Bu sorumluluk ve bilinç ile tüm insanların dünyaya uyum sağlaması beklenmektedir. Sosyal bilgilerin temel amacı ise, birbirine karşılıklı olarak bağımlı bir dünyada, kültürel olarak çeşitlilik gösteren ve demokratik bir toplumun bireyleri olarak, genç insanları,

² Bu makale 2013 yılında Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsünde Prof. Dr. Şefik YAŞAR danışmanlığında gerçekleştirilen "Sınıf öğretmenlerinin Sosyal Bilgiler dersi bağlamında küresel eğitime ilişkin görüşleri" başlıklı yüksek lisans tezine dayalı olarak hazırlanmıştır. Ayrıca, bu çalışmanın bir bölümü 24-26 Nisan 2014 tarihinde İstanbul'da düzenlenen 1. Eğitim Araştırmaları Kongresi'nde sözlü bildiri olarak sunulmuştur.

kamusal yaşama katılım için gerekli bilgi ve karar alma mekanizmalarıyla donatmak biçiminde tanımlanmaktadır. Buna paralel olarak sosyal bilgiler eğitimcisi bilim insanlarının yapmış oldukları tanımlamalar doğrultusunda sosyal bilgiler eğitimi anlayışının küresel eğitimin kültürel çeşitlilik, küresel bağımlılık, demokratik toplum için yeterlilik sahibi ve karar alabilen bireyler yetiştirilmesi gibi temel ortak noktaları bulunduğu görülmektedir.

Küresel eğitime ilişkin ilk çalışmalar ve ilk uygulamalar, ABD ve İngiltere’de başlamış olmakla birlikte, günümüzde hem birçok ülkede akademisyenlerce çalışılan bir alan olmuş hem de birçok ülkenin eğitim politikalarını, kurumlarını ve programlarını doğrudan ya da dolaylı olarak etkilemiştir. Ülkemizde de, son dönemde küreselleşmenin eğitime etkisine yönelik çalışmalar olmakla birlikte, küresel eğitimin tarihsel ve kuramsal çerçevesi temel alınarak yapılan çalışmalara nadiren rastlanmaktadır. İlgili alanyazın incelendiğinde ülkemizde Sosyal Bilgiler dersinin bireyleri içinde bulunduğu toplumsal ve kültürel yaşama hazırlama gibi bir görev üstlendiği görülmektedir. Bu nedenle, sınıf öğretmenlerinin gözüyle Sosyal Bilgiler dersinin küresel eğitim ile olan ilişkisine ve Sosyal Bilgiler dersinin küresel eğitimin amaçlarına hizmet edebilme bakımından ortaya konması bir gereklilik olarak görülmüştür. Böylece, yurtdışında alan uzmanları tarafından son elli yılda ortaya konan küresel eğitimin ülkemizdeki Sosyal Bilgiler derslerinde ne kadar yer aldığı ve nasıl yer alması gerektiği ortaya konmaya çalışılmıştır. Ayrıca, yurtdışında uygulamalı araştırmaların daha fazla olduğu ve uygulamalı araştırmaların alanyazındaki küresel eğitim tanımlamalarına uygun bir çerçevede yürütüldüğü görülmüştür. Yurt içinde yapılan çalışmalar daha çok küreselleşme ya da küreselleşmenin eğitime yansımaları biçiminde olduğu; doğrudan küresel eğitim ile ilgili olmadığı da görülmüştür.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu araştırmanın amacı 4. ve 5. sınıfı okutmakta olan sınıf öğretmenlerinin Sosyal Bilgiler dersi bağlamında küresel eğitime ilişkin görüşlerini ortaya koymaktır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda şu sorulara yanıt aranmıştır:

4. ve 5. sınıfı okutan sınıf öğretmenleri;

- Küreselleşme, kültür ve küresel eğitim kavramlarına ilişkin ne düşünmektedirler?
- Sosyal Bilgiler dersinde öğrencilere çoklu bakış açısının kazandırılması konusunda ne düşünmektedirler?
- Sosyal Bilgiler dersinde kültürel konuları nasıl işlediklerine ilişkin görüşleri nelerdir?
- Sosyal Bilgiler dersinde küresel olaylar, sorunlar ve gelişmeleri nasıl işlediklerine ilişkin görüşleri nelerdir?
- Sosyal Bilgiler dersinde küresel bağlantılar ve küresel bağımlılığa ilişkin konuları nasıl işlediklerine ilişkin görüşleri nelerdir?
- Sosyal Bilgiler dersi öğretim programında küresel eğitimin nasıl yer alması gerektiği konusundaki görüşleri nelerdir?

- Sosyal Bilgiler derslerinde öğrenci çalışmalarında küresel eğitim öğeleri nasıl yer almaktadır?

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Bu çalışmada, küresel eğitime ilişkin sınıf öğretmenlerinin geçmiş deneyimleri, şu anki uygulamaları ve küresel eğitimin sınıf öğretmenleri için ne anlama geldiği araştırma konusu derinlemesine irdelenmek istendiğinden olgubilim deseni uygun görülmüştür. Araştırmada katılımcılar ölçüt örneklem yoluyla seçilmiştir. Katılımcıların seçiminde belirlenen ölçütler “(1) 2011-2012 eğitim öğretim yılında 4. ve 5. sınıfı okutmak ve (2) 2004 ilköğretim Sosyal Bilgiler Öğretim Programı ile 1998 programının her ikisini de okutmuş olmak” olarak belirlenmiştir. Bu kapsamda altı farklı okuldan on iki sınıf öğretmeniyle görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin Sosyal Bilgiler derslerinde gerçekleştirdikleri ödev çalışmalarından ulaşılabilen 105 ödev de elde edilen doküman verileri bağlamında değerlendirilmiştir. Bu çalışmada, görüşmeler sınıf öğretmenlerinin küresel eğitime ve Sosyal Bilgiler dersinde küresel eğitime yönelik geçmiş yaşantılarının ve deneyimlerinin derinlemesine incelenmesi için “Üç Görüşme Modeli” üzerine temellendirilmiştir. Veri toplama araçlarının geliştirilmesi sürecinde ilk olarak araştırmacı tarafından görüşme soruları geliştirilmiştir. Geliştirilen görüşme soruları, iki alan uzmanı, bir dil uzmanı ve bir yöntem bilimi uzmanının görüşlerine sunulmuştur. Uzmanlardan gelen dönütler doğrultusunda, sorular yeniden düzenlenmiştir. Ardından, görüşme sorularının pilot uygulaması iki sınıf öğretmeni ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Öğretmenlerle yapılan pilot görüşmeler sonucunda soruların işleyip işlemediği belirlenmiş, yeniden gerekli düzenlemeler yapılmış ve görüşme formuna son şekli verilmiştir. Bunun yanı sıra, görüşme yapılan öğretmenlerin kendi sınıflarındaki öğrencilerin Sosyal Bilgiler derslerinde yapmış oldukları dokümanlar da incelenmiştir. Dokümanların incelenmesi sürecinde herhangi bir ölçüt belirlenmemiş; ulaşılabilen dokümanların tümü incelenmiştir. Öğrenci ürünleri incelenerek, hem inandırıcılığın artırılması hem de öğretmen görüşlerinin sınıf içerisindeki yansımalarına ulaşmak amaçlanmıştır. Görüşmeler ve dokümanlar yoluyla elde edilen verilerin analiz edilmesinde içerik analizi yaklaşımı benimsenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Araştırma verilerinin analizi sonucunda dört ana temaya ulaşılmıştır. Sınıf öğretmenlerinin görüşleri bağlamında “Küreselleşme, kültür, küresel eğitim kavramlarına ilişkin bulgular; Sosyal Bilgiler dersinde küresel eğitime ilişkin bulgular; Sosyal Bilgiler dersinde küresel eğitimin daha etkili sunulabilmesi için öneriler” olmak üzere üç temel bulguya ulaşılmıştır. Bununla birlikte incelenen öğrenci dokümanlarından elde edilen bulgular ise kendi içerisinde “Çoklu bakış açısı, kültür, küresel sorunlar, küresel bağlantılar, değerler, teknolojik gelişmeler” gibi birtakım kategorilerden oluşmaktadır.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Araştırma sonuçlarına dayalı olarak Sosyal Bilgiler dersinin küresel eğitim alanyazınında belirlenen çerçevesi bakımından oldukça önemli bir ders olduğu ancak gerek öğretmen görüşlerinden gerek öğrencilerin Sosyal Bilgiler dersi kapsamında yapmış oldukları ödevlerden anlaşıldığı üzere dersin küresel eğitim bakımından yüzeysel kaldığı anlaşılmıştır. Bu noktada Sosyal Bilgiler dersinin daha etkili bir biçimde gerçekleştirilmesi için küresel eğitimin

kuramsal çerçevesi ve uygulamada yapılması gereken eksikliklerin giderilmesi gerektiği önerilebilir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Küreselleşme, üç görüşme modeli, olgubilim, küresel sorunlar, küresel karşılıklı bağlantılılık, kültürel farkındalık.

An Online Training Program for Gifted Children's Parents in Turkey

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Turkey began studies of gifted education relatively recently in comparison with other countries and these studies are focused more to the education of gifted children and their teachers instead of parents. Guiding and educating the parents of gifted students has recently been put into practice in our country while no matter how qualified a curriculum is, one will never reach the ultimate goal of education unless parent education is included. Therefore, studies focused on parent education and guiding of gifted students are vital need of gifted education in Turkey.

Purpose of the Study: The aim of the paper was to increase the awareness levels of gifted children's parents about giftedness via distance education.

Method: In total 154 parents, who have children at age 6-8, were interested with the study. 40 (31 mothers, 9 fathers) of them participated regularly in the training. One group pretest-posttest experimental model was used. Topics such identification of giftedness, intelligence, developmental aspects, perfectionism, depression, motivation, and educational preventions were covered in 8 sessions.

Findings and Results: The effects of training, measured by the Scale of Awareness of Gifted Children's Parents. Results showed that parents' awareness increased significantly ($t=5.29$, $p<.001$) in total. However in some sub-scales there were not significant differences, the mean scores of the post-tests were higher than the pre-tests.

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Conclusion and Recommendations: In conclusion, since gifted education field is growing in Turkey, it is very important to inform parents about their children's needs. Results showed that distance education is a practical and economical way to achieve that goal. The researchers due to very positive feedbacks about the study can recommend to do further studies with bigger sample from all over the country. In addition, for further studies more comprehensive questionnaire may be developed to evaluate the effects of the training program in a better way.

Keywords: Gifted and talented, training of gifted parents, distance education, adult education, scale of awareness of gifted children's parents.

Introduction

The education of gifted students is considered as a part of special education since gifted children are characteristically different from their peers (Tomlinson 2007). To meet these unique needs along with those specific characteristics has become one of the major issues in the field of education for some decades. In comparison with other countries, Turkey began studies of gifted education relatively recently (Sak 2011). And these studies are focused more to the education of gifted children and their teachers instead of parents (Davasligil 2004; Koksall 2007; Leana-Tascilar & Cinan 2014; Leana-Tascilar & Kanli 2014; Ozyaprak 2013; Leana-Tascilar 2015, Topcu & Leana-Tascilar, 2016). Guiding and educating the parents of gifted students has recently been put into practice while no matter how qualified a curriculum is, one will never reach the ultimate goal of education unless parent education is included (Aksoy 2002).

As it is explained above, studies focused on parent education and guiding of gifted students are vital need of gifted education in Turkey. The parents of gifted children occasionally need guidance and information about 3 topics. The two of them are identification of giftedness and education of gifted students. Lastly the parents need guidance about how to deal with social-emotional problems of gifted children (Peyre et al 2016). The detailed explanation of each topic is presented below:

Identification of Giftedness

One of the major problems of gifted children's parents is finding out whether or not their children are gifted. This requires parents to have a sense of giftedness. Parents also have conflicts about their role on identification. They wonder who is responsible for identification of their children; themselves, the school of their children or another specific center or foundation? They also need guidance about what to consider on identification process, which information is reliable and which institutions they can trust. They should meet with experts who can ensure information and explanations about giftedness (Silverman 1993).

Education of Gifted Students

Parents need guidance to recognize their children's educational needs and to select a proper school (Silverman, 1993; Elijah, 2011). What does a proper school have and provide to a gifted student? How can a parent decide on the adequate school for their gifted child? Which opportunities should a school for gifted learners have to offer for meeting gifted children's academic and social-emotional needs? How can parents support education? What are the activities and issues which parents should consider for home schooling their child? Gifted students' parents should be informed about the content of those questions.

The parents of gifted children need advice, information and educational resources. So they can support and encourage their child's special abilities. They need to know current definition of giftedness. The difference between academic achievement and giftedness should be understood by parents. The parents need to be aware of the risk for underachievement among gifted students. They should be informed about how to deal with it. Being in coordination with school is a very important step for gifted parents to meet the unique learning needs of gifted children. For that reason parents should be encouraged to collaborate with the school staff and administration (Clark,,2012).

Social Emotional Development

Gifted students' parents need information and support on some specific topics related to social-emotional development of gifted pupils. These topics can be summarized as the relationship between intelligence and social emotional characteristics, self-esteem of gifted children (Topcu & Leana, 2016b), giftedness and friendship, communication skills, perfectionism and its negative effects on children, depression among gifted children (Clark, 2012). By the way sometimes parents may not be aware of the importance of how understanding and supporting their children is crucial and necessary. Parents may consider a gifted student someone who never needs extra help and support either academically nor emotionally. On the other hand, parents may feel insufficient to meet their children's need. Therefore parents must be informed first about the characteristics of giftedness. So they realize that their children may need support even if they are gifted. Then parents have to be introduced to the educational, behavioral and psychological strategies and precautions that they can use (Muratori & Smith 2015).

Parent Training Programs from Turkey and World

Counselling and supporting this unique parent group is challenging. Hence, gifted students' parents are usually not offered enough guidance. The characteristics and needs of this group are so specific which complicates the interpretation of those needs and the development of empathy for the counsellor (Afat, 2013). Parents of gifted students may feel loneliness and despair because of the conditions mentioned above. So they should meet with the experts of the gifted education. Parents should be provided informative and supportive programs to accomplish that feeling of loneliness.

Unfortunately the number of those kinds of programs is quite limited around the world. Speaking of Turkey these limitations are higher in comparison to the other countries (Afat, 2013). Some of the well-known parent training programs for gifted parents are explained below. Supporting Emotional Needs of the Gifted (SENG) Model is one of the parent support programs. The goal of this model is to prevent possible social-emotional problems which may occur between parents and their children. SENM Model requires having regular meetings. At the meetings parents share their challenges, problems, disappointments and various experiences with each other and the expert. SENM model offers some preventive approaches and problem solving techniques to beat the typical and usual challenges about parenting gifted children (Afat, 2013).

Positive Parenting Program (TRIPLE-P) is one other parent support program. The goal of this Program is to prevent not only possible social-emotional but also developmental and behavioural problems which may occur. TRIPLE-P intends to inform parents about the social-emotional characteristics of gifted children. Possible challenges come along with these characteristics and some strategies to deal with these challenges are also the main topics. TRIPLE-P also informs parents how to support their children academically and cognitively. TRIPLE-P has both informative and applied approach which lets parents gather experience in what they have learned during the training process (Sanders, 2012).

Working on Gifted Issues (WOGI) is the other popular parenting program which offers workshops for parents of gifted students. The goal of this model is to provide preventive and informative workshops where parents can also practice what they learn in those workshops. WOGI workshops comprise two parts: understanding giftedness and practicing parenting skills. Informative part includes information about what giftedness is, characteristics of gifted students, strengths and weaknesses of gifted individuals, peer relationships of gifted children. Implementation part includes information and practices about parenting and communication skills and some useful techniques to handle the possible challenges. Parents are also offered guidance about career planning methods in this part (Webb et al. 2007). Speaking of Turkey, education of gifted students is a newly developing field. That results a decline in the quantity of parent support programs in Turkey in contrast with other countries. Parents of gifted students mainly reach information via conferences, workshops and seminars. However, the number of those resources are only limited. They do also not have a systematic approach in order to have more effective results.

On the other hand, Afat (2013) has developed a parent supporting program which is the first systematic parenting approach for gifted students' parents in Turkey. It is called as Training Program for the Parents of Gifted Education (TPPGE). TPPGE aims to train parents to prevent and to cope with possible problems originating from gifted pupils' specific characteristics. Parents are expected to attend 10 sessions. Every session has two parts. In the first part parents get information from the experts. In the second part parents learn some strategies for real life problems. Parents have homework about learned strategies. They are expected to use those strategies in their life and to share their experiences with the group (Afat, 2013).

Adult Education

There are limited number of studies on the education of gifted children's parents in Turkey by reason of lack of experience, limited facilities and time-space restrictions. The most of them are not systematic. This is mainly because of verdancy of the field in Turkey. Also having access to the parents of the gifted children living in different cities at the same time constitutes a major problem. In addition, meeting with the parents after work hours is also a challenge.

A first has been achieved in Turkey with an eye to overcome the cited challenge by the current research. A distance adult training program has been developed in order to having access to the families of the gifted children all around the Turkey at the same time. The researchers focused that the online education environments are regardless of time and geographical barriers (Yurdugul & Cetin 2015). The education program provided in this paper includes gifted children's parents to the group of those benefiting from life-long learning opportunities by using distance education method. In general, adult education can be defined as the process of acquiring information and skills in line with the interests and needs in professional or daily life of individuals who deem themselves adults in terms of age and social role and who are aware that they are responsible for their own lives (Touati, 2016; Merriam & Brockett 1996; Tas et al. 2009). Adult education, aims to help adults develop the skills they have. It also aims to increase general and vocational knowledge. Adult education intends people to guide for achieving their personal developments via all kinds of adult-oriented intended, planned and organized training activities and programs.

It is observed in recent years that the concept of adult education is employed in conjunction with the concept of continuing education and lifelong education / lifelong learning. Lifelong learning concept has evolved within the adult education context (Field 2006; Smith 1996). The concept, as the name suggests highlights that learning or education cannot be limited to a certain time (age) or space (school). It continues from birth to death. It advocates that people must constantly renew their knowledge and experiences in the globalized world. Considering in terms of process, it is observed that lifelong learning (except for compulsory education) covers similar meaning, purpose and functions with adult education.

As can be seen from the literature given, learning is no longer limited to a particular place and time in the current world of communication and information technology. On the contrary learning is being considered as an ongoing process anymore (Fischer 2000). A large portion of individuals within the purview of adult education are individuals who work and who need self-improvement while working. Hence, need for lifelong learning which is independent of time and place has arisen for the individuals. The best tool to respond to the needs of the individuals of the contemporary society is to having access to most accurate information where and whenever needed. The distance education system is considered a very valid way of it.

Considering the characteristics of distance and adult education cited above, utilization of distance education for the parents of gifted children seems as an extremely meaningful and functional effort. First, gifted children's parents want to improve themselves in terms of healthy parenting on the field of characteristics and education of gifted children. Second, those parents are scattered in different provinces of Turkey. In this context, distance education is not a choice but a necessity in terms of the benefits it furnishes to the parents of gifted children.

Objectives of the Study

The aim of the study was to increase the awareness levels of gifted children's parents about giftedness via distance education. In this context the consecutive objective was to determine the effectiveness of the training program developed by the researchers.

Method

Research Design

In that study one group pretest-posttest experimental model was used.

Research Sample

Three hundred people were informed about the study via different ways like e-mail groups, and schools for gifted students etc. Because the characteristics of gifted children vary according to the developmental stages of the children, only parents with 6 to 8 years old children were included. In this regard, from the 154 parents that applied to the study, just the data of parents that attended regularly (7 of the 8 sessions) were used. In total, 40 parents (31 mothers, 9 fathers) from 5 different cities regularly attended the seminars. 6 of the parents who attended from Istanbul were from Asian and 12 from European part. In total they were from 18 different districts of Istanbul.

Research Instruments and Procedure

Scale of awareness of gifted children's parents. The aim of the scale is to evaluate the awareness of the parents of gifted children about their needs (Afat, 2013). It has 39 items with 5-point Likert type. The Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the scale showed that there are 4 different sub-scales: stress (15 items), perfectionism (7 items), motivation-achievement (9 items) and responsibility/ self-regulated learning (8 items).

Validity and Reliability

The validity analysis of the questionnaire made by Afat (2013). The total Cronbach's alpha of the scale was found as .83. The Cronbach's alpha for each sub-scale was .85, .67, .71 and .52 respectively. The results of test retest reliability analysis were $r = .71$ and the split half $r = 1.00$ and $r = 1.00$, significant ($p < .01$). In present study the total reliability result was .95 and the sub-scales' .92, .62, .94 and .65 respectively.

The Training Program

The Training Program was conducted as live virtual classroom based lessons and were 8 sessions. A distance education system was used for carrying out the seminars. The sessions were held twice a week in evenings from 8 to 9 p.m. as 50 minutes lectures and 10 minutes for questions. The outline for each week was as follows:

a) *Introduction:* Intelligence, giftedness, creativity, achievement and talent were introduced. Identification of giftedness and the different styles of intelligence according to different models were discussed.

b) *Identification:* The aim, different styles and the stages of identification were introduced.

c) *Characteristics of Gifted Students:* Physical, cognitive, social, personality and moral development of gifted children were explained in detail. Twice exceptional children mentioned.

d) *Perfectionism:* Defined and the positive and negative aspects of perfectionism were discussed. The effects of perfectionism to achievement were explained and advice was provided for the parents who had perfectionist gifted children.

e) *Depression:* The main reasons that can produce depression in gifted children were introduced as well as the preventions that can be provided were explained.

f) *Stress and Conflict Management:* Different ways of helping gifted students and their parents with stress management that can prevent stress and conflict were discussed. Parents were informed about specialists or associations that can provide help for their children.

g) *Underachievement and Lack of Motivation:* The definition of underachievement was made and parents were informed about how to deal with motivational problems of their children.

h) *Educational Preventions:* The need of special education for gifted children and what special education can provide them were explained.

Data Analysis

The SPSS package program was used in analyzing the data. Descriptive statistics used to calculate the frequencies of the participants. The test of normality results showed that parametric statistical techniques can be used, so paired sample t-test used to analyse the pre and post-tests.

Results

Results about Working Group

In total, 40 parents attended the online trainings. The mean age of the group was 40.25, 31 mothers (77.5%) and 9 fathers (22.5%). Only one of the parents was divorced. Parents attended from 5 different cities of Turkey. 1 (2.5%) was from Antalya, 1 (2.5%) from Bursa, 1 (2.5%) from Eskisehir, 35 (87.5%) from Istanbul and 2 (5%) of them from Mersin (Table 1). Istanbul was the city with the most participants and they were from 19 different districts. Basaksehir, Bayrampasa, Beykoz, Beylikduzu, Halkali, Kartal, Umraniye and Zeytinburnu had 1 participant each. The

districts Avcilar, Besiktas, Eyup, Fatih, Maltepe, Pendik, Sariyer and Sisli had 2 participants each. Kadikoy had 3 participants and Atasehir with Kucukcekmece 4 participants each (Table 2).

Table 1.

Frequencies of the Participants' Cities (n=40)

Cities	Frequencies	
	n	%
Antalya	1	2.5
Bursa	1	2.5
Eskisehir	1	2.5
Istanbul	35	87.5
Mersin	2	5.0
Total	40	100.0

Table 2.

Different Districts of Participants from Istanbul (n=35)

Districts	Frequencies	
	n	%
Atasehir	4	11.4
Avcilar	2	5.7
Basaksehir	1	2.9
Bayrampasa	1	2.9
Besiktas	2	5.7
Beykoz	1	2.9
Beylikduzu	1	2.9
Eyup	2	5.7
Fatih	2	5.7
Halkali	1	2.9
Kadikoy	3	8.6
Kartal	1	2.9
Kucukcekmece	4	11.4
Maltepe	2	5.7
Pendik	2	5.7
Sariyer	2	5.7
Sisli	2	5.7
Umraniye	1	2.9
Zeytinburnu	1	2.9
Total	35	100.0

Education levels of the parents who participated in the online training program are presented in Table 3. According to that 5 percent of the mothers were graduates from high school, 7.5 percent from college, 50 percent from university, 10 percent had master's degree and 5 percent had doctorate degree. In addition 2.5% of fathers were graduates from high school, 5 percent from college, and 15 percent from university.

Table 3.

Frequencies of the Education Level of the Parents Who Participated in the Training Program (n=40)

Education level	High school		College		Graduate		Master degree		PhD degree		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
	Mother	2	5.0	3	7.5	20	50.0	4	10.0	2	5.0	31
Father	1	2.5	2	5.0	6	15.0	0	0	0	0	9	22.5
Total	3	7.5	5	12.5	26	65.0	4	10.0	2	5.0	40	100.0

According to the results of the study, 35 percent of parents who participated in the sessions had already attended other educational programs (generally just one day workshops) and 65 percent of the parents had not got any informative workshop about the needs of their children.

Results about the Children of the Parents who Participated in the Program

Thirty-four (85%) of the gifted children of the parents who participated in the online training program were male and 6 of them (15%) female. Table 4 shows in what kind of institutions the gifted children were identified as gifted. According to Table 4, 12.5 percent of the children were identified by Counseling and Research Centers, 12.5 percent by clinicians in hospitals, 50 percent by private institutions for gifted students and 12 percent by academicians in university.

Table 4.

Frequencies of the Institutions that Gifted Children were Identified

Institutions	Frequencies	
	n	%
Counselling and Research Centres	5	13.8
Hospitals	5	13.8
Private Institutions	20	55.5
Universities	6	16.6
Total	36	100.0

Table 5 shows that 70 percent of the children of the parents who participated in the training program were enrolled in private schools and 30 percent of them in public ones. 30 percent of the children who enrolled in private schools had special education for their giftedness and 40 percent did not. 15 percent of the students were enrolled in public schools.

Table 5.

Frequencies and Percentages of the School Types and the Special Education Condition of the Gifted Children (n=40)

Do your children have special education?

		Yes		No		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
School Type	Private	12	30	16	40	28	70
	Public	6	15	6	15	12	30
	Total	18	45	22	55	40	100

Table 6.

Pre and Post-test Results of Paired Sampled T-test

Score	Groups	N	χ	ss	Sh_{χ}	t-test		
						t	Sd	p
Total Score	Pre	40	135.67	13.96	2.20	5.28	39	.001
	Post	40	143.95	12.55	1.98			
Stress/ Conflict	Pre	40	53.95	7.36	1.16	2.88	39	.01
	Post	40	56.65	6.30	.99			
Perfectionism	Pre	40	23.65	3.91	.61	1.41	39	.165
	Post	40	24.22	3.78	.59			
Motivation	Pre	40	33.9	4.79	.75	1.65	39	.105
	Post	40	34.95	4.34	.68			
Responsibility	Pre	40	27.7	3.41	.53	.86	39	.394
	Post	40	28.12	3.55	.56			

Results about the Training of the Parents

Shapiro-Wilk-W normality test results showed that the sample had normal distribution ($S-W=.418$, $p<.05$). Therefore the data was analyzed with parametric tests. Analysis of the data showed that 77 percent of the participants participated in all 8 sessions. In Table 6 pre- and posttest paired sample t test results can be found.

Results of pre- and post-test paired sampled t test of the Scale of Awareness of Gifted Children's Parents showed that they were significant differences in the total scale score ($t=5.28$, $p<.001$) and the sub-scale of the stress and conflict management ($t=2.88$, $p<.001$) but not in perfectionism ($t=1.41$, $p>.05$), motivation ($t=1.65$, $p>.05$) and responsibility subscales ($t=.86$, $p>.05$) (Table 6). However the comparison of the means of all sub-scales showed that the awareness scores were increased after the training.

Discussion and Conclusions

The purpose of this paper was to provide an 8-sessioned training opportunity to gifted students' parents all around Turkey by using the benefits of distance education. This was considered as a pilot research since the sample size ($n=300$) was small in proportion to the population of Turkey. However the results are believed to lead new research, since training parents of gifted children is crucial for education and psychology of gifted children. Keirouz (1990) emphasized the importance of guiding the gifted children's parents about identification of giftedness, educating the gifted child, sibling relations, parental roles, improving self-esteem and adjusting society.

The reflections of gifted children's parents about the training underlie the importance of guidance afore. Some sample reflections are given below.

"Now I have more academic explanations about the problems that I had to face as a parent of a gifted child. I feel more aware about the needs of her. Of course I can say that if the education was more detailed and longer it could be better. However I found very important the advices and the practical solutions that were recommended."

"I learned that different types of intelligence exist. Now I am more aware about the fact that parents really need such trainings more often. I believe that the sessions were very productive to be able to face the anxiety about the future of our child."

Some examples with feedbacks about distance education:

"Nowadays it is very popular and effective to have distance education. It was good timing to have that for different topics as about the needs of gifted children."

"Distance education was a great idea especially for people like us who have to work daily. We could not be able to participate if it was not online."

"These lectures where just perfect, of course I am not saying that they were enough but they were very detailed as a first step. Having these lectures as online courses was very nice"

and time saving for people who have to travel long distances within a huge city as Istanbul. Everyone was comfortable in his/her own home. You brought the education till our doors."

Afat's (2013) assessment tool called Scale of Awareness of Gifted Children's Parents was used to assess the effectiveness of the training program in this research. Results of pre and post-tests paired sampled t test of the scale shows that there are significant differences in the total scale score. Also there is a significant difference between the pre and post-tests scores of the stress and conflict management subscale. There is not any significant difference between pre and post-test scores of the perfectionism, motivation and responsibility subscales.

These insignificances may be explained by the scale used in the research. Afat's (2013) scale was used to assess the current training program which may not be totally in line with the training program in this research. The scale was still preferred since it is the only valid and reliable assessment tool about parent training in Turkey. Also the two programs have parallel contents and the two researches have parallel findings.

There are studies presenting the advantages of distance education (O'Lawrence, 2007; Marques & Carvalho, 2010; Yilmaz, 2015). One of these advantages is allowing access to learning and training exempt from space and time restrictions. Distance education is also advantageous since it enables an interactive, learner-centered learning (O'Lawrence, 2007; Marques & Carvalho, 2010; Yilmaz 2015).

However as Tuncer and Taspinar (2008) indicated, distance education's superiority on traditional face-to-face education has not been proved, yet. Besides, there are surely some disadvantages of distance learning. The most significant con's is the negative results of lack of self-discipline and time-management of the attendees (O'Lawrence, 2007). Luckily, because the parents desperately need this education, it was not an obstacle in the study.

Another broad handicap is technical problems interrupting the instruction. These problems may create confusion and frustration for the instructor and students (Heinich et al. 2002). The trainers in the study well prepared with alternative plans to overcome the technical problems aforesaid. Also, extensive preparation is required to overcome the difficulty of online connections and to sustain participants' attention and motivation (O'Lawrence, 2007; Robb & Sutton, 2014). Various teaching strategies which were convenient to distance education were used to adapt online environment by the researchers.

Beyond the pro's and con's of distance adult education, the reflections of gifted children's parents prove that the current study is important and necessary to fill the training gaps in the field of gifted children's parents education. The gifted education field is recent relatively to Europe countries and USA. The population of the parents of gifted children is small and is scattered all over Turkey. Those two reasons limit the parents' opportunity to receive training.

Also parents need distance education because they have to work daily as a modern life necessity. This leads adults not to be able to participate in traditional,

face-to-face courses. Distance education seems as the most prominent solution to educational problems of adult learners (Marques & Carvalho, 2010; Yilmaz, 2015). Besides the aforementioned advantages, one can consider this research as unique and significant since there isn't any online adult education training program for the parents of gifted children.

As a result, it is concluded that a new scale specific to the context of current program has to be developed to have more valid results. It is also concluded based on the parents' comments that -even though there is not a significant difference between some sub-scales of the test- the training program was useful and necessary because of the advantages mentioned in the discussion part. In the light of the findings, literature reviews and comments of the parents of the current research, it may be concluded that an online training program is a helpful, available and practical way to raise awareness of the parents of gifted children about the field.

Recommendations

Distance education has its own pros and cons. Therefore in newly growing areas like gifted education in Turkey it is important to be able to educate people that they are far away and they don't have access to face-to-face trainings. The researchers due to very positive feedbacks about the study can recommend to do further studies with bigger sample from all over the country. Distance education can also provide cheap and practical help to the people who cannot afford or reach it. It will be very fruitful if universities or other institutions that they have the appropriate tools for distance education can provide it for the academicians. Thus it will be possible to educate not only the parents but also the gifted children with different programs.

The researchers must also underline the limitations of the paper. First of all, it was not possible to reach a big population as it was expected. Second, the scale that was used did not totally overlap with the sub-topics of the training sessions. Third, the researchers must take into consideration the limitations of distance education itself. In that sense for further studies the researchers suggest that bigger sample is needed and more comprehensive questionnaire be developed to evaluate the effects of the training program in a better way. It must be underlined that further researches can help gifted children and their parents to have better conditions in a developing country like Turkey.

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Uzaktan Eğitim Yoluyla Üstün Zekalı Çocukların Ebeveynlerine Farkındalık Eğitimi

Atıf:

- Leana-Tascilar, M. Z., Ozyaprak, M. & Yilmaz, O. (2016). An online training program for gifted children's parents in Turkey. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 147-164
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Özet

Problem Durumu: Üstün zekalı ve yetenekli çocukların eğitimi, Türkiye'de son on yıldır derinlemesine araştırılmaya başlanmış olan bir konudur (Sak, 2011). Alan yazın incelendiğinde bu araştırmaların büyük bir çoğunluğunun üstün zekalı çocukların özellikleri, eğitimleri, tanılanmaları ve normal zihinsel düzeyinde olan yaşlılarıyla çeşitli değişkenler açısından karşılaştırılmaları üzerinde yoğunlaştığı görülmektedir (Davashgil, 2004; Köksal, 2007; Leana, 2009; Leana-Taşcılar & Kanlı, 2014; Özyaprak, 2013). Yapılan bu araştırmalar alan yazında üstün zekalı ve yetenekli çocukların öğretmenleri ve velileriyle ilgili derinlemesine araştırmalara ihtiyaç duyulduğunu göstermiştir. Bu çocukların öğretmenlerinin hangi özelliklere sahip olması gerektiğine ilişkin araştırmalar, ailelerle ilgili araştırmalara kıyasla daha çok sayıdadır. Üstün zekalı ve yetenekli çocukların anne babalarına yönelik sınırlı

sayıdaki araştırmanın daha çok ebeveyn tutumları ya da anne babaların özelliklerine yoğunlaştığı dikkati çekmektedir. Anne babalara çocuklarının özellikleri hakkında bilgilendirici ve farkındalıklarını arttıracak eğitim çalışmaları ise oldukça sınırlıdır. Oysa pek çok eğitim seminerinden sonra anne-babalar her zaman çok faydalandıklarından bahsetmekte ve bu eğitim seminerlerinin devamlı olmasını talep etmektedirler. Bununla birlikte sürekli seminerlere katılmak özellikle büyük ve kalabalık şehirlerde her zaman mümkün değildir. Uzaktan eğitim, dezavantajları olmasına karşın, eğitim vermek için pratik ve ekonomik bir yöntemdir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bahsedilen üstün zekâlı ve yetenekli çocukların anne babalarına yönelik sınırlı eğitim açığını kapatmak adına mevcut araştırmada üstün zekâlı çocukların ebeveynlerinin çocuklarıyla ilgili farkındalıklarını arttırıcı bir eğitim programı hazırlamak ve programın etkililiğini sınamak amaçlanmıştır. Üstün zekâlı popülasyon çok küçüktür ve Türkiye'nin farklı illerine dağılmış bulunmaktadır. Bu bağlamda farklı bölgelerdeki ebeveynlere ulaşabilmek adına uzaktan eğitim imkânından faydalanmanın çok kıymetli bir atılım olacağı düşünülmüştür.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Bu doğrultuda, pek çok farklı kurum ve kuruluş aracılığıyla üstün zekâlı ve yetenekli çocukların anne babalarına ulaşılmıştır. E-mail aracılığıyla ulaşılan 154 kişiden 40'ı sanal eğitimlere devamlı olarak katılmıştır. Bu bireylerden 31'i (%77.5) anne, 9'u ise (22.5) babadır. Araştırmada tek grup öntest-sontest deneysel model uygulanmıştır ve ilk iki yazar tarafından hazırlanan eğitim programının etkililiği sınanmıştır. Sekiz oturumdan oluşmakta olan sanal eğitim programında ebeveynler zekâ ve üstün yetenek, üstün zekâlı çocukların özellikleri ve tanınması, üstün zekâlı çocuklarda mükemmeliyetçilik, üstün zekâlı çocuklarda depresyon, üstün zekâlı çocuklarda beklenmedik başarısızlık ve motivasyon, yaratıcılık ve üstün zekâlı çocukların eğitimleri konularında bilgilendirilmişlerdir. Her oturum yaklaşık olarak 1 saat sürmüş ve her oturum sonunda 10-15 dakikalık soru sormak için zaman verilmiştir. Oturum saatleri, eğitim başlamadan önce katılacak ebeveynlere en uygun saatler saptanarak belirlenmiş ve akşam saatlerinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Her seans esnasında üç araştırmacı da hazır bulunmuş, ikisi eğitimi verirken, üçüncü araştırmacı teknik destek sağlamıştır. Programın etkililiği Afat (2013), tarafından geliştirilen *Üstün Zekâlı Çocuğu Olan Ebeveynlerin Farkındalıkları Ölçeği* ile değerlendirilmiştir. Ölçek, Toplam Puan, Stres, Mükemmeliyetçilik, Motivasyon ve Sorumluluk olmak üzere toplam beş alt boyuttan oluşmaktadır. Ölçeğin bu araştırmadaki toplam iç tutarlık Cronbach's Alpha değeri .95 olarak bulunmuştur. Diğer alt boyutların iç tutarlık katsayıları sırasıyla .92, .62, .94 ve .65 olarak bulunmuştur.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Araştırmada elde edilen öntest-sontest eşleştirmeli t- testi sonuçları, verilen sanal eğitim programı sayesinde, ebeveynlerin üstün zekâlı çocuklarıyla ilgili farkındalıklarının anlamlı bir şekilde arttığını göstermektedir ($t=5.29$, $p<.001$). Bununla birlikte alt boyutlar ayrı ayrı değerlendirildiğinde Stres alt boyutunda öntest ve sontest puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılık ($t=2.88$, $p<.01$) saptanırken; diğer alt boyutların öntest ve sontest puanları arasındaki puan ortalamaları farklılaşmakla birlikte anlamlılık derecesine ulaşamadıkları görülmektedir. Uzaktan eğitimlere katılan ebeveynlerin olumlu geri bildirimleri de dikkate alınarak çalışmada sunulmuştur. Ebeveynler, uzaktan eğitim aracılığıyla sunulan eğitimden sonra, üstün zekâlı çocuklarının sorunlarıyla ilgili daha çok

akademik bilgiye sahip olduklarını, ihtiyaçlarının daha çok farkına vardıklarını, günlük iş yoğunluğu arasında farklı mekânlara gitmeye fırsat bulamadıklarından eğitimlere katılmadıklarını, dolayısıyla uzaktan eğitim aracılığıyla verilen eğitimlerden faydalandıklarını belirtmişlerdir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Bu araştırma, ülkemizde yeni gelişmekte olan bu alanda ebeveynleri bilgilendirme konusunda sanal eğitim desteği sunan ilk çalışmadır. Araştırma, bir ön çalışma olarak düşünülmekte ve ülke genelindeki ebeveynlere ulaşmayı hedefleyen ileriki araştırmalara yol gösterici olacağı umut edilmektedir. Uzaktan eğitimin kendine göre artıları ve eksileri olmakla birlikte, ülkemizde yeni gelişmekte olan bir alan olan üstün zekâlı çocukların ebeveynlerinin eğitiminde ve farkındalıklarını arttırmada önemli bir rol oynayabileceği düşünülmektedir. İleriki çalışmalarda, daha fazla oturumdan ve daha kapsamlı olan eğitim seanslarından oluşacak olan programların etkililiğinin sınanması önerilmektedir. Buna ek olarak, ebeveynlerin uzaktan eğitim programıyla ilgili geri bildirimlerinin nitel araştırma yöntemleriyle de değerlendirilmesinin faydalı olacağı düşünülmektedir. Benzer eğitim seminerleri, ülkenin dört bir yanında hizmet vermekte olan ancak çalıştıkları şehirlerde eğitim alma imkânları olmayan öğretmenler için de düzenlenmesinin faydalı olacağına inanılmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Üstün zekâ ve yetenek, üstünlerin ailelerinin eğitimi, uzaktan eğitim, üstün zekâlı çocuğu olan ebeveynlerin farkındalıkları ölçeği.

Television Commercial Preferences of Children Aged 3–6 Years

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Abstract

Problem Statement: When children watch television, they are exposed to commercial advertisements whose general purpose is to make a positive impression on viewers about a commodity or service in order to drive the sales of that commodity or service. Due to their voiced and moving images, their setup and characters, and their being short and recurrent, television commercials attract the attention of children, who are influenced by ads for both products targeting them and products that concern family consumption. As such, television commercials can influence children's purchasing behaviors, which thereby makes children a strong target group of consumers that should be listened to, informed, and persuaded with respect to such behaviors. For that reason, the characteristics of television commercials that children prefer to watch have become important.

Purpose of the Study: In this study, I aimed to investigate the expression, message, character, and sector-related details of the commercials watched by children according to their age and gender.

Method: Following a survey-based research model, I used individual interviews and television advertising images during data collection with a sample of 339 children. I examined the characteristics of advertisements according to their type of expression, message type, characters used, and sector of the product or service advertised, as well as examined descriptive data in terms of frequency and percentage. I also analyzed the properties of the differences between children's age and gender with chi-square analysis.

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Findings: In response to 74 different television commercials, children revealed significant differences by age and gender in terms of the type of expression, message type, and product or service sector of the commercials that they liked. Although no significant difference emerged between the children's gender and the types of characters in the commercials that they liked, a significant difference did emerge between their age and the types of characters in those commercials.

Conclusion and Recommendations: The results show that features of television commercials favored by children aged 3–6 years can have different characteristics according to the children's age and gender. By extension, the results are important to advertisers as well as parents and educators, and longitudinal follow-up studies are possible that examine the effect of different variables of children and their families. In that way, researchers can investigate whether and, if so, then how the characteristics of commercials favored by children affect their future consumption preferences.

Keywords: Childhood, advertising preferences, properties of television commercials, age and gender.

Introduction

As the most powerful communication tool of mass media, television exerts well-known, well-studied effects on children. Since television provides information in various fields to children, who generally have a lot to learn (Ozel, 2012; Panic et al., 2013), ideally children can encounter such information via children's programs prepared to suit their age level. For example, children are frequently exposed to advertising during broadcasts and influenced by commercials both for products that directly target them and products meant for family consumption (Elden & Ulukok, 2006). As such, television commercials can influence children's purchasing behaviors, which has made children a strong target group that should be listened to, informed, and persuaded in regard to such behavior (Desrochers, 2015). For that reason, the characteristics of commercials that children prefer to watch have become important.

The television-watching habits of children differ from those of adults. For one, children enjoy watching television commercials twice as much as adults. Moreover, they remember more than adults the details of commercials, even those that do not target them (Lindstrom & Seybold, 2003). As a target group that needs to be listened to, informed, and persuaded in terms of purchasing behavior, children are especially influential in purchasing goods and services that target them and those that target their parents (Aktas et al., 2011). Research conducted on the influence of children on their families' purchasing decisions revealed that children significantly influenced those decisions in more than 100 product categories. In explanation, Lindstrom and Seybold (2003) posited that children quickly pass from the position in which their parents buy things for them to one in which they have things bought both for them

and even for the household. Since children are highly active in the decision-making process of their families' purchasing behavior, they involve themselves in their families' shopping activity and can influence product purchases made together. Beyond seeking to fulfill their own consumer needs, however, children can also interfere with the fulfillment of household needs (Aktas et al., 2011). As Kirdar (2007) found earlier, a significant relationship exists between the television-watching frequency of children aged 3–6 years and their choice of products that they would use when they shop with their parents. Furthermore, as Rosenberg (2001) discovered, as children grow older, their influence on their families' purchasing decisions increased.

Although the consumer preferences of families with children are significantly affected by the television commercials that children prefer, commercials differ in the extent to which they influence children. Commercials with a clear, direct message that involves no uncertainty differ from those that convey their messages in indirect ways (Demir, 2009). Moses and Baldwin (2005) have argued that the use of different expressions in commercials significantly affects how those commercials are understood. In commercials that use direct expression, the features and promises linked to products are conveyed directly to consumers; the words and images are in harmony with each other, and simple language is used. In commercials that use indirect expression, however, the brand name of the product is stressed, not the product itself. The goal in such commercials is to establish a lasting emotional tie with the brand, usually by using humorous or exaggerated language.

The most crucial point of any advertisement is its message strategy – that is, the strategy of conveying what it intends to convey. For a television commercial to achieve its goal with children, it needs to be interesting and believable to children (Demir, 2009). According to Uckun (2006), the messages of power, freedom, entertainment, and belongingness most significantly affect children's purchasing behavior.

Figures used in advertising typically involve animated human, animals, objects, or cartoon characters, if not a combination of those elements. Such characters have easy-to-remember aspects (Mizerski, 1998) that when associated with aspects of the product or brand make it easier to remember the product or brand (Derbaix & Pecheux, 1999). In that sense, characters in advertising create an association of the image in the minds of audiences and awareness about the product or brand (Franzen, 2005). As recognition of the product or brand becomes activated for consumers via characters in an advertisement, a symbolic narrative tie is established with the product or brand on cultural grounds. In that way, characters create brand awareness and are shaped to attract attention, activate selective perception, and create awareness about important advantages of the product or brand that they represent, all tailored to the level of audience that the advertisement hopes to be recognized and remembered by. According to Neeley and Schumann (2004), characters in advertisements exert serious effects, especially on children, and play an important role in determining purchasing directions.

Advertisements also influence children's consumption habits. In particular, they affect children's preferences for play activities, toys, clothing, food, and drink (Karaman, 2010). Later, Nazari et al. (2011) concluded that television commercials bear considerable influence on children's food preferences and that commercials attract children to the products or services being advertised and encourage them to purchase those products or services. Warren et al. (2008) even found that 73% of food and beverages commercials use cartoon or animated elements, while Kelly et al. (2008) observed that 25.5% of commercials for food used cartoon or animated characters and that most of those commercials were broadcast during time slots of programs for children.

The persuasive and directive power of advertisements on the purchasing behaviors of children is well acknowledged. Today, numerous marketing studies are conducted to prompt children to buy goods and services designed for them and to increase their influence on their parents' purchasing behaviors. According to Filiatrault and Ritchie (1980), children are considered profitable by marketers on three major points: their own expenditures (i.e., as primary consumers), their influence on their families' expenditure decisions (i.e., as influencers of consumers), and their comprising the future market (i.e., as future consumers). For that reason, marketers prefer designs that please both families and children in their product categories (Odabasi & Baris, 2003). For marketing studies to succeed on that point, it seems critical to understand to what extent children as consumers influence their families' decision-making processes and the purchases made in product and service categories (Kaur & Singh, 1996).

To gauge the effectiveness of television commercials are on the purchasing behaviors of children, characteristics of commercials that children prefer to watch need to be identified. To that end, I examined the characteristics of commercials watched by children in the 3–6-year age group with respect to their age and gender, for findings that should be of interest to advertisers as well as parents and educators. To do so, I sought answers to two questions:

1. Are there any gender-based differences in the type of expression, message, characters, and industry features of commercials that children prefer to watch?
2. Are there any age-based differences in the type of expression, message, characters, and industry features of commercials that children prefer to watch?

Method

Research Design

In this study the characteristics of commercials favored by children in the 3–6-year age group with respect to their age and gender was examined. In order to

achieve this, the study was organized as a survey model and cross-sectional data are collected in order to identify commercials that children in the sample preferred.

Research Sample

The researcher formed the sample by randomly selecting children in the 3–6-year age group who were attending preschools of the Ministry of Education in Erzincan, Turkey. The sample consisted of 339 children: 151 girls (44.5%) and 188 boys (55.5%). In all, 64 (18.9%) of the children were aged 3 years, 86 (25.4%) 4 years, 98 (28.9%) 5 years, and 91 (26.8%) 6 years.

Research Instrumentations and Procedures

The researcher I used individual interviews and commercial images during data collection. I first collected data during individual, 15–20-min conversations with each child, during which I initially asked three questions: “What are the commercials that you mostly watch on television?” “Which commercials do you like to watch?” and “Why do you like those commercials?” I then asked each child to draw a picture themed “The Commercial That I Like the Most” and to talk about what they had drawn. Second, I identified the commercials that children had drawn in the pictures and had the child watch the commercial online to note the type of expression, the message, the character(s) used, and the sector types.

Validity and Reliability

The researcher analyzed the characteristics of commercials according to expression, type of messages, characters, and sector. I grouped the types of expression in two categories—direct and indirect (Moses and Baldwin, 2005)—and the message type in five categories—creative, promising, possessive, entertaining, and informative (Uckun, 2006). I next grouped the character types of commercials in six categories: children only, parents or adults with children, only cartoon characters or robots or animals, cartoon characters or robots or animals with children, adults only, cartoon characters or robots or animals with adults, and famous people (Derbaix& Pecheux, 1999). Lastly, I grouped the sector types of commercials in 13 categories: clothing, toys and stationery, food, printing-publishing, cleaning, healthcare, finance, white appliances, automotive, communication and information technologies, furniture, and energy (MTM, 2012).

Data Analysis

The SPSS was used to analyse the data gathered by research instrument. First of all descriptive analysis was conducted by frequency (f) and percentage (%), as well as properties of differences of children by age and gender with chi-square analysis.

Results

Pictures drawn by children with the theme “The Commercial That I Like the Most” represented 74 different commercials, with the following descriptive information in terms of their expression, message, characters, and sector:

- 44.0% exhibited direct expression and 56.0% indirect expression;
- 5.6% exhibited informative messages, 13.9% creative messages, 17.7% promising messages, 24.2% possessive messages, and 38.6% entertaining messages;
- 26.3% exhibited only cartoon characters or robot or animals, 21.2% only children, 16.5% only famous people, 12.1% only cartoon characters or robots or animals with children, 11.8% parents or adults with children, 6.8% cartoon characters or robots or animals with adults, and 5.3% only adults; and
- 35.1% of commercials advertised products or services in the food sector, 15.0% in the toys and stationery sector, 10.6% in the cleaning sector, 9.4% in the finance sector, 8.2% in the communication and information technologies sector, 6.2% in the white appliances sector, 3.0% in the printing–publishing sector, 2.7% in the furniture sector, 2.3% in the clothing sector, 2.1% in the automotive sector, 1.8% in the healthcare sector, 1.8% in the energy sector, and 1.8% in the housing sector.

Table 1.

