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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Volume 14, Number 1

March 2019

Articles

- 6 Psychological Counseling and Guidance Services in Early Childhood Education**
Author: Cem Gençoğlu, Selen Demirtaş-Zorbaz, Haktan Demircioğlu, Samet Ekin
- 24 Predicting Vocational Satisfaction of Pre-Service ELT Teachers by Vocational Values**
Author: Tugay Tutkun
- 40 Pre-service Teachers' Views about Digital Teaching Materials**
Author: Özden Demirkan
- 61 Reconsidering the Assessment Policy: Practical Use of Liberal Multiple-choice Tests (SAC Method)**
Author: Kürşat Cesur
- 75 School Choice of Middle-Class Parents and Students in the Context of Neoliberal Policies**
Author: Zehra Keser Özmantar, Dilek Karataşoğlu
- 98 Student Misbehaviors Confronted by Academics and Their Coping Experiences**
Author: Cahit Erdem, Mehmet Koçyiğit
- 116 Preservice Classroom Teachers' Opinions on Use of Educational Games in Instructions of Primary School Courses**
Author: Murtaza Aykaç, Davut Köğce
- 144 An Analysis of the In-Class Oral Feedback Provided by the Teachers of Turkish as a Foreign Language**
Author: Fatma Bölükbaş Kaya, Mehmet Yalçın Yılmaz

Psychological Counseling and Guidance Services in Early Childhood Education

Cem Gençoğluⁱ

Ministry of National Education, Ankara, Turkey

Selen Demirtaş-Zorbazⁱⁱ

Ordu University, Faculty of Education, Ordu, Turkey

Haktan Demircioğluⁱⁱⁱ

Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey

Samet Ekin^{iv}

Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen University, Agri, Turkey

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to identify views of counselors working in early childhood education institutions about psychological counseling and guidance services. To this end, face-to-face interviews were carried out with 73 guidance teachers using semi-structured interview forms in order to explore their views about counseling and guidance services offered in early childhood education. The study used a qualitative phenomenological research design. The sample consisted of 73 guidance teachers working in preschools or nursery classes in primary schools. The data were analyzed using content analysis. According to the analysis results, the guidance teachers mostly considered psychological counseling and guidance services to be necessary especially for parent education, preventiveness, and developmental guidance. They also held the view that there should be a separate assignment for the reconstruction of psychological counseling and guidance services in early childhood education and focus should be directed on especially family-related work. The results were discussed in relation to the existing literature.

Keywords: early childhood education, counseling and guidance, school counselor.

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ⁱ **Cem Gençoğlu**, Dr., Ministry of National Education, Director General of Basic Education, Ankara, Turkey.

Correspondence: cemgencoglu@meb.gov.tr

ⁱⁱ **Selen Demirtaş-Zorbaz**, Assit. Prof. Dr., Ordu University, Faculty of Education, Departmen of Education Sciences, Pscyological Counseling and Guidance Branch, Ordu, Turkey.

ⁱⁱⁱ **Haktan Demircioğlu**, Assist. Prof. Dr., Hacettepe University, Faculty of Health Sciences Department of Child Development, Ankara, Turkey.

^{iv} **Samet Ekin**, Res. Assist., Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen University Education Faculty Preschool Education, Ağrı/Turkey.

Introduction

Early childhood education institutions try to guide children through this time – when their personality is shaped – for their healthy physical, social, emotional and cognitive development, to prepare them for life and inform families about early childhood education (Kandır, 2001). Early childhood education is effective in children's social and emotional development such as social skills (Erbay, 2008), and problem-solving skills (Anliak & Dinçer, 2005). Additionally, early childhood education, which is planned to be compulsory in Turkey in 2018, aims to satisfy all aspects of children's needs and development. Therefore, early childhood education refers to not only a place where teaching activities are carried out but also an institution that supports children's development as a whole.

Early childhood education is considered one of the main factors behind children's academic achievement and one of the main determinants of the academic achievement gap among children (Lee & Burka, 2002). The removal of educational inequalities in society is also associated with the quality of early childhood education (Lamy, 2013). Thus, a pleasant early childhood experience provides children with social skills and greater psychological readiness for learning, thereby heralding a sound start to life skills (Lamy, 2013). Similarly, resilience to life events is also associated with social opportunities offered to children during early childhood and by extension with early childhood education (Lindon, 2003; Wright & Masten, 2005).

Oktaç (2004) defined the needs of preschool children as good care, trust, action, adult support, support for creativity, developing an aesthetic sense, self-recognition, self-actualization, freedom, being with other children, and playing. The healthy social and emotional development of preschool children is crucial to school readiness and long-term results of academic achievement. (Thompson & Raikes, 2007). Research has shown that early childhood psychosocial interventions yield positive social and emotional outcomes for children (Perry, Allen, Brennan, & Bradley, 2010). However, preschool children cannot benefit from services to meet their needs. Stahmer et al. (2005) found that neglected and/or abused children have developmental and behavioral needs, but only a few children receive services for these issues. Tekin (2012) also emphasized the need for psychological counseling and guidance services for teachers, families, and children in early childhood education.