Results of Chi-Square Analysis between Children's Gender and the Characteristics of Commercials That They Like

Characteristics of commercials	Gender				X ²	Df	p
	Girl		Boy				
	n	%	n	%			
Type of expression							
- Direct	93	27.4	56	16.6	34.38	1	.00
- Indirect	58	17.1	132	38.9			
Type of message							
- Promising	41	12.1	19	5.6	69.63	4	.00
- Possessive	58	17.1	24	7.1			
- Creative	14	4.1	33	9.7			
- Entertaining	28	8.3	103	30.4			
- Informative	10	2.9	9	2.7			
Type of character							
- Only children	36	10.6	36	10.6	4.60	6	.60
- Parents or adults with children	13	3.8	27	8.0			
- Cartoon characters or robots or animals with children	18	5.3	23	6.8			
- Only cartoon characters or robots or animals	44	13.0	45	13.3			
- Only adults	7	2.1	11	3.2			
- Cartoon characters or robots or animals with children	10	2.9	13	3.8			
- Famous people	23	6.8	33	9.7			

Table 1 Continue

Characteristics of commercials	Gender				X^2	Df	p
	Girl		Boy				
	n	%	n	%			
Type of industry							
- Clothing	6	1.8	2	0.6	25.14	8	.00
- Toys and stationery	27	8.0	24	7.1			
- Food	53	15.6	66	19.5			
- Printing-publishing	7	2.1	3	0.9			
- Cleaning and healthcare*	25	7.4	17	5.0			
- Finance and housing*	10	2.9	28	8.3			
- White appliances and furniture*	14	4.1	16	4.7			
- Communication and informative technologies	5	1.5	23	6.8			
- Energy and automotive*	4	1.2	9	2.7			

*Some lines are combined because values <5 were calculated in 42.3% of the boxes.

Table 1 shows that girls like commercials that use direct (27.4%) expression and that boys like commercials with indirect (38.9%) expression. According to the results of chi-square analysis, there is a significant difference of .01 between the children by gender and the type of expression in the commercials that they like (Pearson's chi-square = 34.38, $p = .00$). By message types of commercials children liked, girls preferred commercials with a possessive type of message (17.1%) and boys an entertaining one (30.4%). In fact, the results of chi-square analysis reveal a significant difference of .01 between the genders of children and the message types of the commercials that they like (Pearson's chi-square = 69.63, $p = .00$) (Table 1). At the same time, by gender and the character types used in commercials that they liked, both girls and boys preferred commercials with only cartoon characters or robots or animals, only children, or famous people. According to the results of chi-square analysis, however, no significant difference emerged between the genders of the children and the types of characters used in the commercials that they like (Pearson's chi-square = 4.60, $p = .60$), as shown in Table 1. From another perspective, in terms of the difference of genders of the children and the sector types of the commercials that they liked, girls preferred commercials in the food (15.6%), toys and stationery (8.0%), cleaning and healthcare (7.4%), and white appliances and furniture (4.1%) sectors, whereas boys preferred ones in food (19.5%), finance and housing (8.3%), toys and stationery (7.1%), and communication and information technologies (6.8%) sectors. Per the results of chi-square analysis, there is a significant difference of .01 between the genders of the children and the sector types of the commercials that they liked (Pearson's chi-square = 25.14, $p = .00$), as shown in Table 1.

Table 2.

Results of Chi-Square Analysis between Children's Ages and Characteristics of Commercials That They Like

Characteristics of commercials	Age (in years)								X ²	df	p
	3		4		5		6				
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Type of expression											
- Direct	47	13.9	45	13.3	31	9.1	26	7.7	39.81	3	.00
- Indirect	17	5.0	41	12.1	67	19.8	65	19.2			
Type of message											
- Promising	16	4.7	25	7.4	13	3.8	6	1.8	36.05	12	.00
- Possessive	18	5.3	25	7.4	18	5.3	21	6.2			
- Creative	5	1.5	9	2.7	19	5.6	14	4.1			
- Entertaining	22	6.5	23	6.8	46	13.6	40	11.8			
- Informative	3	0.9	4	1.2	2	0.6	10	2.9			
Type of character											
- Only children	9	2.7	10	2.9	32	9.4	21	6.2	70.13	18	.00
- Parents or adults with children	15	4.4	17	5.0	4	1.2	4	1.2			
- Cartoon characters or robots or animals with children	13	3.8	13	3.8	9	2.7	6	1.8			
- Only cartoon characters or robots or animals	19	5.6	30	8.8	20	5.9	20	5.9			
- Only adults	4	1.2	4	1.2	6	1.8	4	1.2			
- Cartoon characters or robots or animals with children	2	0.6	6	1.8	6	1.8	9	2.7			
- Famous people	2	0.6	6	1.8	21	6.2	27	8.0			
Type of industry											
- Food	14	4.1	28	8.3	36	10.6	31	9.1	48.51	18	.00
- Toys and stationery	17	5.0	12	3.5	14	4.1	6	1.8			
- Cleaning, healthcare, and clothing*	17	5.0	20	5.9	10	2.9	7	2.1			
- Finance and housing*	4	1.2	4	1.2	16	4.7	15	4.4			
- Printing-publishing and communication and informative technologies*	4	1.2	7	2.1	9	2.7	20	5.9			
- White appliances and furniture*	4	1.2	9	2.7	9	2.7	8	2.4			
- Energy and automotive*	4	1.2	6	1.8	4	1.2	4	1.2			

*Some lines are combined because values <5 were calculated in 55.8% of the boxes.

As Table 2 shows, children aged 3 and 4 years liked commercials with direct expression, whereas children aged 5 and 6 years liked ones with indirect expression. According to the results of chi-square analysis, there is a significant difference of .01 between the ages of children and the types of expression of the commercials that they liked (Pearson's chi-square = 39.81, $p = 0.00$). Regarding the difference between the children's ages and the types of message of commercials that they liked, children aged 3 and 4 years liked commercials with an entertaining, possessive, or promising message, while children aged 5 and 6 liked commercials with an entertaining, creative, or possessive message. Per the results of chi-square analysis, a significant difference of .01 characterizes the relationship of children's ages and commercials that they like by message type (Pearson's chi-square = 36.05, $p = .00$), as illustrated in Table 2. At the same time, concerning the difference between the children's ages and the character types in the commercials that they liked, children aged 3 and 4 years preferred commercials with cartoon characters or robots or animals only, parents or adults with children, or cartoon characters or robots or animals with children, whereas children aged 5 and 6 years liked commercials with children only, famous people, or cartoon characters or robots or animals only. According to the results of chi-square analysis, there is a significant difference of .01 between the ages of children and the types of characters used in the commercials that they like (Pearson's chi-square = 70.13, $p = .00$), as shown in Table 2. In regard to the difference between the ages of the children and the sector types of the commercials that they liked, children aged 3 and 4 years liked commercials in the toys and stationery, food, cleaning and healthcare, and clothing sectors; children aged 5 years liked commercials in the food, toys and stationery, and housing and finance sectors; and children aged 6 years liked commercials in the food, communication and information technologies, printing-publishing, and housing and finance sectors. Per the results of chi-square analysis, there is a significant difference of .01 between the ages of the children and the sector types of the commercials that they liked (Pearson's chi-square = 48.51, $p = .00$), as shown in Table 2.

Discussion and Conclusion

By type of expression in commercials that children liked in respect to their gender, girls liked commercials with direct expression and boys ones with indirect expression (Table 1). That result suggests that girls focus more on products in commercials and boys focus more on brand names. Additionally, by type of expression in commercials that children liked in terms of their age, children aged 3 and 4 years liked commercials with direct expression and children aged 5 and 6 years ones with indirect expression (Table 2). That result suggests that as children age, the brand name of a product becomes more important. According to Chan and McNeal (2006) and Joseph and Ahmad (2015), age is indeed an important criterion of children's comprehension of commercials.

By message type of commercials that children liked with respect to gender, girls liked commercials with a possessive type of message and boys ones with an

entertaining type (Table 1). Commercials with informative messages were not favored by either girls or boys. According to Chan (2000), commercials with entertaining aspects are crucial to brand recognition, even among very young children. Commercials activate various impulses in human nature (e.g., possessiveness and appeal to music) and thereby spur motivation for buying (Fransen et al., 2015; Hee et al., 2014). As the results showed, the message type of commercials favored by children can change according to the child's gender. In fact, concerning those message types in respect to children's age, children aged 3 and 4 years liked commercials with an entertaining, possessive, or promising message, whereas children aged 5 and 6 years preferred commercials with an entertaining, possessive, or creative message (Table 2). As Pine and Nash (2002) have pointed out, commercials help small children to have more fun and gather information.

Concerning the character types used in the commercials that children liked with respect to their gender, both girls and boys liked commercials with cartoon characters or robots or animals only, with children only, or with famous people (Table 1). When the characters represented personalities known and favored by children in commercials targeting children, children felt closer to the product, accepted it more easily, and had a greater desire to buy it. Commercials that use such characters in interesting scenes usually have the desired effect on children. Promoting goods or services in commercials to prime child consumers by using characters known and favored by them is a common sales-enhancing effort in marketing. Using cartoon or animated characters liked by children when promoting a product in commercials targeting children is also a common practice. Ocel (2002) reports that using the animated characters that have been played with as toys is also an important marketing strategy. Asci (2006) showed that television cartoon and animated characters affected the consumer behaviors of children living in various districts by making them want to buy or have their parents buy the products promoted by the characters in commercials. Later, Karaca et al. (2007) stated that children watch mostly commercials that include cartoon or animated characters. Regarding the character types in the commercials that children liked with respect to their genders, children aged 3–4 years liked commercials with cartoon characters or robots or animals only, parents or adults with children, and cartoon characters or robots or animals with children, whereas children aged 5–6 liked commercials with children only, famous people, and cartoon characters or robots or animals only (Table 2). In an earlier study, Ocel (2002) found that children are most influenced by child characters. Using celebrities that children like in commercials is another factor that makes commercials enjoyable to children, and employing famous people in ads creates a sense of admiration in child consumers. Commercials that use a famous person liked by children also affects children's consumption behavior (Temel & Yeygel, 2005), and in general, the influence of advertising on children affects their later purchasing behavior (Calvert, 2008; Hameed et al., 2014).

Regarding the sector types of commercials that children liked with respect to their gender, girls preferred commercials in the food, toys and stationery, cleaning, and white appliances and furniture sectors, whereas boys preferred commercials in

the food, finance and housing, toys and stationery, and communication and information technologies sectors (Table 1). Both boys and girls liked commercials in the food and toys and stationery sectors; however, that girls liked commercials in the cleaning and white appliances and furniture sectors and boys those in the finance and housing and communication and information technologies sectors suggests a possible difference between the genders. At the same time, concerning the sector types of commercials that children liked with respect to their age, children aged 3–4 years liked commercials in the toys and stationery, food and cleaning, healthcare, and clothing sectors; children aged 5 years liked commercials in the food, finance and housing, and toys and stationery sectors; and children aged 6 years liked commercials in the food, communication and information technologies, printing–publishing, and the finance and housing sectors (Table 2). Such results underscore that when children’s interests and needs change as they grow, the sector type of the commercials that they like is also liable to change. Similarly, Karaca et al. (2007) stated that children aged 4–13 years are influenced mostly by food and toy commercials. Moreover, Mittal et al. (2010) found that according to their families, the commercials that their children liked most were chocolate and chips commercials.

All results show that the expression, message, character, and sector aspects of commercials favored by children aged 3–6 years can have different characteristics according to their age and gender. Considering that commercials have effects first on children’s own expenditure, then on their families’ expenditure decisions, and later, on their future consumption behaviors, I believe that the results can inform advertisers, as well as parents and educators. Moreover, a longitudinal study of this research could be developed that examines the effects of different variables concerning children and their families (e.g., by socioeconomic level) on various groups (e.g., rural residents versus city dwellers). In that way, researchers can explore whether the commercials that children like will affect their future consumption preferences.

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3-6 Yaş Çocukların Reklam İzleme Tercihleri

Atıf:

- Kilicgun Yurtsever, M. (2016). Television commercial preferences of children aged 3-6 years. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 165-180. doi:10.14689/ejer.2016.65.10

Özet

Problem Durumu: Çocuklar televizyon izlerken, genel amacı bir mal ya da hizmetle ilgili bir izlenim yaratmak ve satış sağlamak olan televizyon reklamlarına maruz kalmaktadırlar. Sesli ve hareketli görüntüleri, kurgu ve karakterleri, kısa süreli ve tekrarlı oluşları nedeniyle televizyon reklamları; çok küçük yaşlardan itibaren çocukların ilgisini çekmektedir. Yapılan araştırmalar çocukların televizyon izleme özelliklerinin yetişkinlerden farklı olduğunu göstermektedir. Örneğin çocuklar yetişkinlere göre reklamları izlemekten iki kat daha fazla keyif almakta ve kendilerine yönelik olmayan reklamlarda bile daha fazla ayrıntıyı anımsamaktadır.

Çocuklar kendi harcamaları, ailelerinin harcama kararları üzerindeki etkileri ve geleceğin tüketicileri olmaları sebebiyle; pazarlamacılar için önemli bir hedef kitledir. Televizyon reklamlarının pek çoğunda çocukların ilgisini çekebilecek unsurlara yer verilerek, çocukların satın alma davranışları etkilenmeye çalışılmaktadır. Günümüzde çocukların gerek kendilerine yönelik ürünleri/hizmetleri satın almaya yönlendirilmesi, gerekse ebeveynlerinin satın alma davranışlarında etkinliklerinin

artması için sayısız pazarlama çalışması yapılmaktadır. Bu noktada yapılan pazarlama çalışmalarının başarılı olabilmesi için tüketiciler olarak çocukların, ailelerin karar mekanizmalarını üzerinde ve hangi ürün/hizmet kategorisinin satın alınmasında ne oranda etkili olduklarını anlaşılması zorunlu görünmektedir. Televizyon reklamlarının çocukların satın alma davranışında ne oranda etkili olduklarını belirleyebilmek için çocukların izlemeyi tercih ettikleri reklamların özelliklerinin belirlenmesi gerekmektedir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu çalışmada yaş ve cinsiyetlerine göre çocukların izledikleri reklamların; anlatım, mesaj, karakter ve sektör özelliklerinin incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Araştırma tarama modelinde uygun olarak düzenlenmiştir. Araştırma verileri, araştırmacı tarafından her bir çocuk ile ayrı ayrı 15-20 dakika süren görüşmeler sonucunda toplanmıştır. Görüşme sırasında çocuklara ilk olarak "Televizyonda en çok izlediğin reklam/reklamlar hangisi?" sorusu sorulmuş ve ardından "Hangi reklam/reklamları izlemekten hoşlanıyorsun?" ve "Neden en çok bu reklam/reklamları seviyorsun?" sorularını yanıtlamaları istenmiştir. Daha sonra çocuklardan "En Sevdiğim Reklam" konulu bir resim çizmeleri ve çizdikleri resimdeki reklamı anlatmaları istenmiştir. Çocuklarla yapılan görüşmeler sonrasında çocukların resimlerdeki reklamlar internet ortamından izlenilerek reklamların anlatım, mesaj, karakter ve sektör özellikleri belirlenmiştir. Araştırma kapsamında reklamların anlatım türleri; "doğrudan" ve "dolaylı" anlatım olmak üzere 2 alt başlıkta toplanmıştır. Reklamların mesaj türleri; "vaatte bulunma", "sahip olma", "yaratıcı olma", "eğlendirme" ve "bilgilendirme" olmak üzere 5 alt başlıkta toplanmıştır. Reklamların karakter türleri; "sadece çocuk", "çocukla birlikte ebeveyn/yetişkin", "çocukla birlikte çizgi karakter/robot/hayvan", "sadece çizgi karakter/robot/hayvan", "sadece yetişkin", "yetişkinle birlikte çizgi kahraman/robot/hayvan" ve "ünlü kişiler" olmak üzere 6 alt başlıkta toplanmıştır. Reklamların sektör türleri ise; "giyim", "oyuncak ve kırtasiye", "gıda", "basım-yayım", "temizlik", "sağlık", "konut", "finans", "beyaz eşya", "otomotiv", "iletişim ve bilişim teknolojileri", "mobilya" ve "enerji" olmak üzere 13 alt başlıkta toplanmıştır.

Araştırmanın örnekleme 151 kız ve 188 erkek olmak üzere 339 çocuk yer almıştır. Bu çocukların 64'ü üç, 86'sı dört, 98'i beş ve 91'i altı yaş grubu çocuklardır. Çocukların yaşına ve cinsiyetine göre reklam özellikleri arasında anlamlı bir farkın olup olmadığının belirlenmesinde ki-kare analizi kullanılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Çocukların "En sevdiğim reklam" konulu resimleri incelendiğinde, 74 farklı reklamın yer aldığı görülmüştür. Bu reklamların %44.0'ü "doğrudan", %56.0'sı ise "dolaylı" anlatım türünde hazırlanmıştır. Reklamların %5.6'sında "bilgilendirme", %13.9'unda "yaratıcı olma", %17.7'sinde "vaatte bulunma", %24.2'sinde "sahip olma" ve %38.6'sında "eğlendirme" türünde mesajlar verilmektedir. Reklamların %26.3'ünde "sadece çizgi karakter/robot/hayvan", %21.2'sinde "sadece çocuk", %16.5'inde "ünlü kişiler", %12.1'inde "çocukla birlikte çizgi karakter/robot/hayvan", %11.8'inde "çocukla birlikte ebeveyn/yetişkin",

%6.8'inde "yetişkinle birlikte çizgi kahraman/robot/hayvan" ve %5.3'ünde "sadece yetişkin" karakterleri yer almaktadır. Reklamların %35.1'i "gıda", %15.0'i "oyuncak ve kırtasiye", %10.6'sı "temizlik", %9.4'ü "finans", %8.2'si "iletişim ve bilişim teknolojileri", %6.2'si beyaz eşya", %3.0'ü "basım-yayım", %2.7'si "mobilya", %2.3'ü "giyim", %2.1'i "otomotiv", %1.8'i "sağlık", %1.8'i "enerji" ve %1.8'i "konut" sektörlerinde hazırlanmıştır. Çocukların cinsiyetleri ve yaşları ile sevdikleri reklamların anlatım, mesaj ve sektör türleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğu görülmüştür. Çocukların cinsiyetleri ile sevdikleri reklamların karakter türleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmazken; çocukların yaşları ile sevdikleri reklamların karakter türleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğu belirlenmiştir. Araştırmanın diğer önemli bulguları ise şöyledir: (1) Kız çocukları en çok doğrudan, erkek çocukları en çok dolaylı anlatımın kullanıldığı reklamları tercih etmektedir. (2) Sahip olma türünde mesajlar içeren reklamlar en çok kız çocukları; eğlendirme türünde mesajlar içeren reklamlar en çok erkek çocukları tarafından tercih edilmektedir. (3) Gıda sektörüne yönelik reklamlar ise hem kız hem de erkek çocukları tarafından tercih edilmektedir. (4) Hem kız hem de erkek çocukları ilk üç sırada çizgi karakter/robot/hayvan, çocuk ve ünlü kişilerin yer aldığı reklamları tercih etmektedirler. (5) 3 ve 4 yaş çocukları doğrudan, 5 ve 6 yaş çocukların ise dolaylı anlatımın kullanıldığı reklamları tercih etmektedirler. (6) 3 ve 4 yaş çocukları ilk üç sırada en çok eğlendirme, sahip olma ve vaatle bulunma; 5 ve 6 yaş çocukların eğlendirme, yaratıcı olma ve sahip olma mesajlarını içeren reklamları tercih etmektedir. (7) 3 çocukları en çok oyuncak, kırtasiye, temizlik, sağlık ve giyim; 4, 5 ve 6 yaş çocukları en çok gıda sektöründeki reklamları tercih etmektedir. (8) 3 ve 4 yaş çocukları en çok çizgi karakter/robot/hayvan, 5 ve 6 yaş çocukları ise en çok çocuk figürünün kullanıldığı reklamları tercih etmektedir.

Araştırmanın Sonuç ve Önerileri: Araştırmadan elde edilen tüm bu bulgular, 3-6 yaş çocukların sevdikleri reklamların anlatım, mesaj, karakter ve sektör özelliklerinin çocukların yaş ve cinsiyetlerine göre farklı özelliklere sahip olabileceğini göstermektedir. Televizyon reklamlarının başlangıçta çocukların kendi harcamaları ve ailelerinin harcama kararları üzerinde etkileri olduğu düşünüldüğünde; bu bulguların ebeveynler ve eğitimciler kadar reklamcılarının da ilgisini çekeceğini düşünülmektedir. Benzer şekilde televizyon reklamlarının gelecekte çocukların tüketim davranışlarını şekillendirebileceği düşünüldüğünde; araştırma boylamsal planlanabilir. Böylece çocukların sevdikleri reklamların özelliklerine bağlı olarak onların gelecekteki tüketim tercihleri üzerinde etkisi olup olmadığı incelenebilir. Ayrıca araştırma farklı örneklem grupları üzerinde (örneğin kırsal - kentsel yaşam) çocuğa ve aileye ait farklı değişkenlerin (örneğin sosyo-ekonomik düzey gibi) etkisine bakılabilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Çocukluk, reklam tercihleri, reklam özellikleri, yaş, cinsiyet.

Perception of Peace in Students' Drawings*

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Societies are facing several kinds of problems in the world today as chaos among the countries, conflicts between different groups, wars and diseases. It can be claimed that solving these problems is impossible unless societies care about humanistic cooperation, tolerance and peace. Individuals required developing fundamental values as peace, love, respect, tolerance, etc. to be an active and responsible citizen of a democratic society. Peace education can be a part of school program to develop positive peace understanding in students. Students' perception regarding the world can be seen in their drawings. Therefore, it is important to reveal students' perception about peace through their drawings.

Purpose of the Study: This study aims to investigate fifth grade students' perception of peace through their drawings. In direction of this main purpose, the answers of the questions have been looked for "How do the students reflect their perception of peace in their drawings?" and "How do the students reflect their perception of peace in written opinions?"

Method: Phenomenological design was used in this study. The participants of the study were a total of 23 students who attended the fifth grade at a primary school in 2011-2012 spring term in Eskisehir. Data of the study were gathered by students' drawings, semi-structured interviews and students' writings. Inductive analysis was used in the study.

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Findings: Findings of the study showed that students emphasized peace in parents, interpersonal peace, and peace among countries in their drawings. Moreover, they drew peace in sports and nature, and they reflect peace with symbols to their drawings. Students conceptually defined peace as avoiding fight and war, agreement and friendship in their written opinions. Additionally, students compared peace to the dove, bird, butterfly, rope, family, friends, siblings, earth, world and Turkey in their written opinions.

Conclusion and Recommendations: The results of this study reveal that students used some statements in terms of positive peace in their written opinions as agreement and friendship, developing universal values. However, they described peace as a negative peace in their drawings. Suggestions were offered on the basis of the results of the study to develop students' perception about positive peace. For instance, interdisciplinary activities can be organized to develop a positive perception of peace for students. Informative seminars can be organized for teachers, pre-service teachers and parents about peace education. Moreover, applied research can be designed to develop a positive perception of peace for students.

Keywords: Peace, peace education, students' drawings, phenomenology, metaphor.

Introduction

Societies require their citizens be respectful to others, understand each other, contribute to the production for the society, and protect cultural values. Therefore, individuals need to develop values as peace, love, respect, tolerance, equality, and skills as empathy, effective communication, conflict resolution, cooperation, and problem solving. Individuals who gained that values and skills can serve their society for modern and peaceful life. Thus, societies aim at training their citizens through these values and skills. Peace is one of these values which is aimed to create with other values as freedom, equity, and justice.

Peace is an international symbol which includes positive characteristics adopted by humanity. Peace is the fundamental requirement for the survival of human, and generations, and development of nations (Baltork, Mansoori and Azad, 2015; Bar-Tal 2002). "Peace may be defined as the absence of war or violence in a mutually beneficial, harmonious relationship between relevant parties" (Johnson and Johnson, 2006:147). When definitions of peace reviewed in the literature, two features seem to be significant in terms of the literature. First feature of the peace is social dimension, and second one is that peace is accepted in all cultures in the same way (Fogarty 1992 in Asal 2013, p.3). Peace is conceived in two dimensions as positive peace and negative peace. Positive peace means resolving disagreements without violence and including social justice. Negative peace associates peace with the absence of war, the absence of war activities or a decline in conflict (Galtung, 1969; 1996 in Sagkal et al. 2012). It can be claimed that negative peace points out absence of violence, while

positive peace deals with the absence of structural violence often the outcome of social injustices.

Peace is not only a cultural element for societies but also a value for individuals. Thus, peace needs to be internalized and practiced by people in the society. Peace culture can be created by these people in a democratic society (Sezer, 2013). Peace culture supports a creative balance between dependence of people, social proximity, and necessities of freedom. Also, peace culture can be defined as a mosaic of different personalities, attitudes, values, and beliefs. Peace includes harmony of individuals with each other and nature, dealing with differences, and sharing resources in justice (Erkman, 2012).

Peace culture can be created through conducting peace education programs at schools. Moreover, peace education is important to develop positive peace understanding in students. Specific skills and values need to be acquired to children beginning at early ages to provide sustainable peace education at schools (Sağkal et al. 2012). Peace education is one of the fundamental elements of qualified basic education. Peace education should be compulsory task of the schools, because school is a social institute which can supply necessary conditions and resources for peace education. Moreover, school years include the most appropriate term for children when they are strongly open to learning new information and develop various skills (Fountain, 1999; Bar-Tal and Rosen, 2009). Goals of peace education are tried to be achieved via peace education programs, extracurricular activities, textbooks, novels, and various teaching materials at schools. Students learn to solve problems which may cause to violence through peace education (Aslan et al. 2016; Bar-Tal, 2002; De Paul, 2010).

Peace education is included in various courses at schools one of which is the social studies course. Social studies looks for understanding and evaluating nature of the citizenship and different characteristics of societies from local level to the universal (Schmidt, 2007). One of the values which should be taught in the social studies is peace with the other knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values regarding citizenship education (MEB, 2005). Social studies especially play an important role in training active citizens. It helps students develop some skills as communication, cooperation, problem solving, and conflict resolution. Therefore, it can be said that social studies is one of the most suitable course for peace education. Apart from this, peace education is delivered through special programs at schools. Peace education is realized both in other courses and separate programs to create a peace culture.

Peace education is one of the circumstances both intercultural and interreligious learning as well as human rights. Peace education has important components as intercultural learning, interreligious learning, and human rights education (Kenan, 2005). Peace education is a multi-dimensional process which includes listening, reflection, problem solving, cooperation, and conflict resolution skills, necessary information, attitudes, skills, and values to live in a safe world. Peace education shows students negative effects of violence to develop non-violent forms of conflict-solving skills. Furthermore, it helps them choose peace when they faced with a

conflict (Harris and Morrison, 2003). This education aims to develop skills that prevents bad consequences of misunderstandings (Bedir, 2008). Peace education has steps as: to prepare a public education involving different members of the community; provide a mutual and positive dependence for a peaceful society, develop necessary competencies and attitudes for cooperation in students; teach students decision making skills; teach them how to be a mediator and reach a compromise; and teach citizenship values (Johnson and Johnson, 2006). Peace education help students develop empathy and conflict resolution skills, be aware of prejudices and have knowledge of self, avoid discrimination, respect to individuals, nature, think critically, listen actively, and control anger (Mardin, 2012).

It is seen that peace education studies deal with various subjects in the literature. There are some studies that examine effect and role of peace education on developing conflict resolution skills (Johnson and Johnson, 2006; Tapan, 2006). Moreover some other studies focus on effect of peace education on aggressive behaviors, violence tendencies and social problem solving skills, empathy, social and emotional learning, opinions and attitudes towards peace, and perception of peace (Shapiro et al. 2002; Biaggio et al. 2004; Spears, 2004; Rosen and Salomon, 2009; Sađkal, 2011, Topçu Kabasakal et al. 2015). Additionally, studies addressing gender differences in peace education are also seen in the literature (Yablon, 2009). However, there is not any study found aimed at investigating perception of students' about peace. It can be claimed that students reflect their understanding regarding the world to their drawings (Belet and Türkkan, 2007). Therefore, it is important to reveal students' perception about peace through their drawings.

The main purpose of this study is to investigate perceptions of fifth grade students about peace through their drawings. In direction of this main purpose, the answers of the following questions have been looked for:

1. How do the students reflect their perception of peace in their drawings?
2. How do the students reflect their perception of peace in written opinions?

Method

Research Design

Phenomenological design was used in this qualitative study. Phenomenological design aims to reveal and interpret individual perceptions related to a specific phenomenon (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005). In the present study, the students' perceptions of peace were analyzed through the pictures they drew about the peace, their explanations during the semi-structured interviews about the pictures, and their written opinions.

Research Sample

The study group included a total of 23 students, of whom 11 were male and 12 were female from a primary school in 2011-2012, spring term in the central city of

Eskişehir. The criteria determined by the researchers included a variety of socio-economic backgrounds of students, and absence of a peace education program in the school which may affect students' perceptions about peace to select the primary school for the study. This information was gathered through an interview with the primary school principal.

Research Instrument and Procedure

Data of the study were collected via different data collection tools. These were explained in this section.

Students' written opinions. Students were given a form consisted of two open-ended questions in the study. Students were asked "What does peace mean to you?" and "Peace is like Because....." in the form. It is explained that there were no right or wrong answers of the questions. The participants were given one class-hour (roughly 45 minutes) to write about a metaphorical image and researchers were stayed at the class during this process.

Students' drawings. Students were given a piece of drawing paper and asked to draw a picture which reflect their emotions and opinions about peace. Students drew pictures with their own crayons on drawing papers. Students were given one class-hour (roughly 45 minutes) to draw their pictures. Students wrote their names and surnames on the back of drawing paper. Researchers were stayed at the class during this process.

Semi-structured interviews. After students completed their pictures semi structured interviews were done to investigate their emotions and opinions they reflected in their drawings. Both of two researchers conducted interviews. Interviews were recorded on tape.

Data Analysis

Inductive analysis was used in the study. Inductive analysis helps discover patterns in the context of the study (Patton 2002). Main aim of inductive analysis is to get concepts and relations which can explain the gathered data. Steps of inductive analysis can be listed as coding the data, defining themes, organizing and identifying themes according to the codes, and interpreting findings (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005).

Initially, data obtained from students' drawings and interviews were coded and themes were formed by integrating related codes. For instance, a picture which described a group of fish which were supporting different football teams, were watching a football match was classified under the theme of peace in sports. Additionally, data obtained from open-ended questions were analyzed in the same way. For example, students' comparisons regarding peace were categorized under the theme of symbolic peace.

Validity and Reliability

After this step, coding data were reviewed to see if the data were matched with the right categories. Then, drawings and written opinions of students which were

placed under the themes were related and interpreted by the researchers. Also, a field expert participated in the analysis process with two researchers. Different data collection tools were used in order to strengthen validity. The analyses were done by two different researchers for reliability of the study. Firstly, researchers independently formed themes. Then they compared their thoughts and reached an agreement on the points they had differing thoughts about. Students were assigned code names and their code names were used to cite their written and verbal views in the findings section. Students' drawings were presented under related themes.

Results

Findings of the study are presented in this section. Two main titles are included in the findings section. These titles are defined as "findings regarding perception of peace in students' drawings" and "findings regarding perception of peace in students' written opinions".

Findings Regarding Perception of Peace in Students' Drawings

Six themes were identified in the analysis of the peace drawings: peace in sports, peace in parents, peace in nature, peace symbols, interpersonal peace, and peace between countries. The themes and sub-themes related to perception of peace in the students' drawings were presented in Figure 1.

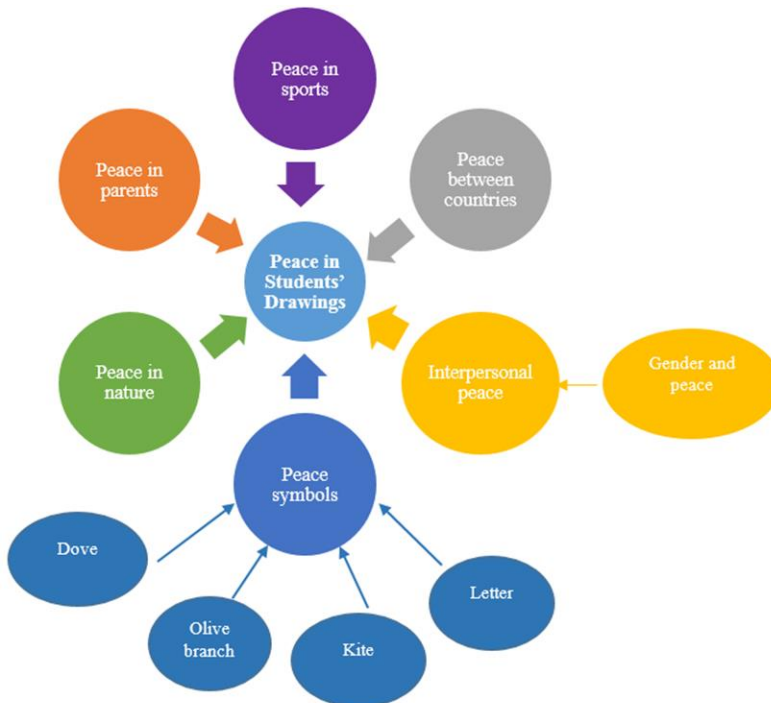


Figure 1. Perception of peace in the students' drawings

Peace in sports. One of the themes students focus on their drawings was peace in sports. In the scope of this theme Hakan described his drawing of peace in this way: "I drew fish for describing peace. They are watching television under the sea. Although they support different teams, they are watching the football match together. They are not fighting, they are watching in friendship" (Fig. 2). Violence in sport is not new and has been an issue that sporting organizations and governments in all over the world have been trying to manage for many years. It can be claimed that students focused on violence in sport and they tried to solve these conflicts through peace in sports.

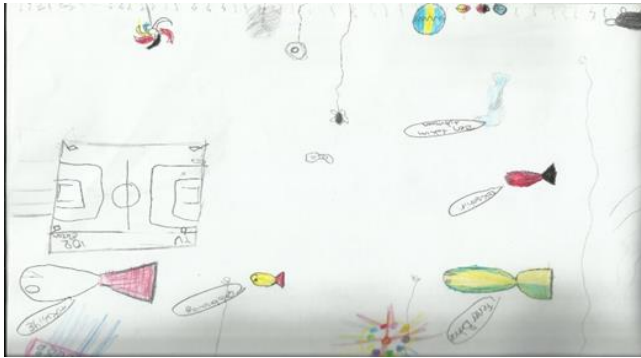


Figure 2

Peace among countries. Another theme in the students' peace drawings was peace among countries. The following description by Aras epitomizes this finding: "I want to create peace not only on an individual level but also among groups and nations in my drawing" (Fig. 3). According to Aylin, "There are two children on the world. One of them who is smiling lives in a country where there is peace. Sun is happy there and smiling. But the other one live in a country where there is war. People are fighting, she is feeling unhappy and feared" (Fig. 4). Students believed that children and all of the people can be happy only in an environment where peace was created among countries. According to the students conflicts among countries and negative aspects of war were the major issues that should be considered to explain necessity of peace.



Figure 3



Figure 4

Peace symbols. Students used peace symbols as dove, olive branch, kite and letter in their drawings. When a female student named Emel described doves in her picture, she emphasized power of dove as a peace symbol. She stated, "I drew doves in my picture because doves are representing peace. Doves would give letters to each other for peace" (Fig. 5). Another student Beren also used doves to describe peace in her drawings. She explained her drawing as "I drew a dove in my picture which was released at a treaty. The dove flied after the treaty and became free"(Fig. 6). Inci identified peace with kites in her drawing. She stated "Kites are free, they can go everywhere in the sky. Children are flying kites in peace my picture. Both of them are free" (Fig.7). According to findings it can be said that students generally used well known peace symbols in their drawings. They think that they can describe peace easily using these symbols which can be understood by everyone.



Figure 5



Figure 6



Figure 7

Peace in nature. Students described peace using examples from nature in their drawings. They indicated that animals live in peace in the nature. For instance, Sedef described her drawing as "I wanted to present beauty of nature in my picture. I drew animals playing games friendly. They did not fight each other. I made them in groups because I wanted to show their friendship" (Fig. 8). It can be claimed that balance and beauty of nature reminds peace to students. Also, they think that living things create peace to be able to live together in the nature.



Figure 8

Peace in parents. The other theme identified in the children's peace drawings was peace in parents. For example, Oya described her peace drawing as "I drew my mother because my mother treats me very thoughtful, and respectful. She shares

everything with me and protects me. I remember my mother when I am asked about peace.” (Fig. 9). It can be claimed that peace in parents is one of the main indicators of peace for students. Being thoughtful and empathetic, respectful are necessary behaviors for peace in parents.

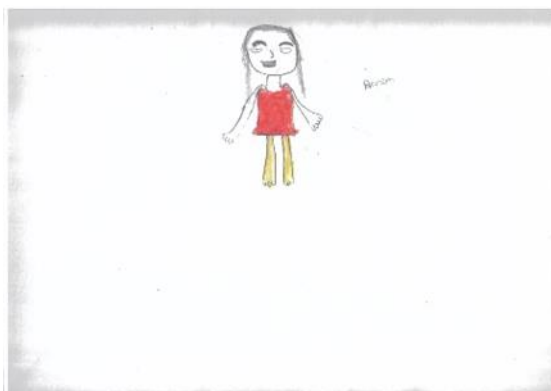


Figure 9

Interpersonal peace. Selin, a 12 year old girl, would like to present relationship between gender and peace. She, describing the figures in her drawing, said: “I would like to explain peace between a girl and boy. Generally, boys are not friendly. They do not treat each other with tolerance. They have always fight each other. I want them behave in a peaceful manner and I drew a boy and girl walking hand in hand” (Fig. 10). Students’ perception regarding interpersonal peace can be explained with importance of peace in the community life. Peace in parents and among people may help live in a peaceful society.



Figure 10.

Findings Regarding Perception of Peace in Students' Written Opinions

Two themes were identified in the analysis of the students' written opinions: definition of peace and peace metaphors. The themes and subthemes related to perception of peace in the students' written opinions were presented in Figure 11.

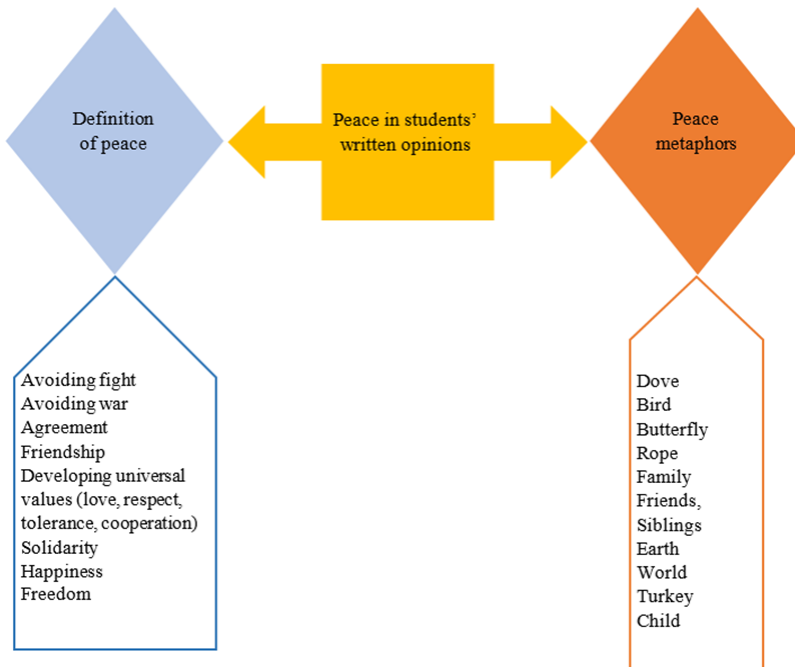


Figure 11. Perception of peace in students' written opinions

Definition of peace. As seen in Figure 11, students identified peace as avoiding fight and war, agreement and friendship, developing universal values (love, respect, tolerance, cooperation etc.), solidarity, happiness and freedom in their written opinions. Sedef described peace as avoiding fight and she claimed, "I think peace is getting along well with people. Peace is avoiding fight". Also, Ela stated "Peace is avoiding war. Peace requires integration and cooperation of all humanity". Berk defined peace as agreement. He said that "Peace is agreement of people. People reach consensus in the peace". Naz described peace as friendship. She stated, "I think peace is established based on friendship. People behave each other in a good manner in a peaceful environment". It can be claimed that students generally identified peace in terms of negative peace, avoiding war or fight or negative situations. On the other hand, they used some explanations as agreement and friendship, developing universal values regarding the positive peace.

Peace metaphors. Students used peace metaphors as dove, bird, butterfly, rope, family, friends, siblings, earth, world, Turkey and child in their written opinions. One of the student Sedef compared peace to a bird. She stated, "Peace is like a bird. Because birds fly free, and peace gives us freedom". Another student Ela used butterfly as a peace metaphor. She explained her views as "Peace is like a butterfly. Because butterflies are free, they can go wherever they want. Also, they are symbols of the peace". It can be said that freedom is the key characteristic that students emphasized in their metaphors regarding the peace.

Discussion and Conclusion

Findings of the study showed that students emphasized peace in parents, interpersonal peace, and peace among countries in their drawings. Moreover, they drew peace in sport and nature, and they reflect peace with symbols to their drawings. In the literature, peace education is defined as "teaching individuals the information, attitudes, values, and behavioral competencies to resolve conflicts without violence and build and maintain mutually beneficial, harmonious relationships" (Johnson and Johnson, 2005). Also, objectives of peace education are expressed as maintaining peace among individuals, groups, countries, societies and cultures. It can be said that students' perceptions of peace are supported with definitions and information from the literature.

Peace in sport is one of the important themes which was found in students' drawings. Sezer (2013) indicated that sporting events are one of the places where violence mostly occurs. Sometimes it occurs between athletes or spectators. However, Sezer (2013) stated that sport is one of the fields which can contribute to the world peace. Also, sport helps people develop friendship with others in a peaceful way (Shahid, 2015). So it is not a surprise that students deal with peace in sports when they are asked about peace. Additionally, games help children acquire values (Aypay, 2016) and contribute to the peace education. Therefore, it can be claimed that sports and games are significant indicators of peace education process.

In this study, students explained peace in nature telling friendship between animals in the nature. However, in the literature peace education and environment education support the development of particular values and behaviors to take personal responsibility for use of natural resources, and connection with the environment (Bajaj and Chiu, 2009). It can be claimed that environment education is one of the dimensions of peace education. Students' adequacy of environment education can effect perception of peace in positive way. Students' perceived peace among countries as absence of war. Similarly, in Demir's (2011) study participants emphasized absence of violence regarding global peace. It can be said that students' perception of international peace generally consisted on absence of war. This perception can be related with negative peace. Therefore, it can be claimed that positive peace education is important in terms of supporting global peace studies.

Students drew pictures about relationship between gender and peace in interpersonal peace theme. Findings of Brock-Utne's (2009) study and Yablon's (2009) study show that when compared with females, male students have a tendency to be violent towards others. In this study, female students indicated that male students had much more fight each other and they should overcome these misbehaviors to maintain peace among genders.

The present study revealed that students perceive peace as a negative peace or absence of war. Also, they included interpersonal peace, friendship and symbolic statements in their drawings. Fifty-six children were asked to draw a picture of peace and a picture of war in Walker et al.'s (2003) study. Two major themes, peace as interpersonal interactions and peace as negative peace, emerged from the qualitative analysis. Students mostly focused on interpersonal interactions in the scope of peace in their drawings. They drew pictures about being friends, shaking or holding hands, and giving to or helping another or playing together. Results Walker et al.'s (2003) study support findings of this study.

Students mostly conceived peace as positive peace in their written opinions. They did not only indicate avoiding war or fight but also they explained their thoughts with international values. Students used peace metaphors as dove, bird, butterfly, rope, family, friends, siblings, earth, world, Turkey and child in their written opinions.

Findings of this study revealed that students mentioned about interpersonal peace, international values related peace when they were asked about peace. These findings were similar to findings of Taşdemir's (2012) study. Findings of his study showed that students described peace through international values. Similarly, primary school students mentioned relationship between love, respect to others' views, and agreement with peace in Bedir and Demir's (2012) study. Happiness, friendship, tolerance, Atatürk, flowers, and emotions were the other concepts which students related with peace. Values are seen as one of the basic elements of peace in this study. Moreover, in Demir's (2011) study, teachers defined peace related with love, respect, absence of violence, tolerance, solidarity, trust, and harmony. It can be claimed that students' perception of peace had similar points with the other definitions made by students and teachers in the literature.

Results of the study revealed that students used definitions as avoiding fight and war, agreement and friendship for explaining peace conceptually. They compared peace to the dove, bird, butterfly, rope, family, friends, siblings, earth, world and Turkey in their written opinions. In the study, it is seen that peace symbols which students used in their drawings support their peace metaphors. It can be said that students express their perception of peace with specific symbols.

Findings of this study show that students used some statements in terms of positive peace in their written opinions as agreement and friendship, developing universal values. However, they described peace as a negative peace in their drawings. It can be suggested that a systematic peace education may be beneficial to develop positive peace perception of students.

Regarding the findings of the study following suggestions can be offered:

- Findings of the study show that mostly negative peace perceptions were seen in students' drawings. Therefore, interdisciplinary activities can be organized to develop a positive perception of peace for students.
- Students mentioned about some values as love, respect, and tolerance to define peace in their written statements. Students need to acquire knowledge and skills which help them reflect their values. For this purpose, as well as these values, knowledge and skills regarding peace education can be emphasized much more in teaching programs.
- Peace education begins at very early ages. Then, it continues in schools with educational programs. Parents and teachers play significant role in peace education. Informative seminars can be organized for teachers, pre-service teachers and parents about peace education.
- Students' perceptions of peace were investigated in this study. Applied research can be designed to develop a positive perception of peace for students.

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Öğrencilerin Resimlerinde Barış Algısı

Atıf:

- Cengelci Kose, T. & Gurdogan Bayir, O. (2016). Perception of peace in students' drawings. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 181-198
10.14689/ejer.2016.65.11

Özet

Problem Durumu: Nitelikli toplumların oluşması bireylerin birbirine saygılı olması, birbirlerini anlaması, toplum için üretimde bulunması, kültürel değerlere sahip çıkması ile yakından ilişkilidir. Bunun için bu toplumlarda bireylerin barış, sevgi, saygı, hoşgörü, eşitlik gibi değerlere; empati, etkili iletişim, çatışma çözme, işbirliği yapabilme, problem çözme gibi becerilere sahip olması gerekmektedir. Bu değer ve becerilerle donanık bireyler yaşadıkları toplumun çağdaşlaşmasını, huzur ve barış içerisinde yaşamasını sağlayacaktır. Bu nedenle, toplumlar bireylerini bu yönde yetiştirmek istemektedirler. Özellikle barış tüm toplumlarda istenen bir değerdir. Barış uyum ve karşılıklı anlayışı içeren bir değerdir. Toplumlarda barış kültürünün oluşturulabilmesi için okullarda çocuklara bu eğitimin verilmesi ile olanaklı olacaktır. Barış eğitimi dinleme, yansıtma, problem çözme, işbirliği ve çatışma çözme becerileri ile güvenli bir dünyada yaşamak için gerekli bilgi, tutum ve değerleri kapsayan çok boyutlu bir süreçtir. Alanyazında barış eğitimi ile ilgili yapılan çalışmaların çeşitli konulara odaklandığı görülmektedir. Öğretmenlerin ve öğretmen adaylarının barış ve barış eğitimine ilişkin görüşlerini inceleyen, barış kültürünün nasıl bir eğitim ortamında olması gerektiğini ele alan, öğretim programları ve ders kitaplarını barış eğitimi bakımından değerlendiren, barış eğitimi programlarının öğrencilerin çatışma çözme stratejilerine, kültürlerarası yeterliliğine ve çatışma çözme becerilerine etkisini ele alan çalışmalar barış eğitimine ilişkin çalışılan belli başlı konulardır. Ancak alanyazında öğrencilerin barışa ilişkin algılarını resimler yoluyla belirleyen çalışmaya rastlanmamıştır. Bu nedenle çocukların yaptıkları

resimlerle dünyayı algılayış biçimlerini yorumladıkları düşünüldüğünde barışa ilişkin algılarının bu yolla ortaya konulması önemli görülmüştür.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Araştırmanın amacı, beşinci sınıf öğrencilerinin barış değerine ilişkin algılarını çizdikleri resimler aracılığıyla incelemektir. Bu genel amaç doğrultusunda öğrencilerin barış algılarını resimlerine ve yazılı görüşlerine nasıl yansıttığı incelenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Araştırma nitel araştırma yöntemi ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmada nitel araştırma „desenlerinden olgu bilim deseni kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın katılımcılarını 2011-2012 öğretim yılı bahar döneminde Eskişehir il merkezinde bulunan bir ilköğretim okulunun 5. sınıfına devam eden 11’i erkek 12’si kız toplam 23 öğrenci oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmanın verileri farklı veri toplama araçları bir arada kullanılarak toplanmıştır. Araştırma kapsamında öğrencilere iki açık uçlu sorudan oluşan bir form verilmiş ve bu formu doldurmaları istenmiştir. Formda yer alan sorular “Size göre barış ne anlam ifade etmektedir?” ve “Barış benziyor. Çünkü.....” biçimindedir. Öğrencilerden kendilerine verilen resim kâğıdına barışla ilgili duygu ve düşüncelerini ifade eden bir resim çizmeleri istenmiştir. Öğrenciler resimlerini tamamladıktan sonra resimlerinde dile getirmek istedikleri duygu ve düşünceleriyle ilgili görüşlerini öğrenmek amacıyla onlarla yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Özetle araştırmanın verileri öğrenci yazıları, öğrenci resimleri ve yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşme yoluyla toplanmıştır. Araştırmanın verileri tümevarım analizi ile analiz edilmiştir. Araştırmada öncelikle öğrenci resimleri ve buna ilişkin yapılan görüşmeler kodlanmış ve bu kodlardan ilgili olanlar bir araya getirilerek temalara ulaşılmıştır. Örneğin resminde farklı takımları tutan balıkların bir arada maç izlemesi sporda barış teması altına alınmıştır. Öğrencilerin açık uçlu sorulara verdikleri yanıtlar da benzer biçimde analiz edilmiştir. Örneğin öğrencilere barışa ilişkin yaptıkları güvercin gibi benzetmeler simgesel olarak barış teması altında ele alınmıştır. Bu işlemden sonra verilerin uygun eşleştirilip eşleştirilmediği kontrol edilmiştir. Daha sonra yapılan bu analizler sonucunda belli temalar altında yer alan resimler ve yazılı görüşler ilişkilendirilerek yorumlanmıştır. Analiz sürecinde iki araştırmacı ile birlikte bir de alan uzmanı görev almıştır. Araştırmanın geçerliliğini sağlamak amacıyla farklı veri toplama araçlarını bir arada kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın güvenilirliğini sağlamak amacıyla araştırmacılar analizlerini ayrı ayrı yapmışlardır. Araştırmacılar bireysel olarak temalar oluşturduktan sonra temalar üzerinde tartışarak görüş birliği ve görüş ayrılığı olan temaları belirlemişlerdir. Araştırma bulgularının sunumunda öğrencilere verilen kod isimler kullanılmış; öğrencilerin yazılı ve sözlü görüşlerinden doğrudan alıntılar yapılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Araştırmadan elde edilen bulgular “öğrencilerin resimlerinde barış algısına ilişkin bulgular” ile “öğrencilerin yazılı görüşlerinde barış algısına ilişkin bulgular” olmak üzere iki başlık altında sunulmuştur. Öğrencilerin resimleri incelendiğinde sporda barış, ailede barış, doğada barış, sembollerle barış, kişiler arasında barış ve ülkeler arasında barış olmak üzere beş temaya ulaşılmıştır. Öğrencilerin yazılı görüşlerinde barış algısına ilişkin bulgular kavramsal olarak barış ile simgesel olarak barış olmak üzere iki tema altında sunulmuştur. Kavramsal olarak

barış altında öğrenciler yazılı ifadelerinde barışı kavga etmemek, savaşmamak, anlaşma, dostluk, evrensel değerlerin gelişmesi (sevgi, saygı, hoşgörü, yardımlaşma), kardeşlik, dayanışma, mutluluk, huzur, özgürlük ve iyi geçinme olarak ortaya koymuşlardır. Simgesel olarak barış ise güvercin, kuş, kelebek, ip, aile, eldiven, arkadaş, kardeş, toprak, dünya, Türkiye ve çocuk olarak belirtilmiştir.

Araştırmanın Sonuç ve Önerileri: Araştırmada elde edilen sonuçlar öğrencilerin kavramsal olarak olumlu barışla ilgili ifadeler kullandıklarını, ancak resimlerinde ve simgesel ifadelerinde barışı yalnızca «savaşmamak» ya da «şiddetin azalması» biçiminde ele aldıklarını göstermektedir. Bu bağlamda öğrencilerde olumlu barış algısının geliştirilmesi, öğrencilere planlı ve sistemli biçimde barış eğitiminin verilmesi gerekliliğinden söz edilebilir.

Araştırmada elde edilen sonuçlar ışığında şu öneriler getirilebilir: Öğrencilerde olumlu barış algısı geliştirmek için disiplinlerarası etkinlikler düzenlenebilir. Barış eğitimi kapsamında kazandırılması gereken bilgi, beceri ve değerler öğretim programlarında daha fazla vurgulanabilir. Öğretmenlere, öğretmen adaylarına ve ailelere barış eğitimi konusunda bilgilendirici seminerler verilebilir. Öğrencilerin olumlu barış algısını geliştirmek için uygulamalı araştırmalar yapılmalıdır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Barış, barış eğitimi, öğrenci resimleri, olgu bilim, metafor.

The Case of Composition Questions in the Examinations of Turkish Lesson

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Writing is a skill area that is difficult to teach and evaluate. The fact that writing is a complex skill including many factors underlies on the basis of these difficulties. Such factors as grammar, writing and punctuation, language and expression, text linguistics and thinking skills, which are knowledge and skill areas all by itself, form wholeness through interaction in the writing process. Topics, types, methods of the writing are the decisive factors when reflecting on the students' competence. Thus, quality of the questions affects students' writing achievement in the exams. In the studies, it is not presented how the writing skill is addressed in assessment and evaluation that forms the final link of the teaching process. It is possible to determine the effectiveness of assessment and evaluation regarding writing skills and to correct the deficiencies if any, with the composition of the questions to be addressed from different angles.

Purpose of Study: This study aims to identify the case of composition questions in the examination of secondary school Turkish lesson and the teachers' perceptions related to this issue.

Method: In this study conducted in case study design, 18 schools have been identified through convenience sampling method. According to

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the method of document review, 432 exam papers were collected from these schools and eight of the teachers those preparing exams were interviewed.

Findings and Results: The results obtained are as follows: In 52.08 percent of the exams, composition questions take place. A significant part of these questions require writing according to the method of guided writing. Teachers often did not specify the type of text to be written. In the questions that are specified with text types, event texts become prominent. According to the participants, lack of diversity in terms of writing methods in composition questions results from teachers' habits and unfollowing the latest developments.

Conclusions and Recommendations: It can be argued that composition questions examined in the study are not adequate in terms of both quantity and quality. It can be said that writing methods and types learnt in the teaching process haven't been reflected in the evaluation process. Findings reveal that teachers act upon the concerns rather than objectives and attainments of the lesson when preparing exam questions and this causes misevaluation of writing skills of students. To evaluate students' writing skills properly, composition questions should be increased and enriched by teachers.

Keywords: Teaching writing, written expression, assessment, evaluation.

Introduction

Writing is a skill area that is difficult to teach and evaluate. The fact that writing is a complex skill including many factors underlies on the basis of these difficulties. Such factors as grammar, writing and punctuation, language and expression, text linguistics and thinking skills, which are knowledge and skill areas all by itself, form wholeness through interaction in the writing process. An effective education and proper evaluation are possible with dealing with these factors from grammar to thinking skills as a whole. As a result of this inclusiveness, writing skill forms an important part of the objectives and attainments of Turkish lessons and assessment and evaluation activities.

When it comes to writing skills, it is a major challenge to make a valid and reliable assessment of the students' success. Variability of the students creating the text and the teachers making the assessment is the main source of these difficulties. While the student's writing achievement varies according to the situation, topic and text type, teacher's knowledge and experience are determinative to evaluate the text. For this reason, different teachers can evaluate the same text differently. This variation in the process makes it difficult to evaluate the student's overall writing proficiency.

Students' writing skills are determined through direct and indirect assessment. In direct assessment, under prescribed conditions, a sample is taken from the writings of students and is evaluated by one person or more. In indirect assessment, success in the writing skill is determined through observation of such specific knowledge as grammar, sentence structure related to writing. Indirect assessment is usually used with multiple-choice tests. While direct assessment is limited to inconsistency of the assessors and area sampling problem, there are some limitations in the indirect assessment as well (Breland, 1983).

Because that present methods are insufficient to determine writing skills, alternative approaches are required in order to obtain valid and reliable results regarding writing skills assessment and evaluation. Such alternative approaches as peer and self evaluation (Beaven, 1977) and portfolio (Murphy, 1999) have been used in assessment of students' writing skills. Each approach not only gives more responsibility to students, it enables them to evaluate both their peer's writing and their own writings as well. However, this type of assessment hasn't been used effectively for the reason that students are not equipped to make such assessments and a failure to provide such education to students (Huot, 2002).

Portfolio that is a collection of student's activities deals with assessment, teaching and learning processes entirely. This provides assessment not to be hindering but to be supporting factor for learning (Elbow & Belanoff, 1997; Huot, 2002). Portfolio provides information about a student which cannot be obtained from other assessment approaches. It offers opportunity to analyse both different students' writings and different writings of the same students gathered at various times and situations. Portfolio can help students determine their success in different situations, their low and high performance in the process, scope of their studies and how they consider their writings. In this way, it can be found out which styles and strategies students have, and in which they need support, their thoughts about their own writing and how they see themselves as a writer. This kind of information is useful for guiding activities to be held in next phases for students (Murphy, 1999).

It has been specified in the program that assessment and evaluation will be both for the process and the product. One the other hand, it doesn't work as planned when it is put into practice. In a research conducted demonstrates that 62 percent of teachers do not use portfolios at all (TED, 2009). Even though alternative assessment and evaluation instruments are used in the lessons, final grade of student's success is determined considering conventional instruments (Gok & Sahin, 2009). In this context, it can be said that dominant role of conventional assessment and evaluation instruments has continued in educational system.

In Turkish lessons, such conventional instruments as written exams, multiple choice tests and true/false tests are used as assessment and evaluation instruments. In Turkish lessons, written exams are used commonly though it sometimes varies according to the purpose of the assessment. The most important advantage of the written exams is to test complex learning which cannot be measured by objective tests. As written exams giving students freedom to write require knowledge and skill

(Gronlund, 1969; Linn & Miller, 2005) is very useful assess the person's unique and creative thinking power, written expression skills, their perspective, interest and attitude (Tekin, 1984). Writing skills of students are often evaluated with questions related to writing in these types of exams.

All Turkish language exams include questions related to writing skills. However, a large part of these questions is intended for mechanic elements of writing. Such questions as grammar, writing and punctuation and text types which assess writing with skill levels rather than knowledge levels do not assess students' writing skills directly. Yet, it is not easy to come across composition questions assessing the students' writing skills directly in every exam. In the exams including this type of questions, quality of the questions affects students' writing achievement. Topics, types, methods of the writing are the decisive factors when reflecting on the students' competence.

Secondary School Turkish Lesson Teaching Program (MEB, 2006) examines Turkish lessons with a new approach and has brought many changes in objectives and attainments of the lesson, in lesson activities and in assessment and evaluation. In the studies that seek to demonstrate the effectiveness of the program, different aspects of education and training process have been investigated in the light of these changes and developments. However, in these studies, it is not presented how the writing skill, which forms a significant part of the objectives and attainments of Turkish lesson, is addressed in assessment and evaluation that forms the final link of the teaching process. It is possible to determine the effectiveness of assessment and evaluation regarding writing skills and to correct the deficiencies if any, with the composition of the questions to be addressed from different angles. This study which takes its roots from those needs; it is aimed to identify the case of composition questions in the examination of secondary school Turkish lesson. In this context, this study searches for answers to the following questions below:

1. How often do composition questions take part in the exams for determining the learning levels and what are the opinions of teachers in this regard?
2. Which writing methods and techniques do composition questions demonstrate compliance with and what are the opinions of teachers in this regard?
3. In composition questions, what kind of text types in writing is required and what are the opinions of teachers in this regard?

Method

Research Design

This case study was conducted in qualitative research design. Case studies are the studies in which a limited system is examined thoroughly (Yildirim & Simsek, 2008; Merriam, 2013). Thus, several variables are investigated in order to understand a specific case and their possible effects will be revealed.

Scope of the Research

Participants of this study consist of Turkish lesson exams of 2012-2013 school year, in Isparta and Turkish language teachers. 432 exam papers from 18 secondary schools determined through convenience sampling of the purposeful sampling methods form the documents of the study and 8 teachers who are interviewed and selected from the schools from which exam papers have been collected constitute the participants of the study. 6 of the participants were male and 2 of them were female. 3 of them (1st T., 4th T., 5th T.) have less than 10 years of professional seniority, 5 of them (2nd T., 3rd T., 6th T., 7th T., 8th T.) have more than 10 years of professional seniority. Also, 3 of them (5th T., 6th T., 8th T.) have bachelor's degree, while 2 of them (3rd T., 7th T.) have master's degree, 2 of them (1st T., 2nd T.) have master's degree and 1 of them is having (4th T.) doctor's degree.

Data Collection

Turkish lesson exam papers which constitute the study document were collected from 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th graders in Isparta city centre within the framework of legal permission from Isparta Provincial Directorate of National Education. First term 3 and second term 3, totally 6 exam papers were gathered from each grade level. These exam papers form the all proficiency exams of a class that take place in Turkish lesson during a school year. In this way, 432 exam papers were collected from a total of 44 teachers.

First of all, documents were examined in order to get teachers' opinions on the composition questions and the findings were categorized into 3 groups in accordance with the purpose of this study. After that, findings related to composition questions obtained from exam papers were sent to 8 teachers via e-mail and they were asked to interpret them. In spite of the advantages of face to face interviews, due to the fact that the participants have more time to response thus, deeper ideas may be created, this technique was applied with the thought that e-mail responses can shed light on the unmentioned problems (Merriam, 2013).

To ensure the validity of the research, expert review was referred for the results obtained in this study and the opinions of each teacher (Yildirim & Simsek, 2008) were given place in the results part of the study. For the reliability of the research, documents were evaluated by the each researcher. Coding reliability of three researchers was calculated as 0.88 according to the formula of Miles & Huberman (1994). Expert opinion was received when the researchers were in conflict with coding.

Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis method was applied to analyse the data. In this kind of analysis which intends to introduce the obtained findings in an orderly and interpreted manner, the data are first described systematically and clearly. Afterwards, these descriptions are explained, interpreted, cause and effect relationships are examined and a number of conclusions are reached (Yildirim &

Simsek, 2008). For this reason, in the study, methods and techniques of writing and text types are determined first and questions were examined accordingly.

Questions were examined in terms of the compliance with the purpose of writing methods in the program. In the analysis of text types, expressions denoting the type of the text specified in the question or any type of text were taken into consideration. Findings were presented in the tables and composition questions in the exams were cited time to time.

The data obtained in the interview were analyzed according to the findings of the study. Because that in the first phase of the study the findings obtained from the documents were analysed in three categories in accordance with the purposes of the study, new categorization was not needed. Instead, teachers' opinions were examined according to the previous categories.

Results

In this section, findings were examined in three categories according to the specified questions within the scope of the research and interpretations regarding findings were included.

The Case of Composition Questions in the Exams

The first subgoal of the research is the question "How often do composition questions take part in the exams for determining the learning levels and what are the opinions of teachers in this regard?" Findings obtained from the exam papers regarding the case of composition questions in Turkish lesson exams are presented in Table 1.

Table 1.

Frequency of the Composition Questions That Are Asked

	<i>5th Grade</i>	<i>6th Grade</i>	<i>7th Grade</i>	<i>8th Grade</i>	<i>Total</i>
Included	48	59	62	56	225
Excluded	60	49	46	52	207
Total	108	108	108	108	432

In Table 1, it has been seen that more than half of the exam papers (52.08%) include composition questions. When these questions are examined at grade levels, it has been observed that they take part in 7th grade most and in 5th grade at least. A certain background, thinking skills and method knowledge and skills are prerequisite to produce texts. In this regard, it is acceptable that composition

questions are asked at least 5th grade level considering language and cognitive development. Participants interpret the table in this was as well. While one of the teachers (3rd T.) relates this to the reason that *“students writing skills (as knowledge and saturation) didn't develop until secondary school”* (3rd T.) another teacher relates it to *“readiness level of the students to write a composition is not sufficient, student's self-expression and increase of life experience, it takes time to be capable of writing composition”* (1st T.). Another teacher states that *“students who failed to develop writing skills pleadingly ask their Turkish language teacher not to ask composition questions at 5th grade, thus most of the teachers prefer not to ask those questions instead of failure”* (4th T.) and expresses the other dimensions referring to the matter.

It can be said that questions show increase until 7th grade in parallel with the development of students. However, as can be seen in the Table, rate of written expression questions decreases at 8th grade level. Although not certain, lack of written expression questions in the high school entrance exams might direct the teachers to other question types. Alongside the teachers consulted put forward various reasons for this case and the opinion that test-based central exams are effective supports this view. One of the participants indicates that *“it is important for students to comprehend test techniques better and to develop solution-oriented technique in order to prepare for central exams in this context; as it is considered that students need to achieve success in interpretation, reading comprehension, and multiple choice questions, composition questions as written expression are given less part”* (2nd T.). Another participant in parallel with this opinion articulates that *“The most important factor is that composition questions are not included in state exams. OKS, (High School Entrance Exam) SBS (Placement Test) or whatever named, all the examinations conducted by the state is in the form of multiple-choice tests. Hence, composition loses its significance in this system through which the success is measured”* (6th T.). In addition to them, it is stated that such reasons as *“the challenge of reading students' writings”* (6th T., 7th T.) and *“difficulty of objective assessment of the composition questions”* (6th T., 7th T., 8th T.) also effective on the case that composition questions take less place in the exams.

The Case of the Questions in terms of Methods and Techniques

The second subgoal of the research is the question *“Which writing methods and techniques do composition questions demonstrate compliance with and what are the opinions of teachers in this regard?”* Findings obtained from the composition questions in Turkish lesson exams in terms of their relevance to the objectives of the writing methods are shown in the Table 2.

Table 2.

Distributions of the Questions at Grade Levels According to Writing Methods and Techniques

	5 th Grade	6 th Grade	7 th Grade	8 th Grade	Total
Guided writing	29	28	43	33	133
Text completion	7	15	4	3	29
Creative writing	4	4	3	8	19
Writing based on senses	3	5	5	1	14
Writing choosing from words and concepts	4	2	2	4	12
Critical writing	0	2	2	7	11
Creating a new text based on a text	0	1	2	0	3
Free composition	1	1	0	0	2
Summarising	0	1	1	0	2
Total	48	59	62	56	225

It has been observed in Table 2 that teachers ask questions appropriate to guided writing technique (59.19%) most. This was followed by text completion (13.00%) and creative writing (8.52%) technique respectively. It is seen that the techniques summarising and free composition are required to be written at least. Such questions included in the program as taking notes, filling in the blanks, guided writing, guessing, creating a text in his/her own words, group writing are not included in the exam.

Such questions as a proverb, idiom or concept "Please explain the verb phrase 'Four eyes see more than two (Bir elin nesi var iki elin sesi var.)' in the framework of the rules of composition." (6th Grade: 11), Please write a composition about Patriotism. (5th Grade: 2), 'Friend is like a medicine when you are in need of help (Hastalik aninda ilac ne ise sikinti aninda da dost odur.)' Please write a composition about the importance of friendship based on this phrase.' (7th Grade: 328) that require explanation aim to measure the students' ability to explain their knowledge, feelings and thoughts about a subject effectively. Such questions are frequently used in writing activities as it is easy to prepare. However, this method is not sufficient to reflect students' knowledge. In addition,

guided writing activities require the subject to be discussed and inform the students about the topic before writing. Yet, it is not possible to provide this prerequisite during the exam. Hence, it can be considered as deficiency of the exams to include these types of questions at a great rate.

Such methods as text completion, creative writing and writing based on senses which allow students to write more comfortably, stimulate their emotions and imaginations, and enable them to generate ideas are all included in the exams. The question appropriate to creative writing *"What would have happened without electricity?"* (6th Grade: 179) forces students to go beyond their habitual style of thinking. In this way students build a reality outside of their own world and they behave more freely in their imaginary world thus, they can create text more easily. Likewise, it can be said that the question appropriate to text completion method *"Complete the following story left unfinished according to your own ideas in accordance with the rules of composition by putting an appropriate title"* (6th Grade: 79) also enable students to put forward an idea by enriching the students' world of feelings, thoughts and imaginations.

Participants expressing their views on Table 2 relate this situation to "taking the easy way out" and "not to be open to new ideas". While the participants state that taking the easy way out results from *"teachers sometimes find it difficult to give up conventional methods and techniques... and they find it easy to ask just proverbs and idioms in the questions"* (2nd T.) the other participant articulates the reason as *"they are not yet accustomed to the new system and they get the composition questions prepared in the form of old system available on the internet"* (4th T.). In addition to these *"inability to use technology"* (6th T.) and *"failure to follow technological developments"* (2nd T.) are the reasons that force the teachers to taking the easy way out. According to the participants, the reasons why the teachers do not open to the new ideas are *"teachers are far from questioning the existing sytem"* (8th T.) and *"many of the teachers are unaware of the developments in creative writing"* (1st T.).

The Case of Questions According to Text Types

The third and the last subgoal of the research is the question "In composition questions, what kind of text types in writing is required and what are the opinions of teachers in this regard?" Findings related to the text types in exam papers in which students were asked to create their own wiritngs are presented in Table 3.

Table 3.*Distributions of the Composition Text Types at Grade Levels*

	5 th Grade	6 th Grade	7 th Grade	8 th Grade	Total
Unspecified	24	37	44	38	143
Story	15	14	7	9	45
Tale	4	4	2	0	10
Essay	1	0	2	4	7
Free writing	1	1	1	1	4
Travel writing	0	1	2	0	3
Letter	1	0	2	0	3
Critical review	0	0	0	2	2
Memoir	0	1	0	1	2
Discourse	0	0	1	1	2
Petition	1	0	1	0	2
Fable	0	1	0	0	1
Poem	1	0	0	0	1
Total	48	59	62	56	225

As can be seen in Table 3, more than half of teachers (63.55%) did not specify the types of texts students will create. In the composition questions, in which the text types are specified, story (20.00%) is taking the lead. This is followed by tales and essays.

In this kind of exams, as seen in the questions "Write a composition explaining the proverb 'Keep a thing seven years and you'll always find a use for it (Sakla samani, gelir zamani).'" (5th Grade: 314) "Please write an essay about one of the following topics" (5th Grade: 28) phrases are used that do not refer any kind of text type in the question. This is because of fix question type rather than teachers making students choose any text types given the reality that explaining a proverb, idiom and phrase requires expressing the ideas, it is considered that students are supposed to create their own

writings. In this case, it can be said that non-fictional becomes prominent as type of text in the composition questions. Notwithstanding, the participants state that text types are not specified for the reason that *"limiting students increases their anxiety and reduces their success"* (1st T., 5th T., 6th T., 8th T.). Even if this approach is accepted as true, it is inconsistent with those ideas *"writing expository makes the student feel comfortable"* (4th T.) and as mentioned below *"story and tale are easier"*. In addition, participants articulate that it is on the grounds that *"it provides more opportunity to teachers when grading"* (4th T.), *"students' inability to write according to the text type"* (8th T.) and *"as the writing activities of text types are appropriate to high school level"* (7th T.). The reasons put forth so far why teachers do not specify text types in the questions establish that teachers act upon the concerns rather than objectives and attainments of the lesson.

On the other hand, in the exams in which the text types are specified *"Write a story by choosing topics above."* (7th Grade: 280) and *"Complete the tale Bald Boy (Keloglan) left unfinished in accordance with the features of tale and remember to put appropriate title"* (6th Grade: 178) teachers clearly explains as seen in the questions. As seen in Table 3, while fictional writing is prominent in the specified text types decreases gradually starting from 5th grade, non-fictional increases. It can be said that this case is appropriate to the students' development features. However it was an obstacle for students thinking clearly as most of the questions were not specified in the exams. Respondents expressing an opinion on the specified types that they prefer asking text types in the form of story and tale due to such reasons as *"they are the ones that students are more familiar with"* (8th T.), *"they are easy to comprehend"* (7th T.), *"they are easy to write"* (4th T.) and *"secondary school students are prone to give answers related to story most"* (3th T.).

Discussion and Conclusion

It is not enough for a student to know the content and rules of writing to turn it into a skill. Writing as a skill can only be perceptible by creating a text. In this respect, essay questions must have an essential place in the Turkish Language exams in order to evaluate students' writing skills correctly. However, test driven examination as a prominent reason in the opinions of the teachers does not allow it. Students who are successful on text free type of exams while the same students fail in writing exams (Ozbay, 1995) reveals that writing requires different skills. So writing skill can be directly assessed with the essay questions that require students to create a text. Therefore, it can be said that it will be useful to use more questions that directly measure writing skill which is one of the most important activity to be used in the Turkish course and requires to use other skills.

One of the attainments that students are expected to acquire in Turkish language lessons is *"using writing methods and techniques"*. In Turkish lessons, for this purpose, writing activities with different methods and techniques are applied. However, in the light of the findings obtained in this study, it can be said that diversity in

coursebooks thus, writing techniques used in teaching process are not seen in evaluation process. Although the teacher states that they usually use creative writing in teaching process (Cetinkaya, 2015). Moreover, it has been observed that guided writing technique is given more place and even some methods and techniques are not included at all. Participants relate this situation to the reasons that teachers take the easy way out and they are not open to new ideas. Studies conducted also assert the deficiencies of teachers regarding professional development (Taga & Unlu, 2013; TED, 2009). Such teachers who do not follow the latest development in education and do not get benefit from them tend to apply "classical" methods.

Writing activities carried out in the form of explaining proverbs, idioms and phrases are far from the quality to stimulate imagination and creativity which deepen the students' thoughts and feelings. Not surprisingly, it is not possible for students to be successful in explaining an abstract idea and concept which do not attract their attention and on which they do not have sufficient knowledge and have difficulty in generating opinion. In the related literature it has been established that writing achievements of the students vary by the methods applied (Arici & Ungan, 2008; Graham & Perin, 2007; Graham, McKeown, Kihara, & Harris, 2012; Hillocks, 1987). In this regard, it should be noted that such questions appropriate to writing methods that demonstrate the students' success on expression are to be included in the exams in order to evaluate accurately. Yet, the findings of this research reveal that most of the teachers evaluate the students' writing skills with the compositions including proverb, idiom and phrase explanation. In his study, Temizkan (2003) states that 53.3%, and as Zorbaz (2005) articulates that 47.7% of teachers use the proverb and idiom description as a method in the writing activities. These results are similar to the ones obtained in our study.

In Turkish language lessons, students are expected to acquire such skills as "*writing fictional, non-fictional, descriptive and poem*". Therefore, students' writing skills in different text types need to be evaluated as well. However, in exam papers it has been observed that this case is not taken into consideration in the evaluation process, it can be seen that there is not a balanced distribution. In 36.45% of the exams the text types are specified. Yet, this finding can be said to be insufficient although it is more than the percentages of teachers (10%) who asks their student to write in the specified types, in the study of Zorbaz (2005).

Participants indicate that the opinion that students should not be limited to text types in order to write freely is effective on teachers not to include text types. Although this is an acceptable reason, it contradicts with the case that teachers give less importance to the questions appropriate to free writing method which do not limit students' writing in terms of topic and type. Contrary to this idea, Tepeli & Baydar (2013) indicate the importance of specifying the text type on the writing to be more effective, on creating diversity for students and enhance students' enthusiasm towards writing. Besides, they articulate that despite the fact that students know the text types, they do not use them but when the text types are given they write

successfully. Also, Uyar (2016) points out that students need to know which criteria they are assessed.

The purpose of the study is taken into consideration when selecting an appropriate text type and this type gives shape to the style, language and expression of the text. Thus, in writing activities, students need to get acquainted with different types of writing and turn them into skill. The studies in the literature (Cooper, 1999; Cooper & Breneman, 1988) indicate that writing achievement in terms of types differ. Hence, the teachers should evaluate their ability to generate different types of text in the process of assessment to determine level of comprehension and application of the text types. However, it has been observed in the papers that students concentrate more on non-fictional writing they express their opinions on a specified topic and on fictional writing that allow them to create writing easier.

As a result, it can be argued that composition questions examined in the study are not adequate in terms of both quantity and quality. It can be said that writing methods and types learnt in the teaching process haven't been reflected in the evaluation process. Findings reveal that teachers act upon the concerns rather than objectives and attainments of the lesson when preparing exam questions and this causes misevaluation of writing skills of students.

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Türkçe Dersi Sınavlarında Kompozisyon Sorularının Durumu

Atıf:

Taga, T., Unlu, S., & Ozturk, H. (2016). The case of composition questions in the examinations of Turkish lesson. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 199-216
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Özet

Problem Durumu: 2006 Türkçe Dersi Öğretim Programı, Türkçe dersini yeni bir yaklaşımla ele almış ve dersin amaç ve kazanımlarında, ders etkinliklerinde, ölçme ve değerlendirmede birçok değişim ve gelişimi beraberinde getirmiştir. Programın etkililiğini ortaya koymaya çalışan araştırmalarda bu değişim ve gelişimler ışığında eğitim-öğretim sürecinin farklı boyutları incelenmiştir. Ancak bu tür araştırmalarda Türkçe dersi kazanım ve etkinliklerinin önemli bir bölümünü oluşturan yazma becerisinin, öğretim sürecinin son halkasını oluşturan ölçme ve değerlendirmede nasıl ele alındığı yeterince ortaya konulmuş değildir. Yazma becerisi; dinleme, konuşma ve okuma becerilerinin gelişmesinden sonra gerçek anlamda olgunlaşan bir beceridir. Son derece zor ve zahmetli bir sürecin sonunda istenilen düzeye gelebilen bu becerinin ölçülmesi ve değerlendirilmesi de öğrenilmesiyle doğru orantılı bir biçimde zor ve zahmetlidir. Bilişsel gelişimin en üst basamaklarına gelmiş olmayı gerektiren yazma becerisi; dil bilgisi, yazım ve noktalama, dil ve anlatım, metin bilgisi ve düşünme becerileri gibi alt bileşenlerden meydana gelir. Bu çok boyutluluk, yazma becerisinin tek tip ölçme değerlendirme yöntemine göre planlanamayacağını bir göstergesidir. Öğrencilerin yazmadaki başarısını belirlemek için alternatif ölçme değerlendirme yöntemlerinin işe koşulması; yazım ve noktalama gibi yalnızca mekanik unsurlara değil özgünlük, tutarlılık ve yaratıcılığa da önem verilmesi gerekir. Bu bakımdan yazma becerisine ilişkin ölçme ve değerlendirmenin etkililiğini belirlemek, varsa eksikliklerini gidermek kompozisyon sorularının farklı açılardan ele alınması ile mümkün olabilir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu araştırma, ortaokul Türkçe dersi sınavlarında yer alan kompozisyon sorularının durumunu ve buna ilişkin öğretmen görüşlerini belirleme amacını taşımaktadır. Bu doğrultuda araştırmada aşağıda yer alan şu sorulara cevap aranmıştır:

1. Öğrenme düzeyini belirlemeye dönük sınavlarda kompozisyon ne sıklıkta yer almaktadır ve buna ilişkin öğretmenlerin görüşleri nasıldır?
2. Kompozisyon soruları hangi yazma yöntem ve tekniklerine uygunluk göstermektedir ve buna ilişkin öğretmenlerin görüşleri nasıldır?
3. Kompozisyon sorularında yazıların hangi metin türünde oluşturulması istenilmektedir ve buna ilişkin öğretmenlerin görüşleri nasıldır?

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Yukarıdaki sorular doğrultusunda bu araştırmada kompozisyon sorularının sorulma sıklığı, soruların ilgili olduğu yazma yöntem ve teknikleri ile metin türlerinin dağılımı incelenmiş ve öğretmen görüşlerine başvurulmuştur. Durum çalışması deseninde gerçekleştirilen bu araştırmada kolay ulaşılabılır durum örnekleme yoluyla 18 okul belirlenmiştir. Belirlenen bu okullardan doküman incelemesi yöntemine göre 432 sınav kâğıdı toplanmış ve sınavları hazırlayan öğretmenlerden 8'i ile görüşme yapılmıştır. Veriler, betimsel analize tâbi tutulmuştur. Bu analiz türüne uygun olarak veriler, önce sistematik ve açık bir biçimde betimlenmiş; sonra bu betimlemeler açıklanmış ve yorumlanmış; sebep-sonuç ilişkileri irdelenmiş ve sonuçlara ulaşılmıştır. Araştırmada öncelikle programda yer alan yazma yöntem ve teknikleri ile metin türleri belirlenmiş ve sorular buna göre incelenmiştir. Sorular, programda yer alan yazma yöntemlerinin amaçlarına uygunluğu bakımından incelenmiştir. Metin türlerinin analizinde ise soru köklerinde belirtilen metin türü veya herhangi bir metin türünü işaret eden ifadeler dikkate alınmıştır. Bulgular tablolar halinde sunulurken sınavlarda bulunan kompozisyon sorularından yer yer alıntı yapılmıştır. Araştırmanın birinci aşamasında dokümanlardan elde edilen bulgular araştırmanın amaçlarına uygun olarak üç kategoride değerlendirildiğinden görüşmede elde edilen veriler için tekrar kategori oluşturma yoluna gidilmemiştir. Bunun yerine öğretmen görüşleri daha önceden belli olan kategorilere göre incelenmiş ve ilgili bulguların altında betimlenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: İnceleme sonunda ulaşılan sonuçlar şöyledir: Sınavların %52,08'inde kompozisyon sorusu bulunmaktadır. Öğretmenlerin en çok güdümlü yazma tekniğine (%59,19) uygun sorular oluşturdukları görülmektedir. Bunu sırasıyla metin tamamlama (%13,00) ve yaratıcı yazma (%8,52) tekniği izlemektedir. En az kullanılması istenilen yazma yöntem ve tekniğinin özet çıkarma ve serbest yazma olduğu görülmektedir. Programda bulunan not alma, boşluk doldurma, kontrollü yazma, tahminde bulunma, bir metni kendi kelimeleriyle yeniden oluşturma ve grupla yazma yöntemlerine yönelik sorular ise sınavlarda yer almamıştır. Öğretmenler genellikle yazılacak metnin türünü belirtmemiştir. Metin türünün belirtildiği sorularda ise olay yazıları öne çıkmaktadır. Sırasıyla hikaye, masal ve deneme en çok tercih edilen türler olmuştur. Kompozisyon sorularına sınavlarda az yer verilmesini katılımcılar ağırlıklı olarak teste dayalı sınav sistemine bağlamaktadır. Öğrencilerin gelişim düzeyine paralel olarak 7. sınıfa kadar düzenli bir artış gösteren kompozisyon sorularının, 8. sınıfta düşüş göstermesi katılımcıların yorumunu destekler görünmektedir. Katılımcılara göre kompozisyon sorularında yazma yöntemleri bakımından çeşitliliğin azlığı öğretmenlerin alışkanlıklarından ve yenilikleri takip etmeyişinden kaynaklanmaktadır. Katılımcılar, sorularda metin türlerinin belirtilmeme gerekçesinin de öğrencilerin daha kolay yazmalarını sağlamak olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Çalışmanın sonuçları öğretmenlerin, kompozisyon sorularında "klasik" uygulamaları kullanma eğiliminde olduğunu göstermektedir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Araştırmada incelenen kompozisyon sorularının hem nicelik hem nitelik bakımından yeterli olmadığı ileri sürülebilir. Bulgulardan,

yazma yntemleri ve metin trleri bakımından ġretim srecinde saĖlanan zenginliĖin deĖerlendirme srecine yansıtılmadıĖı anlařılmaktadır. Ayrıca bulgular, sınav soruları hazırlanırken dersin amaç ve kazanımlarından daha ziyade ders dıřı unsurların dikkate alındıĖını, dolayısıyla ġrencilerin yazma becerilerinin saĖlıklı bir řekilde deĖerlendirilemediĖini ortaya koymaktadır. ġrencinin yazının unsur ve kurallarını bilmesi onun yazmayı bir beceri hline getirmesi iin yeterli deĖildir. Bir beceri olarak yazma, ancak ortaya konan bir metin ile somutlařır. Bu bakımdan ġrencilerin yazma becerilerinin doĖru bir biimde deĖerlendirebilmesi iin kompozisyon sorularının Trke dersi sınavlarında vazgeilmez bir yeri olmalıdır. Trke dersinin en nemli etkinlik alanlarından biri olan ve diĖer dil becerilerini kullanmayı gerektiren yazma becerisini doĖrudan len sorulara sınavlarda daha fazla yer verilmesinin yararlı olacaĖı sylenebilir. Sınavlarda yer alacak sorular hazırlanırken programda yer alan yazma becerisine iliřkin amaç ve kazanımlar bir btn olarak gz nnde bulundurulmalı ve sorular ġrencilerin yazma becerilerini ortaya koymaya imkn verecek zenginlikte olmalıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yazma ġretimi, yazılı anlatım, lme, deĖerlendirme.

The Four-Year an Investigation of Physical and Physiological Features of Students in a Physical Education and Sports Department

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Student candidates who want to be a Physical Education Teacher in Turkey should take special ability exams of Physical Education and Sports Schools. In this exam, it is required to have a high physical capability apart from a high level of special branch skills. For this reason, the students who pass and start their education at physical education and sports schools either have a good history of sports or they are active sportsmen or they have passed through a good training period. In other terms, they have high levels of physical and physiological capacity. But, the density of the curriculum at physical education teaching departments at Physical Education and Sports Schools, redundancy of theoretical courses which are defined and forced by Higher Education Council in Turkey to all the Physical Education and Sports Schools and from time to time the obligation to make a choice between school and active sportsmanship pull students away from active sportsmanship and regular training. After a dense curriculum program, the majority of students prefer education instead of sport activities and thus, when they reach their final year, they turn into sedentary people. This contradiction in the education of physical education teachers which is a model for the community and carries the task of selecting gifted people and directing people to sports for sustaining a healthy and quality life is thought-provoking.

Purpose of Study: In this study, it is aimed to measure and evaluate some physical and physiological parameters of students attending physical education and sports schools from the first year on until the fourth year by taking the arguments given above.

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Methods: 70 male, 50 female and in total 120 students attending to Afyon Kocatepe University School of Physical Education and Sports took part in this study. Some physical and physiological parameters of the students were measured for three years in the Fall semester in November beginning from the first year on and in their final year, the measurements were made in the Spring term in May. Their weights, heights, body fat percentages, body mass indices and flexibilities, vertical jumps, anaerobic powers and aerobic capacities were identified with these measurements. Repeated measures analysis was used for statistical evaluation. The results were evaluated between 0,01 and 0,05 levels.

Findings and Results: Body weights, BMIs, body fat percentages, flexibility levels, anaerobic powers and aerobic capacities of students who go through an intense and difficult exam to matriculate School of Physical Education and Sports are at levels of sportsmen. These performance levels of students decrease each passing year. These traits decline even to the levels of sedentary people in the fourth year.

Conclusions and Recommendations: The students of School of Physical Education and Sports have an intense syllabus and the excess of theoretical courses prevent from regular training. Also, students in our country have to prepare for a tough theoretical exam after graduating university in order to be a teacher. This obligation moves them away from sporting activities in their free times remaining from school. In the light of this result, it is necessary to revise curriculums of Physical Education and Sports Schools in our country which train students to be teachers both for students, sportsmen and teaching staff.

Keywords: Physical education and sports, teacher, performance, physical, physiological

Introduction

At base, education aims to transfer the values of a society to individuals so that they can become competent, balanced, productive members of the community and, in turn, sustain their personal integration into society. Though each country establishes educational aims, content, and duration according to its own social and educational policies (Hofman 1993; Oz 2011), in general physical education (PE), as both a complementary and inseparable component of general education, involves the teaching and learning of personality that promotes each person's development as a complete individual (Tamer 2001; Gulay 2010). In this context, PE teachers are perhaps the most important means of achieving the aims of PE, as well as promoting physical activity as not merely a school lesson, but a learned lifestyle (Cicek 1998).

In Turkey, the goals of PE and sports schools and university departments are to make PE future teachers, trainers, and managers competent in terms of human anatomy and body function, the branches of sports, the use of sports technology, the

knowledge and skills of behavioral sciences, the psychosocial aspects of humans, skills related to fine arts, and sports planning and management, as well as promote the attendance of sporting events. From this perspective, PE schools and departments use sports and PE to promote public health and social bonding. The physical, social, and intellectual traits of good PE teachers, their relationships with students, and their attitudes and behaviors toward students are thus crucial to their roles as models in teaching, guiding, and preparing students as members of society and potentially as future PE teachers.

Candidates interested in becoming PE teachers in Turkey must first complete a special ability examination designed for PE and sports schools, which requires examinees to have a certain level of physical capability and a high level of special branch skills. For this reason, students who pass the exam and commence their education in a university PE and sports program should have a clear history of sports participation, be active sportsmen or sports women upon entering university, and/or have completed an adequate training program.

Once matriculated, however, students who encounter the typically heavy workload of PE curriculum, the redundancy of theoretical courses, and at times the obligation to prioritize academics above active sportsmanship may gradually abandon their previously sports activity and regular training and, as a result, come to adopt primarily sedentary lifestyles.

Yoncalık, in a study which focused on defining the physical activity levels of teacher candidates, mentioned that the physical activity levels are very low (Yoncalık2016). In a similar study, Dogustas emphasized that teacher candidates are not satisfied with the education they get and their readiness levels (Dogustas 2016, Süral 2015).

In response to this possibility, the aim of this study was to measure and evaluate specific physical and physiological parameters of students attending PE and sports schools, beginning with their first year of study and ending in their fourth.

Method

Research Design

In this study, some physical and physiological features of students, who study at Physical Education and Sports Teaching Department have been measured and evaluated during their four years of study. From the beginning of the first year, their body weights, body fat percentages, vertical jumps, flexibility values, anaerobic and aerobic powers have been measured at the end of the first term for four years.

Participants

After volunteering their consent, 120 university students 70 male and 50 female in the School of Physical Education and Sports at Afyon Kocatepe University were recruited to be measured for a set of physical and physiological parameters over four years. Measurements were taken and assessed in November of the Fall Semester and

May of the Spring Semester for each year, beginning with their first year of study and culminating with their fourth.

Research Instrument and Procedure

Height. Height was measured with a weighing scale with an accompanying digital height rod. The anatomic position during height measurement was with bare feet during deep inhalation. Body heights were evaluated to 1 mm.

Body weight. Body weight was measured with each participant on an empty stomach wearing shorts, a T-shirt, and no footwear. Weight was calculated using a weighing scale with a digital height rod at a level of sensitivity of 100 g.

Body fat percentage. Participants' body fat percentages were obtained using a skinfold caliper measure from four regions of the body. Skin fold values were then calculated with the Yuhasz formula (Zorba 1995), in which fat percentage equals $5.783 + 0.153(\text{tr} + \text{ss} + \text{si} + \text{ab})$. Skinfold measurement from each student was obtained every year by a trained specialist with ISAK certification.

Body mass index. Body mass index (BMI) is determined by dividing body weight by height squared: $\text{BMI} = \text{weight (kg)} / \text{height (m)}^2$. Values gathered from participants were evaluated following the criterion of the World Health Organization (WHO) (2010). There are four categories of BMI underweight (<18.5 kg), normal weight (18.5–24.9 kg), overweight (25–29.9 kg), and obesity (≥ 30 kg).

Flexibility. After warming up for 15-20 minutes, the subjects sat on a table in bare feet and touching both edges of the table. They were asked to push a moving rod which was lying horizontally on the table with the tips of their fingers without bending their knees. Their values were checked using a ruler placed on the table. This procedure was repeated three times by each participant and their highest value accomplished was recorded in centimeters.

Vertical jump height. The vertical jump heights of participants were measured with a Newtest 300. Participants were asked to jump vertically five separate times and rest between each vertical jump as they deemed adequate. Measurements of the vertical jumps were recorded in centimeters. The highest and lowest values of each participant were discarded, and the average of the remaining three values was recorded as their final vertical jump height.

Anaerobic power. The anaerobic power of participants were calculated by using the Lewis formula for the Sargent Jump test by using each participant's vertical jump value and their body weight (Tamer 2000).

$$P = (\sqrt{4.9 \text{ weight}} \sqrt{D}) \text{ kg/m/s}$$

$$D = \text{Vertical jump distance (in meters)}$$

Aerobic power (MaxVO₂). Participants' aerobic power was determined with a Shuttle Run test of 20 m whose pace was established by signal sounds at certain time intervals. Each participant started running at the first signal and was asked to reach the other line by the second signal and then return to the starting

line. Participants continued to perform the test following the signal cues and adjusted their rhythm in order to complete the distance of 20 m. between the two sound signals. The pace started slowly and increased every 10 s. Participants continued to take the test if they missed one signal but reached the other. The test terminated when the participant missed two signals in succession.

Data Analysis

Repeated measures analysis was used for statistical evaluation and results were evaluated between the p level of .01-.05.

Results

Table 1 presents the age and height calculations of participants in the first year of study. For other parameters, calculations over the four years and averages according to years are displayed.

Table 1.

Evaluation of Participant Measurements over the Course of Our Years of Study

Parameter	Male Female	N	1 st Year	2 nd Year	3 rd Year	4 th Year
			Measurement Ave. \pm Stn. D.	Measurement Ave. \pm Stn. D.	Measurement Ave. \pm Stn. D.	Measurement Ave. \pm Stn. D.
Age (year)	M	70	20,01 \pm 1,26	-	-	-
	F	50	19,12 \pm 1,06	-	-	-
Height (cm)	M	70	179,83 \pm 6,25	-	-	-
	F	50	167,37 \pm 6,05	-	-	-
Body Weight (kg)	M	70	68,61 \pm 7,13	71,37 \pm 6,65	72,77 \pm 6,65	76,92 \pm 6,76
	F	50	51,66 \pm 6,44	54,48 \pm 6,41	56,77 \pm 6,41	60,56 \pm 6,28
BMI	M	70	21,22 \pm 2,26	22,08 \pm 2,22	22,52 \pm 2,21	23,80 \pm 2,24
	F	50	18,40 \pm 1,87	19,41 \pm 1,84	20,23 \pm 1,89	21,59 \pm 1,85
BFP (%)	M	70	12,22 \pm 1,61	13,47 \pm 0,98	14,56 \pm 1,43	15,96 \pm 1,43
	F	50	14,54 \pm 2,13	15,64 \pm 1,61	16,74 \pm 1,85	18,54 \pm 1,85
Flexibility (cm)	M	70	29,59 \pm 7,60	27,84 \pm 7,37	26,56 \pm 7,23	23,84 \pm 6,95
	F	50	32,56 \pm 5,51	30,70 \pm 5,26	29,84 \pm 5,12	25,16 \pm 4,92

Table 1 Continue

Parameter	Male Female	N	1 st Year	2 nd Year	3 rd Year	4 th Year
			Measurement	Measurement	Measurement	Measurement
			Ave. ± Stn. D.	Ave. ± Stn. D.	Ave. ± Stn. D.	Ave. ± Stn. D.
Vertical Jump (cm)	M	70	61,19 ± 5,11	59,46 ± 5,22	57,79 ± 5,10	52,45 ± 5,21
	F	50	49,74 ± 6,60	46,614 ± 5,83	43,22 ± 5,55	38,77 ± 5,41
Anaerobic Power (kg.m/sec.)	M	70	118,66 ± 12,98	121,68 ± 12,41	122,32 ± 12,29	123,15 ± 12,38
	F	50	80,24 ± 9,82	81,97 ± 9,82	82,29 ± 9,71	83,13 ± 9,52
Aerobic Power (maxVO2) (ml/kg/min)	M	70	59,39 ± 1,99	55,83 ± 1,96	52,97 ± 1,94	49,24 ± 1,99
	F	50	47,88 ± 4,81	45,03 ± 4,65	42,67 ± 4,81	39,26 ± 4,03

Body weight measurements in Table 2 show the difference in students' weights over the four-year study period.

Table 2.

Variance Analysis Evaluation of the Repeated Measurement Levels of Body Weight

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Body Weight	Sphericity Assumed	4554,014	3	1518,005	2535,911	,000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	4554,014	2,019	2255,961	2535,911	,000
	Huynh-Feldt	4554,014	2,071	2198,564	2535,911	,000
	Lower-bound	4554,014	1,000	4554,014	2535,911	,000
Body Weight * group	Sphericity Assumed	17,724	3	5,908	9,870	,000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	17,724	2,019	8,780	9,870	,000
	Huynh-Feldt	17,724	2,071	8,557	9,870	,000
	Lower-bound	17,724	1,000	17,724	9,870	,002
Error (kilo)	Sphericity Assumed	211,906	354	,599		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	211,906	238,202	,890		
	Huynh-Feldt	211,906	244,420	,867		
	Lower-bound	211,906	118,000	1,796		

$p < .01$

According to these data, there is a year-by-year increase from the first year onward. The average of body weight increase at the end of four years was 8.31 kg for males and 8.90 for females, a difference that is significant at p level of $<.01$.

Table 3.

Variance Analysis Evaluation of the Repeated Measurement Levels of Body Mass Index

Source	Type III sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	Sig.	
BMI	Sphericity Assumed	512,633	3	170,878	2127,587	,000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	512,633	1,771	289,404	2127,587	,000
	Huynh-Feldt	512,633	1,812	282,971	2127,587	,000
	Lower-bound	512,633	1,000	512,633	2127,587	,000
BMI *group	Sphericity Assumed	7,612	3	2,537	31,590	,000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	7,612	1,771	4,297	31,590	,000
	Huynh-Feldt	7,612	1,812	4,202	31,590	,000
	Lower-bound	7,612	1,000	7,612	31,590	,000
Error (BMI)	Sphericity Assumed	28,432	354	,080		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	28,432	209,018	,136		
	Huynh-Feldt	28,432	213,770	,133		
	Lower-bound	28,432	118,000	,241		

$p < .01$

Table 3 shows differences in the calculations of BMI values over the four-year period, which also increased year after year. The average values for males were calculated to be 21.22 ± 2.26 kg/m² in the first year, 22.08 ± 2.22 kg/m² in the second, 22.52 ± 2.21 kg/m² in the third, and 23.80 ± 2.24 kg/m² in the fourth; and for females to be 18.40 ± 1.87 kg/m² in the first year, 19.407 ± 1.84 kg/m² in the second, 20.229 ± 1.89 kg/m² in the third, and 21.589 ± 1.85 kg/m² in the fourth. These differences are statistically significant at a p level of $<.01$. According to these data, yearly changes in body weight naturally affect BMI.

Table 4.

Variance Analysis Evaluation of the Repeated Measurement Levels of Body Fat Percentage

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	Sig.
BFP	Sphericity Assumed	947,823	3	315,941	363,192	,000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	947,823	1,351	701,316	363,192	,000
	Huynh-Feldt	947,823	1,373	690,241	363,192	,000
	Lower-bound	947,823	1,000	947,823	363,192	,000
BFP * group	Sphericity Assumed	3,148	3	1,049	1,206	,307
	Greenhouse-Geisser	3,148	1,351	2,330	1,206	,288
	Huynh-Feldt	3,148	1,373	2,293	1,206	,289
	Lower-bound	3,148	1,000	3,148	1,206	,274
Error (BFP)	Sphericity Assumed	307,945	354	,870		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	307,945	159,476	1,931		
	Huynh-Feldt	307,945	162,035	1,900		
	Lower-bound	307,945	118,000	2,610		

$p < .01$

Table 4 displays changes in body fat percentages of participants over the four years of study. For male participants, body fat percentages were estimated as $12.22 \pm 1.61\%$ in the first year, $13.47 \pm 0.98\%$ in the second, $14.56 \pm 1.43\%$ in the third, and $15.96 \pm 1.43\%$ in the fourth. For female students, the calculations were $14.54 \pm 2.13\%$ in the first year, $15.64 \pm 1.61\%$ in the second, $16.74 \pm 1.85\%$ in the third, and $18.54 \pm 1.85\%$ in the fourth. At the end of their education, body fat percentages on average increased by 3.74% for males and by 4% for females. The differences over years show a statistical significance at a p level of $.01$.

Table 5 displays the changes in flexibility of participants over the four-year study period. Flexibility values for male students were estimated to be $29.59 \pm 7.60\%$ in the first year, $27.84 \pm 7.37\%$ in the second, $26.56 \pm 7.23\%$ in the third, and $23.84 \pm 7.23\%$ in the fourth. Calculations for female students were recorded as $32.56 \pm 5.51\%$ in the first year, $30.70 \pm 5.26\%$ in the second, $29.84 \pm 5.12\%$ in the third, and $25.16 \pm 5.12\%$ in the fourth. Values for both male and female students in our study declined year after year for all four years. At the end of the period, flexibility for male participants decreased by 5.75 cm and by 7.40 cm for female participants. These differences in years show a statistical significance at the $.01$ level.