Positive emotional experiences shared between caregivers and children serve as building blocks for the development of social and emotional skills in the period of early childhood that determines how well children view themselves, each other, and their world (Bagdi & Vacca, 2005). Thus, schools should have guidance services and implement a strong and effective guidance program for the healthy development and well-being of children.

In the face of problems that may arise in the developmental process of children during the early childhood period, parents alone fail to decide what misbehaviors should be defined as problem behaviors (Poyraz & Özyürek, 2005); thus, they need psychological support (Özbey, 2010). Similarly, early childhood education teachers need to have collaboration with the school guidance service to cope with problem behaviors they face in their classrooms and they tend to cooperate with families (İkiz, Mete-Otlu & Ekinçi-Vural, 2016). Therefore, psychological counseling and guidance services offered in early childhood education institutions should be provided not only to children but also to parents and teachers. Indeed, research has shown that mental health services offered to preschool children and their families are effective in problems such as attachment disorders (Cicchetti, Rogosch & Toth, 2000, 2006; Lieberman, 1992) or behavior problems (Holtz, Carrasco, Mattek & Fox, 2009).

Guidance teachers are responsible for providing mental health services in schools in Turkey. In the broadest sense, guidance refers to a systematic and professional aid to support people in acquiring knowledge and skills that help them to make choices, interpretations, decisions and plans required for the most efficient development and satisfactory adjustment and in implementing their choices and decisions (Tan, 1992, p.18). In this sense, guidance services refer to a professional service provided to everyone without discrimination. The comprehensive guidance program, which is widely acknowledged in Turkey and based on the developmental guidance and psychological counseling approach, aims to reach all students ranging from preschool children to those involved in the school-to-work transition process (Doğan, 2000).

Apart from developmental guidance, preventive guidance also emphasizes the importance of early diagnosis and early intervention. When preventive guidance services focus on the early childhood period and the early years of primary school, services are more effective (Korkut, 2003; Korkut-Owen, 2011). A meta-analysis by Durlak and Wells (1997) suggested that preventive work with children and adolescents reduces problems that may be encountered in the upcoming years and increases children's competencies. Accordingly, the sooner psychological counseling and guidance services are provided, the fewer problems are encountered so that it can lead to the economical use of both material resources and human resources.

In Turkey, it is still a matter of debate whether psychological counseling and guidance services will be provided in early childhood education and in which areas guidance teachers will work. In her survey in which pre-school teachers evaluate school guidance services, Akgün (2010) reported that priority guidance services offered in nursery classes include programs with special needs children, children with behavior problems and children in inclusive classes and with their families, while parent education programs are of second priority. In his study with teachers and principals in early childhood education, Kardeş (2014) suggested that the most important tasks of guidance teachers include individual guidance services, group guidance, orientation programs, and participation in classroom

activities. The author also discussed that the most important problems include guidance teachers' lack of subject matter knowledge of early childhood, the failure to introduce guidance programs, and inadequate practices of guidance programs.

Accordingly, it is important for teachers and principals to evaluate psychological counseling and guidance services in early childhood. Additionally, it is also necessary to identify views of guidance teachers who are directly responsible for the provision of these services in order to determine deficiencies and offer higher quality services. In their study aiming to identify perceptions of guidance services in early childhood education, Aliyev, Erguner-Tekinalp, Ulker and Shine-Edizer (2012) interviewed guidance teachers and principals and found that guidance teachers lacked knowledge of especially early childhood education and did not receive adequate training in this subject during their undergraduate study. Likewise, in Aktaş and Demirtaş-Zorbaz (2018), guidance teachers had deficiencies in psychological counseling with children and proposed the organization of in-service training as the primary option and the inclusion of courses on child counseling in undergraduate teaching programs as the secondary option to rectify their deficiencies. Akalın (2014) showed that guidance teachers working in early childhood education institutions have limitations of knowledge and skills concerning inclusion practices. Accordingly, guidance teachers express their lack of knowledge of work with young children. This lack can affect the quality of the services they offer.

The regulation on the permanent employment of principals and teachers in educational institutions affiliated to the Ministry of National Education, published in the official gazette No. 2014/29034, abolished the permanent employment of guidance teachers in early childhood education institutions; however, the amending regulation No. 2017/10939 reinstated the practice of permanent employment. Thus, since the 2018-2019 academic year, graduates of psychological counseling and guidance programs have started to work in early childhood education institutions. The abolition and reinstatement of the permanent employment of guidance teachers in early childhood education institutions by various regulations show that the importance of psychological counseling and guidance services in early childhood education has not yet been recognized in Turkey.