Table 5.*Variance Analysis Evaluation of the Repeated Measurement Levels of Flexibility*

<i>Source</i>		<i>Type III sum of squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean square</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Flexibility</i>	Sphericity Assumed	2,690.167	3	896.722	1,561.897	.000
	Greenhouse- Geisser	2,690.167	1.923	1,399.032	1,561.897	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	2,690.167	1.971	1,365.129	1,561.897	.000
	Lower-bound	2,690.167	1.000	2,690.167	1,561.897	.000
<i>Flexibility * Group</i>	Sphericity Assumed	67.713	3	22.571	39.314	.000
	Greenhouse- Geisser	67.713	1.923	35.214	39.314	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	67.713	1.971	34.361	39.314	.000
	Lower-bound	67.713	1.000	67.713	39.314	.000
<i>Error (flexibility)</i>	Sphericity Assumed	203.240	354	.574		
	Greenhouse- Geisser	203.240	226.900	.896		
	Huynh-Feldt	203.240	232.535	.874		
	Lower-bound	203.240	118.000	1.722		

 $p < .01$

Table 6.*Variance Analysis Evaluation of the Repeated Measurement Levels of Vertical Jump*

<i>Source</i>	<i>Type III sum of squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean square</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>p</i>	
<i>Vertical jump</i>	Sphericity assumed	6,216.017	3	2,072.006	1,537.544	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	6,216.017	1.683	3,693.110	1,537.544	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	6,216.017	1.719	3,615.560	1,537.544	.000
	Lower-bound	6,216.017	1.000	6,216.017	1,537.544	.000
<i>Vertical jump * group</i>	Sphericity Assumed	153.017	3	51.006	37.849	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	153.017	1.683	90.912	37.849	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	153.017	1.719	89.003	37.849	.000
	Lower-bound	153.017	1.000	153.017	37.849	.000
<i>Error(vertical jump)</i>	Sphericity assumed	477.053	354	1.348		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	477.053	198.610	2.402		
	Huynh-Feldt	477.053	202.870	2.352		
	Lower-bound	477.053	118.000	4.043		

 $p < .01$

Table 6 displays changes in vertical jump values of participants over the four-year period. Vertical jump values for male students were estimated on average to be $61.19 \pm 5.11\%$ in the first year, $59.46 \pm 5.22\%$ in the second, $57.79 \pm 5.10\%$ in the third, and $52.45 \pm 5.10\%$ in the fourth. For female students, values were estimated on average to be $49.74 \pm 6.60\%$ in the first year, $43.22 \pm 5.55\%$ in the second, $38.77 \pm 5.41\%$ in the third, and $\pm 5.41\%$ in the fourth. Values for both male and female students participating in the study decreased year by year for all four years, after which vertical jump values for male students decreased on average by 8.74 cm and for females by 10.97 cm. These differences in years show statistical significance at the .01 level.

Table 7.

Variance Analysis Evaluation of the Repeated Measurement Levels of Anaerobic Power

Source		Type III sum of squares	df	Mean square	f	p
Anaerobic power	Sphericity assumed	876.770	3	292.257	123.803	.000
	Greenhouse- Geisser	876.770	1.783	491.639	123.803	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	876.770	1.824	480.631	123.803	.000
	Lower-bound	876.770	1.000	876.770	123.803	.000
Anaerobic power * group	Sphericity assumed	51.582	3	17.194	7.284	.000
	Greenhouse- Geisser	51.582	1.783	28.924	7.284	.001
	Huynh-Feldt	51.582	1.824	28.276	7.284	.001
	Lower-bound	51.582	1.000	51.582	7.284	.008
Error (anaerobic power)	Sphericity assumed	835.676	354	2.361		
	Greenhouse- Geisser	835.676	210.437	3.971		
	Huynh-Feldt	835.676	215.256	3.882		
	Lower-bound	835.676	118.000	7.082		

$p < .01$

Table 7 shows changes in the anaerobic power of participants over the four-year period. Anaerobic power was calculated for males to be 118.66 ± 12.98 kg/m/s in the first year, 121.68 ± 12.41 kg/m/s in the second, 122.32 ± 12.29 kg/m/s in the third, and 123.15 ± 12.38 kg/m/s in the fourth. For females, these values were 80.24 ± 9.82 kg/m/s in the first year, 81.97 ± 9.82 kg/m/s in the second, 82.29 ± 9.71 kg/m/s in the third, and 83.13 ± 9.52 kg/m/s in the fourth. Anaerobic power levels for both male and female students increased every year starting with the first and continuing for four years. These differences in years show statistical significance at the .01 level.

Table 8.*Variance Analysis Evaluation of the Repeated Measurement Levels of Aerobic Power*

<i>Source</i>		<i>Type III sum of squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean square</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Aerobic power</i>	Sphericity assumed	5,541.305	3	1,847.102	2,865.94	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	5,541.305	1.907	2,906.341	2,865.94	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	5,541.305	1.954	2,836.519	2,865.94	.000
	Lower-bound	5,541.305	1.000	5,541.305	2,865.94	.000
<i>Aerobic power * group</i>	Sphericity assumed	38.813	3	12.938	20.074	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	38.813	1.907	20.357	20.074	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	38.813	1.954	19.868	20.074	.000
	Lower-bound	38.813	1.000	38.813	20.074	.000
<i>Error (aerobic power)</i>	Sphericity assumed	228.153	354	.645		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	228.153	224.982	1.014		
	Huynh-Feldt	228.153	230.520	.990		
	Lower-bound	228.153	118.000	1.934		

 $p < .01$

Lastly, Table 8 displays changes in aerobic power of participants over the same four years. The aerobic power was estimated for male students to be 39 ± 1.99 ml/kg/min in the first year, 55.83 ± 1.96 ml/kg/min in the second, 52.97 ± 1.94 ml/kg/min in the third, and 49.24 ± 1.99 ml/kg/min in the fourth. For female students, the figures were 47.88 ± 4.81 ml/kg/min in the first year, 45.03 ± 4.65 ml/kg/min in the second, 42.67 ± 4.81 ml/kg/min in the third, and 39.26 ± 4.03 ml/kg/min in the fourth. The aerobic power of both male and female students decreased every year for four years. These differences in years show statistical significance at the .01 level.

Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, specific physical and physiological features of PE and sports students were examined over a four-year period beginning with their first year of university study and culminating with their fourth. The average age of participants was 20.01 years for male and 19.12 years for females during the first year. The average height for participants was 179.83 cm for males and 167.37 cm for females. When body weight was inspected, for males the average weight was 68.61 ± 7.13 kg

for the first year, 71.37 ± 6.64 kg for the second, 72.77 ± 6.65 kg for the third, and 76.92 ± 6.76 kg for the fourth. For females, body weight average was 51.66 ± 6.44 kg for the first year, 54.48 ± 6.41 kg for the second, 56.77 ± 6.41 kg for the third, and 60.56 ± 6.28 kg for the fourth. Body weights for both males and females thus increased year after year from the first year onwards. The average weight increase at the end of four years of study was 8.31 kg for males and 8.90 kg for females, both of which are significant at a level of $p < .01$.

A similar study of the body weights and heights of students from similar age groups showed that the average weight for males was 70.1 ± 8.1 kg and for females 58.7 ± 11.9 kg (Karakus, 2005). More recently, Tuncel et al. (2009) showed that the average weight for males is 75.08 kg and for females 56.37 kg. Gunay et al. (2004) calculated the average body weights of male soccer players to be 70.25 ± 5.66 kg. For participants of similar age and height leading sedentary lifestyles, Dover et al. (2005) found body weights for females to be 59.50 ± 6.57 kg, while Revan et al. (2008) found male weight to be 73.1 ± 7.6 kg in a similar study of sedentary students. In another study conducted with elite tennis players in France, Flaire et al. (2009) reported that the body weight for female tennis players was 55.2 ± 2.7 kg. In the present study, while body weights showed similarities during the first years of education, students' body weights reached a level characteristic of sedentary people by their fourth year. This situation demonstrates that students down shifted from active lifestyles during their four years of education into sedentary ones. The findings of related literature thus support ours regarding the body weight values of active and sedentary students.

Annual changes in body weight naturally affect BMI, which in this study increased year after year. The average values for males' BMI were calculated to be 21.22 ± 2.26 kg/m² for the first year, 22.08 ± 2.22 kg/m² for the second, 22.52 ± 2.21 kg/m² for the third, and 23.80 ± 2.24 kg/m² in the fourth. For females, average BMI values were calculated to be 18.40 ± 1.87 kg/m² for the first year, 19.407 ± 1.84 kg/m² for the second, 20.229 ± 1.89 kg/m² for the third, and 21.589 ± 1.85 kg/m² for the fourth. These increases are statistically significant at a level of $p < .01$. Among related research, Hingorjo et al. (2009) calculated BMI values for university students in Karachi to be 23.82 ± 3.88 kg/m² for males and 20.98 ± 4.12 kg/m² for females, while Kitano et al. (2001) revealed that the BMI values for female university students in Japan were 20.1 ± 0.3 kg/m². Meanwhile, Arroyo et al. (2005) reported the BMI values of 653 university students in Spain to be 21.8 ± 6.8 kg/m², Tang (2006) found that BMI values for students aged from 9 to 22 years to be 24.2 ± 2.1 kg/m² and Grigoris et al. (2008) found BMI values for female volleyball players to be 22.1 ± 1.8 kg/m². As such, findings regarding BMI from our review of related literature show similarities with our findings. Perhaps more striking, although there was a meaningful increase in BMI values over a four-year period among participants studying at the School of Physical Education and Sports, their BMI values remained inside a range (18.5 – 24.5 kg/m²) considered to be normal by WHO standards (WHO 2010).

Body fat percentages for male students were estimated to be $12.22 \pm 1.61\%$ in the first year, $13.47 \pm 0.98\%$ in the second, $14.56 \pm 1.43\%$ in the third and $15.96 \pm 1.43\%$ in the fourth. For female students, calculations were $14.54 \pm 2.13\%$ in the first year, $15.64 \pm 1.61\%$ in the second, $16.74 \pm 1.85\%$ in the third, and $18.54 \pm 1.85\%$ in the fourth. Body fat percentages both for male and female students thus showed an increase from the first year that continued year after year. As such, differences among years showed statistical meaningfulness at a level of 0.01. At the end of these students' education, body fat percentages had increased on average by 3.74% for males and 4% for females. Senel et al. have (2009) calculated body fat percentages for male wrestlers studying at the same School of Physical Education and Sports to be $12.21 \pm 2.95\%$. Meanwhile, Saka et al. (2008) found body fat percentages for male university sportsmen of $11.2 \pm 3.1\%$, while earlier Tamer et al. (1991) calculated body fat percentages of students studying at METU Preparatory School to be 14.9% regardless of sex. Yuksek and Cicioglu (2004) studied elite female judokas whose body fat percentages were determined to be $20.12 \pm 3.90\%$ for Turkish judokas and $20.23 \pm 5.99\%$ for Russian ones. Kiss et al. (2009) also determined body fat percentages for 1,560 female university students in Budapest that fell between 18.34% and 25.37%. By extension, Agopyan (2015) has reported that exercise and eating habits of university students affect their body composition.

The inspection of body fat percentages in this study's similarly aged group indicated that percentages during students' first year were similar to those of an active sports population, yet during their fourth year had increased to levels comparable to those of sedentary people. This result demonstrates that students in the research group shifted from active, sports-oriented life styles to ones that are more sedentary.

Flexibility values for male students were estimated to be $29.59 \pm 7.60\%$ for the first year, $27.84 \pm 7.37\%$ for the second, $26.56 \pm 7.23\%$ for the third, and $23.84 \pm 7.23\%$ for the fourth. For female students, these values were $32.56 \pm 5.51\%$ for the first year, $30.70 \pm 5.26\%$ for the second, $29.84 \pm 5.12\%$ for the third, and $25.16 \pm 5.12\%$ for the fourth. Flexibility values for both male and female students in our study thus decreased every year after the first, a value decline that continued for all four years. These year-to-year differences show a statistical significance at *ap* level of 0.01. At the end of four years, flexibility levels for male participants had decreased by 5.75 cm and by 7.4 cm for female participants. Pamuk et al. (2009) conducted a study with male basketball players in a second-tier league and found that their flexibility was 27 ± 7.38 cm; by contrast, regional-league players' flexibility was 23.6 ± 5.61 cm. In other studies of flexibility, Duncan et al. (2006) reported flexibility values for elite male volleyball players to be 37 ± 10.7 cm, while Dawson et al. (2005) reported flexibility levels for soccer players to be 23.3 ± 9.2 cm. Though the flexibility levels of students in our research during their first year were similar to other findings in the literature, their flexibility clearly decreased over the course of the following four years.

Vertical jump values for male students were estimated on average to be $61.19 \pm 5.11\%$ for the first year, $59.46 \pm 5.22\%$ for the second, $57.79 \pm 5.10\%$ for the third and $52.45 \pm 5.10\%$ for the fourth. For female students, values on average were estimated to be $49.74 \pm 6.60\%$ for the first year, $46.61 \pm 5.83\%$ for the second, $43.22 \pm 5.55\%$ for the third, and $38.77 \pm 5.41\%$ in the fourth. Vertical jump values for both male and female students thus decreased year after year for all four years at a significance level of 0.01. At the end of the four years, the vertical jump values for male students decreased on average by 8.74 cm and for females by 10.97 cm.

Koc et al. (2007) measured vertical jump levels for university handball players to be 46.4 ± 8.9 cm, for university volleyball players to be 37.8 ± 4.1 cm, and for sedentary university students to be 34.0 ± 4.3 cm. In another study, Gelen (2008) inspected the influence of different warm-up techniques on vertical jump levels and measured these levels of sedentary males who had used one of three differing warm-up techniques to be 29.53 ± 0.3 cm, 35.14 ± 0.2 cm, and 32.51 ± 0.1 cm, respectively. While the vertical jump levels of students participating in the present paper display similarities to those of athletes studied in related literature, the values during subsequent years clearly decreased.

The anaerobic power of participants were calculated for males to be 118.66 ± 12.98 kg/m/s for the first year, 121.68 ± 12.41 kg/m/s for the second, 122.32 ± 12.29 kg/m/s for the third and 123.15 ± 12.38 kg/m/s for the fourth. For females, the measurements were 80.24 ± 9.82 kg/m/s for the first year, 81.97 ± 9.82 kg/m/s for the second, 82.29 ± 9.71 kg/m/s for the third, year and 83.13 ± 9.52 kg/m/s for the fourth. The anaerobic power of both male and female students in this study increased year after year beginning with the first year of study for all four years, differences that are statistically significant at p level of 0.01.

In research conducted by Albay et al. (2008), anaerobic power for male university student athletes was found to be 146.05 ± 16.67 kg/m/s for volleyball players, 119.06 ± 13.26 kg/m/s for soccer players and 133.39 ± 15.41 kg/m/s for handball players. Karakollukcu and Aslan (2008) stated that anaerobic power for male gymnasts was 129.48 ± 15.10 kg/m/s, while Goral (2008) calculated anaerobic power levels of university tennis players to be 149.41 ± 17.47 kg/m/s. Meanwhile, Aslan (2008) measured the anaerobic power of sportswomen aged 21 years to be 91.82 ± 8.89 kg/m/s, of sedentary females in their twenties to be 75.16 ± 11.72 kg/m/s, and sedentary females in their thirties to be 87.66 ± 15.62 kg/m/s. In our study, though many parameters of performance show decline, anaerobic power increased among the participating students. In this sense, body weight is an important factor for the formula used to calculate anaerobic power, since more power is needed for jumping with a heavier body.

As such, the anaerobic power of our participants increased, given their increased body weight.

The aerobic power (MaxV_{O_2}) of male students in the study was found to be 39 ± 1.99 ml/kg/min for the first year, 55.83 ± 1.96 ml/kg/min for the second, 52.97 ± 1.94

ml/kg/min for the third and 49.24 ± 1.99 ml/kg/min for the fourth. For female students, these values were 47.88 ± 4.81 ml/kg/min for the first year, 45.03 ± 4.65 ml/kg/min for the second, 42.67 ± 4.81 ml/kg/min for the third and 39.26 ± 4.03 ml/kg/min for the fourth. The aerobic power levels of students of both sexes in the study thus decreased every year during the four-year period, the year-to-year differences of which are statistically significant at *ap* level of 0.01.

Albay et al. (2008) calculated the anaerobic power of male university volleyball players to be 45.72 ± 2.21 ml/kg/min, of soccer football athletes to be 49.91 ± 3.33 ml/kg/min, and of handball players to be 49.95 ± 3.84 ml/kg/min. Yaprak and Aslan (2008) evaluated the aerobic powers of students of the same School of Physical Education and Sports who were also members of the badminton team to be 52.70 ± 10.02 ml/kg/min and of students who leading sedentary life styles to be 51.06 ± 7.19 ml/kg/min. Meanwhile, Pamuket et al. (2008) calculated the aerobic powers of second-league basketball players to be 50.81 ± 11.57 ml/kg/min and of regional-league players to be 46.65 ± 3.98 ml/kg/min. Nasis et al. (2009) calculated the aerobic powers of soccer players who completed a 20 m shuttle run to be 56.5 ± 9.6 ml/kg/min, while Casajus and Castagna (2007) calculated the aerobic power levels of elite soccer referees in Spain to be 54.9 ± 3.9 ml/kg/min.

Conclusion

As with other parameters, the aerobic capacities of participants in our study decreased over the period of four years. While MaxV_{O₂} values were at the levels of sports athletes when they first started school, these values decreased to those of sedentary people by the end of the study period. As a result, it was determined that the body weight, BMI, body fat percentage, flexibility, anaerobic power, and aerobic capacities of students who pass the difficult entrance examination for the School of Physical Education and Sports are at levels similar to those of sports athletes. It was also determined that the performance levels of these students decreased with each passing year to reach the level of sedentary people by the end of the fourth year of university study.

As a result, the main and indispensable aim of physical education and sports teacher training departments should be to train qualified and professional teacher candidates who will be responsible for raising the future generations. At this point, evaluating the situation and taking the necessary precautions are important for defining and filling the gaps immediately.

Recommendations

The situation described by the above results can be explained by the fact that students attending the School of Physical Education and Sports have an intense course load and potentially an excess of theoretical courses, which may ultimately prevent them from participating in regular sports training. Furthermore, students in Turkey are responsible for preparing for a rigorous, theoretically based examination upon graduating from university in order to become PE teachers. The obligation of

exam preparation often dominates these students free time outside normal university class responsibilities and thereby limits their time and opportunity to participate in sports and fitness activities.

In light of these findings, it is recommended that there be a thorough review and revision of the curriculum for PE and sports schools in Turkey. Future PE curriculum and instruction should emphasize training PE teachers to be healthy, knowledgeable, and prepared teachers for their students, other athletes, and fellow teachers. By extension, this study can be repeated with multiple groups and students from regions with different socioeconomic and cultural structures.

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Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Öğretmenliği Bölümünde Okuyan Öğrencilerin Dört Yıllık Eğitim Sürecindeki Fiziksel ve Fizyolojik Özelliklerinin İncelenmesi

Atıf:

Ocak, Y. (2016). The four-year an investigation of physical and physiological features of students in a physical education and sports department. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 217-238
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Özet

Problem Durumu: Özel yetenek sınavlarıyla Beden eğitimi ve Spor Yüksekokullarına giren öğrenciler ya iyi bir spor özgeçmişine, ya da çok iyi bir ön hazırlığa ihtiyaç duymaktadırlar. Bir başka ifadeyle Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bölümlerine giren öğrencilerin fiziksel ve fizyolojik özellikleri, elit sporcuların profilleriyle benzerlik göstermektedir. Fakat özellikle Yüksek Öğretim Kurumu tarafından belirlenen ve tüm Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Öğretmenliği bölümlerinin zorunlu olarak uyguladığı ders programlarındaki teorik derslerin fazlalığı ve yoğun bir müfredat programı sonrasında öğrenci, okul ya da spor arasında bir tercih yapmak zorunda kalmaktadır.

Büyük bir çoğunluğu gelecekte iyi bir mesleğe sahip olabilmek için okulu tercih ederek spordan uzaklaşmaktadırlar. Son sınıfa gelindiğinde de ise öğrencilerin büyük çoğunluğu sedanter bir insan profiline dönüşmektedir. İnsanlarımızın sağlıklı ve kaliteli bir yaşam sürdürebilmeleri için spora yönlendirilmesinde, yetenekli insanların tespit edilmesinde önemli bir görev üstlenen, öğrencilerine ve topluma model olan beden eğitimi öğretmenlerinin yetiştirilmesindeki bu çelişki düşündürücüdür.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Yukarıda bahsedilen problemlerden yola çıkılarak, beden eğitimi ve spor öğretmenliği bölümünde okuyan öğrencilerin okulu kazandıkları ilk yıldan itibaren dört yıl boyunca her yıl bazı fiziksel ve fizyolojik parametlerinin ölçümlerinin yapılması ve değerlendirilmesi amaçlanmıştır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Yüksek Okulunda, Beden Eğitimi Öğretmenliği Bölümünde okuyan 70 erkek, 50 kadın, toplam 120 öğrenci katılmıştır. Öğrencilerin okulu kazandıkları ilk yıldan itibaren dört yıl boyunca ilk yıl güz yarıyılında kasım ayında, diğer üç yılda bahar yarıyılında mayıs ayında, bazı fiziksel ve fizyolojik parametlerinin ölçümleri yapıldı. Ölçümlerde, vücut ağırlıkları, boy uzunlukları, vücut yağ yüzdeleri, vücut kitle indexleri, esneklikleri, dikey sıçramaları, anaerobik ve aerobik güçleri tespit edildi. İstatistiksel değerlendirmelerde, repeated measures analizi kullanıldı. Sonuçlar 0,01 ve 0,05 seviyesinde değerlendirildi.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Araştırmaya katılan öğrencilerin dört yıllık ölçümleri sonucunda, tüm yıllarda bir önceki yıla göre vücut ağırlıkları, vücut yağ oranları ve anaerobik güçleri artmış, dikey sıçramaları mesafeleri, esneklik değerleri ve aerobik güçleri de azalmıştır. Tüm bu değişiklikler istatistiki olarak 0,01 düzeyinde de anlamlılığı ifade etmektedir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Öneriler: Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Yüksek Okulunun özel yetenek sınavına giren öğrencilerin profilleri sporcuların seviyelerindedir. Öğrencilerin bu performans seviyeleri her geçen yıl azalmaktadır. Hatta bu özellikleri dördüncü yıla gelindiğinde sedanter insanlar seviyesine kadar gerilemektedir. Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Yüksekokulu öğrencilerinin yoğun ders programları ve teorik derslerin fazlalığı, öğrencilere okul ya da spor arasında bir tercih yapma zorunluluğunda bırakmaktadır. Bu zorunluluk birçok öğrenci okulunu tercih etmesiyle sonuçlanmaktadır. Bu durum onları spordan uzaklaştıran önemli bir faktör olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

Sonuç olarak, çalışma bulguları Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Öğretmenliği Bölümlerinin müfredat programlarının tekrar gözden geçirilerek düzenlenmesi gerekliliğini düşündürmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Beden eğitimi ve spor, öğretmen, performans, fiziksel, fizyolojik.

Do Lifestyles Shape Self-Regulated Learning Strategies?

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Being a virtuous citizen, developing communication skills, and becoming a life-long learner are directly proportionate to the individuals' perspectives on life. Provided that an education system is able to positively change the individuals' perspectives on life, it may allow individuals to acquire terminal behaviors easier. This is due to the fact that an individual's perspective on life is a significant factor that has an effect on his or her habits and behaviors. Determination of the main characteristics of this perspective on life, referred as lifestyles will definitely make a significant contribution to the understanding of which factors play a role in the behaviors and habits of the individuals.

Purpose of the Study: The objective of this paper is to determine whether there is a correlation between the lifestyles adopted by individuals in their social lives and the self-regulated learning skills they use during the learning process.

Method: In this paper, correlation research design was used and the data was gathered from a total of 726 student teachers between the ages of 20 and 35, who were still in their final year studying in various departments in the faculty of education or those who receive pedagogical formation (teacher certificate program). Lifestyle

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Inventory was used to determine the lifestyles of the student teachers and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies Scale was used to determine the self-regulated skills of the students in the study. Correlation analysis was carried out to determine whether there was a correlation between the lifestyles of the student teachers and their self-regulated learning strategies and regression analysis was performed to determine which types of lifestyles were the predictors of self-regulated learning strategies.

Findings: The results of the study indicated that there was a positive correlation between self-regulated learning strategies and perfection, appreciation, expectation, control, and self-respect-oriented lifestyles of the students. Perfection-oriented lifestyle had the highest level of positive correlation whereas control-oriented lifestyle had the lowest level of positive correlation with self-regulated learning strategies. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis carried out to determine which lifestyles as a dependent variable had significant contribution to self-regulated learning strategies showed that the variables that made topmost contribution to the model were perfection, appreciation, and expectation-oriented lifestyles, respectively.

Conclusion and Recommendations: The results of the study indicate that lifestyles are associated with the learning strategies of the individuals. A review of literature shows that families and teachers have a significant role in shaping the lifestyles adopted by students. Consequently, it is considered important that parents and teachers should be knowledgeable about the factors influential in shaping the lifestyles of the students, and they should be informed about their responsibilities in this respect. The role of lifestyles should be emphasized to parents with regards to the process of raising children, and it should also be included in curriculum for teacher education. If expectation lifestyles students are educated at the school, they might use their self regulated learning strategies more effectively. In this case, teaching and learning process which includes many activities might be designed to improve student academic achievement expectations. This study investigated the relationship between lifestyles and self regulated learning strategies. On the other hand, the investigation for the effects of the variables likes lifestyles and motivation, well being, and self conception self regulated learning strategies will contribute its nature.

Keywords: Lifestyles, self-regulation, learning strategies, teacher education.

Introduction

Undoubtedly, being a virtuous citizen, developing communication skills, and becoming a life-long learner are directly proportionate to the individuals' perspectives on life. Provided that an education system is able to positively change the individuals' perspectives on life, it may allow individuals to acquire terminal behaviors easier. This is due to the fact that an individual's perspective on life is a significant factor that has an effect on his or her habits and behaviors. Determination of the main characteristics of this perspective on life, referred as lifestyles (Kern & Cummins, 1996), will definitely make a significant contribution to the understanding of which factors play a role in the behaviors and habits of the individuals.

An analysis of the lifestyles adopted by individuals during the course of their daily lives points to five different lifestyles. Such individuals were classified as having lifestyles oriented by "control", "perfection", "appreciation", "self-respect", and "expectation" (Kern & Cummins, 1996). Lifestyles adopted by individuals have significant impacts on their lives in the future years. Adler (2013) stated that the lifestyles of the individuals were substantially formed during their childhood. Nevertheless, the existence of environmental factors that may have an effect on such formations should not be overlooked. In this respect, it can be said that individuals' value judgments, interests, intellectual skills, perceptual reactions, dreams as well as eating, sleeping and sexual habits, developed objectives, and world views are formed by their lifestyles (Özpolat, 2011). In this context, the determination of the correlation between self-regulated skills, defined as a way to regulate emotions, ideas, and actions that are influenced by cognitive, affective, motivational and behavioral components and are decided under environmental conditions so that the individuals would be able to achieve the goals set by themselves (Zhu & Yates, 2016; Zimmerman, 2005), and lifestyles as well as research on the characteristics of these two structures may contribute to the identification of the reasons for a number of problems encountered during the teaching and learning process in addition to the reasons for poor academic achievement with regards to the individual. This is due to the fact that self-regulated skills are associated with behavior control and being goal-oriented (Baumeister & Heatherton 1996; Carver & Scheier, 2011; Schnell et.al., 2015; Wang, Liu & Ryan, 2016).

In terms of social cognitive theory in particular, considering the fact that learning occurs as a consequence of interactions amongst individual, environmental, and behavioral components (Zimmerman 2005), the effects of the interactions between the individual and the environment on the learning process would be inevitable. Furthermore, it is a fact that the classroom environment as well as review, feedback, and correction factors used during the teaching and learning process are amongst the factors that have an effect on learning (Akgul, Cokamay & Demir, 2016; Kadioğlu & Uzuntiryaki-Kondakçı, 2014; Kim, Wang, Ahn & Bong, 2015; Lima Filho, de Lima & Bruni, 2015; Mace, Belfiore & Hutchinson, 2001; Sletten, 2015). On the other hand, the perceptions of the students about themselves and their views about the classroom environment are also found amongst the components that influence the learning process (Leow & Neo, 2015; Nelson, Ysseldyke & Christ, 2015). The role of the self-

regulated skills of the individual on the learning process will come into play during this process. This is due to the fact that self-regulated skills have a significant effect on an individual's academic performance and in-class achievement (Festas, Oliveira, Rebelo, Damiao, Harris & Graham, 2015; Hofer, Yu & Pintrich, 1998; Karabenick & Zusho, 2015; Kassab, Al-Shafei, Salem & Otoom, 2015; Laru & Jarvela, 2015). Considering the fact that self-regulation has three components as behavioral, environmental, and implicit self-regulation, having three sub-processes as self-observation, self-judgment, and self-reaction (Duncan & McKeachie, 2005; Zimmerman, 2001; 2005), the variables having a role in the learning process of the students can be identified more clearly.

The determination of the correlation between these factors that are included in the scope of self-regulation and the lifestyles of the individuals will contribute to the understanding of the learning process of the students. In this respect, the determination of the correlation between the lifestyles of the individuals and the strategies used during the learning process will contribute to the literature by providing a different perspective to answer such a question as "why do some students have a higher academic achievement whereas others have a lower academic achievement?" On the other hand, the literature review indicates that the number of studies on this subject remains insufficient whereas it is considered that the subject is essential with regards to parental and teacher education. This is due to the fact that families and teachers are variables that have an impact on the lifestyles of the individuals (Kern, Wheeler & Curlette, 1997). In this framework, the following hypotheses have been analyzed to determine the extent of the correlation between the foregoing lifestyles adopted by the individuals during the course of their lives and their self-regulated learning skills.

H1: Control-oriented Lifestyle will be Positively Related to Self-regulated Learning Strategies

It is possible to observe that individuals who efficiently use self-regulated skills have such typical characteristics as they manage and control the learning process, and they evaluate the outcomes of their performance. In other words, individuals who efficiently use self-regulated skills also play an essential role in the learning process. As Zimmerman (2002; 2005) emphasized, self-regulation is "the overall feelings, ideas, and actions circularly adapted and planned by the individual to achieve personal goals". This process naturally requires the individual to play an efficient role in each step of the process. Individuals having a control-oriented lifestyle were observed to be dominant, influential, and persuasive individuals (Kern & Cummins, 1996). Control-oriented individuals can be said to prefer playing an active role on the factors that affect their lives, and controlling the process as much as possible. According to Özpölat (2011), individuals who adopt a control-oriented lifestyle have a controlled approach to everything because they are wary of being a failure in their lives. In this respect, control-oriented individuals would make efficient use of self-regulated skills so as not to fall victim of such failures. In this context, it can be said that there is a highly significant positive correlation between control-oriented lifestyle and self-regulated learning strategies.

H2: Perfection-oriented Lifestyle will be Positively Related to Self-regulated Learning Strategies

Individuals who make efficient use of self-regulated skills share certain characteristics such as engaging in planned study, managing the learning process carefully, and implementing the learning process in a way that they minimize the possibility of making mistakes during the learning process (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). Schunk and Ertmer (2005) stated that individuals who made efficient use of self-regulated skills had positive beliefs about the learning process and that they used their capacity at higher levels in order to achieve the learning goals set by them (Zimmerman, 2001). In this context, individuals having a perfection-oriented lifestyle also make use of similar characteristics in their lives in general. Individuals having a perfection-oriented lifestyle are those who focus on environmental factors, having a cautious approach, and are wary of making mistakes (Kern & Cummins, 1996). Such individuals believe that they have a high capacity as they grew up in a comfortable family environment for which they have a sense of belonging (Kern et al., 1997). This belief may lead to the notion that they are supposed to be the best in the things they do. In particular, such individuals' beliefs about being perfect would be stronger if this belief was at a neurotic level (Eddington, 2014). Thus, perfection-oriented lifestyle is positively related to self-regulated learning strategies.

H3: Appreciation-oriented Lifestyle will be Positively Related to Self-regulated Learning Strategies

Individuals who make efficient use of self-regulated skills have been observed to pay attention to social factors especially in the learning process. Such social factors may also have an influence on the quality of the learning process. Individuals who make efficient use of self-regulated skills have a tendency to ask for help from their social environment whenever they encounter a challenging situation during the learning process. Such individuals also prefer to learn from their friends in social environment (Carver & Scheier, 2011; Karabenick & Knapp, 1991; Topping, 2005). Undoubtedly, this requires individuals to have a developed social and communication skills. It can be suggested that individuals who have sufficient social communication skills would be on good terms with their peer groups and this condition would have an effect on their approach to learning strategies. Individuals with high levels of self-regulated skills appreciate actions which they find noteworthy and interesting. In this context, a goal or a request is perceived as a need by an individual provided that it was appreciated (Ryan, 1995). As long as the necessary opportunities are provided, individuals' needs for appreciation may contribute to the development of self-regulated skills (Deci, Ryan & Williams, 1996; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987). In this regard, considering that individuals having an appreciation-oriented lifestyle are friendly, good at social relations, and efficiently use communication skills, it can be said that these individuals may use self-regulated skills at a high level.

H4: Self-Respect-oriented Lifestyle will be Positively Related to Self-regulated Learning Strategies

Individuals with higher levels of self-regulated skills are efficient and active during the learning process (Boekaerts, Pintrich & Zeidner, 2005; Zimmerman 2001; 2002). These individuals naturally set goals for themselves in the learning process (Ley & Young, 2001), create an efficient learning environment, and assess the quality of their performance. Such characteristics indicate that these individuals plan their actions beforehand, approach the learning process from a broad perspective, and maintain a positive attitude towards the learning process. Moreover, considering that individuals having a self-respect-oriented lifestyle believe that they are able to overcome many obstacles encountered during their lives, encouraging themselves and others to deal with such obstacles (Kern & Cummins, 1996; Raj, Siddique & Rani, 2012), it can be said that these individuals may use self-regulated skills at a high level. In this context, it can be suggested that self-regulated skills are positively related to self-respect-oriented lifestyle.

H5: Expectation-oriented Lifestyle will be Positively Related to Self-regulated Learning Strategies

Individuals with high levels of self-regulated skills make efficient use of meta cognitive strategies, focus on learning goals, and make substantial efforts to achieve such goals. Especially with regards to the effort regulation as a sub-dimension of self-regulated skills, it was observed that such individuals did not abandon their learning goals even when faced with distracting factors (Corno, 1994). Moreover, individuals who approach the learning process in this way are observed to be strong-minded and resistant to the obstacles encountered (Alderman, 2004; Corno, 1994; 2001). In this perspective, individuals having an expectation-oriented lifestyle are considered to be able to make efficient use of self-regulated skills in the learning process. This is due to the fact that individuals having an expectation-oriented lifestyle are hardworking, determined, and ambitious as well as making great efforts to achieve the goals set by them (Kern & Cummins, 1996). Studies indicated that individuals using self-regulated strategies have high levels of problem-solving skills and high performance (Alici, Erden & Baykal, 2008; Kılıç & Tanrıseven, 2007; Kramarski & Revach, 2009; Perels, Gurtler & Schmitz, 2005). Furthermore, the motivational beliefs of the individuals who use self-regulated strategies while solving a math's problem were observed to have increased in line with their expectations (Greene, 2015). Expectation-oriented behaviors have an influence on the development and use of self-regulated behaviors of the individuals (Bandura, 1997). Thus, it can be said that expectation-oriented lifestyle is positively related to the level of use of self-regulated learning strategies.

H6: The Predictive Power of Lifestyles (I.E. Perfection, Expectation, Appreciation, and Control-oriented Lifestyles) to Determine Self-regulated Learning Strategies will be High

It was considered that a number of factors such as traumatic events, learned helplessness as a result of various failures experienced by individuals as well as their

attitudes, beliefs, and psychological well-being may predict lifestyles (Özpolat, 2011). Moreover, considering that lifestyles are associated with the management of intentional behaviors of individuals (that is, losing weight or performing a task) as well as psychological, affectual, behavioral, and motivational processes (Stoltz, Reysen, Wolff & Kern, 2009), it can be said that this motivational process may have an effect on the individuals' self-regulated learning processes. In particular, a general overview of the individuals' lifestyles suggests that some of the lifestyles preferred by individuals may be a predictor of their self-regulated learning strategies.

Within the scope of the hypotheses discussed above, the objective of this study is to determine the correlation between the lifestyles oriented by control, perfection, appreciation, expectation, and self-respect, adopted by the student teachers and their self-regulated skills.

Method

Research Design

Correlational predictive model was used to determine the correlation between the types of lifestyles adopted by the student teachers and their self-regulated skills.

Sample

The study was carried out on the students who studied in Necatibey Faculty of Education in the academic year of 2013-2014. The participants consisted of 800 student teachers who were in their final year in the faculty of education. Nevertheless, due to the fact that some student teachers provided insufficient or misleading information in the scales, the data obtained from a total of 726 student teachers were used in the analysis after the elimination of the inconclusive data. The reason for including only final year students in the study was based on the assumption that individuals in this age range may have a more developed understanding of stable lifestyles and also due to the fact that these final year students were more easily accessible during the period in which the scales were applied. Out of the student teachers participated in the study, 487 student teachers were female (67.1%), and 239 student teachers were male (32.9%) ($SD=0.47$). Out of the participants included in the sample group, 577 participants were between the ages of 20 and 25 (79.4%), 119 participants were between the ages of 26 and 30 (16.4%), and 30 participants were between the ages of 31 and 35 (4.2%).

Research Instruments and Procedure

In order to determine the lifestyles of the student teachers participated in the study, "Lifestyle Inventory" developed by Kern and Cummins (1996) and adapted into Turkish by Özpolat (2011) was used. Lifestyle Inventory consist of 5 sub-dimensions (control, perfectionism, appreciation, self-respect, and expectations) and each sub-dimension consists of 5 items. The questions in the scale are graded from 1 to 5 and the highest score that can be obtained from each sub-scale varies between 5 and 25. Obtaining higher scores from each dimension of the lifestyle inventory

indicates that the individual has adopted that lifestyle (Özpolat, 2011). In this study, the reliability co-efficient of the scale was calculated as 0.77.

The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) developed by Pintrich et al., (1991) was used to determine the self-regulated skills of the student teachers. Self-Regulated Learning Strategies Scale consists of two main sections as learning strategies and motivation (Boekaerts, 1999). In this paper, the cognitive strategies section of the scale was used. The scale is a 7-point Likert type consisting of 50 items, adapted into Turkish by Altun (2005). The scores that can be obtained from the scale vary between 50 and 350. The reliability co-efficient of the scale was calculated as 0.95.

Data Analysis

For data analysis, descriptive analysis (mean values and standard deviation) was carried out to determine the lifestyles and self-regulated skills of the student teachers. Correlation analysis was performed to determine whether there were correlation between the lifestyles and the self-regulated skills whereas multiple linear regression analysis (using stepwise method) was conducted to determine which lifestyles were the predictors of self-regulated skills.

Results

In this study, 5-point likert scale was used to determine the lifestyles and 7-point likert scale was used to determine self-regulated learning strategies of the student teachers. The results of the descriptive analysis are provided in Table 1.

Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Control-oriented lifestyle	726	3.27	.63	-.183	-.321
Perfection-oriented lifestyle	726	3.91	.55	-.337	-.022
Appreciation-oriented lifestyle	726	3.78	.60	-.271	.161
Self-respect-oriented lifestyle	726	3.25	.57	.236	.085
Expectation-oriented lifestyle	726	3.38	.60	-.052	-.017
Self-regulated learning strategies	726	5.07	.66	-.662	.919

The results showed that the student teachers mostly adopted perfection-oriented lifestyle ($M= 3.78$), followed by expectation-oriented ($M=3.38$), control-oriented ($M=3.27$), and finally self-respect-oriented lifestyles ($M= 3.25$). The level of self-regulated learning strategies ($M= 5.07$) of the student teachers was found to be moderate.

The Results of Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was performed to determine the correlation between the lifestyle preferences of the student teachers and their self-regulated learning strategies. The results of the analysis are provided in Table 2.

Table 2.

Correlational Analysis Results

	Self Regulated Learning	Expectation	Self respect	Appreciation	Perfection
Expectation LS	.284*				
Self Respect LS	.219*	.312*			
Appreciation LS	.304*	.082**	.260*		
Perfection LS	.388*	.337*	.206*	.307*	
Control LS	.165*	.488*	.235*	.060**	.221*

* $p < .05$; ** $p > .05$

The results of the analysis indicate that there is a positive correlation between the self-regulated learning strategies and control-oriented ($r=0.165$), self-respect-oriented ($r=0.219$), expectation-oriented ($r=0.284$), appreciation-oriented ($r=0.304$), and perfection-oriented ($r=0.388$) lifestyles. Perfection and appreciation-oriented lifestyles have the moderate level of correlation whereas control, self respect, expectation oriented lifestyles have the lowest level of correlation with self-regulated learning skills. These results support Hypotheses from H1 to H5. In other words, individuals with high scores for control-oriented, perfection-oriented, appreciation-oriented, self-respect-oriented, and expectation-oriented lifestyles also make use of self-regulated learning strategies at higher levels.

The Results of Regression Analysis

With an aim to confirm the last hypothesis of the study, multiple linear regression analysis was carried out using stepwise method to determine which lifestyles were the predictors of self-regulated learning strategies. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 3.

Table 3.*Regression Analysis Results*

	Variables	B	SE	β	t	p
Step 1	Constant	3.257	.162		20.068	.000*
	Perfection LS	.462	.041	.388	11.249	.000*
	R=.388	R ² =.151	Δ R ² =.151	F _(1, 714) =126.535		
	Constant	2.706	.185		14.459	.000*
Step 2	Perfection LS	.388	.042	.325	9.179	.000*
	Appreciation LS	.223	.039	.204	5.751	.000*
	R=.434	R ² =.188	Δ R ² =.038	F _(2, 713) =33.069*		
	Constant	2.311	.198		11.650	.000*
Step 3	Perfection LS	.315	.044	.264	7.159	.000*
	Appreciation LS	.228	.038	.208	5.967	.000*
	Expectation LS	.196	.039	.178	5.044	.000*
	R=.465	R ² =.216	Δ R ² =.028	F _(2, 712) =25.438*		

* $p < .01$; Dependent Variable: Self Regulated Learning Strategies

Based on the results of the stepwise regression analysis, three lifestyles as perfection-oriented ($\beta=0.264$), appreciation-oriented ($\beta=0.208$), and expectation-oriented ($\beta=0.178$) lifestyles, out of five lifestyles, were found to contribute to self-regulated learning strategies. These three variables were determined to account for 22% of the variance. Self-respect and control-oriented lifestyles, compared to perfection, appreciation, and expectation oriented lifestyles, did not contribute significantly to the prediction of self-regulated learning strategies. Although self-respect and control-oriented lifestyles have a linear correlation with self-regulated strategies, it can be said that these lifestyles do not contribute to the model independently as they have a significant correlation with other variables. Perfection-oriented lifestyle was found to make the greatest contribution in the model. There was a statistically significant correlation between the independent variables and the dependent variable however such correlations were found to be moderate ($R= 0.465$).

Discussion and Conclusion

The results of the study indicated that there was a positive correlation between self-regulated learning strategies and perfection, appreciation, expectation, control, and self-respect-oriented lifestyles of the students. Perfection-oriented lifestyle had

the highest level of positive correlation whereas control-oriented lifestyle had the lowest level of positive correlation with self-regulated learning strategies. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis carried out to determine which lifestyles as a dependent variable had significant contribution to self-regulated learning strategies showed that the variables that made topmost contribution to the model were perfection, appreciation, and expectation-oriented lifestyles, respectively.

Although there were studies which indicated that there was a correlation between control-oriented lifestyle and self-regulated skills (McCullough & Willoughby, 2009; Muraven, Baumeister & Tice, 1999), this study found that control-oriented lifestyle did not contribute significantly to self-regulated skills. This is due to the fact that self-respect and control-oriented lifestyles had a linear positive correlation with other variables. However, the results of the correlation analysis indicated that this correlation was not high enough to form an auto-correlation.

Perfection, appreciation, and expectation-oriented lifestyles can be said to be a significant factor for individuals to develop learning strategies. This shows that teachers and families should pay attention to lifestyles with regards to their approach to a student and his or her education especially since the beginning of the student's education life. Considering the fact that experiences encountered by individuals since their childhood shape their lifestyles (Adler, 2013; Kern et al., 1997), the significance of the family structure and education received by individuals during the early periods of their lives can be understood.

Based on the studies carried out on self-regulation, individuals with high levels of self-regulated skills were found to be task-oriented individuals who were able to devote themselves to learning, to follow the learning process, to contemplate on the possible reasons for failures, and to focus on the learning process (Festas et al., 2015; Karabenick & Zusho, 2015; Kassab et al., 2015; Laru & Jarvela, 2015; Schunk & Ertmer, 2005; Zhu et al., 2016; Zimmerman, 2002; 2005). An analysis of the predictive power of the lifestyles to determine self-regulated skills indicated that perfection-oriented lifestyle was found to account for 15% of the self-regulated skills alone. This finding indicates that perfectionist individuals are significantly critical and careful during the learning process as in all spheres of their lives. Individuals having a perfection-oriented lifestyle were found to focus on environmental factors, being careful, and avoid making mistakes (Kern & Cummins, 1996). Individuals who make efficient use of self-regulated skills also pay attention to environmental factors, carry out their studies based on a specific plan, and follow a careful process as much as possible (Boekaerts et al., 2005; Zimmerman, 2002). Thus, it can be suggested that the quality of the lifestyles of the individuals may have an effect on using self-regulated strategies.

Furthermore, the predictive power of appreciation-oriented lifestyle and expectation-oriented lifestyle to predict self-regulated strategies was found to be significant. Correlation between appreciation-oriented lifestyle and self-regulated skills can be explained by the fact that individuals who have adopted this lifestyle give great importance to social interactions and have efficient communication skills

(Topping, 2005). Dominant social aspects and efficient communication skills developed by individuals have a significant effect especially on the occurrence of peer learning and seeking help behaviors contained within the scope of self-regulated skills (Karabenick & Knapp, 1991).

Individuals who adopted an expectation-oriented lifestyle are hardworking, determined, and ambitious, making efficient efforts to achieve the goals set by them (Kern & Cummins, 1996). It was stated that individuals using self-regulated learning strategies made efficient use of meta cognitive strategies, focused on learning goals, and made efforts to achieve these goals (Boekaerts et al., 2005; Schunk & Ertmer, 2005; Zimmerman, 2005). Individuals highly capable of and proficient in "effort regulation" contained in the self-regulated skills were observed that they did not abandon their learning goals on which they have been focused even though distracting factors existed (Alderman, 2004; Corno, 1994; 2001). Individuals having an expectation-oriented lifestyle are characterized by being ambitious, determined, and diligent. These traits contribute to their use of self-regulated skills at a higher level.

As self-regulation is the regulation of behaviors for specific goals, students should be allowed to control their own behaviors internally rather than controlling their behaviors externally. Self-regulation and being goal-oriented are closely associated with self-determination (Deci & Ryan 2000; 2006). Behaviors in favor of students' self-determination as well as the promotion of a lifestyle based on their appreciation have the potential to contribute to the development of self-regulation skills.

It can be said that education activities intended for improving lifestyles of the individuals from early stages of their lives would allow them to choose strategies during the learning process. An individual's childhood experiences, domestic environment in which the individual grows up, and the family structure may constitute a basis for the lifestyles to be adopted by the individual (Adler, 2013; Kern et al., 1997).

Conclusion

In this study, the relationship between lifestyles (control, perfection, appreciation, expectation, and self-respect) and self regulated learning strategies were investigated. The results showed that the pre-service teachers mostly adopted perfection-oriented lifestyle, followed by expectation-oriented, control-oriented, and finally self-respect-oriented lifestyles. The level of self-regulated learning strategies of the pre-service teachers was found to be moderate. The results of the analysis indicate that there is a positive correlation between the self-regulated learning strategies and control-oriented, self-respect-oriented, expectation-oriented, appreciation-oriented, and perfection-oriented lifestyles. The highest relationship between self Regulated Learning Strategies and perfection life style was found. The lowest relationship was stated among control and appreciation of lifestyle with Self Regulated Learning Strategies. The regression analysis presented that perfection, appreciation and expectation lifestyles affected on Self Regulated Learning

Strategies. When the levels of perfection, appreciation and expectation lifestyles of individuals are increased, they also use Self Regulated Learning Strategies well. Additionally, perfection-oriented lifestyle was found to make the greatest contribution in the model. Moreover, control and self-respect lifestyles are not predicted on Self Regulated Learning Strategies in this study.

Recommendations

The results of the study indicate that lifestyles are associated with the learning strategies of the individuals. A review of literature shows that families and teachers have a significant role in shaping the lifestyles adopted by students. Consequently, it is considered important that parents and teachers should be knowledgeable about the factors influential in shaping the lifestyles of the students, and they should be informed about their responsibilities in this respect. The role of lifestyles should be emphasized to parents with regards to the process of raising children, and it should also be included in curriculum for teacher education. If expectation lifestyles students are educated at the school, they might use their self regulated learning strategies more effectively. In this case, teaching and learning process which includes many activities might be designed to improve student academic achievement expectations. This study investigated the relationship between lifestyles and self regulated learning strategies. On the other hand, the investigations for the effects of the variables like lifestyles and motivation, well being, and self conception self regulated learning strategies will contribute its nature.

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Yaşam Stili Öz Düzenleyici Öğrenme Stratejilerini Şekillendirir mi?

Atf:

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Özet

Problem Durumu: Bireylerin etkili bir yurttaş olmaları, iletişim becerilerini geliştirmeleri ve yaşam boyu öğrenen bireyler olmaları kuşkusuz onların hayata bakış açıları ile doğru orantılıdır. Bir eğitim sistemi bireylerin hayata bakış açılarını olumlu yönde değiştirebildiği takdirde onların istedik davranışları daha kolay bir şekilde edinmelerini sağlayabilir. Çünkü bireylerin hayata bakış açısı onların alışkanlıklarını ve davranış tarzlarını etkileyen önemli bir faktördür. Yaşam stilleri olarak adlandırılan bu hayata bakış tarzının temel özelliklerinin belirlenmesi

kuşkusuz bireylerin davranış ve alışkanlıklarına nelerin yön verdiğinin anlaşılmasına önemli bir katkı sağlayacaktır.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Öğretmen adaylarının yaşamlarında benimsedikleri kontrol, mükemmeliyet, memnuniyet, beklenti ve benlik saygısı odaklı stiller ile öz düzenleme becerileri arasındaki ilişkileri belirlemektir.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Araştırmaya eğitim fakültesinin farklı bölümlerinde öğrenim gören son sınıf öğrencileri ile formasyon eğitimi alan yaşları 20 ile 35 arasında değişen toplam 716 öğretmen adayı katılmıştır. Bunlardan 482'si bayan (% 67,3), 234'ü erkektir (% 32,7) (SD= .47). Çalışmada öğretmen adayların yaşam stillerini belirlemek amacıyla, Kern (1996) tarafından geliştirilmiş ve Türkçe uyarlaması Özpolat (2011) tarafından yapılmış "Yaşam Stilleri Envanteri" kullanılmıştır. Öğretmen adayların öz düzenleme becerilerini belirlemek için ise, Pintrich, Smith, Garcia ve McKeachie (1991) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan MSLQ ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Öz-düzenleyici Öğrenme Stratejileri Ölçeği öğrenme stratejileri ve motivasyon olmak üzere iki ana kısımdan oluşmaktadır (Boekaerts, 1999). Bu çalışmada ölçeğin bilişsel stratejiler kısmı kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın yapılacağı hedef kitle belirlendikten sonra çalışmada kullanılan veri toplama araçları 800 kişilik öğretmen adayından oluşan gruba uygulanmıştır. Bu uygulama sonucunda bazı katılımcıların veri toplama araçlarını eksik veya yanlış doldurdıkları gözlenmiştir. Bu tespitler sonucunda toplam 716 öğretmen adayından elde edilen veriler ile istatistiksel analiz yapılmıştır. Verilerin analizinde öğrencilerin yaşam stilleri ve öz düzenleme becerilerinin belirlenmesinde betimsel analiz (ortalama ve standart sapma) yapılmıştır. Yaşam stilleri ile öz düzenleme becerileri arasında ilişki olup olmadığının belirlenmesinde korelasyon analizi ve yaşam stillerinden hangilerinin öz düzenleme becerisini yordadığını belirlemek için çoklu doğrusal regresyon analizi (stepwise method) yapılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Öğrencilerin yaşam stili tercihleri ile öz-düzenleyici öğrenme stratejileri arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemek için korelasyon analizi yapılmıştır. Analiz sonuçları, öz-düzenleyici öğrenme stratejileri ile kontrol odaklı ($r=.165$), benlik saygısı odaklı ($r=.219$), beklenti odaklılık ($r=.284$), memnuniyet odaklılık ($r=.304$) ve mükemmeliyetçi yaşam stilleri ($r=.388$) arasında pozitif korelasyon belirlenmiştir. Buna göre Hipotezler H1-H5 desteklenmiştir. Başka bir ifade ile kontrol odaklı, mükemmeliyetçi, memnuniyet odaklılık, benlik saygısı odaklı ve beklenti odaklı yaşam stilleri yüksek olanların öz-düzenleyici öğrenme stratejilerinin de yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Yaşam stillerinden hangilerinin öz-düzenleyici öğrenme stratejilerini yordadığını belirlemek için aşamalı regresyon kullanılarak çoklu doğrusal regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Aşamalı regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre öz-düzenleyici öğrenme stratejilerine 5 değişkenden mükemmeliyetçi ($\beta=.264$), memnuniyet ($\beta=.208$) ve beklenti ($\beta=.178$) odaklı yaşam stili olmak üzere üçünün katkıda bulunduğu belirlenmiştir. Bu üç değişken varyansın %22'sini yordadığı belirlenmiştir. Modelde en yüksek katkısı olan değişkenin mükemmeliyetçi yaşam stili olduğu belirlenmiştir. Bağımsız değişkenler ile bağımlı değişken arasında istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı ilişki olduğu ancak bu ilişkinin orta düzeyde ($R=.465$) olduğu görülmektedir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Araştırma sonucunda, öğrencilerin öz-düzenleyici öğrenme stratejileri ile mükemmeliyet, memnuniyet, beklenti, kontrol ve benlik saygısı yaşam stilleri arasında pozitif ilişki olduğu belirlenmiştir. Öz düzenleyici öğrenme stratejileri ile en yüksek pozitif ilişki mükemmeliyetçi yaşam stili, en düşük pozitif ilişki ise kontrol odaklı yaşam stili arasındadır. Bağımlı değişken olarak öz düzenleyici öğrenme stratejilerini, bu beş değişkenden (mükemmeliyet, memnuniyet, beklenti, kontrol odaklı ve benlik saygısı yaşam stili) hangisinin yordadığını belirlemek için yapılan çoklu doğrusal regresyon analizi sonucunda modele en çok katkıda bulunan değişkenlerin sırasıyla mükemmeliyetçi, memnuniyet ve beklenti odaklı yaşam stiline olduğu belirlenmiştir. Diğer iki değişkenin (benlik saygısı ve kontrol odaklı) ise bu üç değişken üzerine öz düzenleyici öğrenme üzerine anlamlı bir katkıda bulunmadığı belirlenmiştir. Bunun nedeni ise benlik saygısı ve kontrol odaklı yaşam stillerinin diğer değişkenlerle linear bir pozitif ilişkiye sahip olmasından kaynaklanmaktadır. Ancak, korelasyon analizi sonuçları bu ilişkinin oto korelasyon oluşturacak düzeyde olmadığını göstermektedir. Yapılan araştırmanın sonuçlarına dayanarak yaşam stillerinin bireylerin öğrenme stratejileri ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Literatür incelendiğinde ailelerin, çocuklarının yaşam stillerini şekillendirmede oldukça önemli bir rolünün olduğu görülmüştür. Bundan dolayı ailelerin çocuklarının yaşam stillerini şekillendirmede nelere dikkat etmeleri gerektiği ve anne ve babalara bu konuda hangi görevlerin düştüğü konusunda bilgilerin verilmesinin önemli olduğu düşünülmektedir. Bu bağlamda çocuk yetiştirme sürecinde anne-babalara dönük verilecek eğitim programlarında yaşam stilleri konusuna ayrıca değinilmesinin faydalı olacağı düşünülmektedir. Çocukların yaşam stillerini şekillendirmede önemli görevlerden bir diğeri de öğretmenlere düşmektedir. Öğretmenlerin sınıf içindeki davranışlarının öğrencilerin yaşam stillerini etkilediği ve bununda bireylerin öğrenme stratejilerini şekillendirdiği söylenebilir. Dolayısı ile öğretmenlerin bu konuda yeterli bilgi birikimine sahip olmaları önemlidir. Öğretmenlerin yaşam stillerini geliştirici nitelikte davranışlar üzerine odaklanmaları öğrencilerin öz düzenleme becerilerinin gelişmesine ve beraberinde öğrencilerin akademik başarılarının da artmasına katkı sağladığı düşünülmektedir. Bu bilgiden hareketle eğitim fakültesi ders programlarında yer alan rehberlik dersi kapsamında yaşam stillerine yönelik çalışmalara ayrıca yer verilmesi ve halen görevde olan öğretmenlerin bu konu üzerinde eğitim almaları yararlı olabilir. Özellikle milli eğitim bakanlığı kurumlarda çalışan öğretmenlere verilecek bu eğitimlerde okul rehberlik servislerine ve rehberlik araştırma merkezlerine önemli sorumluluklar düşmektedir.

The Effect of Decision-Making Skill Training Programs on Self-Esteem and Decision-Making Styles

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Decision making is a critical cognitive process in every area of human life. In this process, the individuals play an active role and obtain outputs with their functional use of decision-making skills. Therefore, the decision-making process can affect the course of life, life satisfaction, and the social relations of an individual. This study evaluates the effectiveness of the psycho-educational group-based program which aims to develop the highly-significant decision-making skills of university students during the transition to adulthood

Purpose of the Study: This paper aimed to examine the effect of decision-making skill training group practices based on decision-making styles of university students and to evaluate the permanence of this effect

Method: A pre-test-post-test control group true experimental model was used in the study. The personal information form, interview form, and Melbourne Decision-Making Questionnaire (MDMQ) were applied before experimental procedures as pre-test measures. The study was conducted on 44 students studying at Mustafa Kemal University, Faculty of Education within a period of six weeks from February through March 2013. Twenty-two participants (twelve female and ten male) were included in the treatment group (mean age 22.1) and 22 participants (thirteen female and nine male) were included in the control group (mean age 21.9 years).

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Findings: The analysis results showed that there was a significant difference at each sub-scale between the adjusted post-test average scores; there existed a significant difference at each subscale between the adjusted post-test average scores; following the observations made by the leader, the total scores achieved by the participants at each session from the Group-Related Measures Survey Form were 17 and higher.

Conclusion and Recommendations: In conclusion, it was observed that decision-making training group practices increased self-esteem and positive coping style scores of the students and decreased the negative coping style scores. This increase and decrease in relevant scores are also supported by the qualitative data. Decision making is one of the major abilities that affects individuals' lives in direct and indirect ways. It would be beneficial if young individuals gain positive decision-making skills in the early stages of their lives. As a consequence, we recommend that decision-making training groups, workshops and courses should be a part of the curriculum program in the entire education process.

Keywords: University students, decision making, decision-making styles, skill training

Introduction

Decision making is a critical cognitive process that is required in every area of human life. In this process, the individuals play an active role and obtain outputs parallel with their functional use of decision-making skills. Therefore, the decision-making process and the skills regarding the effective management of this process can affect the course of life, life satisfaction, and the social relations of an individual.

Commonly, the researchers have defined decision making as a process of choosing one potential possibility among others (Miller & Byrnes, 2001; Rehman & Khan, 2015). Decision-making skills had been previously considered to be unteachable. It was thought that this skill was acquired over the course of time, and dependent on age. However, several studies have shown that decision-making skills can be taught (Taal & De Carvalho, 1997; Klaczynski et al., 2001). Janis and Mann (1977) postulated seven procedural criteria they considered to be necessary for teaching decision-making skills. These criteria include (1) thoroughly canvassing a wide range of alternative courses of action, (2) surveying the full range of objectives to be fulfilled and the values implicated by the choice, (3) carefully weighing whatever he or she knows about the costs and risks of negative consequences, as well as the positive consequences, that could flow from each alternative, (4) intensively searching for new information relevant to the further evaluation of the alternatives, (5) correctly assimilating and taking account of any new information or expert judgment to which he or she is exposed, even when the information or judgment does not support the course of action he or she initially prefers, (6) reexamining the

positive and negative consequences of all of the known alternatives, including those originally regarded as unacceptable, before making a final choice, and (7) making detailed provisions for implementing or executing the chosen course of action, with special attention to contingency plans that might be required if various known risks were to materialize. Janis and Mann (1977) characterize the decision-making process of a person who meets all of the above criteria as vigilant decision making. In the studies conducted on the subject, it was concluded that the individuals whose decision-making skills were developed vigilantly had a higher level of self-esteem and life satisfaction (Cenkseven-Onder, 2012) and they could effectively perform their cognitive functions by being less affected by stressful life events (Janis & Mann, 1977).

In recent years, one of the concepts that have been widely accepted in the literature is the concept of "emerging adulthood," proposed by Arnett (2004) in his studies on developmental periods. The concept of emerging adulthood refers to the transitional period between the end of adolescence and young adulthood. This period generally coincides with university life. The individuals between 18 and 29 years of age neither bear certain responsibilities like adults nor are they dependent on their families like a teenager (Atak & Çok, 2010). Awareness of alternatives in many different areas such as the search for identity, social relations, romantic relationships, work, and world vision, as well as experiences and decisions, have a significant place in the individual's life. During this period, individuals make choices that can change the navigation of the course of their life (Arnett, 2004). This process that begins during adolescence emerges as a period of producing life decisions that are shaped and clarified during the emerging adulthood period. There are also various studies that demonstrate that the conscious and effective decision making in this spiral of choices is directly related to factors such as problem solving (Deniz, 2004; Singh & Chaudhary, 2015), self-esteem (Josephs et al., 1992; Colakkadioglu & Gucray, 2012; Temel et al., 2015), self-sufficiency (Oneren and Ciftci, 2013), and life satisfaction (Cenkseven-Onder, 2012).

It is of great importance for high school and university aged individuals to acquire decision making skills, as these are the periods when decisions that affect and determine an individual's life course are made which have an effect on the perception of one's own being and one's life. A review of the literature reveals that many educational programs have been developed in order to promote more logical and rational decision making in high school and university, attempting to improve students' decision-making skills (Taal & De Carvalho, 1997; Singh & Chaudhary, 2015). Regarding the studies in Turkey, there are three studies that have been conducted on the development of decision-making skills for university (Ersever, 1996), high school (Colakkadioglu & Gucray, 2012), and primary-elementary school (Seyhun, 2000) students. In his study, Ersever (1996) examined the effects of university students' participation in the interaction group-based decision-making skill training program on decision-making styles. A review of the studies in the literature showed that there are no studies that test the effect of group practices that are based on conflict theory and conducted on the basis of psycho-educational

groups on the decision-making styles of university students. However, such studies are important for university students with regard to achieving basic cognitive skills in the development of their decision-making skills. Considering that effective decision making will also engender advanced problem solving skills (Mann et al., 1989), psychological well-being (Hamarta, 2009), and psychological endurance in coping with stressful life events (Frisch 2000), it can be understood how much it actually has common importance in the life courses of individuals. In this regard, it is possible to state that a higher inclusion of effective decision making in psycho-educational programs as a teachable skill will produce significant benefits both on an individual and social basis. This paper aimed to examine the effect of decision-making skill training group practices developed on the basis of the conflict theory on the decision-making styles of university students and to evaluate the permanence of this effect.

Method

Research Design

A pre-test-post-test control group true experimental model was used in the study. The personal information form, interview form, and Melbourne Decision-Making Questionnaire (MDMQ) were applied before experimental procedures as pre-test measures. The MDMQ, Evaluation at the End of the Group by Members (EEGM) and Group-Related Measures Survey Form (GRMSF) were used after the procedures as post-tests. Finally, in the follow-up process, MDMQ was applied in both groups.

Participants

The study was conducted on 44 students studying at Mustafa Kemal University, Faculty of Education within a period of six weeks from February through March 2013. Twenty-two participants (twelve female and ten male) were included in the treatment group (mean age 22.1) and 22 participants (thirteen female and nine male) were included in the control group (mean age 21.9 years). There was no significant difference between the groups in terms of gender, pre-test average scores for the socio-economic status and MDMQ sub-scales. Three group members left the group at the end of the second session. Therefore, the study was performed with a total of thirty-nine participants.

Data Collection

Personal information form. The form was composed to determine the potential factors that were considered to have an effect on the study. The participants who had undergone or were undergoing psychiatric treatment or had recently been exposed to severe traumatic incidents were excluded.

Interview form. The interview form was created on the basis of the forms prepared by DeLucia-Waack (2006). The interview form included information about the psycho-educational groups and the content, objectives, duration, average group size, and rules

Melbourne decision-making questionnaire (MDMQ). The Melbourne Decision-Making Questionnaire was prepared by Mann et al. (1997), based on the Flinders Decision-Making Questionnaire. The first part of the questionnaire aims to identify self-esteem in the decision-making process. Cronbach's alpha value was found to be .74 (Mann et al., 1997). The second part is composed of vigilance, buck-passing, procrastination, and hyper-vigilance sub-scales. In the sample collected from six countries, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were found to be 0.80, 0.87, 0.81, and 0.74 (Mann et al. 1997). The adaptation of the MDMQ was conducted by Deniz (2004).

Group-Related measures survey form (GRMSF). The form was developed by DeLucia-Waack (2006) and adapted by Colakkadioglu and Gucray (2012). The form was completed by the group leader in the measurement of members' behaviors in sessions. It consists of nine behavior items, (1) willingness to participate, (2) willingness for change, (3) willingness to discuss the problems, (4) responsibility for change, (5) identification of objectives, (6) potential to create contact, (7) characteristics of being a role model, (8) contact with the leader, (9) expectations of effectiveness from the group.

Evaluation at the end of the group by members (EEGM). The form was developed by DeLucia-Waack (2006) and adapted to Turkish by Colakkadioglu and Gucray (2012). The form is used to evaluate the acquisitions of members from psycho-educational groups and their feedback related to the group process.

Data Analysis

The pre-test, post-test, and permanence data collected from the treatment and control groups through the MDMQ were evaluated for the study hypotheses with the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) using the SPSS 17.0 program. The findings of the ANCOVA analysis were discussed and interpreted within the context of the related literature. Furthermore, the Group-Related Measures Survey Form (GRMSF) completed by the leader in the qualitative dimension of the study and the Evaluation at the End of Group by Members (EEGM) presented to the members in the treatment group were analyzed in terms of documents and the analysis procedure was completed.

Results

Findings of the Melbourne Decision-Making Questionnaire

The statistics regarding the pre-test and post-test scores of the Melbourne Decision-Making Questionnaire subscales are given in Table 1.

Table 1.*Descriptives Regarding the Pre-Test and Post-Test Total Scores of MDMQ Sub-Scales*

Groups	N	MDMQ sub-scales	Total scores		Corrected post-test Means	
			\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}_d	
Treatment	22	S	Pre-Test	7.09	2.11	10.01
			Post-Test	10.05	1.54	
		V	Pre-Test	7.59	1.86	9.94
			Post-Test	10.10	1.48	
		B	Pre-Test	6.54	2.66	2.95
			Post-Test	3.26	2.02	
		P	Pre-Test	6.18	2.55	2.13
			Post-Test	2.52	1.71	
		H	Pre-Test	5.95	2.27	3.08
			Post-Test	3.05	1.61	
		S	Pre-Test	6.95	1.70	7.07
			Post-Test	7.04	1.29	
V	Pre-Test	7.27	1.77	7.59		
	Post-Test	7.45	1.65			
Control	22	B	Pre-Test	5.86	2.27	5.85
			Post-Test	6.00	2.28	
		P	Pre-Test	5.27	2.65	5.47
			Post-Test	5.13	2.53	
		H	Pre-Test	5.86	2.62	5.65
			Post-Test	5.68	2.33	

According to the data in Table 1, when the adjusted post-test arithmetic means of the scores the groups achieved from the Melbourne Decision-Making Questionnaire sub-scales were analyzed, it was observed that the means of the treatment group for self-esteem (10.01) and vigilance (9.94) subscales were higher than the means of the control group for self-esteem (7.07) and vigilance (7.59) subscales. It was also found that the means of the treatment group for buck-passing (2.95), procrastination (2.13), and hyper-vigilance (3.08) sub-scales were lower than the means of the control group for buck-passing (5.85), procrastination (5.47), and hyper-vigilance (5.65) sub-scales.

An analysis of covariance was performed in order to test whether this difference was significant. The analysis results showed that when the pre-test scores of the groups for self-esteem, vigilance, buck-passing, procrastination, and hyper-vigilance sub-scales were controlled, respectively, there was a significant difference at each sub-scale between the adjusted post-test average scores [respectively, $[F_{(1-38)}=25.27, p<0.001]$, $[F_{(1-38)}=106.54, p<0.001]$, $[F_{(1-38)}=128.98, p<0.001]$, $[F_{(1-38)}=78.52, p>0.001]$, $[F_{(1-38)}=138.09, p<0.001]$]. In the current study, follow-up test scores were evaluated as a second variable. The statistics regarding the post-test and follow-up test scores of the Melbourne Decision-Making Questionnaire subscales are given in Table 2.

Table 2.*Descriptives regarding the Post-Test and Follow-Up Test Total Scores of MDMQ Sub-Scales*

Groups	N	MDMQ sub-scales	Total scores		Corrected follow-up test means	
			\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}_d	
Treatment	22	S	Post-Test	10.05	1.54	8.97
			Follow-up	10.31	1.24	
		V	Post-Test	10.10	1.48	9.50
			Follow-up	10.63	1.21	
		B	Post-Test	3.26	2.02	3.90
			Follow-up	2.94	1.58	
		P	Post-Test	2.52	1.71	3.39
			Follow-up	2.10	1.48	
		H	Post-Test	3.05	1.61	3.76
			Follow-up	2.63	1.25	
		S	Post-Test	7.04	2.29	8.02
			Follow-up	6.86	1.32	
V	Post-Test	7.45	1.65	8.65		
	Follow-up	7.68	1.52			
Control	22	B	Post-Test	5.59	2.28	5.30
			Follow-up	6.13	2.00	
		P	Post-Test	5.13	2.53	3.93
			Follow-up	5.04	2.51	
		H	Post-Test	5.68	2.33	4.93
			Follow-up	5.90	2.22	

According to the data in Table 2, when the adjusted follow-up test arithmetic means of the scores the groups achieved from the Melbourne Decision-Making Questionnaire sub-scales were analyzed, it was observed that the means of the treatment group for self-esteem (8.97) and vigilance (9.50) sub-scales were higher than the means of the control group for self-esteem (8.02) and vigilance (8.65) sub-scales. It was also found that the means of the treatment group for buck-passing (3.90), procrastination (3.39), and hyper-vigilance (3.76) sub-scales were lower than the means of the control group for buck-passing (5.30), procrastination (3.93), and hyper-vigilance (4.93) sub-scales.

An analysis of covariance was performed in order to test whether this difference was significant. The analysis results demonstrate that when the follow-up test scores of the groups for self-esteem, vigilance, buck-passing, procrastination, and hyper-vigilance subscales were controlled, respectively, there existed a significant difference at each subscale between the adjusted post-test average scores [respectively, $[F_{(1-38)}=190.47, p<0.001]$, $[F_{(1-38)}=161.09, p<0.001]$, $[F_{(1-38)}=189.01, p<0.001]$, $[F_{(1-38)}=394.87, p>0.001]$, $[F_{(1-38)}=140.39, p<0.001]$].

Findings of Group-Related Measures Survey Form

Table 3 illustrates the scores achieved by the participants from the Group-Related Measures Survey Form (GRMSF) at each session, total scores of six sessions, and total scores of each session, following the observations made by the leader. In the analysis of the survey form and while processing the related data, the behaviors of the participants were limited to the statements given on the survey form. In the study, S stands for session, M for mean, and Par 1, Par 2, etc. refer to the sequence numbers designated for the participants.

Table 3.

The Observations Made by the Leader, Total Scores Achieved by the Participants at Each Session from the Group-Related Measures Survey Form

<i>Participant</i>	<i>S.1</i>	<i>S. 2</i>	<i>S. 3</i>	<i>S. 4</i>	<i>S. 5</i>	<i>S. 6</i>	<i>Total</i>
Par. 1	3.8	3.6	3.6	3.2	3.4	3.0	20.1
Par. 2	3.1	3.3	3.0	2.8	3.4	3.6	19.2
Par. 3	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.0	2.8	3.2	19.1
Par. 4	3.8	4.0	3.6	4.0	3.4	3.8	22.6
Par. 5	2.8	3.0	2.8	3.0	2.8	3.2	17.6
Par. 6	4.0	3.8	3.8	4.0	3.4	3.2	22.2
Par. 7	3.2	3.0	2.8	3.6	3.4	3.8	19.8
Par. 8	2.7	2.9	2.8	3.0	2.6	3.2	17.2
Par. 9	3.1	3.6	4.0	3.8	3.6	3.0	21.1
Par. 10	3.6	3.8	3.8	3.4	3.6	3.8	22.0
Par. 11	3.9	3.7	3.4	3.0	2.8	3.6	20.4
Par. 12	3.6	3.3	3.6	3.0	3.4	3.6	20.5
Par. 13	3.7	3.7	4.0	3.6	3.0	3.8	21.8
Par. 14	2.9	3.7	2.4	2.6	3.2	3.6	19.4
Par. 15	3.4	3.9	3.6	3.4	4.0	2.8	21.1
Par. 16	3.0	3.3	3.2	3.8	3.6	3.8	20.7
Par. 17	3.6	3.9	4.0	3.8	3.8	3.6	22.7
Par. 18	2.9	3.1	3.0	2.8	3.2	3.2	18.2
Par. 19	3.6	3.7	4.0	4.0	3.6	3.8	22.7

Table 3 shows that following the observations made by the leader, the total scores achieved by the participants at each session from the Group-Related Measures Survey Form were 17 and higher. This reveals that the participants took advantage of the group process. Moreover, it can also be argued with this finding that the sessions achieved their objective.

Findings of the Evaluation at the End of the Group by Members

Table 4 shows the responses given by the participants to close-ended questions in the Evaluation at the End of the Group by Members Form, as well as the frequencies of the responses.

Table 4.

Responses Given by the Participants to Close- Ended Questions in the Evaluation at the End of the Group by Members Form and the Frequencies of the Responses

<i>Item</i>	<i>Statement</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>I don't know</i>
1	The decision making skill training group helped students to feel better.	19	-	-
2	The decision making skill training group helped students to reveal their emotions.	15	-	4
3	The decision making skill training group practice helped students to learn some new things on the subjects related to family, friends, and teachers.	17	1	1
4	The decision making skill training group practice helped me to acquire decision making skills.	18	-	1
5	The leader managed the decision making skill training group in a good way	15	2	2
		Yes	No	Maybe
7	I will suggest that my friends participate in the decision making skill training group.	18	-	1

As seen in Table 4, the participants in the treatment group responded to all of the questions. According to these findings, it can be argued that the participants generally had a positive opinion about the decision-making skill training group practices. Two open-ended questions in the Evaluation at the End of the Group by Members Form (Questions 6 and 8) and the related answers by the participants were rearranged in written form in the electronic format and the responses of participants were analyzed with the document examination method. The responses given by the participants and the frequencies of responses are given in Table 5.

Table 5.

Responses Given by the Participants to Open-Ended Questions in the Evaluation at the End of the Group by Members Form and the frequencies of the Responses

<i>Statement</i>	<i>Responses</i>	<i>Frequency (f)</i>
<i>1. What did you learn at the end of the decision making skill training group experience?</i>	I learned how to identify the actual problem.	14
	I learned how to formulate an objective.	15
	I learned how to identify the options.	18
	I learned how to use the sources of information.	16
	I learned how to identify the areas of uncertainty.	12
	I learned how to identify the effects of options.	14
	I learned how to choose the best alternative.	15
	I learned how to plan.	17
	I learned how to review and apply my decision.	15
<i>2. What are your suggestions for a better operation of the decision making skill training group?</i>	I learned how to have a self-confidence regarding decision making.	15
	It was quite successful, I don't have any suggestions.	18
	There should be less homework.	1
	There should be no break between the group sessions.	3
	Members should be more active.	2
	Members should be given more opportunities to speak.	4
	There should be more practice.	2
There should be more activities.	1	

When the responses given by the participants were analyzed, it was observed that they learned the decision-making steps and that they had overall satisfaction regarding the operation of the group. However, they also had remarkable suggestions regarding a lighter load of homework and forms, more activities, and more participation in the process.

Discussion and Conclusion

In the decision-making skill training group practices that were developed on the basis of conflict theory, decision making was addressed in five steps and the participants were informed about what to do at each step. Sample decision problems were given as homework and the members could successfully perform these duties. According to Harter (1999), the experience of success of an individual affects self-esteem positively. Similarly, Josephs et al. (1992) state that the knowledge about the possible steps to take in a decision-making situation could increase self-esteem. Furthermore, the group sessions included activities where the group members communicated with each other, shared their experiences, and provided feedback to each other, which enabled the members to support each other. According to Harter (1999), peer acceptance and cooperation affected one's self-esteem level positively. Similar studies report that when faced with a problem, young people were willing to obtain support from peers at first, as they think they have gone through the same processes in life (Turner 1999). According to the literature, there is a positive significant correlation between self-esteem in decision making and overall self-esteem (Josephs et al., 1992; Colakkadioglu & Guçray, 2012; Temel et al., 2015). In this regard, an increase in overall self-esteem would affect self-esteem in the decision-making process in a positive way (Colakkadioglu & Guçray, 2012; Temel et al., 2015). It can be argued that the decision-making skill training group practices had a positive impact on self-esteem in the decision making levels of the participants.

In the decision-making skill training group practices developed on the basis of conflict theory, the participants had the opportunity to learn the steps of decision making and gained experience through practice. A review of the programs that aim to develop the decision-making skills showed that the participants improved their decision-making skills (Mann & Harmoni, et al., 1989; Taal & De Carvalho, 1997; Byrnes, 1998; Byrnes et al., 1999; Klaczynski et al., 2001; Colakkadioglu & Guçray, 2012; Singh & Chaudhary, 2015). Decision-making skill training group practice had an effect on increasing positive coping style scores in this study, as well. The participants had decreasing scores of procrastination, hyper-vigilance, and buck-passing subscales of the Melbourne Decision-Making Questionnaire, also. Similarly, Mann and Beswick et al. (1989), and Seyhun (2000) concluded in their studies that the participants had a decrease in the scores of negative coping styles at the end of the applied decision-making skill training programs.

The effect of the decision-making skill training group practices developed on the basis of the conflict theory on the self-esteem levels of the students in decision making, the increase in positive coping style scores, and the decrease in negative coping style scores continued during the follow-up test, as well. This situation was thought to originate from the content of the applied decision-making skill training group practices. Mann and Beswick et al. (1989) and Colakkadioglu and Guçray (2012) also reported similar findings.

In conclusion, it was observed that decision-making skill training group practices developed on the basis of the conflict theory increased self-esteem and positive coping style scores of the students in decision making and decreased the negative coping style scores. This finding continued through the follow-up test, as well.

The increase in self-esteem in decision-making scores and positive coping style scores and the decrease in negative coping style scores are also supported by the qualitative data of the study. In the study, using the Group-Related Measures Survey Form, the evaluations made by the leader indicated that the participants had scores over the average. In this regard, it was concluded that the group practices were useful for the participants regarding their decision-making skills. Likewise, most of the students responded to the statements in the Evaluation at the End of the Group by Members Form in a positive way. These findings, which are also supported with qualitative data, could be interpreted as the achievement of group objectives.

Decision making is one of the major abilities that affects individuals' lives in direct and indirect ways. As in our paper, the literature reveals that decision making is relevant to other important cognitive and psychological mechanisms such as coping and problem-solving skills, self-esteem and self-sufficiency. As a teachable ability, it would be beneficial if young individuals gain positive decision-making skills in the early stages of their lives. As a consequence, we recommend that decision-making training groups, workshops and courses should be a part of the curriculum program in the entire education process. It's obviously vital to guide individuals on a key skill that develops coping and problem solving and also promotes self-esteem, self-sufficiency and, ultimately, life satisfaction. We believe that acquiring positive decision-making skills in school would help prevent future psychological difficulties. This is because systematic guidance in school-aged children can help develop determined adults with cognitive and psychological capabilities.

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Karar Verme Beceri Eğitimi Programının Karar Vermede Özsaygı ve Karar Verme Stillerine Etkisi

Atıf:

Colakkadioglu, O., & Celik, B. (2016). The effect of decision-making skill training programs on self-esteem and decision-making styles. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 259-276

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Özet

Problem Durumu: Karar verme, yaşamın her alanında ihtiyaç duyulan, önemli bir bilişsel süreçtir. Bu süreçte bireyler aktif rol alır ve karar verme becerilerini ne kadar işlevsel kullandıkları ile doğru orantılı çıktılar elde ederler. Dolayısıyla karar verme süreci ve bu süreci etkili yönetebilme becerisi bireyin hayatının akışını, yaşam doyumunu ve sosyal ilişkilerini etkileyebilmektedir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bireyin yaşamını etkileyen ve yaşamına yön veren kararların alındığı dönem olması, bu kararların da kişinin kendisini ve yaşamını algılayışı üzerinde etkili olması nedeniyle lise ve üniversite çağındaki kişilere karar verme becerilerinin kazandırılması önemlidir. Yurtdışı alanyazını incelediğimizde lise ve

üniversite öğrencilerinin daha mantıklı ve akılcı kararlar verebilmelerini desteklemek amacıyla, karar verme becerilerini geliştirmeye yönelik çok sayıda eğitim programı geliştirildiği görülmektedir. Türkiye’de yapılan çalışmalarda ise üniversite, lise ve ilköğretim öğrencilerinin karar verme becerilerinin geliştirilmesine yönelik üç çalışma ile karşılaşılmaktadır. Yapılan çalışmalar incelendiğinde üniversite öğrencilerine yönelik çatışma kuramına dayanan, psiko-eğitim grubu temelinde yürütülen grup uygulamalarının, öğrencilerin karar verme stillerine etkisini sınavan bir çalışmaya ise rastlanmamıştır. Oysa üniversite öğrencileri için bu tür çalışmalar karar verme becerilerini geliştirmede temel bilişsel becerileri kazandırması açısından önemlidir. Etkili karar vermenin, öğretilbilir bir beceri olarak psiko-eğitim programlarda sıklıkla yer almasının hem bireysel hem de toplumsal bazda önemli fayda sağlayacağını söylemek mümkündür. Bu çalışmada çatışma kuramına dayalı olarak geliştirilen karar verme beceri eğitimi grup uygulamalarının, üniversite öğrencilerinin karar verme stillerine etkisi ve bu etkinin kalıcılığının incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Araştırma deneysel desende olup, araştırmada deneysel desenin türlerinden biri olan “öntest-sontest kontrol gruplu gerçek deneysel model” kullanılmıştır. Deneysel işlemler başlamadan önce kişisel bilgi formu, görüşme formu, Melbourne Karar Verme Ölçeği (MKVÖ), deneysel işlemlerin bitiminde, MKVÖ, Grup Sürecinin Genel Değerlendirilmesi Formu (GSGDF) ve Gruba İlişkin Ölçümler Gözlem Formu (GİÖGF), izleme sürecinde MKVÖ veri toplama araçları olarak kullanılmış, her iki gruba da uygulanmıştır. Araştırma, 2012-2013 öğretim yılı bahar yarıyılında Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesinde öğrenimine devam eden toplam 44 öğrenci ile sekiz haftalık sürede gerçekleştirilmiştir. Deney grubunda çalışmalar lider tarafından yürütülürken, kontrol grubuna herhangi bir işlem yapılmamıştır. Deney grubunda 12 kız, 10 erkek olmak üzere toplam 22 katılımcı yer almıştır. Kontrol grubunda 13 kız ve 9 erkek olmak üzere toplam 22 katılımcı yer almıştır. Grupların cinsiyet açısından eşit olup olmadıklarını belirlemek için yapılan kay kare testi sonucuna göre, gruplar arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır ($\chi^2(1)= 0.82, p>.05$). Benzer şekilde grupların, Sosyo-Ekonomik Düzey (SED) ölçeği, Melbourne Karar Verme Ölçeği’nin Öz-Saygı (MKVÖS), Dikkatli (MKVD), Kaçınan (MKVK), Erteleyici (MKVE) ve Panik (MKVP) alt ölçekleri öntest ortalama puanları açısından eşit olup olmadıklarını belirlemek için yapılan t testi sonucuna göre, grupların sırasıyla, SED, MKVÖS, MKVD, MKVK, MKVE ve MKVP ortalama puanları arasında da anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır ($t(42)= 1.36, p>.05$; $t(42)= .24, p>.05$; $t(42)= .58, p>.05$; $t(42)= .91, p>.05$; $t(42)= 1.16, p>.05$; $t(42)= .12, p>.05$).

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Grupların Melbourne Karar Verme Ölçeği alt ölçeklerinden aldıkları puanların düzeltilmiş sontest aritmetik ortalamalarını dikkate aldığımızda; deney grubunun Özsaygı (10.01) ve dikkatli (9.94) alt ölçeklerinin ortalamalarının, kontrol grubunun özsaygı (7.07) ve dikkatli (7.59) alt ölçeklerinin ortalamalarından yüksek olduğu, deney grubunun kaçınan (2.95), erteleyici (2.13) ve panik (3.08) alt ölçeklerinin ortalamalarının, kontrol grubunun kaçınan (5.85), erteleyici (5.47) ve panik (5.65) alt ölçeklerinin ortalamalarından düşük olduğu görülmektedir. Gözlenen bu farkın anlamlı olup olmadığını test etmek için kovaryans analizi uygulanmıştır. Analiz sonuçları grupların sırasıyla özsaygı, dikkatli, kaçınan,

erteleyici ve panik öntest puanları kontrol altına alındığında, düzeltilmiş sontest ortalama puanları arasında tüm alt ölçeklerde anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermiştir [sırasıyla $F_{(1-38)}=25.27$, $p<.001$], [$F_{(1-38)}=106.54$, $p<.001$], [$F_{(1-38)}=128.98$, $p<.001$], [$F_{(1-38)}=78.52$, $p>.001$], [$F_{(1-38)}=138.09$, $p<.001$].

Grupların Melbourne Karar Verme Ölçeği alt ölçeklerinden aldıkları puanların düzeltilmiş izleme testi aritmetik ortalamalarını dikkate aldığımızda; deney grubunun özsaygı (8.97) ve dikkatli (9.50) alt ölçeklerinin aritmetik ortalamalarının, kontrol grubunun özsaygı (8.02) ve dikkatli (8.65) alt ölçeklerinin aritmetik ortalamalarından yüksek olduğu, deney grubunun kaçınan (3.90), erteleyici (3.39) ve panik (3.76) alt ölçeklerinin ortalamalarının, kontrol grubunun kaçınan (5.30), erteleyici (3.93) ve panik (4.93) alt ölçeklerinin ortalamalarından düşük olduğu görülmektedir.

Gözlenen bu farkın anlamlı olup olmadığını test etmek için kovaryans analizi uygulanmıştır. Analiz sonuçları grupların sırasıyla özsaygı, dikkatli, kaçınan, erteleyici ve panik sontest puanları kontrol altına alındığında, düzeltilmiş izleme testi ortalama puanları arasında tüm alt ölçeklerde anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermiştir [sırasıyla $F_{(1-38)}=190.47$, $p<.001$], [$F_{(1-38)}=161.09$, $p<.001$], [$F_{(1-38)}=189.01$, $p<.001$], [$F_{(1-38)}=394.87$, $p>.001$], [$F_{(1-38)}=140.39$, $p<.001$]. Benzer şekilde liderin gözlemleri sonucunda katılımcıların her bir oturumda Gruba İlişkin Ölçümler Gözlem Formu'ndan aldıkları toplam puanlarının 17 ve üzerinde olduğu görülmektedir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Çatışma kuramına dayalı olarak geliştirilen karar verme beceri eğitimi grup uygulamalarında da katılımcılara karar verme basamakları ve bu konuda uygulamalı çalışmalar yapılmıştır. Bununla birlikte katılımcılara örnek karar sorunları ev ödevleri olarak verilmiş ve katılımcıların örnek karar sorunlarını başarıyla gerçekleştirdikleri görülmüştür. Karar verme beceri eğitimi grup uygulamaları, bu çalışmada da olumlu başa çıkma stili puanlarının yükselmesine etki etmiştir. Bu durumda da katılımcıların Melbourne karar verme ölçeği umursamazlık, panik ve sorumluluktan kaçma alt ölçek puanlarında düşme görülmüştür. Alt ölçeklerde görülen puan düşmelerinin uygulanan karar verme beceri eğitimi grup uygulamalarının içeriğinden kaynaklandığı düşünülmektedir.

Katılımcıların karar vermede öz-saygı puanlarının ve olumlu başa çıkma stili puanlarının yükselmesini, olumsuz başa çıkma stilleri puanlarının azalmasını araştırmanın nitel verileri de desteklemektedir. Araştırmada grup lideri "Gruba İlişkin Ölçümler Gözlem Formu" ile öğrencilerin "gruba katılım konusundaki istekliliği, değişim için istekliliği, problemleri açıkça tartışmak için istekliliği, değişim için sorumluluğu, amaçlarını belirleyebilmesi, diğer grup üyeleri ile bağlantı kurma potansiyeli, diğer grup üyeleri için rol model olma özelliği, grup lideri ile bağlantısı ve grubun yararlı olacağı beklentisi" ile ilgili davranışlarını gözlemlemiştir. Liderin değerlendirmesi sonucu katılımcıların ortalamasının üzerinde bir puan aldığı görülmüştür. Bu durumda da katılımcıların grup uygulamasından karar verme becerileri açısından yararlandıkları sonucuna varılmıştır. Sonuç olarak çatışma kuramı temelli olarak hazırlanan karar verme beceri eğitimi grup uygulamalarının öğrencilerin karar vermede öz-saygı ve olumlu başa çıkma stili puanlarını artırdığı;

olumsuz başa çıkma stili puanlarını ise azalttığı ve bu durumun izleme testinde de devam ettiği görülmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Üniversite öğrencileri, karar verme, karar verme stilleri, karar verme beceri eğitimi.

Protective Health Education

Ganime AYDIN*

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Abstract

Problem Statement: As a result of wars, starvation, traffic accidents, homicide, infectious diseases, insufficient adult protection, migration, and inadequate legal reforms the mortality rate of children has become a serious problem in the world. Protective health education contributes to a child's physical and social health. In this case, the main problem of research is 'How does the production and applications of educational materials affect the protective health knowledge level of prospective pre-school teachers? '.

Purpose of the Study: The aims of this study are, to increase the health knowledge level of prospective teachers, to produce protective health education materials for children and to experience the applications of produced materials with these children.

Method: The present study was used partially mixed sequential equal status design model. The quantitative data from the protective health knowledge level test including 20 open-ended questions were combined with qualitative data from interviews who (n=131) were the pre-school prospective teachers. The qualitative data that were gathered from face to face interviews with 22 of the sample group. The interventions of research including theoretical and production of protective health education tools took place 12 weeks then prospective teachers applied tools on children. T-test and content analysis techniques were used to analyze the data.

Findings: There was a significant difference in the protective health knowledge level test scores of participants ($t(131) = 10.53, p < .00$) before and after the research. There was a significant difference between the mean values of pre-test and post-test results on the immunity ($t(131) = 5.51, p < .00$), traffic ($t(131) = 1.53, p < .00$), nutrition ($t(131) = 6.38, p < .00$), hygiene ($t(131) = 5.83, p < .00$), mental health ($t(131) = 4.05, p < .00$). There

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was no significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test of tooth health ($t(131) = 1.53, p > .00$) and physical activities ($t(131) = 1.53, p > .00$). The difficulties during the production of materials, the difficulties during the applications with students and the experiences of prospective teachers were obtained as themes from the qualitative data.

Conclusion and Recommendations: Protective health education should be given to all prospective teachers in all subjects including practical as well as conceptual knowledge. In the future they can use this knowledge and these practices to decrease the mortality rate of countries as a teacher, as an individual in a society or as a parent.

Keywords: Health education, teacher education, health education tools, children, mixed method.

Introduction

Health education is intended to protect people from diseases and accidents by providing them with knowledge and basic preventive skills, thus reducing the risk of illness and injury. Personal health and social health are the top two priorities. According to the Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK, 2015), 40.4 percent of countrywide deaths in 2014 occurred due to circulatory system disorders while it was 39.6 percent in 2013. The other death ratios in 2014 were 20.7 percent from malign tumors, 10.7 percent from respiratory disorders, 5.1 percent from endocrine-nutrition-metabolic disorders, 4.3 percent from open wounds and poisoning, and 4.4 percent from nervous and sensory organ disorders. Unfortunately, people between 0-14 years old died from open wounds and poisoning consisting 5.26 percent of the total death ratio in 2014. In Turkey, according to data gathered from newspaper and television reports (Report, 2013) a total of 609 children died in 2012, 20 in workplaces, 28 from violence in the family, 20 in schools, 4 from peer violence, 16 from homicides, 11 in hospitals, 114 from traffic accidents, 47 from other accidents, 15 from electric shocks, and 40 children of foreign parents died from various causes. Among children under six years old, in the first half of 2012, the most common health problems reported in Turkey were from nasal infections (27.6 percent), infectious diseases (11.7 percent), anemia (9.2 percent), and dental and mouth disorders (8.7 percent). Even though in Turkey the number of infant deaths has decreased from 17,552 to 13,900 from 2009 to 2013 (TUIK, 2014), these figures are far away from the millennium goals (Lozano et al., 2011) like being aware of the 73 percent of diarrhea deaths under the age 5 from the developing countries including total 75 percent diarrhea deaths and 17 percent of total child deaths (Hammig, Ogletree & Wycoff-Horn, 2011; Boschi-Pinto, Velebit & Shibuya, 2008). The circulatory diseases and neoplasms were the most prevalent causes of death. The occurrence of fatal disorders in Europe in 2010, in order of frequency, was respiratory, digestive, and nervous system disorders (Urhausen & Pace, 2013). In Korea, the total mortality rate has decreased in both genders of low educated people since 1995. This trend was more prominent among those aged between 30-44 years. However, the suicide in younger

females (30–44 years) and cerebrovascular disease in older males (45–59 years) have increased. In addition, death ratio in low education level, especially in females between 30–44 years of age has increased, (Lim et al., 2015). In the USA 70% of injuries that could be prevented at preschools occur on the playground (Schwebel, Pennefather, Marquez & Marquez, 2014).

The mortality rate of the population could be decreased by increasing the education level of the population. Most of the health behaviors are correlated with health knowledge. An increase in the standardized health knowledge index is associated with a reduction in the probability of smoking and has positive effects on exercise. Better health knowledge is also associated with a healthier diet, as measured by higher fruit, vegetable, fish and white meat consumption, lower red meat consumption, and choice of healthier bread and milk options and also higher socio-economic level was positively correlated with health knowledge level (Johnston, Lordan, Shields & Suziedelyte, 2015). Böckerman & Maczulskij (2016) found that the relation between education of people from high school or basic tertiary education have the strongest positive health effects on men and they suggested that school dropout affecting social health should be prevented. The knowledge and traits acquired during the education of people affect the decisions of people like smoking, the types of food to eat, the type of contraceptive technique to use (Li & Powdthavee, 2015; Grossman, 2005). The other research which used data from 21 European populations indicated that the effect of education on mortality is lower in the southern European populations and much higher in central/eastern European populations (Kulhanova et al., 2015). However, in many studies, other than the positive effect of education level on health behavior, there was no significant relation between education and healthy life styles, especially on smoking, mortality rate, eating healthy and exercise (Li & Powdthavee, 2015; Clark & Royer, 2013; Braakmann, 2011; Kenkel, Lilard & Mathios, 2006). Cutler, Huang and Lleras-Muney (2015) explained the reasons for different results related with education level and health rates of societies finding the relation between unemployment rates upon the graduation period of people. According to Miller (1996), family planning education to protect adolescents from unintended pregnancies, parental education, increasing the number of early childhood programs in support of working women, and new legal regulations to prevent young people from guns, fireworks, and bicycle accidents were all responses to 86 percent increase in the death rate between the years 1968 and 1992. However, Miller also pointed out that not one single approach would suffice; educational programs, protective public health services, legal regulations, and fiscal supports should be used collectively. It was proposed that collaboration between universities and urban schools to provide health education, and professional health and social workers in schools should work with families, teachers, administrators, and mental health professionals to nurture the health and safety of young people (Berzin, O'Brien, Frey, Kelly, Alvarez & Shaffer, 2011; Butler, Fryer, Reed & Thomas, 2011).

The policy makers and funds like The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

(UNESCO) and other agencies drew attention to school - based health education programs that improve sustainable behavioral change for health and well-being of adults and societies. Health education in schools consists mostly of information and theory (Marx & Wooley, 1998) rather than skill-based application to daily life. Increasing demands on teachers' time, political pressures to improve student performance on standardized tests (Bryn Austin, Cohen-Bearak, Wardle, Fung & Cheung, 2006), inadequate health education materials, limited competence of teachers and school environment are all restricting influences on the effectiveness of health education. The school environment is an important component of effectiveness that requires hygienic conditions, nutritious food and safety features to reduce accidents. Nevertheless, when health education is taught by well-trained professionals, positive results can be obtained. An increase in the knowledge level of 513 students was obtained after 1 hour of instruction about hepatitis (Geckil, Savas, Sahin, Kutlu & Yologlu, 2010). Education about healthy nutrition of primary school students in 4th grades medicine students in 1st and 6th grades had positive effects at 24 percent of medicine students and 19.4 percent of primary school students (Hassoy, Mandiracioglu, Ergin, Durusoy & Davas, 2011). Hammig et al., (2011) discovered that the number of delivered contents and education hours in the health classes rather than combined classes by professional teachers were higher than non-certificated or untrained teachers. In this research, different from other studies, protective health education was given to prospective pre-school teachers by multidisciplinary methods, in which they produced education materials and practiced them with children rather than applying specific courses and theoretical instruction.

In Turkey, since 1996, health education has been given two hours a week in the 9th grade curriculum of all secondary schools. After 2013, the curriculum was changed by the addition of some new topics such as mental health and the first aid unit was shifted to the traffic curriculum in 12th grade. Pre-school teacher candidates in schools of education learn about first aid and mother-child health and primary school teacher candidates have a required unit on first aid. This minimal introduction might not be sufficient. Considering that the average educational level of the Turkish population in 2012 was only up to 6th grade and considering the Turkish mortality rate at the same time, it is obvious that more effective health education is desperately needed. Apart from some films for use in first aid and traffic units and some additional films about obesity and addiction recently prepared by the Ministry of Education, learning tools for health education in schools are insufficient. Up-to-date videos and video games might be available elsewhere, but these are not obtainable in Turkey. In this research, students have the opportunity to apply their learning and experience its effects on their own performance (Bransford, Franks, Vye & Sherwood, 1989, 188). Accordingly, these prospective teachers were given the opportunity to use health education materials, which they had developed themselves with the pre-school students, for whom the materials were intended. If knowledge has no apparent application, it may not be perceived as meaningful nor readily transferred to other situations (Wicklein & Schell, 1995).

The Aims of Research

In this research, the aims were to increase the health knowledge level of prospective teachers, to produce protective health education materials for children and to experience the applications of produced materials with these children.

Research Questions

How does the production and application of educational materials affect the protective health knowledge level of prospective pre-school teachers? Specifically:

1) What were the effects of production and application of educational materials/tools on prospective pre-school teachers' knowledge level of protective health knowledge level, including immunity, nutrition, traffic rules, mental health, physical activities, tooth health and hygiene?

2) What strengths and weaknesses of the applications can inform the development of new methods of teaching health education?

Method

Research Design

The research was carried out by mixed method. Creswell and Clark (2007) defined mixed methods research as a set of designs and procedures, in which both quantitative and qualitative data are collected, combined, and analyzed in a single study or series of studies. Doyle, Brady and Byrne (2009) also defined mixed method as one, in which a variety of approaches are used to answer research questions that cannot be addressed using a singular method. In this study, the mixed method was used to answer two different research questions and to make inferences synthesizing the answers for these questions. The study employs partially mixed sequential equal status design. In this case, the quantitative method was used to examine the effect of production and application of protective health education materials on prospective pre-school teachers using the Protective Health Knowledge Level Test. The qualitative method was used for documents of interview of the prospective teachers. Then the results were mixed to discuss and conclude and finally to produce implications regarding child death rate and healthy societies. The integration of quantitative and qualitative data may take many forms including connecting results from one data set to the collection of data from another; juxtaposing quantitative and qualitative results for comparison; transforming one form of data to facilitate the other form of analysis or forming interpretations from the two sets of results (Clark et al., 2014).

Research Working Group

Participants (n=131) were selected from 3rd grade prospective pre-school teachers. Two of them were males and the others were females taking the Education Technologies and Materials Development course taught by the author at University. They were considered suitable for this research because their program of study

included mother-child health, first aid and human anatomy and physiology. In the quantitative part of research there were participants, in the qualitative part 22 of them were randomly selected.

Research Instruments

The protective health knowledge level test was composed of 20 items. There were some examples of open-ended questions:

Give one example of foods in the first level of the food pyramid.

What is the first letter of code that indicates chemical additives in food?

Which kinds of foods should be given to children for the muscular development of intestines?

Why should we drink water?

Write one of the ways of activity for children's mental health.

How long can a tooth brush be used?

When do children start brushing their teeth?

There are three items about immunity, three about traffic rules, two about tooth health, three about hygiene, five about nutrition, three about exercise and one about mental health. There were definite correct responses for each item. Correct responses were coded as 1 and incorrect or blank responses were coded as 0. The reliability of measurement was found to be $KR20 = 0.64$ for the pre-test and 0.82 for the post-test. At the end of treatment, randomly selected prospective pre-school teachers ($n = 22$) were used to respond to the following two prompts:

1) Where did you have difficulties in the applications and where did you feel satisfied?

Explain.

2) State what you learned in a review and evaluation of your work.

Procedure

The plan of application was structured on the base of behavioral science theory principles for health education that were indicated by Jackson (1997):

"... acquiring new behaviors is a process, not an event, and often entails learning by performing successive approximations of the behavior" (p.3) and "... the more beneficial or rewarding an experience, the more likely it is to be repeated; the more punishing or unpleasant an experience, the less likely it is to be repeated" (p.4). Other than content knowledge of protective health, practicing knowledge by producing learning tools for children and usage of tools with them in the schools were the main purposes of applications. Prospective pre-school teachers from three sections of the Education Technologies and Materials Development course were

given protective health knowledge level pre-test and then they were separated into groups. Each group was assigned a topic at the beginning of the fall semester: hygiene, tooth health, immunity, healthy nutrition, traffic rules, physical activity and mental health. The treatment lasted for 12 of the 15 weeks of the semester. Each lecture period per week was 4 hours. For a period of 2 weeks, the researcher explained the relevant theories and demonstrated the preparation and use of effective visual materials like power point, video, films for 4 to 6 year-old children. The following week, the prospective teachers' prepared visual materials related to their topics and tried them out among their classmates. As they worked, the author offered advice, usually related to conceptual accuracy and appropriate cognitive level. The next week, selection criteria and appropriate use of books were discussed and decided, whereupon the students prepared books related to their topic and tried them in class. Similar activities continued for 12 weeks with the preparation and use of puppets, games, songs, scientific experiments, dance, cartoons and concept maps. Finally, after some corrections, modifications and adaptations, each group practiced using its set of materials with 4 to 5 year-old children in 8 kindergarten classrooms, a trial period lasting for one month. Finally a post-test was given to the prospective teachers two weeks after the trial teaching had ended.

Data Analysis

The qualitative data obtained from Protective Health Knowledge Level Test was analyzed by referring to the answer key. The author and another expert checked the pre-test and post-test by assigning 1 for each correct response and 0 for each incorrect or blank response. The total correct possible score of the test items was 20. The mean of each sub units was calculated by the total score of items related to sub-unit and then divided to the number of questions. For example, the scores of 5 items about nutrition were added and then divided into 5 to execute the process t-tests. The quantitative data were analyzed by using the SPSS 17 statistics program for paired sampled t-tests. The qualitative data from randomly selected 22 participants were encoded by the author and another expert to test for validity and to generate the themes presented in the results section of this paper. The results of interviews were analyzed by the method of content analysis (Yildirim & Simsek, 2008). The themes and codes are displayed in Table 1. Using the formula $\text{Reliability} = \frac{\text{Consensus}}{\text{Consensus} + \text{Dissidence}} \times 100$ (Miles & Huberman, 2008), the researcher found inter-coder reliability for codes and themes to be 92 percent similar. All codes were compared and discrepancies were discussed until 100 percent agreement was reached. The reason for mixing quantitative data (results from the Protective Health Knowledge Level Test) and qualitative data (from structured interview) is that neither method by itself is sufficient to meet the needs of this study. When used in combination, quantitative and qualitative data yield a more complete analysis (Creswell et al., 2004).

Table 1.*Themes and Codes of Interview*

<i>Codes for participants</i>	<i>Themes 1 and codes</i>	<i>Theme 2 and codes</i>	<i>Theme 3 and codes</i>
	Difficulties during the preparation of protective health education materials	Difficulties during the practice use of the materials with children in schools	What the prospective teachers learned
*G1: Girl occupied the first order in the lecture list.	*MC: Misconceptions	*CM: Class Management	*GW: Group work * RKI: Realization of children interest.
*MP 32: Male occupied the 32 nd order in the list.	*NPEM: Not having prepared education materials	* TM: Time management	*RA: Realization of their own abilities.
	*ICK: Insufficient content knowledge	*AKQ: Answering children's questions	*EM: Effect of media
	* GW: Group work	*LPK: Lack of pedagogical knowledge	*ImCK: Important of content knowledge. *LPK: Learning by practicing with children

Results*Results of Protective Health Knowledge Level Test*

The comparison of differences between the protective health knowledge level pre-test and post-test mean scores is displayed in Table 2.

Table 2.*The Pre-Test and Post-Test Results of PHKL of Prospective Pre-School Teachers*

	<i>n</i>	\bar{x}	<i>S</i>	<i>sd</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-test	131	9.19	3.36	131	10.53	0.00*
Post-test	131	12.17	2.57			

* $p < 0.005$

Depending on Table 2, the mean score of the post-test was greater ($\bar{x} = 12.17$) than the mean score of pre-test ($\bar{x} = 9.19$). According to the paired sample t-test, there was a significant difference between the mean values of the pre-test and post-test ($t(131) = 10.53, p < .00$).

Table 3 shows the paired sample t-test results of the protective health knowledge level pre-test and post-test depending mean scores of sub units. There was a significant difference between the mean values of pre-test and post-test results on the immunity ($t(131)=5.51, p<.00$), traffic ($t(131)=1.53, p<.00$), nutrition ($t(131)=6.38, p<.00$), hygiene ($t(131)=5.83, p<.00$), mental health ($t(131)=4.05, p<.00$). There was no significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test of tooth health ($t(131)=1.53, p>.00$) and physical activities ($t(131)=1.53, p>.00$).

Table 3.

Paired Sample t-test Results of PHKL Pre-Test and Post-Test Depending on Sub-Units

Sub-units		<i>n</i>	\bar{x}	<i>S</i>	<i>sd</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Immunity	Pre-test	131	0.53	0.25	129	5.51	0.00*
	Post-test		0.68	0.23			
Traffic	Pre-test	131	0.52	0.33	131	1.53	0.00*
	Post-test		0.75	0.32			
Nutrition	Pre-test	131	0.52	0.22	131	6.38	0.00*
	Post-test		0.65	0.18			
Hygiene	Pre-test	131	0.41	0.29	131	5.83	0.00*
	Post-test		0.58	0.30			
Mental Health	Pre-test	131	0.02	0.15	131	4.05	0.00*
	Post-test		0.16	0.36			
Tooth Health	Pre-test	131	0.43	0.33	131	1.53	0.12
	Post-test		0.48	0.32			
Physical Activity	Pre-test	131	0.43	0.33	131	1.53	0.12
	Post-test		0.48	0.32			

* $p<0.005$

Results of Content Analysis

Theme 1: Difficulties during the preparation of protective health education materials. Most of the participants ($f=14$) stated that they had acquired knowledge about protective health by listening to what other people, generally family elders, said, advice that had often been wrong and to change these received opinions was difficult. Most of them ($f=13$) could not find enough pre-prepared health education materials. Ten of the participants indicated that they had difficulty producing materials because they did not have sufficient accurate content knowledge. Eight of them described problems in group work that is, doing the work on time and agreeing about decisions. The samples were:

G58ICN: Now I understand why I failed in anatomy and physiology lecture. When we were playing the game related with place of organs, I got confused again.

G13MC: The guiltiest person is my grandmother; she always said remove your head back when your nose is bleeding.

G7NPEM-GW: We look for existing educational material in many places and nobody could find them; then we prepared by fighting with each other to meet at the same decision.

Theme 2: Difficulties during the practice use of the materials with children in schools. Most of the students had problems of class management ($f=20$). Eighteen had problems of time management and could not finish the planned activities. Also, some of them ($f=8$) had problems when answering student questions and three of the participants noted their lack of pedagogical know-how that led to behavior problems in a class attended by handicapped students.

G31AQ: One of the kids asked the protection number of the sun crème but I didn't know the correct number for kids.

G5AQ Before this lecture I didn't know the tooth polish and two of kids showed polished teeth in the kindergarten.

G7 TM: We couldn't finish most of the activities on planned time.

G7LPK-CM-TM: When the kids were hungry and sleepless, they couldn't concentrate on the lecture. Our practice hour was before lunch time and they always asked about the kinds of food in the lunch. We have two handicapped kids in our class and we had problems for the agreement and controlling them into the activities.

Theme 3: What the prospective teachers learned. Most of them ($f=18$) claimed that they were learning about protective health as they taught the children. These prospective teachers ($f=15$) learned the advantages of team work. Some of them ($f=12$) discovered that when the materials encouraged activity, evoked wonder or were very colorful, the students enjoyed learning. For example, one of the groups was surprised by the effects of a game with the first-aid bag. In fact, they did not think it would be attractive for the children but the game about first aid bag was funny for them. Some ($f=8$) discovered abilities they had not known they had. The importance of content knowledge was emphasized by 4 participants. 3 of them realized the effect of media on children's learning. They indicated that children generally gave the answer 'lung' when asked about protecting organs of the body from addictions. When the student teachers asked, G31EM: Why lung? They were told about films explaining the harmfulness of cigarettes that the children had watched on television. Some examples of themes:

G12LPK: We learned protective health better than in our lectures when we were practicing with children.

G5RA: We wrote and composed very good songs and also it was very funny and we can produce an album with our new abilities that we believed we discovered.

G71GW: We learned to work in an organization, problem solving, defining responsibilities and the importance of setting deadlines. Brainstorming causes production of creative materials.

G43ImCK: Having information about the content in detail was providing easy production of materials and answering students' questions

The participants ($f=8$) made recommendations:

Doing this activity after the education of class management would increase the effectivity of activities.

Discussion and Conclusion

To reduce the mortality rate in the world is one of the main issues of most of the countries. Especially infant mortality rate, circulatory disorders, cancer, suicides, obesity, smoking, alcohol and drug addictions are the main problems (Lim et al., 2015; Urhausen & Pace, 2013; Boschi-Pinto et al., 2008; Hammig et al., 2011; Lozano et al., 2011; Heron & Tejada-Vera, 2009). In this research, protective health education was given to prospective pre-school teachers to increase their health knowledge level with the applications. The results of the protective health knowledge level tests displayed that prospective pre-school teachers learned and increased the knowledge level about protective health by theoretical and practical education. The education level of people affects the health knowledge level (Grossman 2006; Johnston et al., 2015; Li & Powdthavee, 2015). Health education about the selected units for students, teachers or citizens affects the knowledge level of participants in a positive way as indicated in the results of researches of Hassoy et al., (2011), Hammig et al., (2011) and Geckil et al., (2010). The interviews of participants showed that these prospective pre-school teachers experienced and learned from innovative approaches in health education. Even though the participants had taken many lectures about health education during their secondary school or university period that consisted of information and theory rather than skill-based applications or adaptations to daily life, the research results showed the importance of practicing the learned knowledge (Bransford et al., 1989; Wicklein & Schell, 1995; Marx et al., 1998). Results of the protective health knowledge level tests show that they understood concepts embedded in their production of instructional materials even though the results also reveal significant differences between their knowledge of concepts related to immunity, traffic, nutrition, hygiene, mental health and concepts regarding tooth health and physical activities. The reasons for this can be inferred from the sentence in one of interviews, 'Before this lecture I didn't know the tooth polish and two of kids showed polished teeth in the kindergarten'. Also, the groups dealing with dental health found prepared educational materials such as models, videos, and games and consequently did not spend much effort to produce new materials. The same applies to physical activity, because ready-made educational materials about physical activity were also available. If the teacher candidates had not exercised their knowledge and not done any brainstorming, their learning would have been deficient. As indicated, doing brain storm causes production of creative materials. The most important outcome of the interviews in relation to new methods of teaching about health was the claim made by the participants that learning theoretical knowledge through the production of teaching materials was effective,

even though negotiation and decision making in a group were sometimes difficult. Most of the participants agreed that they were learning about protective health when they were practicing their teaching with children. Koshino, Kojima and Kendera (2013) also indicated that students are interested in the materials and that they learned the contents in an efficient manner. The participants in the research also learned what made materials attractive and what activated the children's learning. They discovered their unforeseen abilities and learned about the impact of media on children's learning. Problems of class management and insufficient pedagogical knowledge were the main problems experienced during the treatment, yet these problems helped the prospective teachers to identify many of the skills they needed to learn in order to become competent teachers. The universities should collaborate with schools, teachers and families as indicated by Butler et al., (2011) and Berzin et al., (2011) to provide health education to decrease mortality rate and for health and safety for young people and the society.

Conclusion

In this research, the production and application of educational materials affected the increase of the protective health knowledge level of prospective teachers. They learned the concepts related with immunity, nutrition, traffic rules, mental health, physical activities, tooth health and hygiene when they were preparing the educational materials. They also modified their previous knowledge that they had learned from their environment like their grandparents and friends. In the future they can use this knowledge and these practices to decrease the mortality rate of countries as a teacher, as an individual in a society or as a parent. They can contribute to increase the number of healthy infants and healthy people. Using the mixed method approach the researcher also obtained the weak and strong sides of applications; the importance of conceptual learning, pedagogical knowledge during practicing with kids, experiences with group working, their realizing their abilities and what they need during material development. Video recording, fewer participants, and a longer application period would have been advantageous improvements.

Recommendations

Teacher education. Even though the sample group in the research was selected from prospective teachers who had taken some health courses such as first aid, mother-child health and human anatomy and physiology, they needed to learn more about protective health. Protective health education should be given to prospective teachers in all subjects including practical as well as conceptual knowledge. Although there are social workers and medical personnel in schools, teachers are the most important components of health education because they know the students' abilities, cognitive levels, personal and social needs. Through teacher education programs, teachers gain the pre-requisite knowledge of learning theories and teaching methods and through classroom experience they develop the skills to apply them.

Protective health education in schools. Schools should raise family awareness of protective health and make appropriate materials and facilities available to families in collaboration with universities, institutes, the government, civil societies. In addition publicity in the media can provide information about protective health education.

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Koruyucu Sağlık Eğitimi

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Özet

Problem Durumu: Savaşlar, açlık, trafik kazaları, bulaşıcı hastalıklar, çocuk cinayetleri, çocuk işçiliği, okul, ev kazaları, çocuk ve genci koruma yasalarının yetersizliği gibi birçok nedenden dolayı dünyadaki çocuk ölümleri ciddi bir problemdir. Ölüm

oranlarının azaltılmasında alınacak önlemlerden bir tanesi koruyucu sağlık eğitimidir. Sağlık eğitiminin amacı, bilgi ve temel becerilerle donanımlı kişilerin hastalıklardan, kazalardan, yaralanmalardan ve ölümlerden korunmasını sağlamaktır. Bu bağlamda yapılan araştırmanın etkisinin sürdürülebilir olması için çalışmanın ana problemi, “ Koruyucu sağlık eğitim materyallerinin üretimi ve okul öncesi öğrencilerine bu materyallerle yapılan uygulamaların okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının koruyucu sağlık bilgi düzeylerine nasıl etkilemektedir? ” Araştırmanın alt problemleri şunlardır: Hijyen, bağışıklık, beslenme, trafik kuralları, zihin sağlığı, fiziksel aktivite ve diş sağlığı konularında eğitim materyallerinin hazırlanması ve uygulanması okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının koruyucu sağlık bilgi düzeylerine etkisi nedir? Sağlık eğitiminde yeni öğretim yöntemlerin geliştirilmesi için uygulamaların güçlü ve zayıf yönleri nelerdir?

Araştırmanın Amacı: Okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının öğretim teknolojileri ve materyal geliştirme dersinde öğrendikleri teorik bilgileri kullanarak koruyucu sağlık öğretim materyalleri üretmeleri, bu materyalleri kullanarak okul öncesi öğrencilerine koruyucu sağlık eğitimi vermesi ve tüm bunların sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının koruyucu sağlık bilgi düzeylerinin artırılması araştırmanın amacıdır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Araştırma sıralı eş zamanlı karma yöntem deseninde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Amaçlı örneklem olarak seçilen 131 okul öncesi öğretmen adayına, uzman görüşüne başvurulmuş araştırma tarafından geliştirilen koruyucu sağlık bilgi düzeyi ölçeği nicel veri elde etmek için kullanılırken, bu örneklem gruptan seçilen 22 öğretmen adayıyla yapılan yüz yüze görüşmede elde edilen veriler nitel veriler için kullanılmıştır. Nicel ve nitel verilerin birleştirilmesiyle elde edilen sonuçların yorumlanmasıyla çocuk ölümlerinin azaltılması ve sağlıklı bir toplum için bir eğitim modeli önerilmeye çalışılmıştır. Koruyucu sağlık bilgi düzeyi ölçeği 20 açık uçlu sorudan oluşmaktadır. Her doğru cevaba 1, yanlış veya boş bırakılmış soruya 0 puan verilerek değerlendirilmiştir. Ölçeğin güvenilirliği ön test sonuçlarına göre KR20 = 0.64 ve son test sonuçlarına göre KR20 = 0.82 olarak bulunmuştur. Nitel veri kaynağı olarak 2 açık uçlu sorudan oluşan yapılandırılmış görüşme formu araştırmanın uygulamaları sonunda kullanılmıştır. Araştırma, öğretim teknolojileri ve materyal geliştirme dersine devam eden 2. sınıf okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarıyla 12 haftada gerçekleştirilmiştir. Öncelikle dersin içeriğine uygun teorik bilgiler ve uygulamalar araştırmacı tarafından öğretmen adaylarına verilmiş ve gruplar halindeki öğretmen adaylarına verilen koruyucu sağlık konularında materyal üretmeleri ve bunları sınıf ortamında sunmaları istenmiştir. Bilgisayar oyunları, filmler, yap bozlar, drama, kuklalar, boyama, deneyler ve hikaye okumaları gibi bir çok çeşitte materyal öğretmen adayları tarafından üretilmiştir. Sınıf ortamdaki öneriler ve eklemelerle materyal ve materyallerin okul öncesi öğrencilerine uygulama planları hazırlanmıştır. Daha sonra tüm öğrenciler yakın çevredeki bir anaokulunda 4-5 yaş grubu öğrencilerin yer aldığı 4 sınıfta 2 hafta sürede materyalleri kullanarak uygulamalarını gerçekleştirmişlerdir. Koruyucu sağlık bilgi düzeyi ölçeği son test olarak uygulandıktan sonra, gönüllülük esasında seçilen 22 öğretmen adayıyla nitel veriler için görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Nicel verilerde SPSS istatistik 17 programı kullanılarak ön test, son test karşılaştırması t-

test ve görüşme sonuçları araştırmacı ve 2 uzman tarafından kodlar verilerek (Miles and Huberman = 0.92 güvenilirlik) gerçekleştirilen içerik analiziyle temalar belirlenerek değerlendirilmiştir.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Yapılan t- testi ile koruyucu sağlık bilgi düzeyi ölçeği son test ortalaması (= 12.17) ön test ortalamasından (=9.19) daha yüksek bulunmuştur. Dolayısıyla yapılan t testi sonucu ön test ve son test arasında anlamlı bir fark (t (131) = 10.53, p<.00) elde edilmiştir. Koruyucu sağlık eğitiminin alt boyutlarında ise bağışıklık (t(131)= 5.51, p <.00), trafik kuralları (t (131)=1.53, p <.00), beslenme (t (131) = 6.38, p <.00), hijyen (t (131) = 5.83, p<.00), zihin sağlığı (t (131)=4.05, p<.00) konularında anlamlı bir fark elde edilirken, diş sağlığı (t (131) = 1.53, p >.00) ve fiziksel aktivitelerde (t (131) =1.53, p >.00) anlamlı bir fark elde edilmemiştir. Nitel veriler sonucu; koruyucu sağlık eğitim materyali hazırlarken karşılan güçlükler, uygulamada yaşanan güçlükler ve öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme deneyimleri şeklinde 3 tema elde edilmiştir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Koruyucu sağlık eğitim materyallerinin üretilmesi, materyallerin derslerde kullanılması, okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının bağışıklık, beslenme, trafik kuralları, zihin sağlığı, hijyen konularında koruyucu sağlık bilgi düzeylerinde anlamlı bir artışa neden olmuştur. Öğretmen adaylarının kavram yanılgıları, konu içerik bilgilerindeki eksiklikler ve henüz 2. sınıf olmalarından kaynaklı sınıf yönetimi, zaman yönetimi, pedagojik bilgilerindeki yetersizliklerinden dolayı uygulamalarda bazı güçlükler yaşamışlardır. Ancak yapılan tüm uygulamalar sonucu konuları daha anlamlı öğrendikleri, kendi yaşamlarında uyguladıkları, kavram bilgisinin ne kadar önemli olduğu, takım çalışmasının önemini, oyun, film gibi farklı eğitim materyallerinin öğrencinin derse motivasyonunu nasıl etkilediği uygulamalarla deneyimlemişlerdir. Çalışmanın sonucunda, geleneksel gösteri yöntemi ve düz anlatım yönteminden farklı olarak uygulamalı olarak yapılacak koruyucu sağlık eğitiminin, tüm öğretmen adaylarına uygulamalı olarak verilmesi, onların bir öğretmen, aile ve toplumda bir birey olarak çocuk ölümlerinin azaltılmasında ve sağlıklı bir toplum olmamızda önemli rol oynadığı düşünülerek önerilmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sağlık eğitimi, öğretmen eğitimi, sağlık eğitim materyali, çocuk, karma yöntem.

Analysis of the Relationship between Shared Leadership and Distributed Leadership

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Abstract

Problem Statement: The current study's purpose is: First, to examine the relationship between shared leadership and distributed leadership, which, despite having many similar aspects in theory and practice, are defined as separate concepts. Second, to compare the two approaches and dissipate the theoretical contradictions. In this sense, the main aim of the study is to examine administrators' shared leadership and distributed leadership levels, the relationships between shared leadership and distributed leadership, and the predictive power of shared leadership over distributed leadership.

Purpose of Study: The aim of the study is to examine, compare, and remove the specified conceptual contradictions between the distributed leadership and shared leadership, many similar aspects of which are highlighted despite their different nominations.

Method: The study utilized a relational survey model and causal design to examine the relationship between shared leadership and distributed leadership and the predictive power of shared leadership over distributed leadership. In the current study, shared leadership and its sub dimensions were regarded as the independent variable, whereas distributed leadership was used as the dependent variable in the context of causal research design.

Findings and Results: The findings of the study show that according to participant views, administrators have high levels of shared leadership and distributed leadership; however, the levels are not very high. Based on the perception of participants, there is a positive, medium-level, and

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significant relationship between the Shared Leadership Scale and the Distributed Leadership Scale. Therefore, we can argue that there is a relationship between shared leadership and distributed leadership, but this relationship is not very distinctive. It is observed that all these leadership concepts are close to one another in meaning and can be used interchangeably. The results of this study suggest using the term “collective leadership” instead to bridge the gap between distributed leadership and shared leadership and prevent cognitive complexity. According to participant views, administrators have high levels of shared leadership and distributed leadership; however, the levels are not very high. There is a relationship between shared leadership and distributed leadership, but this relationship is not very distinctive.

Recommendations: Therefore, it can be argued that shared leadership and distributed leadership approaches are separate leadership approaches and that it is not suitable to use them interchangeably, although they share many common points.

Keywords: Leadership, distributed leadership, shared leadership

Introduction

Today situational leadership and more recent leadership theories explain the concept of sharing leadership functions with the help of concepts like “*distributed leadership*,” (Spillane and Diamond, 2007; Gronn, 2002; Baloglu, 2011; Korkmaz & Gunduz, 2011; Ozer & Beycioglu, 2013; Hulpia, Devos & Rosseel, 2009; Ozdemir, 2012; Elmore, 2000; Halverson & Clifford, 2013; Brown, 1989) and “*shared leadership*,” (Kocolowski, 2010; Judge & Ryman, 2001; Sergiovanni, 1995; Yilmaz, 2013; Bakir, 2013; Bostanci, 2012; Ozer & Beycioglu, 2013) and they regard the notion of leadership as something bigger than the sum of the knowledge and abilities of one individual.

Sharing leadership roles is not a new concept (Hoy & Miskel, 2012), and it is a leadership approach used since the 1950s (Gibb 1954; Gronn, 2002). Scientists especially in the field of education have focused on shared leadership since the 1990s and have started to undertake numerous studies (Gronn, 2002). However, the concept and approaches of distributed leadership has still been explained with notions such as “self-leadership/super leadership/shared leadership” (Bostanci, 2012). A relatively new approach of sharing the functions of leadership—especially in Turkey—has brought conceptual confusion in various regards. When recent studies undertaken in Turkey in this field are investigated, it is observed that the shared leadership concept is preferred in place of distributed leadership (Bakir, 2013; Yilmaz, 2013; Bostanci, 2012) and sharing leadership functions is examined under the heading of distributed leadership (Oguz, 2010; Baloglu, 2011; Ozdemir, 2012).

Ozer and Beycioglu (2013) developed a scale regarding shared leadership in primary schools. Also, Bostanci (2012) adapted the “Shared Leadership Perception Scale” to Turkish. Baloglu’s (2011) study, titled “Distributed Leadership: A

Leadership Approach that Needs to be Taken into Consideration at Schools," addresses the distributed leadership theory based on its relationship with other theories. Baloglu analyzes the theory in the framework of the staunchest pioneers of the approach, such as Gronn (2000), Spillane (2005), and Elmore (2000). Korkmaz and Gunduz (2011) aimed to present teacher views regarding the distributed leadership behaviors of primary school administrators in their study, "Primary School Administrators' Distributed Leadership Representation Levels." Study results show that teachers believed that primary school administrators displayed high levels of distributed leadership behaviors. In his study, Yilmaz (2013) aimed to identify primary school administrators' shared leadership behavior levels. Research results presented that primary school teachers found primary school administrators' distributed leadership behavior levels to be high. According to Bakir's (2013) analysis between teachers' shared leadership and organizational commitment perceptions, it was found that there was a positive, high, and significant relationship between private and state primary school teachers' perceptions of shared leadership in general as a whole and their organizational commitment perceptions.

International studies regarding the use of shared and distributed leadership concepts show that distributed leadership (Bolden, 2011; Elmore, 2000; Gronn, 2000, 2002a, 2002b; Harris, 2004; Harris & Spillane, 2008; Bennett et al., 2003) and shared leadership (Carson et al., 2007; Pearce & Sims, 2001; Small & Rentsch, 2010) concepts are different from each other and are utilized according to different theoretical foundations. Details are provided below regarding both types of leadership.

Shared Leadership

As presented in literature, shared leadership practice is not related to the knowledge and skills of only one leader, but a participative perspective in which individuals and situations interact with each other. Leadership process and its success is a product of leaders, observers, and the situations that these individuals take part in (Spillane, 2005). Shared leadership is defined as a modern leadership approach internalized through voluntary cooperation and interaction based on the competencies of all stakeholders and a sense of responsibility. The important part in shared leadership is not the formal position or role of individuals, but their knowledge and competencies regarding the topic. Shared leadership reflects the culture of working in unity presented by shared leadership behaviors by all stakeholders (Bakir, 2013). Such an organization is composed of individuals who trust each other's knowledge and experiences, are active in the participatory process, open to change and innovation, productive, and inclined to exchange ideas (Gronn, 2000; Harris, 2003).

Therefore, the shared leadership approach is related to the participation of many individuals in leadership activities. It is more than one leader's knowledge and experiences; it is rather the product of many individuals and the relationships among them by combining all the leaders in a school and taking their activities into account (Harris, 2005; Spillane, 2005). Compared to an orchestra that is always led by a maestro, Schlechty (2005) likens this type of leadership to a jazz group led by one of the musicians based on the rhythm of the moment. This type of leadership requires paying attention to the process of shared commitments, beliefs, and values. The Table below summarizes the structure of shared leadership:

Table 1.*Shared Leadership*

The oldest reference regarding this subject is Gibb's "Leadership" article which was published in 1954 (Bakir, 2013).
It contributes to the increased quality of schools and allows schools to transform into learning organizations (Bakir, 2013).
The need for distributed leadership arises from the fact that the approach of a "hero leader," who can solve all of the problems by himself/herself and who has unlimited competencies, has started to collapse. Therefore the high level and complex demands from management cannot be met anymore (Hartley, 2007; Bakir, 2013).
Organizational initiatives cannot be directed by only one leader, and all activities, actions and power in the organization should be shared (Harris, 2003)
The important thing in shared leadership is not the individual's formal position or role, but his/her knowledge and skills. Shared leadership reflects the culture of working in unity presented by shared leadership behaviors by all stakeholders (Bakir, 2013).
The idea of shared decisions and democratization of schools is dominant.
It is stated that parents, students, teachers, administrators, and even the public should participate in the process for successful educational leadership (Bolden, Petrov and Gosling, 2009).
The number of studies showing a strong relationship between this approach and positive organizational change is increasing day by day (Harris et al., 2008).
Since the organization is bigger than the sum of its parts, it has to be regarded together with all the stakeholders involved (Gronn, 2000).
The thesis that sharing leadership functions will increase the effectiveness of the organization under all conditions (Katz & Kahn, 1966) has been accepted.
Decisions taken with the help of distributed leadership practices may be more effective than decisions taken by individual leadership practices (Yukl, 1999).
Distributed leadership provides teachers with the opportunities to become leaders in different scales, times, and formats (Frost & Harris, 2003).

Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership is distributing leadership practices (Malloy, 2012). In this leadership style, the leader and his/her followers interact (Spillane, 2006). Compared to centering on position, individual expertise is the central concept in distributed leadership (Anderson, et al., 2008; Bennet et al., 2003; Heller & Firestone, 1995; Malloy, 2012). Hence, distributed leadership is not simply assigning individuals to specific tasks and sharing duties (Penlington et al., 2008). In this type of leadership, collective work as well as collective learning by working on goals through communication and interaction is prominent, rather than individual work (Halverson, 2007). For instance, capacity building of one teacher by another teacher is an example of this process (Copeland, 2003). Distributed leadership style has completely changed the traditional leadership model, in which one individual has been the hero, mentor, and responsible party (Gronn, 2002) and distributed the leadership positions among the members of the organization (Malloy, 2012).

The distributed leadership approach addresses leadership together with teams, groups, and organizational characteristics. In practice, this approach opposes the supposition that change requires the leadership and guidance of some specific individuals (Heller & Firestone, 1995; Hoy & Miskel, 2012). Proponents of this idea argue that this type of leadership is imperative since educational organizations are too complex for one individual to cope with (Heller and Firestone, 1995). The responsibility of managing various complex tasks in organizations is distributed among many individuals and roles (Hoy & Miskel, 2012). The basic principle is the impossibility of discovering a single series of best leader characteristics and single best leader behavior standards. Researchers and school administrators believe that leadership practices are too complex to be represented by a single series of behaviors (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2013).

In their study, "Building Leadership Capacity for School," and in the references they used, Harris and Lambert (2003) propose that conceptual and functional discussions regarding distributed leadership are still continuing and that despite organizational learning studies of more than 20 years, it is still not completely defined as to how distributed leadership positions and roles can be adapted to school activities and how the distributed leadership image should be at schools (Senge, 1990; Louis & Kruse, 1995; Spillane et al., 2001). The table below summarizes the structure of distributed leadership:

Table 2.

Distributed Leadership

It is a leadership approach used since the 1950s (Gibb, 1954; Gronn, 2002)

The focus of distributed leadership is on student achievement and progress towards development in teaching (Chen et al., 2007).

This perspective regards leadership as the shared contribution of all leaders to total leadership and distinguishes it from other theories (Harris 2005a; Printy, 2008).

The leader cannot be composed of only one person, and leadership should be shared (Gibb, 1954).

Creation of an environment that regards learning as the "common good" is very important in distributed leadership (Elmore 2000).

It is a participatory or cooperative decision-making process in which administrators, teachers, students, and parents also take part (Smylie, Lazarus & Conyers, 1996).

Distributed leadership is the guide and moderator of educational development (Elmore, 2000).

It has a much larger effect than the sum of all leaders in a school and their efforts to reach a larger scale leadership behavior (Spillane, 2006).

There is the belief that it is always better to distribute leadership among too many individuals than to allow one leader act solely (Kempster, Cope, & Parry, 2010).

There is a positive relationship between distribution of leadership and capacity development (Baloglu, 2011).

By respecting and accepting different expertise areas, distributed leadership makes all kinds of products the shared capital of the organization, including the knowledge arising from interactions (Gunduz & Korkmaz, 2011).

As can be seen from the Table above, there are many common points between shared leadership and distributed leadership as revealed by theoretical, practical, and field studies. Common points between the two leadership approaches are so close that the concepts of distributed leadership and shared leadership are used interchangeably in some studies. Although there are many parallels between shared leadership and distributed leadership, these approaches are addressed as two separate leadership models, and various scales are developed to assess the leadership levels of administrators and staff in organizations.

Purpose of the Study

The current study aimed to examine the relationship between shared leadership and distributed leadership, which have many different and similar aspects in theory and practice, but are defined as separate concepts. It also aimed to compare the two approaches and dissipate the theoretical contradictions. In this sense, the main purpose of the study was to examine administrators' shared leadership and distributed leadership levels, the relationships between shared leadership and distributed leadership, and the predictive power of shared leadership over distributed leadership.

Method

Research Design

The study utilized a relational survey model and causal design to examine the relationship between shared leadership and distributed leadership as well as the predictive power of shared leadership over distributed leadership. A relational survey model aims to present whether there is a relationship between two or more variables and, in the case of a relationship, the direction of the relationship. In the current study shared leadership and its sub-dimensions were regarded as the independent variable, whereas distributed leadership was used as the dependent variable in the context of a causal research design.

Universe and Sample of the Study

The sample universe of the study was composed of a total of 3,707 teachers employed in 331 schools (21 pre-schools, 154 primary schools, 101 secondary schools, and 36 high schools) in the province of Duzce in the 2013–2014 academic year. The sample of the study consisted of 402 teachers selected through simple random sampling. Table 3 presents the demographical characteristics of the sample.

The study was conducted on a total of 402 teachers. 182 of the participants were females, and 220 were males. The majority of the participants (362) graduated from four-year faculties. It can be argued that the participants formed a young group in terms of service years and age distributions.

Table 3.*Personal Information*

Variable		f	%
Gender	Female	182	45
	Male	220	55
Age	21-30	100	24
	31-40	216	54
	41-50	69	18
	51 and higher	17	4
Graduation	2.3 years College	14	4
	4 years Faculty	362	90
	Master's degree	26	6
	Ph.D	-	-
Seniority/Years of Service	1-5 years	100	25
	6-10 years	112	27
	11-15 years	145	37
	16-20 years	29	7
	21 and higher	16	4

Data Collection Tools

"Shared Leadership Perception Scale," developed by Wood (2005) and adapted to Turkish by Bostanci (2012), was utilized as the data collection tool in the study. Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α), calculated to show the reliability of the scale, was found to be $\alpha = .91$ for the whole scale and changed between $\alpha = .74$ and $\alpha = .88$ for its sub-dimensions. Item-total correlations were calculated to be between .40 and .73. The reliability coefficient of the scale was recalculated for the current study, and the value was found to be .92. The scale is a four-point Likert type scale with answers: 1 (definitely not true), 2 (generally not true), 3 (generally true), and 4 (definitely true). The scale is composed of four dimensions with a total of 18 items.

"Distributed Leadership Scale," developed by Hulpia, Devos, and Rosseel (2009), was utilized to collect data regarding distributed leadership. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Ozdemir (2012). "Distributed Leadership Scale" is composed of two separate subscales. The first subscale focuses on the leadership functions of all members included in the leadership team (13 items), and the second sub-dimension addresses the general characteristics (accord) of the leadership team (10 items).

Cronbach's alpha coefficient, split-half correlations, and Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient values of the "Distributed Leadership Inventory" were found to be between .83 and .96. Similarly, Cronbach's alpha coefficient, split-half correlations

and Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient values of the leadership team accord subscale were found to be between .96 and .98. The reliability coefficient of the current study was recalculated, and the value was found to be .96. The scale has a total of 23 items. The scale is a five-point Likert type scale with answers and scores as follows: 1= Completely Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Undecided, 4= Agree, and 5= Completely Agree.

Data Analysis

In the data analysis, the means and standard deviation values of the scales related to the shared and distributed leadership levels of administrators were calculated, and Spearman's correlation analysis was undertaken to determine the relationship between the scores obtained from the scales. Then Multiple Linear Regression Analysis was utilized to identify the Shared Leadership Scale scores' predictive level in predicting the scores obtained through Distributed Leadership Scale. The shared leadership scale and its sub-dimensions were used as independent variables, and the distributed leadership scale was used as a dependent variable.

Results

Findings Regarding Administrators' Level of Shared and Distributed Leadership

Descriptive statistics regarding the views of teachers on administrators' shared and distributed leadership levels is provided in Table 4.

Table 4.
Descriptive Statistics Regarding Shared and Distributed Leadership

	N	\bar{X}	S
Leadership functions	402	3.98	0.74
General accord in the leadership team	402	3.93	0.76
Completion of tasks together	402	2.98	0.62
Mutual skills development	402	2.96	0.71
Decentralized interaction among staff	402	2.81	0.61
Emotional Support	402	2.81	0.61
Distributed Leadership	402	3.17	0.59
Shared Leadership	402	3.96	0.71
	402	2.98	0.51

As Table 4 displays, participants had positive views regarding the school administrators' shared and distributed leadership behaviors. Participants' shared leadership scores (=2.98) corresponded with the "generally true" option, and their distributed leadership scores (=3.96) corresponded with the "Agree" option. According to this result, it can be argued that the perceptions of teachers participating in the study of the shared and distributed leadership behaviors of

administrators were high, but not very high, and they regarded the administrators as leaders who share and distribute responsibility and authority.

Correlation Findings Regarding the Relationship between Shared and Distributed Leadership

Spearman's correlation analysis was undertaken to identify the relationship between shared and distributed leadership, and the results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5.

Correlation Matrix between Shared and Distributed Leadership

		Completion of tasks together	Mutual skills development	Decentralized interaction among staff	Emotional Support	Shared Leadership
Leadership functions	r	.598(*)	.510(*)	.322(*)	.452(*)	.587(*)
General accord in the leadership team	r	.653(*)	.532(*)	.325(*)	.545(*)	.636(*)
Distributed Leadership	r	.665(*)	.554(*)	.342(*)	.532(*)	.652(*)

*($p < 0.01$)

Correlation values between 0 and 0.30 show that no relationships exist between variables, values between 0.31 and 0.49 point to weak relationships, values between 0.50 and 0.69 point to medium level relationships and values between 0.70 and 1.00 show high-level (strong) relationships (Sonmez and Alacapinar, 2011: 141; Buyukozturk, 2010). According to Table 5, a positive and medium level significant relationship ($r = .652$, $p < 0.01$) existed between participant perceptions towards shared leadership in general and their perceptions towards distributed leadership.

In the analysis of the Table above, a positive, medium level, and significant relationship ($r = .598$; $p < 0.01$) was observed between "leadership functions" (a sub-dimension of shared leadership) and "completion of tasks together" (a sub-dimension of distributed leadership); a positive, medium level, and significant relationship ($r = .510$; $p < 0.01$) was observed between "leadership functions" (a sub-dimension of shared leadership) and "mutual skills development" (a sub-dimension of distributed leadership); a positive, weak and significant relationship ($r = .322$; $p < 0.01$) was found between "leadership functions" (a sub-dimension of shared leadership) and "decentralized interaction among staff" (a sub-dimension of distributed leadership); and a positive, weak, and significant relationship ($r = .452$; $p < 0.01$) was identified between "leadership functions" (a sub-dimension of shared leadership) and "emotional support" (a sub-dimension of distributed leadership).

A positive, medium level, and significant relationship ($r = .653$; $p < 0.01$) was detected between general accord in the leadership team (a sub-dimension of shared leadership) and "completion of tasks together" (a sub-dimension of distributed leadership); a positive, medium level, and significant relationship ($r = .532$; $p < 0.01$) was obtained between general accord in the leadership team (a sub-dimension of shared leadership) and "mutual skills development" (a sub dimension of distributed leadership); a positive, weak, and significant relationship ($r = .325$; $p < 0.01$) was found between general accord in the leadership team (a sub-dimension of shared leadership) and "decentralized interaction among staff" (a sub-dimension of distributed leadership); and a positive, weak, and significant relationship ($r = .545$; $p < 0.01$) was observed between general accord in the leadership team (a sub-dimension of shared leadership) and "emotional support" (a sub-dimension of distributed leadership).

Multiple Regression Findings for Shared Leadership and Distributed Leadership Scores

The current study focused on the predictive power of shared leadership over distributed leadership. The prediction of the value of a dependent variable based on the value of an independent variable is called "Regression Analysis." The determination coefficient obtained through regression analysis is represented by "R," and it defines the percentage of changes that can be explained by the other variable, which is a value between 0 and 1 (Balci, 2009; Fox, 2008).

Table 6 presents the results of linear regression analysis undertaken in order to explain to what extent the participants' shared leadership perceptions can explain their distributed leadership perceptions.

Table 6.

Multivariate Regression Matrix between Shared Leadership and Distributed Leadership

Predicted Variable	Predictor Variable (Shared Leadership Sub Dimensions)	B	SHB	β	t	p
Distributed Leadership	Completion of tasks together	.519	.067	.452	7.726	.000
	Mutual skills development	.096	.058	.096	1.639	.102
	Decentralized interaction among staff	.056	.050	.048	1.114	.266
	Emotional Support	.156	.064	.132	2.431	.016
$\eta = 402, R = .644, R^2 = .415, F = 70.355, p < 0.01$						

According to Table 6, a positive, medium level, and significant relationship ($r = .644$) exists between shared leadership (independent variable) and distributed leadership (dependent variable). Sub-dimensions of shared leadership (completion of

tasks together, mutual skills development, decentralized interaction among staff, and emotional support) can explain 42.5% of the 0.415 variance of distributed leadership. In other words, 41.55 of distributed leadership behaviors can be explained by shared leadership behaviors; however, a large ratio of distributed leadership cannot be explained by the shared leadership scale.

When analysis results were examined for each explanatory variable, it was observed that "Completion of Tasks Together" had the highest impact ($\beta = 0.452$) on the distributed leadership variable, followed by "Emotional Support" ($\beta = 0.132$). However, the "Mutual Skills development" and "Decentralized Interaction among Staff" variables were found to have no impact on the distributed leadership variable.

Discussion and Conclusion

The findings of the study that aimed to examine the relationship between shared and distributed leadership and the level of prediction of shared leadership over distributed leadership show that according to participant views, administrators have high levels of shared leadership and distributed leadership. However, the levels are not very high. Yilmaz (2013) found that primary school teachers' shared leadership behaviors corresponded to the "mostly" option. A similar result was obtained in Christy's (2008) and Smith's (2007) studies. A study by Korkmaz (2011) showed that teachers similarly think that primary school administrators' distributed leadership behaviors are at a high level.

Based on the perception of participants, there is a positive, medium level, and significant relationship ($r = .652$, $p < 0.01$) between the Shared Leadership Scale and the Distributed Leadership Scale. Therefore, we can argue that there is a relationship between shared leadership and distributed leadership, but this relationship is not very distinctive. Shared Leadership (independent variable) and distributed leadership (dependent variable) can explain 41.5% of the total variance when the total determination coefficient (R-square) was taken as 0.415. In other words, while 41.5% of the distributed leadership behaviors can be explained by shared leadership behaviors, 59.5% of administrators' distributed leadership behaviors can be explained by other variables.

Burke's (2010) study, "Distributed Leadership and Shared Governance in Post-Secondary Education," found a high level of relationship between distributed leadership and shared management in higher education. Mendez's (2009) study, titled "A Closer Look Into Collective Leadership: Is Leadership Shared Or Distributed?" identified that leadership is based on teamwork rather than individual activities, and several concepts such as distributed leadership, shared leadership, democratic leadership, collective leadership, relational leadership, and team leadership are used for team leadership. It is observed that all these leadership concepts are close to one another in meaning and can be used interchangeably. The results of this study suggest using the term "collective leadership" in order to bridge the gap between distributed leadership and shared leadership to prevent cognitive complexity.

Fitzsimons, James, and Denyer's (2011) study, titled "An Alternative Approach to Shared and Distributed Leadership Approaches," addressed the historical process of shared and distributed leadership approaches. The results confirm that although there are many concepts that define shared and distributed leadership in literature, these approaches are generally used interchangeably and to substitute for each other, even though these two leadership styles are different from one another.

As a result, we can argue that Bakir (2013), Yilmaz (2013), Bostanci (2012), Oguz (2010), Baloglu (2012), and Ozdemir (2012) generally use shared leadership and distributed leadership interchangeably in recent studies in Turkey, but these two leadership concepts are accepted as separate approaches both in literature and in other countries. As a matter of fact, the results of the current study also identified a positive, medium level, significant relationship between these two leadership approaches; however, a one-on-one relationship that will allow the interchangeable use of these concepts is not apparent. Therefore, it can be argued that shared leadership and distributed leadership approaches are separate leadership approaches, and it is not suitable to use them interchangeably, though they share many common points.

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Paylaşılan Liderlik ile Dağıtımçı Liderlik Arasındaki İlişkinin Analizi

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Özet

Problem Durumu: Liderlik sürecinin paylaşılması konusu ile ilgili son yıllarda bir çok araştırma yapılmaktadır. Paylaşılan liderlik anlayışı; liderlik etkinliklerine birçok kişinin katılmasıyla ilgilidir. Bir okuldaki bütün liderlerden oluşan ve onların çeşitli etkinliklerini de hesaba katan, bir liderin bilgi ve becerisinin bir ürünü olmaktan ziyade birçok kişinin ve onların arasındaki ilişkinin ürünüdür bu tür liderliği, sürekli bir şefin yönettiği orkestradan çok, müziğe ve o andaki ritme göre çalgıcılardan herhangi birinin liderlik ettiği bir caz grubuna benzetmektedir. Bu çeşit liderliği gerçekleşmesi ortak bağlıkların, inançların ve değerlerin seyrine önem vermeyi gerektirir. Dağıtımçı liderlik yaklaşımı; liderliği takımlar, gruplar ve örgütsel özellikleri ile birlikte ele almaktadır. Pratikte bu yaklaşımlar, bir değişimi gerçekleştirmek için birilerinin başta olması gerektiği varsayımına karşı çıkar. Bu fikrin savunucuları, liderliğin gerekli olduğunu çünkü eğitim örgütlerinin tek bir kişinin baş edemeyeceği kadar karmaşık olduğunu iddia ederler. Örgütlerde birçok karmaşık işleri yönetmenin sorumluluğu birçok birey ve roller arasında dağıtılmaktadır. Temel olarak savunulan ilke, tüm durumlarda tek bir en iyi lider özellikleri dizisi ve tek bir en iyi lider davranışları standartlarını keşfetme çabaları başarısızla sonuçlanmıştır. Çağdaş araştırmacılar ve okul yöneticileri liderlik uygulamalarının tek bir davranış dizisi tarafından temsil edilmesi için çok karmaşık olduğunu düşünmektedirler. Paylaşılan liderlik ve dağıtımçı liderlik kavramlarının kullanılması ile ilgili olarak yurt dışında yapılan araştırmalara bakıldığında ise, dağıtımçı liderlik/distributed leadership” paylaşılan liderlik/shared leadership” kavramlarının farklı olduğu ve farklı kuramsal temeller doğrultusunda kullanıldığı görülmektedir. Paylaşılan liderlik ile dağıtımçı liderliğin kuramsal, uygulamaya yönelik ve alan araştırmacıları açılarından bir çok ortak yönü bulunmaktadır. Her iki liderlik yaklaşımı açısından ortak yönler o kadar ileriye gitmiştir ki bazı araştırmalar da paylaşılan ve dağıtımçı liderlik kavramları bir birinin yerine kullanılabilir olmuştur. Alan yazında paylaşılan ve dağıtımçı liderlik arasında bu denli paralellik olmasına rağmen yine literatürde her iki liderlik yaklaşımı farklı birer liderlik modeli olarak ele alınmakta ve bu yönde örgüt yöneticisi ve çalışanlarının liderlik düzeylerini ölçen, açığa çıkaran çeşitli ölçekler geliştirilmektedir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Mevcut araştırma ile teori ve uygulamada birçok benzer yönlerinin olduğu vurgulanan ancak farklı adlar altında dile getirilen paylaşılan liderlik ile dağıtımçı liderlik arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek, karşılaştırmak ve belirtilen kavramsal çelişkileri gidermeye çalışmak amaçlanmıştır. Bu bağlamda eğitimcilerin algularına dayalı olarak, yöneticilerin paylaşılan liderlik ve dağıtımçı liderlik

düzeyleri, paylaşılan liderlik ve dağıtımçı liderlik arasındaki ilişki ve paylaşılan liderliğin dağıtımçı liderliği yordama gücü araştırmanın temel amacını oluşturmuştur.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Araştırma paylaşılan liderlik ve dağıtımçı liderlik arasındaki ilişki ve paylaşılan liderliğin dağıtımçı liderliği yordama gücünü incelemek amacıyla ilişkisel tarama ve nedensel bir desende tasarlanmıştır. İlişkisel tarama modelinde, iki veya daha fazla değişken arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığı ve ilişkinin varlığı durumunda bunun yönü ortaya koyulmaya çalışılır. Nedensel araştırma deseni bağlamında, bu çalışmada, paylaşılan liderlik ve alt boyutları bağımsız değişken, dağıtımçı liderlik ise bağımlı değişken olarak ele alınmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Araştırmaya katılanlar, okul yöneticilerinin; paylaşılan ve dağıtımçı liderlik davranışları ile ilgili olarak olumlu görüşe sahiptirler. Paylaşılan liderlik alt boyutu olan liderlik fonksiyonları ile dağıtımçı liderlik alt boyutlarından “görevlerin ortak tamamlanması” arasında pozitif yönde ve orta derecede anlamlı bir ilişki ($r=.598$; $p<0.01$), “karşılıklı beceri geliştirme” arasında pozitif yönde ve orta derecede anlamlı bir ilişki ($r=.510$; $p<0.01$), “çalışanlar arasında merkezi olmayan etkileşim” arasında pozitif yönde ve zayıf derecede anlamlı bir ilişki ($r=.322$; $p<0.01$), “duygusal destek” arasında pozitif yönde ve zayıf derecede anlamlı bir ilişki ($r=.452$; $p<0.01$) vardır. paylaşılan liderlik (bağımsız değişken) ve dağıtımçı liderlik (bağımlı değişken) arasında pozitif yönde ve orta derecede anlamlı bir ilişki ($r=.644$) vardır. Paylaşılan liderlik alt boyutlarının (görevlerin ortak tamamlanması, karşılıklı beceri geliştirme, çalışanlar arasında merkezi olmayan etkileşim, duygusal destek) dağıtımçı liderliğe ait 0,415 varyansın % 41,5’i açıklamaktadır. Dağıtımçı liderlik değişkeni üzerinde en büyük etkiye “Görevlerin Ortak Tamamlanması’nın sahip olduğu ($\beta=0.452$), bunu “Duygusal Destegin” takip ettiği ($\beta=0.132$) görülmektedir. Fakat paylaşılan liderlik alt boyutlarını oluşturan “Karşılıklı Beceri Geliştirme” ve “Çalışanlar Arasında Merkezi Olmayan Etkileşim” değişkenlerinin ise dağıtımçı liderlik değişkeni üzerinde bir etkiye sahip olmadığı söylenebilir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Katılımcıların görüşlerine göre yöneticilerin paylaşılan liderlik ve dağıtımçı liderlik düzeyinin yüksek olduğu, ancak çok yüksek olmadığı söylenebilir. Paylaşılan liderlik ile dağıtımçı liderlik arasında bir ilişkinin olduğu ancak bu ilişkinin çok yüksek olmadığıdır. Türkiye’de son yıllarda yapılan araştırmalarda; paylaşılan liderlik (shared leadership) ve dağıtımçı liderlik (distributed leadership) kavramlarını çoğunlukla birbirinin yerine kullandıkları halde; gerek alan yazında gerek diğer ülkelerde bu iki liderlik kavramı (dağıtımçı liderlik/distributed leadership, paylaşılan liderlik/shared leadership) farklı yaklaşımlar olarak kabul edilmektedir. Nitekim bu araştırma sonucunda da bu iki liderlik yaklaşımı arasında pozitif ve orta derecede anlamlı bir ilişkinin olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Ancak bir birinin yerine kullanılacak kadar aralarında bire bir ilişkinin olduğu söylenemez. Dolayısıyla ortak bir çok yönleri olsa bile paylaşılan liderlik (shared leadership) ve dağıtımçı liderlik (distributed leadership) farklı birer liderlik yaklaşımları olduğu ve bir birinin yerine kullanılmasının uygun olmadığı söylenebilir.

Anahtar Kavramlar: Liderlik, paylaşılan liderlik, dağıtımçı liderlik.

Social Network Analysis of the Farabi Exchange Program: Student Mobility

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Exchange programs offer communication channels created through student and instructor exchanges; a flow of information takes place through these channels. The Farabi Exchange Program (FEP) is a student and instructor exchange program between institutions of higher education. Through the use of social network analysis and techniques unique to it, an analysis of this structure will uncover how much universities and teacher training institutions as actors are affected by these student exchange programs and how much of their capacity they actually use. A literature review shows that exchange programs have been the focus of several studies, but there is almost no research using social network analysis on exchange program and teacher training programs. In the evaluation of student exchange programs, the social network approach brings a new point of view in the evaluation of complex and multiple relationships.

Purpose of the study: The main purpose of this study is the mutual assessment of teacher training programs in universities which accept and send students through the exchange framework of the FEP.

Methods: The study has been carried out a social network analysis approach. Social network analysis defined as the method of digital and/or graphic mapping of the type, direction and density of relationships between groups of actors. In this study, data was acquired from the lists of students who participated in the FEP at 18 universities, which have been selected through the cluster sampling method for the 2013-2014 educational year. It has been analyzed with the UCINET 6.0 software program.

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Findings and Results: According to the findings of the study, 822 connections in the whole network and 451 connections in the teacher training network have been identified in the FEP. It has been determined that 47% of maximum connection possible in the density analysis were made for the whole network ($D= 0, 472$), while 15% of maximum connections possible in the density analysis were made for the teacher training network ($D= 0, 155$).

Conclusions and Recommendations: Results confirmed that, the networks between education faculties are relatively weaker. The high number of disconnected and isolated actors points to the necessity of strengthening connections between institutions which train teachers and education faculties.

Keywords: higher education, universities, teacher training network, exchange programs.

Introduction

Besides being institutions which create and spread knowledge, universities assume important functions in terms of the mobility of knowledge and man power. The student and instructor exchange programs stand out as the most influential tool in terms of mobility. Exchange programs have been one of the many strategies used for many years to prepare students for the future in the increasingly globalized world, both for states which produce politics and for universities (Rizvi, 2006). Classrooms in higher education institutions have gradually become places where local students and those who come from different countries receive education together, becoming more and more *internationalized* by time (Luxton & Peelo, 2009). According to Gudekli, Kilic and Taner (2013), exchange programs are defined as programs that, within the scope of the protocol made between two local or foreign higher education institutions, stipulate that students, who are enrolled in one of the institutions, receive short-term education in the other institution, and the acceptance of classes taken in one institution is equivalent to classes taken from the other educational institution.

The most significant benefits of exchange programs include the circulation of knowledge, increased capacity, and increased interaction and cooperation between higher education institutions; they allow positive examples to be shared and spread, not only increasing capacity by making it possible for more students and instructors to make use of materials, equipment' and physical conditions but also supporting personal development, and allowing higher education institutions to compare evaluations of their own work with the work of other higher education institutions (Messer & Wolter, 2007). A literature review of exchange programs shows that topics such as the views of those who benefited from the student exchange program, rates of participation, and the hardships faced in terms of implementation have been

studied. In the evaluation of these types of programs, other criteria and methods can be used for the efficient and productive use of public resources which are limited.

The Farabi Exchange Program (FEP) is a student and instructor exchange program between higher education institutions between higher education institutions in Turkey. Regulations related to the program were published in the Official Gazette dated 18 February, 2009, no: 27145 becoming effective as of that date. The FEP allows instructors and students in particular to develop their vision by both increasing the exchange of information and seeing different educational institutions; through the chance to participate in a another higher education institution for one or two semesters, they acquire new points of view, and life experiences and the opportunity for different learning/teaching in universities other than their own.

Within the scope of the program, 537 students participated in a student exchange for the first time in the 2009-2010 academic year. The number of FEP students receiving education in another higher education institution for one semester or one year reached 2, 030 during the 2010-2011 academic year; 2, 907 during the 2011-2012 academic year, and 7,018 during the 2012-2013 academic year. A total of 12,492 students have benefitted from the student exchange program from the date the program was implemented until 2013. The students are given a monthly non-refundable grant of 420 TL. Within the scope of the FEP, a total of 27, 791, 406 TL in funds transfer has been to higher education institutions by Council of Higher Education (CHE). Throughout Turkey, a total of 105 higher education institutions are actively involved in the FEP, 90 of which are state and 15 of which are foundation higher education institutions. Of the students participating in the program, 62% were female and 38% were male (CHE 2012 *Financial Year Administrative Activity Report*, 2013, p. 105-107). In accordance with a decision taken in CHE's meeting dated 22 December, 2010, the exchange of instructors has been stopped. Student exchanges, however, continue.

According to CHE's 2009-2013 data, of a total of 139 universities, 98 of which are state and 41 of which are foundation universities, the university sending the most students has been Selcuk University (486, 5,3%), followed by Karadeniz Technical University, Afyon Kocatepe University, and Gazi Osmanpasa University, respectively. In the same statistical data, the university accepting the highest number of students has been Gazi University (1,706, 18,65%), followed by Anadolu University, Istanbul University, and Yildiz Technical University, respectively. With respect to subject area distribution in the Farabi programs, most student exchanges are made in the area of educational sciences (43%). This shows that the importance of student exchange programs and these being taken as a study area carries a separate importance in terms of educational sciences as well.

Exchange programs in scientific studies have been studied in terms of dimensions such as the experiences of students and instructors, the living conditions of the countries they go to, effects on academic success, and program contents and accreditation as factors which influence the adaptation processes of students (Boyaci, 2011; Gokcek, 2013; Kasapoglu-Onder & Balci, 2010; Maiworm, Steube, & Teichler,

1991; Messer & Wolter, 2007; Mirici et. al., 2009; Teichler, 1996; Teichler & Maiworm, 1994; Yagci et. al., 2007; Yigit et. al., 2009), managerial factors which influence the successful implementation of exchange programs (such as leadership and organizational culture) and factors which influence the decision processes of students to participate in exchange programs have also been studied (Daly & Barker, 2010). Bryla (2014) has researched the communication tools used in the continuation of relationships established during exchange programs.

The studies conducted display a complete picture in terms of issues such as the scale of exchange programs, their realization processes, views of students and participation rates. Exchange programs are extensive activities which are carried out in numerous universities in the world and in Turkey, supported by governments and higher institution, and encouraged with large-scale budget transfers. By increasing the interaction between universities in Turkey, great potential can be made use of in terms of the sharing of resources such as equipment' and student and instructor exchange, in addition to cooperation in the areas of education and research. Another aspect of exchange programs is that communication channels are created through the student and instructor exchange, and information flows take place through these channels. Thus, exchange programs can be evaluated from a social network point of view as well.

In evaluating student exchange programs, the social network approach brings a new point of view to the evaluation of multiple and complex relationships. Within the framework of protocols signed between numerous universities in bilateral agreements, regularly accepting and sending students from each other shows a relationship network and reciprocity between universities as actors. That this takes place within a framework of certain protocols, with announcements made at certain times determined each year, and supported by various funds through pre-established regulations and guidelines, shows the continuity of these connections. The relationship network created by the sending and accepting of students to each other by universities as actors forms the basis of the structure of the social network at this point. Therefore, through the use of social network analysis, the analysis of this structure with techniques unique to it will be able to uncover how much universities as actors are affected by these student exchange programs and how much of their capacity they use.

A social network means a consistent interaction and pattern of change between individuals or institutions (Powel, 1990). The conceptual background of the network theory on which this approach depends has been formed by making use of different disciplines and perspectives such as sociology, anthropology and role theory. The common point these spheres share is that, they all depend on the basis of communication and mutual influence (interaction) between the actors (Tichy, Tushman & Fombrun, 1979). Social network analysis is an interdisciplinary research approach that has unique calculation methods in terms of revealing relationships between actors. It allows for the structure formed by the relationships between actors and inter-actors to be revealed in a digitalized manner or in the form of graphics (Aggarwal, 2011). Wasserman and Faust (1995) state that social network analysis

contains four basic assumptions: mutual attachment, connections between the actors, effect of the network structure and continuity in the inter-actor relationships. In other words, there are actors connected to each other, but they are autonomous as well. Network structure either provides or limits opportunities for actors from social, economic and political environments. Lastly, a network requires a continuous relationship between the actors. In summary, social network analysis in its narrowest definition is the mapping of the types, direction and density of relationships between a group of actors in a digital and/or graphic manner (Oztas & Acar, 2003, p. 292).

This study conducted with the social network approach aims at providing a different point of view for the assessment of student exchange programs. In this respect, the main purpose of this study is to make a mutual assessment in terms of universities which accept and send students through student exchange taking place between universities within the framework of the Farabi Exchange Program. With respect to this purpose, the answers to the following questions have been sought for in the study in the 2013–2014 fall and spring semesters:

1. Which universities have sent students to which other universities within the framework of the Farabi Exchange Program?
2. Which universities accept and send more students in terms of the Educational Sciences and institutions which train teachers within the framework of the Farabi Exchange Program?
3. What proportion of the student exchange is taken up (*density*) compared with the maximum allowed under the framework of the Farabi Exchange Program?

Method

Research Design

This study is a survey model, which involves determining the existing situation. The survey model is a research approach which describes a situation that exists at that moment as it is and aims at defining it (Karasar, 1984, p.79). The study has been conducted with the social network analysis approach. Social network analysis is an interdisciplinary research approach which has unique calculation methods in terms of revealing relationships between actors. It allows the structure formed by the relationships between the actors and inter-actors and these relationships in a digitalized manner or in the form of graphics (Aggarwal, 2011). Social network analysis is a unique methodology with its own version of data collection, statistical analysis, and presentation of results (Kapucu, Yuldashev, Demiroz & Arslan, 2010, p. 541). According to Freeman (2004, p.2) these aspects are a part of all modern social network analysis examples. Social network analysis justifies the insights on the structural connections which tie social actors to each other. This empirical data is collected systematically and it is controlled. This data is presented through graphics. Mathematical models are relied on in the making of these calculations.

Research Sample

The population of the study was the state universities which accepted and sent students to each other within the framework of the Farabi Exchange Program during the 2013–2014 academic year. According to the Council of Higher Education (CHE) there were 101 state universities during the 2013–2014 academic year. In the study, the cluster sampling method was used in the selection of samples from the population. Cluster sampling is used in cases where there are different groups that have formed naturally in the considered population to be studied or been created artificially with different purposes, which display similarities in terms of certain aspects within them (Balci, 2005, p. 87; Yıldırım & Simsek, 2008, p. 105). For the identification of clusters of universities to be taken as samples in the study, the classification of universities was made in accordance with their founding years and their level of institutionalization in relation to that. Accordingly, they were separated into three clusters, as universities founded prior to 1992, between 1992- and 2003, and after 2003.

The universities founded prior to 1992 are those which have existed since the first of the Republic, since even before that, which have been institutionalized as they have existed for years and have proven themselves and assumed a precursory role in the foundation of other universities. In 1992, there was been an extraordinary increase in the number of universities with 21 new state universities being founded. Four more universities came after those, making the number of state universities just about doubled by 2000. After 2003, with certain structural regulations in higher education, the total number of state universities reached 101 with the addition of new universities in 2003 and 2007 (Table 1).

Table 1.
Universities by Foundation Date in Turkey

Foundation Date	Universities
Prior to 1992	Akdeniz, Anadolu, Ankara, Ataturk, Bogazici, Cumhuriyet, Dicle, Dokuz Eylul, Ege, Erciyes, Firat, Gazi, Gaziantep, Hacettepe, Inonu, Istanbul Teknik, Istanbul, Karadeniz Teknik, Marmara, Mimar Sinan, On Dokuz Mayis, METU, Selcuk, Trakya, Uludag, Yildiz Teknik and Yuzuncu Yil
1992-2003	Abant Izzet Baysal, Adnan Menderes, Afyon Kocatepe, Balikesir, Celal Bayar, Canakkale On Sekiz Mart, Cukurova, Dumlupinar, Galatasaray, Gazi Osman Pasa, Harran, Izmir Yuksek Teknoloji, Kafkas, Kahraman Maras Sutcu Imam, Kirikkale, Kocaeli, Mersin, Mugla Sitki Kocman, Mustafa Kemal, Nigde, Eskisehir Osman Gazi, Pamukkale, Sakarya, Suleyman Demirel and Zonguldak Kara Elmas (Bulent Ecevit)
2003-2013	Abdullah Gul, Adiyaman, Agri Ibrahim Cecen, Ahi Evran, Amasya, Aksaray, Ardahan, Artvin Coruh, Bartin, Batman, Bayburt, Bilecik Seyh Edibali, Bingol, Bitlis Eren, Bozok, Bursa Orhan Gazi, Cankiri Karatekin, Duzce, Erzincan, Erzurum Teknik, Giresun, Gumushane, Hakkari, Hitit, Igdir, Istanbul Medeniyet, Izmir Katip Celebi, Karabuk, Karamanoglu Mehmet Bey, Kastamonu, Kirklareli, Kilis 7 Aralik, Mardin Artuklu, Mehmet Akif Ersoy, Mus Alparslan, Namik Kemal, Necmettin Erbakan, Nevsehir Hacibektas, Ordu, Osmaniye Korkut Ata, Recep Tayyip Erdogan (Rize), Siirt, Sinop, Sirk, Tunceli, Turk-Alman, Usak, Yalova and Yildirim Beyazit

However, due to the cities where the universities are located, the environmental factors are different from each other. Turkey, in a classification related to socio-economic development (SEGE–2011), –has been separated into six development levels at the economic, social, and cultural levels (Republic of Turkey Ministry of Development, Regional Development and Structural Adjustment, General Directorate, Ankara, 2013). When the foundation years and cities' development levels were taken into consideration together, it was observed that universities are mostly among the first and second clusters in cities whose development levels are relatively higher in Turkey, while universities in the third cluster are in cities developed a lower level or still developing and receiving encouragement. Therefore, taking into consideration the development levels of the cities where universities have been founded as another criterion in the cluster sampling, a total of 30 universities from each sub-cluster were selected through the random sampling method. Next 7 universities (25%) were placed in the first cluster; 7 universities (25%) in the second cluster; and in the third cluster, 15 universities (%50). Random sampling is used as a complimentary method in studies, with other sampling methods based on probability (Yildirim & Simsek, 2008, p. 104). The selected universities were analyzed once again according to the development levels of the cities and a representation for each development level was provided. However, it was not possible to access the going-coming student lists for all universities' 2013–2014 autumn and spring semesters Farabi Exchange Program'. This is the limitation of the study.

As a result, the total number of samples given a place from the universities selected through the cluster sampling method and whose data was provided came to 18. In the first cluster, there were 7; in the second cluster, 7; and in the third cluster, 4 universities were included in the samples. These were, namely: in the first cluster Akdeniz, Cukurova, Gazi, Hacettepe, Istanbul, Marmara and, Uludag Universities; in the second cluster, Afyon Kocatepe, Celal Bayar, Eskisehir Osman Gazi, Kocaeli, Nigde, Pamukkale and, Suleyman Demirel Universities; and in the third cluster, Ahi Evran, Aksaray, Mardin Artuklu and Bitlis Eren Universities. In this study, which is a social network analysis of the connections between universities who send students to and accept students from each other within the framework of the FEP, the universities included in the samples constitute the basic actor list of the study as well.

Research Instrument and Procedure

A *social network* is a structure which is made up of connections (relationships) between actors and inter-actors (Carrington, Scott & Wasserman, 2005; Scott, 2000). The analysis of this network structure made up of the actors and their relationships allows the identification of the type, direction, density, areas which can be developed and limitations, and intervention areas through analysis methods unique to itself (Borgatti & Foster, 2003; Borgatti, Everett & Freeman, 2003; Cross & Parker, 2004). It also allows seeing and evaluating the relationships and the positions of the actors within the network visually through graphics (Barabasi, 2010; Degenne & Forse, 1999). In this study, the social network can be defined as the network of universities which send to and accept students from each other within the framework of the Farabi Exchange Program.

The main data for the analysis of the study was collected over the Internet from the universities' Farabi Coordinatorship and announcement pages. Although the

signed protocols between the universities show the possibility of a change to potentially take place, these cannot exactly be regarded as indications of change. Therefore, for the collection of data, announcement lists – where it was indicated whether the students who applied in the application periods (spring and fall) were accepted or not and to which university's department – were used. These announcement lists are open to the public and are accessible through the web sites of the universities. Data collected from the coming and going student lists were coded in accordance with this approach as: those who have a relationship between them "1" and those who do not have a relationship between them "0" ; thus a matrix called the adjacency matrix was created. The adjacency matrix represents who has a relationship with whom. Through the software program UCINET 6.0 (Borgatti & Foster, 2002) used for the social network analysis, this data was analyzed, the density, degree and, betweenness values which are calculations unique to social network analysis were performed and the network relationships presented visually with graphics.

In social network analysis, the three main units which make up a social network are actors (*nodes*), connections (*edge/tie*) and social network structure (Christakis & Fowler, 2012). Each of the analysis units have been defined for this study below:

1 – Actors or nodes in social network analysis are each of the analysis units which make up the relationship network studied. Actors may be selected as individuals, institutions and countries, depending on the purpose and characteristics of the study (Marsden, 2005; Scott, 2000). The actors of this study are the state universities which have sent students to and received students from each other during the 2013–2014 academic years spring and fall semesters within the framework of the FEP. The actors whose relationship to each other will be analyzed have been selected and listed through the sampling approaches determined above.

2 – Connection represents the relationship identified between the actors. In a social network analysis, the studies connection type (relationship) needs to be well defined and classified (Oztas & Acar, 2004). In this study, the relationship network analyzed is the relationships on accepting and sending students (coming-going students) in the spring and fall semester within the framework of the FEP. This type of relationship can be regarded as one of the indicator of how connected universities are to other universities. The student lists coming to and going from universities during the indicated period within the framework of the FEP represent the type of relationship which is analyzed. The mentioned lists are announced by the universities' Farabi Coordinators and can be accessed through the Internet.

Validity and Reliability

The network perspective does not supplant the importance of individual attributes in understanding the selection, interpretation, and implementation of change, but rather offers a complementary theoretical framework and set of methods for examining the dynamics of social processes in education (Moolenaar, 2012). According to *The Encyclopedia of Social Network Analysis and Mining* (Alhajj & Rokne, 2014, p. 1437), in the validity and reliability investigation of social network research, reliability is assessed in the measurement stage and validity pertains to the relationship between conceptualization (what we want to measure) through

operationalization (how the theoretical concepts are translated into empirical indicators) to actual measurement (what we actually measure). In this study, the social network can be defined as the network of universities which send to and accept students from each other within the framework of the Farabi Exchange Program. The main data for the analysis of the study was collected over the Internet from the universities' Farabi Coordinatorship and announcement pages. Through the software program UCINET 6.0 (Borgatti & Foster, 2002) used for the social network analysis, this data was analyzed, the density, degree and betweenness values which are calculations unique to social network analysis were performed and the network relationships presented visually with graphics.

Results

According to the findings of the research, 91 actors were identified which were connected with a total of 18 actors from the Farabi statistics belonging to 2013–2014 fall and spring periods. Within the whole network, 822 connections were identified between 91 actors. Which university sends students to which other universities within the framework of the exchange program was the purpose of the study and the state of the university within this change network has been presented graphically. The method to be followed in the interpretation of the network maps is as follows: In the study, the checkboxes represent the actors, the lines the relationship of student change. The actors who are located at the center of the network maps are the actors with the most connections. While the actors, who assume an active role, are located at the center, the actors displaying less activity are located at the perimeters (Figure 1).

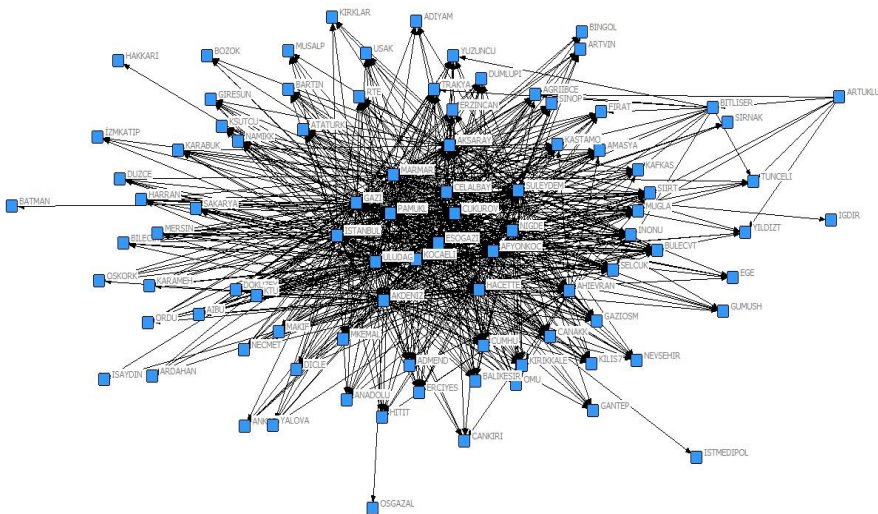


Figure 1. The Social network map of the student exchange program of the samples during the 2013 – 2014 Farabi spring and fall semesters

As can be seen from Figure 1, Gazi, Eskisehir Osman Gazi, Marmara, Pamukkale, Afyon, Kocaeli, and Nigde Universities are in the network's center. These universities have been identified as the most active universities in terms of student mobility. In the more in-depth analysis of these relationships which have been identified visually, in order to be able to identify which are more connected in comparison to the others, centrality measurements are made use of in the social network analysis. The degree of centrality is the degree which reflects the direct connections of the actor in terms of actors' positions within the network. This measurement shows the actors who have more or less connections and can be evaluated both as connections directed to them or from them to others. Determining scores of centrality, determines both those who are in active and leader positions within the network and those who are perimeter actors or groups (Cross & Parker, 2004, p. 192-193). In the study, according to centrality calculations, Gazi University was the actor most connected to other actors ($Degree=73$). Gazi University has been identified as the actor with the highest betweenness ($Betw=529.88$), closeness ($Clo=81.333$) and eigenvalue ($Eigw=0.242$) score. According to evaluations of 2009–2013 Farabi Statistics announced by CHE, Gazi University was found to be the university which most accepted students in the Farabi student exchange program (1.706, 18.65%). According to data collected from 18 main actors during the 2013–2014 spring and fall periods, Gazi University has been identified as the university with the most connections with other universities. The study findings show that the efficiency of Gazi University as the university which accepted the most students continued in the later years as well.

For the sample related to which universities accept and send more students in terms of educational sciences and institutions which train teachers, which pertains to the second question of the study, at the next network map involves only student exchanges in that area. According to the findings of the study, the number of actors which the 18 actors were related to the area of education (Education and Educational Sciences Faculties, Faculties of Theology Religious Culture and Ethics Teachership and BESYO Physical Education and Sports Teachership included) during the 2013–2014 spring and fall semesters within the scope of the FEP was determined to be 66. Twenty-five of the universities which accepted students from another exchanged students in the areas of education ($Isolation=25$). Among the 66 actors within the network formed by the ones in the area of education, 451 connections were identified (Figure 2).

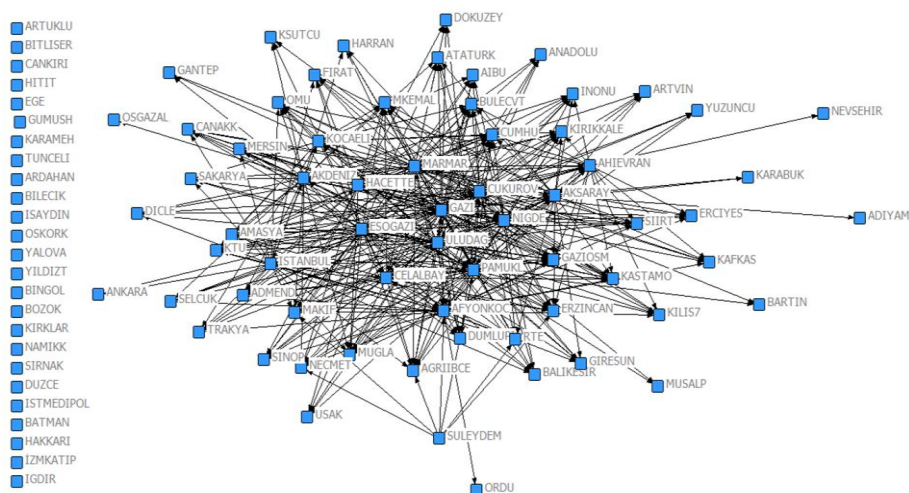


Figure 2. Student exchange program social network map between the educational sciences and teacher training departments from actors included in the samples of the 2013-2014 Farabi fall and spring semesters.

According to the findings of the study, Gazi University has been identified as the university with the most connections with the other actors ($Degree=53$) in the area of education (Education and Educational Sciences Faculties, Faculties of Theology Religious Culture and Ethics Teachership, and BESYO Physical Education and Sports Teachership included) during the 2013–2014 spring and fall semesters within the scope of FEP. Gazi University has been determined as the actor with the highest values of betweenness ($Betw=319.918$), closeness ($Cl=59.000$) and eigenvalue ($Eigw=0.292$). Although the 18 universities included in the 2013-2014 spring and fall semester samples (Ahi Evran, Afyon Kocatepe, Akdeniz, Aksaray, Bitlis Eren, Celal Bayar, Çukurova, Eskisehir Osman Gazi, Gazi, Hacettepe, Istanbul, Kocaeli, Mardin Artuklu, Marmara, Nigde, Pamukkale, Suleyman Demirel, Uludag) have exchanged students from other branches, it has been determined that no student exchange took place in the area of educational sciences and teacher training in Mardin Artuklu, Bitlis Eren, Cankiri, Hitit, Ege, Gümüşhane, Karamanoglu Mehmet Bey, Tunceli, Ardahan, Bilecik, Istanbul Aydin, Korkut Ata, Yalova, Yildiz Teknik, Bingol, Bozok, Kirklareli, Namik Kemal, Sirnak, Duzce, Istanbul Medipol, Batman, Hakkari, Izmir Katip Celebi and Igdir Universities. Among these universities, only Mardin Artuklu and Bitlis Eren universities are in the university samples.

Component size shows how all actors within the network are in a meaningful union with each other. If all of the actors in the network are connected to each other, this number is one. However, if there are divisions within the network, this number shows whatever number of divisions there are (Hanneman & Riddle, UCINET tutorial). In the study, while the size of components in student exchanges for the whole network from the universities which are included in the samples has been

determined as one (*component size=1*), the component size in student exchanges in the area of education has been determined as two (*component size=2*). Bitlis Eren University and Mardin Artuklu University have formed a separate component among themselves and, although it is connected to the whole network, it forms a separate whole (Figure 3).

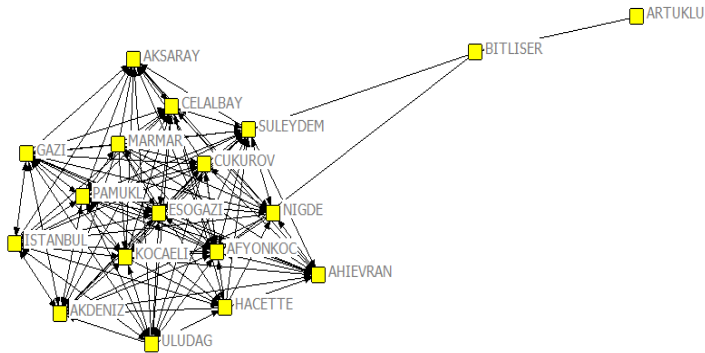


Figure 3. Student exchange network map among actors who are in samples.

As is seen from Figure 3, the two actors have not formed a unity with the other actors. The reason could be strongly that in both of the universities, there are no Education or Education Sciences faculties. However, when the other teacher training sources of Religious Culture and Ethics Teachership and BESYO Physical Education and Sports Teachership branches included in the study are taken into consideration, these two actors have been determined as connected with the whole network although it is a weak connection. Still, in the isolated actors list (Figure 2), although there are many institutions which train a great number of teachers, the fact that there is no student exchange in institutions which are among the samples makes one think that various efforts may need to be undertaken to develop these programs and strengthen the connections between institutions.

In terms of how much of the student exchange has been utilized given the maximum student exchange possible in the framework of the Farabi Exchange Program, which is the third question of the study, it has been determined with a density analysis, which is one of the measurements unique to social network analysis. Density calculation is defined as the proportion of the existing number of connections between the actors in a network to the highest number of possible connections (Scott, 2000). Network density is related to the level of connectedness in the whole network and is expressed in percentages. According to this measurement, if each of the actors in the network has a connection with the other actors, then the density is 100%; if no one has a connection with the other, then the network density is 0%. The strength of this number depends on the largeness of the group. Ten actors in full connection with one another is easier than compared to a group of 100. When interpreting network density, it is either necessary to compare groups which are close to each other in size, or define an ideal network pattern depending on the

groups' targets (Cross & Parker, 2004, p. 194). Within the FEP framework, the density analysis findings related to the networks of all networks and institutions which train teachers in terms of student exchange during the 2013–2014 fall and spring semesters are presented in Table 2.

Table 2.

The Greatness, Isolation, Connection Number, and Density of Student Exchange Networks During the Farabi Exchange Program of 2013 – 2014

FEP Networks	Network Size	Isolated	Ties	Density	Ss.	Density %
The Whole	91	0	822	0.472	2.147	47
Teacher Training	66	25	451	0.155	0.155	15

According to the findings of the study, 822 connections were identified among the 91 actors within the whole network with which a total of 18 actors are connected to in the Farabi statistics which belong to 2013–2014 fall and spring semesters. It was determined that 47% of the maximum connection possible in the density analysis made for the whole network ($D= 0.472$, $Std.Dev. =2.147$, $Average Degree= 42.495$). The number of actors to which the 18 actors are connected in the area of education was determined as 66, and the number of connections as 451. Twenty-five of the universities which accept students from one another have not exchanged any student in the educational areas ($Isolation=25$). It was determined in the density analysis that 15% of the maximum connection possible in the area of education was established ($D= 0.155$, $Std.Dev. =0.871$, $Average Degree= 13.989$).

Discussion and Conclusion

Today, there are no areas which the globalization phenomenon does not influence. Globalization, as a multi-dimensional concept calls for an economically, politically, socially, and culturally more unified world, where borders increasingly get blurred, and society is more knowledge-based and more *mobile*. The most significant benefits of globalization include the speedier expansion of technological advancement and knowledge due to economic development and faster growth, rising living standards and new opportunities (Akçay, 2003). The ramifications of globalization on education are a multi-dimensional area of study by itself. Four principles are noted regarding globalization in education. Learning to know, learning to learn, individual learning and learning to live together (Dagli, 2007, p. 3). Changing production styles has reshaped employment. Therefore, the competencies expected from labor have changed, necessitating educational processes be re-worked, the context rearranged, to allow continuous learning throughout life and creating

new educational opportunities by removing the limits of time and place and allowing people to learn whenever they wish.

Exchange programs between higher education institutions have been used for many years by countries for the purpose of equipping their graduates with knowledge and skills at an international level and allowing them to acquire the vision to make it possible for them to get to know different cultures and environments (Martin, 2009). There are no reservations about the benefits these programs provide. The conducted studies show that exchange programs provide benefits in terms of giving individual's life experience and new perspectives about activities in their own institutions, increasing the mutual exchange of knowledge and supporting the individual's development by providing occupational experience (Statsna, 2001). Exchange programs not only provide benefits to individuals, they also contribute to the success of higher education institutions as organizations. One of the factors that influences institutions' success in education is that they open to foreign countries also different universities provide opportunities for students to experience foreign countries and in order to contribute to their individual development.

The FEP, which was initially started in 2009, is a program carried out between domestic higher education institutions. According to CHE, the program's aim is not only to allow students who are enrolled in higher education institutions to receive a part of their education in another higher education institution. The main aim in the program is to enrich students' knowledge, skills, and competencies by diversifying these, giving them a chance to experience different social and cultural environments and contribute to students' reaching their career goals (Gudekli, Kilic & Taner, 2013, vi). In this respect, it may be stated that the characteristic which distinguishes this program from other international exchange programs with the same aims is that it is more local. The number of studies conducted on the FEP is limited.

Gokcek (2013) analyzed the reasons why students in education faculties apply to the FEP; he found that students apply for to domestic reasons, to get to know a different university environment and education, to develop themselves socially and culturally, and to receive a more quality education and that the program contributes to their social, cultural, individual and occupational development. In another study, Ozel, Bayindir and Demir (2014) analyzed the awareness levels and expectations of education faculty class teacher candidates regarding the domestic exchange program FEP. According to this study, the FEP features most singled out by candidates had to do with library facilities at preferred universities and environments where the education received could also be implemented. As it can be seen, the factors which guide the preferences of students are generally universities' conditions and the opportunities provided (Sahin, 2007). To what degree this preference is mutual has formed the object of this study.

In this study, the mutual preference of universities preferred by students has been presented through social network analysis both visually and with measurements unique to network analysis. Within the FEP Social Network, the social

network created by universities which accept and send students, Gazi University has been identified as the most active university both within the whole network and in the areas of educational sciences and teacher training. It has been determined that 47% of the maximum student exchange within the whole network has been realized and that this rate is 15% in institutions which train teachers and in education faculties. In the study, it has been found out that the networks between education faculties are relatively weaker. The high number of disconnected and isolated actors has shown the necessity of strengthening the connections between institutions which train teachers and education faculties.

Social network theory and methods provide a conceptual framework as well as a set of sophisticated methodological approaches for more closely examining teaching, learning, and change (Moolenaar, 2012). The social network analysis approach both provides a scientific outlook for higher level institutions which coordinate exchange programs and makes it possible for universities to analyze their own situations within this network (*egonetwork*) and bring their weak and strong connections out in the open. In fact, this study has made it possible to display the situation of each actor in terms of their position within the network. Therefore, social network analysis can be used as a new approach in the evaluation of these types of programs. In particular, an analysis which consists of all data network will provide a more in-depth evaluation of network relationships. Universities' FEP Coordinatorship web sites being more orderly and systematic will make this data accessible and provide an opportunity for research to be conducted within this scope. The greatest difficulty experienced in the collection of data in the study was that a majority of the coordinatorship pages were not updated and sufficient.

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Farabi Değişim Programının Sosyal Ağ Analizi: Öğrenci Hareketliliği

Atıf:

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Özet

Problem Durumu: Üniversiteler bilgiyi yaratan ve yayan kurumlar olmanın yanı sıra, bilgi ve insan gücünün hareketliliği konusunda da önemli işlevler üstlenmektedir. Öğrenci ve öğretim üyesi değişim programları hareketliliğin önemli bir aracı olarak göze çarpmaktadır. Değişim programlarının en belirgin yararları bilginin dolaşımını sağlaması, kapasiteyi artırması, yükseköğretim kurumları arasında etkileşimi ve işbirliğini artırması, olumlu örneklerin paylaşılmasını ve yayılmasını sağlaması, malzeme, ekipman ve fiziki koşullardan daha fazla sayıda öğrenci ve öğretim elemanının yararlanmasının sağlanması yoluyla sadece kapasiteyi artırmak değil aynı zamanda bireysel gelişime de destek olması, yükseköğretim kurumlarının kendi çalışmalarını değerlendirirken diğer yükseköğretim kurumlarının çalışmaları ile kıyaslamalarına olanak sağlaması olarak sayılabilir (Messer ve Wolter, 2007). Farabi Değişim Programı (FDP), yükseköğretim kurumları arasında öğrenci ve öğretim üyesi değişim programıdır. Programın yürürlüğe girdiği günden 2013 yılına kadar toplam 12.492 öğrenci değişim programından faydalanmıştır. Öğrencilere aylık 420 TL karşılıksız burs verilmektedir. FDP kapsamında YÖK tarafından yükseköğretim kurumlarına toplam 27.791.406,92 TL kaynak aktarımı yapılmıştır. Türkiye çapında 90 devlet ve 15 vakıf olmak üzere toplamda 105 yükseköğretim kurumu aktif olarak FDP’de yer almaktadır.

Bilimsel çalışmalarda değişim programları, öğrenci ve öğretim elemanlarının deneyimleri, gidilen ülkelerin yaşam koşulları, akademik başarılarına etkileri, program içerikleri ve akreditasyon, öğrencilerin uyum süreçlerini etkileyen faktörler Teichler, 1996; Messer ve Wolter, 2007; Şahin, 2007; Yiğit, Kösterelioğlu, M.A.; Sezer ve Kösterelioğlu, İ., 2009; Kasapoğlu-Önder ve Balcı, 2010; Boyacı, 2011; Mutlu, 2013; Özdem, 2013, Gökçek, 2013, Özel Bayındır ve Demir, 2014) değişim programlarında uygulamanın başarısını etkileyen yönetsel faktörler (liderlik ve örgüt kültürü gibi) ve

öğrencilerin değişim programlarına katılımında karar süreçlerini etkileyen faktörler (Daly ve Barker, 2010) gibi boyutları ile ele alınarak araştırılmıştır. Değişim programları gerek dünyada gerekse Türkiye'deki çok sayıda üniversitede uygulanan, dünyadaki farklı ülkelerde hükümetler ve üst kuruluşlarca desteklenen, özendirilen ve oldukça büyük bütçelerin aktarıldığı kapsamlı faaliyetlerdir. Türkiye'de üniversiteler arasındaki etkileşimin artırılmasıyla; öğretim ve araştırma alanlarında işbirliklerinin yanı sıra ekipman gibi kaynakların paylaşılması ve öğrenci ve öğretim elemanı değişimi gibi konularda da büyük bir potansiyelden yararlanılabilir. Değişim programlarının bir başka özelliği de üniversiteler arasında öğrenci ve öğretim elemanı değişimi ile iletişim kanalları oluşturması ve bu kanallardan bilgi akışının gerçekleşmesidir. Bu yönü ile değişim programları sosyal ağ bakış açısı ile de değerlendirilebilir. Literatür incelemesinde öğrenci değişim programlarının sosyal ağ bakış açısıyla incelendiği bir araştırmaya hemen hemen hiç araştırma yapılmamış olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Mevcut çalışmanın bu anlamda önemli olduğu, alana katkı sağlayacağı umulmaktadır.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Sosyal ağ yaklaşımı ile gerçekleştirilen bu araştırma, öğrenci değişim programlarının karşılıklı olarak değerlendirilmesine farklı bir bakış açısı sunmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu bağlamda araştırmanın temel amacı, öğrenci değişim programlarından biri olan Farabi Değişim Programı çerçevesinde, üniversiteler arasında gerçekleşen öğrenci değişiminin öğrenci kabul eden ve gönderen üniversiteler açısından karşılıklı bir değerlendirilmesini yapmaktır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda araştırmada aşağıdaki sorulara yanıt aranmıştır. 2013-2014 güz ve bahar döneminde:

Farabi değişim programı çerçevesinde hangi üniversiteler hangi üniversitelere öğrenci göndermiştir?

Farabi değişim programı çerçevesinde eğitim bilimleri ve öğretmen yetiştiren kurumlar açısından hangi üniversiteler daha çok öğrenci alıp göndermektedir?

Farabi değişim programı çerçevesinde yapılabilecek maksimum öğrenci alışı-verişine göre gerçekleşen öğrenci alışı-verişinin ne kadarı gerçekleşmiştir? (*yoğunluk-density*)

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Araştırma var olan durum tespitini içeren tarama modelindedir. Araştırma, sosyal ağ analizi yaklaşımı ile sürdürülmüştür. Sosyal ağ analizi, aktörler arası ilişkilerin ortaya çıkarılmasında kendisine has ölçümlere sahip disiplinlerarası bir araştırma yaklaşımıdır. Aktörler ve aktörler arası ilişkilerin ve bu ilişkilerin oluşturduğu yapının sayısallaştırılarak ya da grafik halinde ortaya çıkarılmasını sağlar (Aggarwal, 2011). Freeman'a göre (2004, 2) şu özellikler tüm modern sosyal ağ analizi örneklerinde yer alır: Sosyal ağ analizi, toplumsal aktörleri birbirine bağlayan yapısal bağlar hakkında sezgileri gerektirir. Bu ampirik veri, sistematik olarak toplanır ve kontrollüdür. Bu veri grafiklerle sunulur. Bu hesaplamaların yapılmasında matematiksel modellere güvenilir. Araştırmanın evreni, 2013-2014 bahar ve güz dönemlerinde Farabi Değişim Programı çerçevesinde birbirine öğrenci gönderen ve öğrenci kabul eden devlet üniversiteleridir. Yüksek Öğretim Kurulu verilerine göre, Türkiye Yüksek Öğretim Sisteminde 2013-2014 döneminde 101 devlet üniversitesi bulunmaktadır. Araştırmada evrenden örneklem

seçerken küme örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Küme örnekleme, çalışılması düşünülen evrende doğal olarak oluşmuş veya farklı amaçlarla yapay olarak oluşturulmuş, kendi içinde belirli özelliklerle açısından benzerlikler gösteren değişik grupların olması durumunda kullanılır. (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2008, s. 105; Balcı, 2005, s.87). Araştırmada örnekleme girecek üniversitelerin seçiminde kümelerin belirlenmesinde üniversitelerin kuruluş yılları ve buna bağlı olarak kurumsallaşma düzeylerine göre sınıflandırılması esas alınmıştır. Buna göre üniversiteler, 1992 öncesi, 1992-2003 arası ve 2003 sonrası kurulan üniversiteler olmak üzere üç kümeye ayrılmıştır. Küme örnekleme yöntemiyle seçilen ve verilerine ulaşılabilen üniversitelerden her bir kümeye giren toplam örneklem sayısı 18 olmuştur. Birinci kümede 7, ikinci kümede 7, üçüncü kümede 4 üniversite örnekleme girebilmiştir. Buna göre, birinci kümede Akdeniz, Çukurova, Gazi, İstanbul, Marmara ve Uludağ Üniversiteleri; ikinci kümede Afyon Kocatepe, Celal Bayar, Eskişehir Osman Gazi, Kocaeli, Niğde, Pamukkale ve Süleyman Demirel Üniversiteleri; üçüncü kümede Ahi Evran, Aksaray, Mardin Artuklu ve Bitlis Eren Üniversiteleri yer almıştır. Bir sosyal ağ analizi olan ve Farabi Değişim Programı çerçevesinde birbirine öğrenci gönderen ve birbirinden öğrenci kabul ederek aralarındaki bağlantıların analiz edileceği bu araştırmada, örnekleme giren üniversiteler araştırmanın aynı zamanda temel aktörler listesini oluşturmaktadır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Araştırma bulgularına göre, 2013-2014 güz ve bahar dönemlerine ait Farabi istatistiklerinden toplam 18 aktörün bağlantılı olduğu 91 aktör tespit edilmiştir. Tüm ağ içinde 91 aktör arasında 822 bağlantı tespit edilmiştir. Öğretmen yetiştiren kurumlar arasında yapılan analizde 422 18 aktör arasında 422 bağlantı bulunmuştur. Araştırmanın yoğunluk analizinde var olan kapasitenin ne kadarının kullanıldığı ortaya konulmuştur. Tüm ağ içinde kapasitenin % 47 'si kullanılırken bu oran öğretmen yetiştiren kurumlarda % 15'e düşmüştür. Araştırma amacı olan hangi üniversitenin hangi üniversiteye değişim programı çerçevesinde öğrenci gönderdiği ve bu değişim ağı içinde üniversitenin durumu grafik olarak ortaya konulmuştur. Araştırmada ağ merkezileşme ölçümlerine göre Gazi Üniversitesi, diğer aktörlerle en fazla bağlantılı aktör olarak bulunmuştur. Öğretmen yetiştiren kurumlar açısından yapılan analizlerde sayıca daha düşük bağlantı belirlenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Bu araştırmada üniversiteler arası öğrenci değişimi üniversitelerin karşılıklı tercih edilme durumları sosyal ağ analizi bakışı ile hem görsel hem de ağ analizine özgü ölçümlerle ortaya konulmuştur. Araştırmada eğitim fakülteleri arasındaki ağların nispeten daha zayıf olduğu bulunmuştur. Bağlantısız izole aktör sayısının fazlalığı öğretmen yetiştiren kurumlar ve eğitim fakülteleri arasındaki bağlantıların güçlendirilmesi gereğini ortaya koymuştur. Bu araştırmanın başka bir sonucu da araştırmada kullanılan sosyal ağ analizi yaklaşımının yararlılığıdır. Sosyal ağ analizi yaklaşımı hem değişim programlarını koordine eden üst kurumlar için genel ve bütünsel bir bakış sağlarken hem de üniversitelerin bu ağ içinde kendi durumlarını analiz ederek zayıf ve güçlü bağlantılarını ortaya çıkarma olanağı sağlar. Dolayısıyla sosyal ağ analizleri bu tür

programların deęerlendirilmesinde yeni bir yaklařım olarak kullanılabilir. Arařtırmada verilerin toplanmasında karřılařılan en byk glk, koordinatrlk sayfalarının byk bir blmnn gncellenmemiř ve yetersiz olmasıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yksekđretim, niversite, đretmen yetiřtirme ađları.

Relationship between Teachers' Job Satisfaction and Students' Academic Performance

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Abstract

Problem Statement: An extensive literature on Job satisfaction has shown, teachers who are satisfied with their jobs perform better. Along with various indicators of teachers' job satisfaction, variables such as organizational justice (Nojani, Arjmandnia, Afrooz, & Rajabi, 2012), organizational culture (Hosseinkhanzadeh, Hosseinkhanzadeh, & Yeganeh, 2013), and administrators' decision-making styles (Olcum & Titrek, 2015) also relate to their job satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study: We aimed to investigate the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and student's academic performance in secondary schools.

Method: Our sample consisted of 322 secondary-school teachers in Faisalabad, Pakistan, who completed the Job Satisfaction Scale for Teachers that we developed to gather data about teachers' job satisfaction. Meanwhile, we gauged students' performance according to the results of students declared by the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education [BISE] Faisalabad in 9th and 10th grades. We calculated means and standard deviations for descriptive purposes and applied Pearson's r to

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explore the relationship between 9th- and 10th-grade students' achievement scores and teachers' job satisfaction.

Results and Findings: Results revealed a strong, positive, and significant correlation between the tests. However, students' performance showed no significant correlation with teachers' job satisfaction. Nevertheless, all aspects of job satisfaction demonstrated significant positive correlations with the others, except for pay and supervision. Moreover, teachers' professional experience exhibited a significant correlation with 9th-grade students' performance.

Conclusions and Recommendation: Work had positive and moderate correlation with promotion, colleagues, working conditions, and supervision. Colleagues had also positive and moderate correlation with working conditions and supervision. Researchers should develop criteria for the selection and recruitment of teachers, and schools should host refresher courses in order to retain teachers.

Keywords: job satisfaction, performance, achievement score.

Introduction

Although researchers have drawn considerable attention to the correlation of job satisfaction and job performance, their studies have reported inconsistent findings. Nevertheless, the job satisfaction of employees is generally associated with the indicators of safety conditions, students' engagement, and turnover rate (Huang et al., 2016).

Furthermore, although some researchers have discovered a significant relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Keaveney & Nelson, 1993), others found only a moderate positive link between them (Brown & Peterson, 1993), and Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) even revealed a weak correlation. Yet, more recent findings show stronger relationships between job satisfaction and individual performance (Chen & Silverthorne, 2008; Zimmerman & Todd, 2009). In those and other studies, employees who are satisfied show a stronger obligation to their organizations, a more positive motivation for work, and ultimately better performance (Judge, 2001; Lee, 2010; & Rigopoulou, 2011).

Many studies have addressed the impact of teachers' experiences on the academic achievement scores of students. Among them, a range of researchers (Freiberger, Steinmayr, & Spinath, 2012; Marsh & Koller, 2004; Marsh & O'Mara, 2008) used the grades of students as the outcomes of results. From a different angle, Buddin and Zamarro (2009) revealed an increase in students' achievement scores due to teacher experience, despite the weak correlation between them and that they were correlated only in first years of their educational career. Positive teacher-student affiliation relates to a higher sense of school belongingness (Furrer & Skinner, 2003), low internal behavior (Hughes, Cavell, & Jackson, 1999; Meehan, Hughes, & Cavell, 2003;

Silver, Measelle, Armstrong, & Essex, 2005), good relationships among colleagues (Hughes, Cavell, & Willson, 2001; Hughes & Kwok, 2006), and greater achievement scores among students (Crosnoe, Johnson, & Elder, 2004; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Ladd, Birch, & Buhs, 1999; Skinner, Zimmer-Gembeck, & Connell, 1998). Many studies have furthermore highlighted the effect of a sympathetic teacher-student association on students' achievement scores due to the direct effect of the quality of teacher-student relationship on students' engagement in the classroom (Hughes, Luo, Kwok, & Loyd, 2008; O'Connor & McCartney, 2007).

Teacher characteristics also vary considerably in terms of average school test scores, which reflects some degree of sorting of teachers into schools. Low-scoring schools have more new teachers and a less experienced teacher workforce than high-scoring schools. Meanwhile, fewer teachers in low-scoring schools have advanced degrees, which perhaps reflect the low experience mix in those schools. Lastly, teacher licensure scores are consistently lower in the lowest-quartile schools relative to the highest-quartile ones (Buddin & Zamarro, 2009).

Job performance is deeply affected by the intrinsic motivational factors of the job (Mundhra, 2010; Oluseyi & Ayo, 2009). Teachers who show more satisfaction with their jobs also show greater performance while working. In various studies, job satisfaction and job performance had a significant positive relationship (Ahmad et al., 2010; Hayati & Caniogo, 2012; Shokrkon & Naami, 2009). However, organizational commitment, intrinsic motivation, and job performance did not show any significant relationship (Karatepe & Tekinkus, 2006; Oluseyi & Ayo, 2009; Mundhra, 2010; Mohsan et al., 2011; Hayati & Caniogo, 2012).

Academic Performance

Performance is a multifaceted feature that depends on many aspects, including work values and organizational commitment (Gutierrez, Candela, & Carver, 2012). As an indicator of productivity, performance has been highly demanded throughout the history of education, either from teachers or from students. Since the job satisfaction of teachers and their achievement scores are interlinked, they represent a vital potential source for improving the educational process. However, the goal of achieving academic goals remains unfulfilled if teachers cannot demonstrate quality performance in the form of students' achievement score. Above all, the most important indicator is academic achievement in the teacher learning process. That aspect is also the most important area of research and at the heart of educational psychology in academic assessment (Rahmani, 2011).

Ayral, Ozdemir, Findik, Ozarslan, and Unlu (2014) have shown that examinations and tests are widely used tools for evaluating students' performance regardless of academic level or discipline. Often by using tests, the skills, abilities, and academic achievement of students are analyzed through evaluation (Zollar & Ben-Chain, 1990) to explore students' learning outcomes and monitor their success, all in order to improve the quality of education (Kellaghan, Greaney, & Murray, 2009). In that sense, performance is linked with effectiveness, knowledge management, and quality (Platisa, Reklitisb, & Zimeras, 2015).

Since the role of workers is critical to regulating the performance of an institute (Farooquia & Nagendra, 2014), we explored the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction among teachers in our study.

Objectives of the Study

We conducted this study to:

1. Explore the relationship among indicators of job satisfaction of teachers; and
2. Investigate the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and students' performance.

Research Hypotheses

To achieve the objectives of our study, we devised three hypotheses:

Ho1: No significant correlation exists between the academic achievement scores of students and teachers' experience.

Ho2: No significant correlation exists between aspects of teachers' job satisfaction and students' achievement scores.

Ho3: No significant correlation exists among aspects of teachers' job satisfaction.

Method

Research Design

The present study was correlational in nature. Correlational research allows researcher to investigate what variables may be associated or correlated. However, it cannot be ignored that two variables are associated or correlated does not mean a causal relationship between them. Two variables can be correlated in the absence of a causal relationship but causal relationship requires a correlation. Present study was an investigation of relationship and correlation between teachers' job performance and students' academic achievement.

Participants

Data were collected from 322 secondary school teachers from 56 public schools of Faisalabad in province Punjab, Pakistan. Among them 172 were men and 150 were women. Fifty six (56) Schools were randomly selected by taking list of schools from district education officer. Then 322 teachers were purposefully selected for data collection.

Data Collection

We collected data from 322 secondary-school teachers (172 men, 150 women) in the public sector in Faisalabad, Pakistan, by administering a survey about perceptions of their job according to the Job Satisfaction Scale for Teachers. We recruited teachers from form 56 secondary schools, all of whom were asked to

complete the survey. We used the achievement scores of 9th- and 10th-grade students to gauge the performance of teachers.

Data Analysis

On the survey, we distributed 60 items among six indicators of job satisfaction: pay, work, promotion, colleagues, working conditions, and supervision. We calculated means and standard deviations by using descriptive statistics and computed correlations. Pearson "r" was applied to explore the relationship between the achievement score of class 9th and 10th as well as the aspects of job satisfaction on of relationship and correlation between variables using Pearson's *r*. The reliability of the instrument was .821. The sample item was "If I could plan my career again, then I would choose teaching as a profession."

Results

Ho1: No significant correlation exists between the academic achievement scores of students and teachers' experience.

The correlations of Tests 1 and 2 (.545** for $n = 322$, $p < .01$) show that both tests had stronger positive and significant correlations. Teachers who showed better performance in terms of 9th-grade results also showed better performance in terms of 10th-grade results.

Ho2: No significant correlation exists between aspects of teachers' job satisfaction and students' achievement scores.

Correlations between teaching experience and achievement scores revealed that Test 1 had a weak, but positive and significant correlation (.156) with teaching experience. By contrast, Test 2 had an insignificant relationship (-.037) with teaching experience ($n = 322$, $p < .01$). Students in 9th grade showed better results with experienced teachers. However, 10-graders had become familiar with teachers and showed no correlation with experienced ones.

Table 1

Correlation of Aspects of Job Satisfaction and Achievement Scores

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Test 1	Test 2
Pay	3.31	.46	.105	.057
Work	3.87	.35	-.017	.073
Promotion	3.46	.47	.074	-.041
Colleagues	3.45	.36	.031	.026
Working Conditions	3.45	.41	.101	.040
Supervision	3.84	.61	-.028	.014

$n = 322$

Table 1 shows the mean and standard deviation of the variables of job satisfaction and the relationship between Tests 1 and 2. Based on mean values, teachers showed high satisfaction with their work ($M = 3.8772$, $SD = 0.3520$). The next best indicator of teachers' job satisfaction was supervision ($M = 3.8408$, $SD = 0.6131$), whereas indicators such as promotion, colleagues, and working conditions indicated only moderate satisfaction, as perceived by teachers. The last and perhaps least applicable indicator of teachers' job satisfaction was pay, with which teachers in secondary schools were not satisfied. The indicators of job satisfaction had an insignificant relationship with both test scores.

Ho3: No significant correlation exists among aspects of teachers' job satisfaction.

Table 2

Correlations between Aspects of Job Satisfaction

Variables	Pay	Work	Promotion	Colleagues	Working conditions	Supervision
Pay						
Work	.221**					
Promotion	.233**	.340**				
Colleagues	.253**	.420**	.174**			
Working conditions	.271**	.349**	.284**	.389**		
Supervision	.080	.360**	.259**	.315**	.286**	

** $p < .01$

As Table 4 shows, all indicators had a positive and significant correlation with each other except for pay and supervision, which had an insignificant relationship with each other.

Discussion and Conclusion

Strong positive and significant correlations between achievement scores of students on both tests and teachers who showed better performance with 9th-grade results also showed better performance with 10th-grade results. We thus concluded that teachers formed expectations about academic achievement scores of students in view of prior results. Students who showed better results in the first year of their academic careers in the 9th grade also performed better in the 10th grade. Our results thus support the findings of Reyna (2008).

The reason for the significant, positive, but weak correlations with teaching experience on Test 1 might be that both students and teachers show enthusiasm as they entered secondary school. By contrast, Test 2 had an insignificant relationship with teaching experience, because both students and teachers had become familiar with each other, and the students could not fruitfully benefit from teachers experiences.

Teachers' great satisfaction with their work means that they justify their teaching responsibilities. The next best indicator of satisfaction was supervision. Teachers were satisfied with the behaviors of their supervisors, and indicators such as promotion, colleagues, and working conditions achieved moderate satisfaction as perceived by the teachers. The last and perhaps the least applicable indicator of teachers' job satisfaction was pay, with which teachers in secondary schools were not satisfied. The indicators of job satisfaction had an insignificant relationship with both test scores, which revealed that work was a strong predictor of teachers' job satisfaction. Most teachers showed strong determination to work in order to prove themselves, and the financial benefits that they received were consistently criticized by teachers as compared with those in other professions. Many studies support that working conditions, supervision, pay, promotion opportunities, relation with coworkers, roles and responsibilities, and classroom practices significantly relate to job satisfaction (Khanka, 2007; Ninomiya & Okato, 1990; Robbins, 2003; & Sim, 1990).

Our study supports findings of previous studies that the teaching profession attracts teachers for its intrinsic factors such as the joy of working with children, whereas external rewards (e.g., fringe benefits, salary, and prestige) are necessary for very few teachers (Choy et al., 1993). External indicators are linked with administrative support, workplace safety, and resource availability (Bobbitt et al., 1994). Job satisfaction has also been shown to develop employees' productivity and lower their absenteeism and turnover rates (Khanka, 2007).

All indicators demonstrated a positive, significant correlation with each other except for pay and supervision, perhaps the government, not supervisors, are responsible for teachers' salaries. Colleagues and conditions support each other because they are primary factors of work, while the relationship between pay and supervision is inconsistent, namely because institutional heads do not have the authority to increase or decrease salaries on the basis of the better or poor performance of teachers in public secondary schools. Refresher courses might be offered to train teachers in ways to improve teacher-student relationships, which will in turn improve the performance of students. Dinham (1994) revealed that teachers greatest indicator of fulfillment was students' achievement, and there is a modest relationship between job satisfaction and academic performance—in other words, happy workers are more productive ones, at least to some extent (Fang & Wang, 2006; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Sweeney & McFarlin, 2002). Our study is consistent with recent evidence that the job satisfaction-performance relationship is strongest in complex jobs in which employees have additional autonomy to complete their work or to slack off (Judge et al., 2001).

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Managers, Teachers, Students, and Parents' Opinions Concerning Changes on Dress Code Practices as an Educational Policy

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Dressing for school has been intensely disputed and has led to periodic changes in dress codes since the foundation of the Turkish republic. Practitioners have tried to put some new practices related to school dress codes into practice for redressing former dress code issues involving mandatory dress standards for both students and teachers but which caused chaos and confusion in schools because of lack of legal regulation. Uncertainty in dress codes, of which implications and outcomes are still being discussed in terms of psychological, socio economic, and academic, causes issues for teachers, students, and parents and can negatively affect performance.

Purpose of Study: The present study is focused on the perceptions of school leaders, teachers, and students in terms of dress codes as an educational policy. Education deeply affects every individual in society; from this point of view any individual in society needs to be involved in new policies in the field of education. For this purpose, this study addressed perceptions of school leaders, teachers, students, and parents in terms of free dress codes in schools. The study also aimed to contribute solutions to the dress code problem.

Method: This is a survey method study. The study sample was comprised of 611 participants (100 managers, 111 teachers, 254 students, and 146 parents). Data were collected via a 30-item questionnaire that was developed by a researcher. Frequency, arithmetic mean, independent groups, and one-way variance (ANOVA) techniques were used to analyze

data. A Tukey HSD test was used to determine in which groups the sample differed. Significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

Findings and Results: While managers (4, 80–47, 70) and teachers (4, 19–3, and 90) perceived the highest ratio for several parameters: 1) "dresses are perceived as sign of students' socioeconomic level" and 2) "students pattern themselves after other friends". Parents (3, 52) and students (3, 69) perceived the highest ratio in terms of "Students easily and comfortably act." These findings indicate that parents and students have similar opinions. The results do not indicate significant differences among perception of shareholders, managers, teachers, students, and parents about dressing in schools.

Conclusion and Recommendations: All new practices should consider every individual in society. Parents, teachers, and managers need to be informed about the effects of dress on students' physiological and psychological development. Legal regulations must be put into practice to let students wear different clothes and have a sense of pluralistic democracy.

Key words: Dress, education policy, shareholders, change, uncertainty.

Introduction

In Turkey, school dress codes have been an intense topic of dispute and discussion since the foundation of the Turkish republic. Practitioners unsuccessful attempts at some new practices during certain periods coupled with strict attitudes suggest that strict attitudes and practices are still being used. Nowadays, together with changes in the education system, dress codes have increasingly become an important topic but surprisingly, when the shareholders' views were taken into consideration, social, academic, and legal regulations still have not been established. This type of complexity and uncertainty causes serious differences in practices for school leaders, teachers, and students. Due to the above mentioned problems, all shareholders in the education system are directly affected by these problems and should have right to voice their opinions; these opinions are expected to contribute to finding a solution for the problem.

It is a fact that dress codes significantly impact students' psychological, social, and academic success. There are still debates, conflicts, and complex issues over dress code practices in Turkey. It can be stated that European countries have had the same problems and disputes over free dress codes for a long time. It is believed that debates over free dress codes cause conflicts among shareholders, frustrate, and exhaust managers, teachers, and students. Some examples of successful applications of dress codes in other countries should be put into practice in Turkey.

Education as a system is a social structure, which affects changing social dynamics and is itself often affected by the change. It can be expected that the education system and its associated institutions are constantly in motion, and

inevitably, the focus of these reflections and discussions among teachers' and students' outfits has become a current and complex issue.

Changes in dress codes in the Ottoman Empire, based on Mahmoud II and earlier rulers, facilitated debates and conflicts thus forcing new arrangements after the establishment of the modern Republic. From the first year of the Republic until today, dress code policy has continued to evolve with specific and controlled changes. In recent years, clothing debates have become the main agenda of the dress code policy in both public and in private educational institutions. The past decade has seen a dramatic increase in the use of school uniforms, the main reason behind free dress-related discussions. As Suzer and Saglam (20114) described, these discussions are necessary to ensure students' self-expression. In this respect, free dress codes need to be considered as a right for students. Some literature studies support this claim. For example, results of a study conducted by Akbaba (2014) presented that free dress is a essentially a person's right.

A school uniform starting as black, then blue, finally became an official school uniform under a directive by the National Education Ministry in December, 2012. In this context, free clothing went into effect in the 2013-2014 academic year (Kahraman & Karacan, 2013). " Sen and Saglam (2014) asserted that "it is frequently believed there is a strong relationship between students' happiness and success and dress code. It is particularly believed that free clothing will ensure students' safety by alleviating security problems" (Tinmaz&Saglam, 2014). Brunsmma (2006) postulated that the parental involvement in dress policy is significant. Parents should be encouraged and supportive in practicing of dress code policies. At times, it appears that enforcement of dress codes can incite student antagonism towards school" (Garot & Katz, 2003, 423).

Lumsden and Miller (2002) indicated negative effects due to lenient dress policies in school; they alleged that some students may arrive at school wearing T-shirts that bear slogans or images promoting drugs, alcohol, or displaying a variety of messages that are not in agreement with moral values. A majority of people think that mandatory school uniforms enhances learning at school and increases students' performances because it will lead to increased school safety, discipline, and learning (King, 1998:2). Mandatory school uniforms may possibly minimize economic disparity and social exclusion (Bodine, 2003; & Wilson, 1999). Konheim-Kalkstein (2006) alleged that school uniforms are useful for students, teachers, and families. Students in uniforms lead to improved student self-esteem, respect for teachers, and lower clothing costs; uniforms can also curb negative behaviors associated with student dress (Mitchell & Knetchtle, 2003, 487)

Any intervention and regulations in educational organizations on dress codes have caused intense debates. It is possible to say that educational organizations are also heavily affected by clothing discussions in public education. It could be stated that the perception of the political practices of the previous periods determines the dress codes. To what extent changes in clothes and practices not pertaining to present day and seen in various earlier reflections in educational organizations corresponds

with students' desire, experiences, performances, motivations, physiological, and psychological requirements has always been a debatable issue. This study relates to these changes and intends to contribute to opinions held by administrators and teachers who are key shareholders.

Significance of the Study

The research describes changes and processes which are perceived as conflicts between traditional and secular perspectives and which can cause long-term debates. It is important due to the fact that the discussions occurring in the West at the beginning of century have become a current issue in Turkey and deeply and presently affect the daily life in our country. It is closely related to the premise that dress is important in the interaction and integration between social structures and that dress creates perceptions about lifestyles and life philosophies, which and play important roles in communication between individuals and between individuals and society. Research consists of social re-designing on the basis of dress debates. This research also has importance with respect to examining the changes in dress code effects on possible revisions in the objectives of education and educational programme itself. The research has importance due to the fact that it gives indications about determining current educational policies and future regulations and offers insights into how to meet social requests and expectations.

According to current rapid technological change and transformation, discussing these practices, which consists of re-designing, disciplining, shaping, and standardizing society and individuals, leads to loss of its effect and creation of new demands, expectations, and requests. It is necessary to state that today, in our country, this particular dress code debate is the result of long-term political debates and polemics along with these changes, transformation, and differentiation. It has been observed in political discourses and approaches that dress codes ignore the students' physiological and psychological needs and these codes focus on the individuals who will be educated in a specific type and form of education.

The study presents information and insight to researchers and readers to reveal how dress codes changes in historical processes regardless of political events affect students' academic achievements, and their psychological and physiological development. Due to these reasons, as a main reference guide and source of information, impressions and evaluation of administrators' and teachers who observe and experience this process routinely will make a concrete, objective, and significant contribution to the field. As it is thought that there are serious difficulties and restrictions in doing research and acquiring data in this field from the period in which the dress codes debate started until present; it can be said that this study has made a significant contribution to the field.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the opinions of school managers, teachers, students, and parents about changes in dress code in terms of various variables.

Method

Research Design

This study is a quantitative assessment. A quantitative study is a method based on collection and analysis of numerical data usually obtained from a questionnaire, using a large enough sample to provide meaningful data and employ data analysis (Gay & Airasian, 2000). Quantitative research, known also as experimental research, plays an active role to select a parameter variable to conduct an experiment or survey. A variable is a condition or quality whose result will be determined. The purpose of an experimental study is to determine the effects of a specific or interval (variable) in research. (Johnson, 2014, 3).

Research Sample

Study participants included managers and teachers who work in public schools, parents, and students who were attending public schools from 2010 to 2014 (academic year) in Diyarbakır province. Some descriptive statistics related to the participants are shown in Table 1. The study sample formed a representative sample of managers (100; male: 89, female: 11), teachers (111; male: 61, female: 50), students (254 total; 180 boys; 74 girls) and parents (146 total; 79 males; 79 females) volunteered to participate in this study. Study subjects were expected to objectively state their opinions. In this respect, participants joined this study and completed the questionnaire on a voluntary basis.

Table 1.

Participants of Study

Shareholders	Number of participants(f)	Percentage (%)
Manager	100	16.3
Teacher	111	18.1
Students	254	41.5
Parents	146	23.8

Research Instruments and Procedure

Data were collected through a 'Uniform Implementation Survey' developed by the researcher. In a quantity study, the researcher collects data either from an adopted scale or from a scale that he/she developed him/herself. (Creswell & Clark, 2014, p.190). The survey consisted of two subscales: 1) Individual Information and 2) Uniform Policies. Relevant literature was examined and psychological, socio-economic, and academic success and discipline were taken into account during the

process of designing survey items. Expert points of view were examined for content validity. Pilot studies of the scale were conducted and some items, which did not properly and theoretically match the described properties of scale, were deleted. Finally, the validity and reliability of the scale was tested. The results showed that the scale was proper to measure desired properties.

For this purpose, the Cronbach alpa coefficient, which is accepted as the most reliable for Likert type scales was measured and found as 0.73. This ratio was accepted as sufficient for reliability. Content, metric, and structure tests were applied to determine validity. Expert opinion was sufficient for content validation. Metric validity was tested to decide whether differences between sub and top groups were meaningful or not. In this respect, 27% of the sub groups and 27% of the top groups' scores were subject to a t test. All parameters were found significant ($p < 0.001$). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted for content validation.

The Kaiser-Meyet-Olkin (KMO) value needs to be at least 60 to have reliability and Barlett Sphericity test must be significant in order to conduct exploratory factor analyses (Buyukozturk, 2007, 120). The KMO test was 0.929, and Barlett Sphericity was found as 3289, 529 ($p < 0.000$). As result of tunder gear operation conducted through varimax and principals component analysis five factors with >1.00 , the eigenvalue became evident. However it was attempted to determine whether it was possible to decrease number of factors; thus a screen plot was applied. It was specified that a significant decrease was seen three factors as analyzed by "Scree plot" Eigenvalue. Both variance percentage and total variance percentages related to three factors are shown in Table-2.

Table 2.

Findings Obtained as Result of Factor Analysis

Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance Percentage (%)	Total variance Percentage (%)
1	12.47	41.5	41.5
2	2.98	9.9	51.4
3	1.85	6.1	57.5

As Table-2 presents the eigenvalue of three factors are in turn, 12.47, 3.98, and 1.85. Three factors showed 57% of total variance. As this rate was $>41\%$ (Kline, 1994 37% was considered as acceptable rate) it was likely that these values demonstrate that the present rate showed the scale to be acceptable as a three-factor scale. Factor loads linked to survey items ranged from 0.30 to .083. The scale consisted of 30 items. Eleven items placed in the first factor, eight of them were located in the second factor, and eleven fell into the third factor. It is likely that items in the first factor

were oriented to measure psychological effect of uniform implementation while items in the second factor aimed to test socioeconomic influence, and the third factor aimed to measure academic success and discipline. The developed uniform implementation scale was a 5-point Likert type scale: 1) 1 strongly disagree; 2) 2-disagree; 3) 3-neutral; 4) 4-agree; and 5) 5-strongly disagree.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences 17.00 for percentage, arithmetic mean, independent T test, and one-way variance analysis (ANOVA) techniques in data analysis. Tukey HSD test was used to determine in which group the samples differed. Significance level was accepted as 0.05 in scale analysis.

Results

Standard deviations and means related Managers' perceptions of free dress code are given in Table 3.

Table 3.

Managers' Perceptions of the Free Dress Code

		N	X	SD
1	<i>Students feel more comfortable and adaptable in school</i>	98	3.57	1.14
2	Free dress code leads students physically act free	97	3.88	1.08
3	<i>Students easily communicate with others in their free dress</i>	96	3.3	1.2
4	Students are negatively affected and feel ostracized because of their dress	96	3.26	1.29
5	<i>Students pattern after other friends in dressing</i>	98	4.07	0.97
6	Free dress code fosters students' self-confidence and self-autonomy.	100	3.47	1.13
7	<i>Students decision making ability unfolds when they have right to choose their dress</i>	98	3.56	1.07
8	Free dress code makes it possible for students to express their distinctiveness, tendencies, and preferences	100	3.53	1,10
9	<i>Students use their dress as symbol and toll of message</i>	98	3,19	1,10
10	Free dress code enhances students' self-respect and personality	99	3,35	1,08
11	Different dress for each day is waste of time	99	3,46	1,29

Table 3 Continue

		N	X	SD
12	<i>Students want new dresses worn by their friends, from their family</i>	100	3,57	1,13
13	Parents can meet expenses for new dresses.	100	2,55	1,14
14	<i>Free dress code brings new and extra challenges to family budget</i>	93	4,00	1,03
15	Dress perceived as sign of family's socioeconomic level	100	4,08	,99
16	Dresses causes disintegration and alignment among students	99	3,58	1,20
17	<i>Students learn new and different ways of communication</i>	97	3,20	1,07
18	Students claims and preferences might induce conflicts and problems	99	3,52	1,11
19	<i>Dress can be used by other people in the family</i>	98	3,42	1,01
20	Dress in different colours and styles may negatively affect students' motivation	99	2,73	1,11
21	<i>Dresses may distract students during the lesson and practices</i>	100	2,62	1,11
22	Colours and style of dress may distract students	98	2,98	1,17
23	<i>Dress hinder learning activities</i>	98	2,47	,98
24	Teachers may spend their time with dresses during lesson	100	2,94	1,13
25	<i>Students may give approval to dresses of other students</i>	100	3,06	1,20
26	Variety in dresses, colour and mismatch may effect of lesson	100	2,84	1,17
27	<i>Dressing based alignment negatively induces learning and communication</i>	100	3,19	1,10
28	Free dress code positively affects class and school climate	100	3,05	1,17
29	<i>Standard uniform enhances standard consideration and this hinders different viewpoints</i>	99	3,05	1,19
30	Free dress code enhances students' different preferences, interests and tendencies spring	100	3,42	1,11

As shown in Table 3, perceptions of school managers to the statement "dresses are perceived as sign of a family's socioeconomic level" has the highest arithmetic mean (4.08) and "Students pattern after other friends in dressing" followed this ratio with 4.007 and "free dress code brings new and extra challenges to the family budget"

item with 4.00. According to school managers' opinion, the "dress may hinder learning activities" has the lowest arithmetic mean.

Standard deviations and means related Teachers' perceptions of free dress code are given in Table 4.

Table 4.

Teachers' Perceptions of the Free Dress Code

		N	X	SD
1	<i>Students feel more comfortable and adaptable in school</i>	111	3,36	1,43
2	Free dress code leads students physically act free	110	3,52	4,37
3	<i>Students easily communicate with others in their free dress</i>	105	3,05	1,43
4	Students are negatively affected and feel lowly because of their dress	111	3,58	1,26
5	<i>Students pattern after other friends in dressing</i>	106	4,19	,91
6	Free dress code fosters students' self-confidence and self-autonomy.	110	3,29	1,32
7	<i>Students decision making ability unfolds when they have right to choose their dress</i>	111	3,34	1,28
8	Free dress code makes it possible for students to express their distinctiveness, tendencies and preferences	109	3,30	1,29
9	<i>Students use their dress as symbol and toll of message</i>	111	3,24	1,13
10	Free dress code enhances students' self-respect and personality	111	3,18	1,21
11	A different dress for each day is waste of time	111	3,39	1,39
12	<i>Students want new dresses such as those worn by their friends from their family</i>	111	3,70	1,11
13	Parents can meet expenses for new dresses.	106	2,61	1,13
14	<i>Free dress code brings new and extra challenges to the family budget</i>	103	3,86	1,13
15	Dress perceived as sing of family' socioeconomic level	111	3,90	1,07
16	Dresses causes disintegration and alignment among students	110	3,50	1,26
17	<i>Students learn new and different ways of communication</i>	111	3,27	1,05
18	Students claims and preferences might induce conflicts and problems	111	3,68	1,03
19	<i>Dress can be sued by other people in the family</i>	109	3,35	1,07

Table 4 Continue

		N	X	SD
20	Dress in different colours and style may negatively affect students' motivation	109	3,06	1,31
21	<i>Dresses may distract students to during the lesson and practices</i>	111	2,80	1,21
22	Colours and style of dress may distract students	111	2,98	1,28
23	<i>Dress hinder learning activities</i>	110	2,60	1,10
24	Teachers may spend their time with dresses during lesson	111	3,00	1,32
25	<i>Students may give approval to dresses of other students</i>	111	3,18	1,24
26	Variety in dresses, colour, and mismatch may affect the lesson	111	2,78	1,27
27	<i>Dressing based alignment negatively induces learning and communication</i>	110	3,20	1,31
28	Free dress code positively affects class and school atmosphere	111	3,13	1,20
29	<i>Standard uniform enhances standard considerations and this hinders different viewpoint</i>	111	2,98	1,33
30	Free dress code enhances students' different preferences, interests and tendencies spring	111	3,33	1,23

As can be seen from Table 4, teachers' perception of free dress code has the highest ratio (4.19) with the item of "Students pattern after other friends in dressing" and "dresses are perceived as sign of family's socioeconomic level" was shown as 3.90 and "students want new dresses worn by their friends from their family" was rated as 3.70. Teachers' perception of a free dress code was rated lowest behind items of "parents can meet expenses for new dresses" item (2.60) and "dresses hinder learning practices".

Standard deviations and means related Students' perceptions of free dress code are given in Table 5.

Table 5.*Students' Perceptions of the Free Dress Code*

		N	X	SD
1	<i>Students feel more comfortable and adaptable in school</i>	254	3,55	1,61
2	Free dress code leads students physically act free	253	3,69	1,48
3	<i>Students easily communicate with others in their free dress</i>	254	3,42	1,51
4	Students are negatively affected and feel ostracized because of their dress	254	3,23	3,42
5	<i>Students pattern after other friends in dressing</i>	254	3,25	1,53
6	Free dress code fosters students' self-confidence and self-autonomy.	254	3,48	1,51
7	<i>Students decision making ability unfolds when they have right to choose their dress</i>	253	3,58	1,50
8	Free dress code makes it possible for students to express their distinctiveness, tendencies and preferences	254	3,30	1,57
9	<i>Students use their dress as symbol and toll of message</i>	254	3,21	1,49
10	Free dress code enhances students' self-respect and personality	253	3,39	1,51
11	Different dress for each day is waste of time	253	3,08	1,61
12	<i>Students want new dresses worn by their friends, from their family</i>	252	3,05	1,50
13	Parents can meet expenses for new dresses.	254	3,05	1,41
14	<i>Free dress code brings new and extra to family budget</i>	253	3,43	1,46
15	Dress perceived as sing of family' socioeconomic level	253	3,49	1,40
16	Dresses causes disintegration and alignment among students	252	3,17	1,52
17	<i>Students makes new and different ways of communication</i>	254	3,27	1,42
18	Students claims and preferences might induce conflicts and problems	251	3,21	1,52
19	<i>Dress can be sued by other people in the family</i>	254	3,35	1,41
20	Dress in different colours and style may negatively affect students' motivation	252	3,05	1,55
21	<i>Dresses may distract students to during the lesson and practices</i>	253	2,76	1,55
22	Colours and style of dress may distract students	253	2,96	1,55
23	<i>Dress hinder learning activities</i>	254	2,85	1,55

Table 5 Continue

		N	X	SD
24	Teachers may spend their time with dresses during lesson	252	3,12	1,51
25	Students may give consequence to dresses of other students	254	3,08	1,57
26	Variety in dresses, colour and mismatch may output of lesson	253	2,84	1,51
27	Dressing based alignment negatively induces learning and communication	253	3,00	1,52
28	Free dress code positively affects class and school climate	254	3,18	1,56
29	Standard uniform enhances standard consideration and this hinders different viewpoints	253	3,08	1,45
30	Free dress code enhances students' different preferences, interests, and tendencies spring	253	3,39	1,47

Table 5 indicates students' opinions about free dress codes in schools. As findings were taken into account, "free dress code leads students to physically act free" item was rated as the highest (3.69). The indicates that school dress code scores of students was 3.58 for item "students decision making ability unfolds when they have right to choose their dress." and was for item "students feel more comfortable and adoptable in school." As presented in Table 5, students gave the lowest score with "dresses may distract students during the lesson and practices" item.

Standard deviations and means related Parents' perceptions of free dress code are given in Table 6.

Table 6.

Parents' Perceptions of the Free Dress Code

		N	X	SD
1	Students feel more comfortable and adaptable in school	146	3,35	1,50
2	Free dress code leads students to physically act free	144	3,52	1,40
3	Students easily communicate with others in their free dress	143	3,22	1,44
4	Students are negatively affected and feel ostracized because of their dress	144	3,09	1,35
5	Students pattern after other friends in dressing	144	3,37	1,30
6	Free dress code fosters students' self-confidence and self-autonomy.	146	3,28	1,32
7	Students decision making ability unfolds when they have the right to choose their dress	146	3,47	1,30

Table 6 Continue

		N	X	SD
8	Free dress code makes it possible for students to express their distinctiveness, tendencies, and preferences	146	3,36	1,29
9	<i>Students use their dress as symbol and toll of message</i>	145	3,13	1,24
10	Free dress code enhances students' self-respect and personality	145	3,13	1,28
11	Different dress for each day is waste of time	146	3,13	1,43
12	<i>Students want new dresses worn by their friends, from their family</i>	146	3,04	1,29
13	Parents can meet expenses for new dresses.	145	3,06	1,10
14	<i>Free dress code brings new and extra challenges to the family budget</i>	145	3,22	1,17
15	Dress perceived as sing of family' socioeconomic level	146	3,26	1,26
16	Dresses causes disintegration and alignment among students	145	3,27	1,29
17	<i>Students makes new and different ways of communication</i>	145	3,01	1,23
18	Students claims and preferences might induce conflicts and problems	144	3,09	1,27
19	<i>Dress can be sued by other people in the family</i>	145	3,38	1,18
20	Dress in different colours and style may negatively affect students' motivation	144	3,11	2,74
21	<i>Dresses may distract students to during the lesson and practices</i>	146	2,73	1,21
22	Colours and style of dress may distract students	145	2,87	1,22
23	<i>Dress hinder learning activities</i>	144	2,67	1,19
24	Teachers may spend their time with dresses during lesson	146	2,71	1,18
25	<i>Students may give consequence to dresses of other students</i>	145	2,89	1,24
26	Variety in dresses, colour, and mismatch may affect the lesson	145	2,93	2,23
27	<i>Dressing based alignment negatively induces learning and communication</i>	144	2,82	1,25
28	Free dress code positively affects class and school climate	145	3,10	1,21
29	<i>Standard uniform enhances standard consideration and this hinders different viewpoint</i>	146	3,10	1,30
30	Free dress code enhances students' different preferences, interests and tendencies spring	146	3,33	1,27

As can be seen from Table 6, parents' perceptions of free dress codes scored the highest mean (3.52) With "free dress code leads students physically act free

"item. The mean of parents' school dress code scores was 3.47 for item "students decision making ability unfolds when they have right to choose their dress." and parents' score was 3.35 for the item "students feel more comfortable and adoptable in school." As presented in table 5, students have the lowest score (2.67) With "dress hinders learning activities" item.

In order to examine differences among managers', teachers', students', and parents' assessments related to the free dress code ANOVA was applied. Some descriptive analysis of ANOVA are given in Table 7.

Table 7.

Distribution of mean scores and standard deviation on perception of school managers, teachers, students and parents' related to free dress code

	N	X	SD
School manager	100	3,29	,383
Teacher	111	3,28	,349
Student	254	3,22	,560
Parents	146	3,12	,443
Total	611	3,22	,476

As Table 7 indicates, the mean of managers' free dress code was 3.29, teachers' mean was 3.28, students' arithmetic mean was 3.22, and parents' mean was 3.12. The result of the ANOVA are shown in Table 8.

Table 8.

Variance Analysis (ANOVA) of Managers', Teachers', Students', and Parents' Perception Related to Free Dress Code

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Sd	Mean of Squares	F	P	Source of difference (Tukey test)
Between groups	2.29	3	,764	3,409	,017*	1-4
Within groups	136,126	607	,224			2-4
Total	138,420	610				

* p<.05

As Table 8 indicates, as a result of ANOVA ($F_{(3-607)} = 3.409$, $p < 0.5$) analysis of significant differences were found among managers', teachers', students', and parents' assessments. Significant differences were determined by ANOVA post hoc testing using Tukey test. Findings from the Tukey test presented differences between

school managers' assessments ($X=3.29$) and parents' assessments (3.12). Significant differences were also found between teachers' and students' assessments ($X=3.28$ and 3.12, respectively).

Discussion and Conclusion

Some important results surfaced as result of this study. Study results did not reveal significant differences between manager and teacher opinions on free dress code, but it was believed that changes in free dress code might enhance socioeconomic differences among students, students might pattern after each other's dress, and competition might increase in school. In addition, findings showed that both managers and teachers thought that free dress code has limited impact on academic success. A study, free dress code application (Who said, what did they say?) conducted by Ugurlu, Togcu, and Demir (2005) showed teachers, students, and parents have quite negative perceptions about free dress code. Results of this study supported our findings.

. Results of this study showed that students who are directly affected by practices have more positive opinions about free dress codes. Tinmaz and Saglam (2014) investigated primary schools students' opinions about free dress code; results revealed that students are irresolute, and findings of another study by Suzer and Saglam (2014), conducted to determine parents' perceptions about free dress code, supported free dress code. In addition, findings of another study by Sen and Saglam (2014) showed that teachers do not support free dress code.

Both students and parents have similar opinions about free dress code, and they claim that students feel and act more comfortable in their dress. Students and teachers also do not believe that free dress code will influence lesson and practices at school. These findings proved that managers and teachers differ from students and teachers. Kahraman and Karacan (2013) conducted a study about shareholders' perceptions on the impact of free dress code on students, and results showed that managers were strongly against free dress codes; these results supported our study's findings. All shareholders share the common opinion that free dress code will not negatively affect learning and academic success.

Recommendations

Parents, managers, and students should be informed about studies conducted on school dress. When criterion on school dress is determined, socioeconomic conditions need to be taken into account so that it does not cause any separation among students because separation may hinder student communication and interactions.

Practices about free dress code should be put into a form that may produce well-disciplined students. Students' physiological and psychological development-oriented practices can positively affect results. Conditions that hinder students' physiological and psychological development-oriented practices may be topics of discussion and thus remove the negative aspect of free dress codes.

Standard uniforms enhance standard considerations, and this hinders different viewpoints. Students must be encouraged to wear different dresses to remove this negative impact on students. Symbol and sings of school (badge, foulard) can be attached to dresses. Further research could focus more on pedagogy and child development experts and psychologists' viewpoints.

Results of school studies about standard uniform practice should be compared with those from free dress code practices, and the effects of two different practices on child development and success could be evaluated. Furthermore, students' perception on teachers dress could facilitate further studies. New studies, intending to investigate factors affecting disputes and practices over dress, should be conducted in Turkey.

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Eğitim Politikası Olarak Kıyafet Uygulamalarındaki Değişiklere İlişkin Yönetici, Öğretmen, Öğrenci ve Veli Görüşleri

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Özet

Problem Durumu: Türk eğitim sisteminde cumhuriyetin ilk yıllarından günümüze kadar okullardaki kıyafet uygulamaları sürekli olarak tartışma konusu olmuş ve buna bağlı olarak dönemsel değişikliklere de gidilmiştir. Son yıllarda özellikle öğrenciler ve öğretmenler için zorunlu olan ve yasal kurallara bağlanıp sonucunda da cezai yaptırımlar bulunan kıyafet uygulamaları yeniden düzenlenmeye çalışılsa da yasal bir alt yapı oluşturulmadığı için eğitim örgütlerinde kaosa ve karmaşaya yol açmıştır. Günümüzde Büyük ölçüde psikolojik, sosyo-ekonomik ve akademik açıdan sonuçları tartışılan kıyafet uygulamalarının belirsizliği yöneticiler, öğretmenler, öğrenciler ve veliler arasında sürekli soruna dönüşerek performansı ve başarıyı büyük ölçüde etkileyebilmektedir.

Kıyafetin öğrencilerin psikolojik, sosyal gelişimleri ve akademik başarıları üzerinde önemli bir değişken olduğu kabul edilen bir olgudur. Geçmiş dönemlerden günümüze dek devam eden tek tip kıyafet uygulamalarının özellikle Avrupa ülkelerinde de benzer süreçlerden geçerek tartışma konusu olduğu bilinmektedir. Eğitim örgütlerindeki paydaşlar arasında çatışmalara ve problemlere dönüşen kıyafet tartışmalarının toplumun ve öğrencilerin gelişimine ve başarılarına uygun bir şekilde çözümlenmesinin zorunlu bir durum olduğu söylenebilir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bir eğitim politikası olarak kıyafet uygulamalarındaki değişikliklere ilişkin yönetici, öğretmen, öğrenci ve veli görüşlerini saptamaktır. Eğitimin bütün toplum kesimlerini etkileyen ve ilgilendiren bir alan olması nedeniyle düzenlemelerde doğrudan ve dolaylı tüm kesimlerin görüşleri büyük önem kazanmaktadır. Bütün bu nedenlerden dolayı eğitim örgütlerindeki yönetici öğretmen, öğrenci ve veli görüşlerinin ortaya çıkarılması ve bunların sorunun çözümüne katkı sunması öngörülen bir durumdur. Ayrıca bu çalışmada bir eğitim politikası olarak kıyafet uygulamalarındaki değişikliklerin çeşitli değişkenlere göre yönetici, öğretmen, öğrenci ve velilerin görüşlerinin belirlenmesi ve aradaki ilişkinin saptanması amaçlanmıştır.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Araştırma tarama modelindedir. Örneklem grubu araştırmaya gönüllülük ilkesi ile katılan 100 okul yöneticisi, 111 öğretmen, 254 öğrenci ve 146 veli olmak üzere toplam 611 kişiden oluşmaktadır. Veriler "Kıyafet Uygulamaları Ölçeği" ile toplanmıştır. Verilerin analizinde frekans, yüzde, aritmetik ortalamanın yanı sıra

Bağımsız gruplar ve tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA) teknikleri kullanılmıştır. Anlamlı farklılıkların kaynağını belirlemek için ise TUKEY analizi yapılmıştır. Ölçeğin istatistiksel çözümlenmesinde anlamlılık düzeyi .05 olarak benimsenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Bulguları: Yönetici (4,80-4,07) ve öğretmenlerde (4,19-3,90) en yüksek aritmetik ortalama ile “Kıyafetler öğrencilerin sosyoekonomik durumlarının bir göstergesi olarak algılanır” ve “öğrenciler birbirlerinin kıyafetlerine özenirler” çıkarken öğrenci ve velilerde ise en yüksek aritmetik ortalamanın öğrenciler 3,69 ile “öğrenciler fiziksel olarak daha rahat hareket ederler”, Ebeveynlerin ise öğrencilere benzerlik gösterdiği en yüksek aritmetik ortalamasının 3,52 ile yine aynı maddede yoğunlaştığı ve ortak görüşlerinin olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Araştırmada uzun sürelerden bu yana tartışılan ve eğitim politikaları olan gelişen kıyafet uygulamalarındaki değişikliklere ilişkin paydaş görüşlerinin özellikle öğretmen, yönetici, öğrenci ve veli görüşleri arasında anlamlı bir farklılığa ulaşılmamıştır.

Öğretmenlerin serbest kıyafet uygulamasına yönelik görüşleri incelendiğinde, en yüksek aritmetik ortalamanın 4,19 ile “öğrenciler birbirlerinin kıyafetlerine özenirler” şeklinde olduğu bunları 3,90 ile “kıyafetler öğrencilerin sosyoekonomik durumlarının bir göstergesi olarak algılanır”, 3,70 ile “arkadaşlarının aldığı yeni kıyafeti ailelerinden hemen isterler” şeklinde olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Öğretmenlerin en düşük aritmetik ortalama ise 2,61 ile “aileler yeni kıyafetlerin ekonomik giderini karşılayabilirler” ve 2,60 ile “kıyafetler öğrenme etkinlikleri gerçekleştirilmede engel oluşturur” şeklinde görüşlerini belirtmişlerdir.

Öğrencilerin serbest kıyafet uygulamasına yönelik görüşleri incelendiğinde, en yüksek aritmetik ortalamanın 3,69 ile “öğrenciler fiziksel olarak daha rahat hareket ederler”, 3,58 aritmetik ortalama ile “öğrenciler kıyafet tercihi yaparak kendilerine ilişkin karar verme becerileri gelişir” ve 3,55 aritmetik ortalama ile “öğrenciler kendilerini okulda daha rahat ve uyumlu hissederler” şeklinde görüşlerinin olduğu tespit edilmiştir. öğrencilerin serbest kıyafet uygulamalarına ilişkin en düşük aritmetik ortalama ise 2,76 ile “kıyafetler derse katılmada ve uygulamalarda sorun oluşturur” şeklinde görüşlerini belirtmişlerdir.

Velilerin serbest kıyafet uygulamasına yönelik görüşleri incelendiğinde, en yüksek aritmetik ortalamanın 3,52 ile “öğrenciler fiziksel olarak daha rahat hareket ederler”, 3,58 aritmetik ortalama ile “öğrenciler kıyafet tercihi yaparak kendilerine ilişkin karar verme becerileri gelişir” ve 3,47 aritmetik ortalama ile “öğrenciler kendilerini okulda daha rahat ve uyumlu hissederler” şeklinde görüşlerinin olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Velilerin serbest kıyafet uygulamalarına ilişkin en düşük aritmetik ortalama ise 2,73 ile “kıyafetler derse katılmada ve uygulamalarda sorun oluşturur” şeklinde görüşlerini belirtmişlerdir.

Okul yöneticilerinin serbest kılık kıyafet uygulamasına ilişkin görüşlerin aritmetik ortalaması 3,29, öğretmenlerin aritmetik ortalaması 3,28, öğrencilerin aritmetik ortalaması 3,22 ve ebeveynlerin aritmetik ortalaması 3,12 olarak tespit edilmiştir.

Okul yöneticisi, öğretmen, öğrenci ve velilerin serbest kıyafet uygulamasına ilişkin görüşleri arasında anlamlı farklılık olup olmadığını belirlemek için yapılan ANOVA analizi sonucunda $F_{(3-607)} = 3,409$; $p < 0,05$ anlamlı farklılık gösterdiği tespit edilmiştir.

Farkın kaynağını belirlemek için yapılan TUKEY testi sonucunda, farkın okul yöneticileri ($X=3, 29$) ile veliler ($X=3, 12$) ve öğretmenler ($X=3, 28$) ile veliler ($X=3, 12$) arasında olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri: Yönetici ve öğretmenlerin serbest kıyafet değişikliklerine ilişkin değişken bir tutum içinde olmadıkları bu değişikliklerin öğrenciler arasında sosyo-ekonomik farklılıkları belirginleştirme ile birlikte birbirleri arasında da özentî ve yarışî artıracığına ilişkin kaygılar oluşmuştur. Kıyafetlerin öğrenme etkinliklerine ve akademik başarıya etkisi ise hem yöneticiler hem de öğretmenler tarafından çok düşük düzeyde bir etkisinin olabileceği sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Hem öğrenciler hem veliler serbest kıyafet ile daha rahat hareket edileceği görüşünde birleşmişlerdir. Yine bu iki grubun kıyafetlerin derse katılmada ve uygulamalarda sorun oluşturacağı düşüncesine en düşük düzeyde katılım göstererek ortak bir sonuca ulaşmışlardır. Yönetici ve öğretmenlerin ayrı öğrenci ve velilerin ise ayrı bir şekilde farklılaştığı sonucu görülmektedir.

Okullarda kıyafetlere ilişkin yapılacak düzenlemelerde tüm toplum kesimlerinin görüşlerine başvurulmalıdır. Kıyafetlerin öğrencilerin fizyolojik ve psikolojik gelişimleri üzerindeki etkileri konusunda veliler ve özellikle yönetici ve öğretmenler bilgilendirilmelidir. Tek tip bir düşünceye olgusunun önlenmesi amacıyla farklı giysiler giymeye ilişkin yasal düzenlemeler yapılmalıdır. Okulların sembolleri ve işaretleri farklı giysilere de eklenebilmelidir. Kıyafetler üzerinde yapılan incelemeler ve araştırmalar konusunda veliler ve özellikle yönetici ve öğretmenler bilgilendirilmelidir. Kıyafete ilişkin oluşturulacak genel ölçütler de ve kurallarda sosyo-ekonomik yapıların (ekonomik ve sosyal) öğrenciler arasında ayrışmalara yol açmamasına dikkat edilmelidir. Türkiye’de kıyafet tartışmalarında ve uygulamalarında etkili olan değişkenlerin saptanmasına ilişkin araştırmalar yapılabilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kıyafet, eğitim politikası, paydaşlar, değişim, belirsizlik.

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13	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<i>The article is preceded by English Structured Abstract of not more than 400 words and not less than 300 using five required headings: Problem Statement, Purpose of Study, Methods, Findings and Results, and Conclusions and Recommendations. (These headings may need some adaptation in the case of discussion papers: Background, Purpose of Study, Sources of Evidence, Main Argument, and Conclusions). More information available from (http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/authors/rereabstracts.asp)</i> Yapılandırılmış İngilizce öz 300-400 sözcük uzunluğunda olup, aday makalenin başında yer almakta ve <i>Problem Durumu, Araştırmanın Amacı, Araştırmanın Yöntemi, Araştırmanın Bulguları, Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri</i> başlıklarını içermektedir. Bu başlıklar tartışma yazıları için: <i>Çalışmanın Temeli, Çalışmanın Amacı, Kanıt Kaynakları, Ana Tartışma ve Sonuçlar</i> şeklinde olabilir. Daha fazla bilgi için http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/authors/rereabstracts.asp adresine başvurunuz.
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15	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<i>An extended (750-1000 words) Turkish structured abstract is placed following the "References" section using five required headings: Problem Statement, Purpose of</i>

		<p><i>Study, Methods, Findings and Results, and Conclusions and Recommendations.</i> (These headings may need some adaptation in the case of discussion papers: <i>Background, Purpose of Study, Sources of Evidence, Main Argument, and Conclusions</i>). More information available from http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/authors/rereabstracts.asp</p> <p>Kaynakça'dan sonra 750-1000 sözcükten oluşan Türkçe yapılandırılmış öze yer verilmiştir. Türkçe yapılandırılmış öz <i>Problem Durumu, Araştırmanın Amacı, Araştırmanın Yöntemi, Araştırmanın Bulguları, Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri</i> başlıklarını içermektedir. Bu başlıklar tartışma yazıları için: <i>Çalışmanın Temeli, Çalışmanın Amacı, Kanıt Kaynakları, Ana Tartışma ve Sonuçlar</i> şeklinde olabilir. Daha fazla bilgi için; http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/authors/rereabstracts.asp</p>
16	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<p><i>Following the Turkish structured abstract, four to six keywords are included.</i></p> <p>Uzun Türkçe özetten sonra 4-6 anahtar sözcüğe yer verilmelidir.</p>
17	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<p><i>References are not cited in the structured abstracts in English and in Turkish.</i></p> <p>İngilizce abstract ve Türkçe öz içerisinde atıfta bulunulmamıştır.</p>
18	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<p><i>The format of headings, tables, figures, citations, references, and other details follow the APA 6 style as described in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 6th edition, available from http://www.apa.org</i></p> <p>Aday makalenin başlıkları, tabloları, şekilleri, atıfları, kaynakçası ve diğer özellikleri tamamen APA altıncı baskıda belirtildiği şekildedir.</p>
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		<p>p. 445). It was precisely this level of apparent certainty, however, which led to a number of subsequent challenges to the techniques used to process the data (Jones & Wayne, 2002, p. 879). There were a number of fairly obvious flaws in the data: consistencies and regularities that seemed most irregular, upon close scrutiny (Aarns, 2003; West, 2003, p. 457).</p> <p>With studies by two authors, always include both author names: (Anderson & Bjorn, 2003)</p> <p>As Anderson and Bjorn (2003) illustrated in their recent study</p> <p>As recently as 2003, a prominent study (Anderson & Bjorn) illustrated</p> <p>When a study has 3, 4, or 5 authors, include the names of all the authors the first time the work is cited: (Anderson, Myers, Wilkes, & Matthews, 2003)</p> <p>For all subsequent citations of this work, use "et al." (Anderson et al., 2003)</p> <p>When a work has 6 or more authors, use et al.: (Bell et al., 2003)</p> <p>For unsigned works, include the title, enclosed in parentheses. Put quotation marks for short work titles, and italicize the titles of reports, books, and other significant works: ("Recent Developments," 2004) (Dictionary of Tetrathalocigistic Diseases, 2004)</p> <p>Metin içindeki atıfları üstte verilen örneklere uygundur.</p>
21	☒	<p>Three levels of headings are used: Level 1, Level 3 and Level 4. The headings are formatted as follows:</p> <p>Centered Uppercase and Lowercase Heading (Level 1)</p> <p><i>Flush Left, Italicized, Uppercase and Lowercase Side Heading</i> (Level 3)</p> <p><i>Indented, italicized, lowercase paragraph heading ending with a period.</i> Start writing after the period (Level 4).</p> <p>Aday makale içerisinde üç farklı düzey başlık kullanılmıştır. Düzey 1, Düzey 2, Düzey 3. Başlıklar bu düzeylere uygun olarak aşağıdaki şekilde biçimlendirilmiştir:</p>

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		<p><i>Research Sample</i></p> <p>♦<i>Research Instrument and Procedure</i></p> <p><i>Data Analysis</i></p> <p>Results, Discussion and Conclusion, References</p> <p>Extended Turkish Abstract (750-1000 words) Sub-headings:</p> <p><i>Problem Durumu:....</i></p> <p><i>Araştırmanın Amacı:....</i></p> <p><i>Araştırmanın Yöntemi:...</i></p> <p><i>Araştırmanın Bulguları:...</i></p> <p><i>Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Önerileri:.....</i></p>
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