Considering the existing literature and bureaucratic practices in Turkey, there appears the necessity for providing psychological counseling and guidance services in and for conducting more research on how to organize these services. Against this background, this study seeks to identify guidance teachers' views on the necessity and reasons for guidance services in early childhood education and on the ways how to restructure these services. Thus, through first-hand views, this study establishes the quality and shortcomings of psychological counseling and guidance services in early childhood education as well as defining what to do to improve these services. To this end, answers were sought to the following questions:

1. Why are guidance services necessary in early childhood?
2. How should guidance services be restructured in early childhood?

Methods

The study used a qualitative phenomenological research design. The phenomenological approach is considered an effective approach to study affective, emotional and often intense human experiences (Merriam, 2013). In this study, one-to-one opinions were taken regarding the necessity of guidance services in pre-school education and how they should be structured. On the basis of the phenomenological approach, inferences have been made over the experiences of each guidance teachers.

Sample: Among 73 interviewed guidance teachers, 53 was working in a primary school and 15 in a secondary school. 49 were women and 24 were men. Considering the field of undergraduate study, 48 guidance teachers graduated from psychological counseling and guidance programs or psychological services in education programs. 14 guidance teachers completed various educational sciences programs such as psychology, philosophy, and sociology. Since not the whole sample studied psychological counseling and guidance, the term ‘guidance teacher’ was used to refer to the sample rather than ‘school counselor’.

Data Collection Instrument: The data were collected using a semi-structured interview form designed by the researchers. In line with the purpose of the study, the form includes two open-ended questions, which were asked face-to-face to the guidance teachers by the researchers.

Data Analysis: The data were analyzed using content analysis. Conventional content analysis is a widely used qualitative data analysis method in which coding categories are derived directly from the text data (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

Procedure: The guidance teachers were selected among those who had been actively working for at least a decade. Interviews were conducted in their school. The verbal consent of the respondents was obtained for audio recordings. The answers of those who did not allow an audio recording were written with precision. Precautions were taken by the researchers concerning the validity and reliability of the study. A face-to-face sitting arrangement was designed and attention was paid to minimize distractions in the room. Considering that the interviewer is a psychological counselor, attention was also paid to establish a relationship during the interview by using psychological counseling skills to ensure that the respondents feel more comfortable. The audio recording device was placed in such a way not to disturb the respondents.

The audio recordings of the interviews were digitized using word processor software without any addition or subtraction. First, a subject-matter expert other than the researchers reviewed the documented recordings and coded the responses. Second, a researcher among the research team separately reviewed and coded the responses. Then, the codes described separately by the expert and the researcher were compared to find out whether there are differently coded expressions. Thus, a common code list was produced. Later, the other researchers examined the codes and the categories of codes and agreed on them.

Results

The analysis results are presented under two headings including views on the necessity of guidance services in early childhood education, and suggestions for restructuring guidance services in early childhood education. The categories and codes produced for each theme are presented and various respondent expressions are given for each theme.

1. Results Concerning Guidance Teachers' Views on the Necessity for Guidance Services in Early Childhood Education

Table 1 presents the themes, categories, and codes for the respondents' views on the necessity and reasons for providing guidance services in early childhood education.

Table 1. Themes, Categories and Codes Concerning Views on the Necessity and Reasons for Guidance Services in Early Childhood Education

| Theme | Category | Code | f |
|---|--------------------|---|----|
| The necessity and reasons for providing guidance services in early childhood education | Necessity | Necessary | 69 |
| | | Necessity depends on the situation | 3 |
| | | Unnecessary | 1 |
| | Parent education | Parent education | 15 |
| | Preventive role | Preventive role | 11 |
| | Developmental role | Personality development | 6 |
| | | Developmental guidance | 4 |
| | Interventionist | Orientation | 7 |
| | | Early diagnosis | 4 |
| | Facilitating role | Inter-stakeholder communication | 2 |
| | | Relieving the upper levels of education | 2 |

According to the analysis results, almost all the respondents thought it necessary to provide guidance services in early childhood education. Only one guidance teacher (a female respondent with

a degree in educational sciences) thought guidance services unnecessary by stating that *“Well, I do not find them very necessary because the early childhood education program, I think, already, includes necessary services. This year the guidance department did not give the guidance services framework plan to the early childhood department. I think so. I think they are not necessary because what should be provided is already provided”*. Three respondents were not clear about the necessity and held the view that it might change according to the situation. The relevant expressions are as follows:

“Guidance can be offered in early childhood education but in a very superficial manner. Because children can do and learn limited things. First of all, they are little. But it can still be performed” (a male respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

“I worked in a nursery. But it was not efficient. When the number of children is small, you cannot work efficiently. Most of the time I was sitting idle and waiting for the time to pass. So, I started a part-time job. That was enough. Also, there, in the nursery, I couldn’t work comfortably. Since it was a private nursery, the administration regarded my every guidance practice as a problem. They did not want it. When I wanted to talk to parents, they were asking me whether there was a problem or why I would talk to parents. And they were saying that we had to handle it on our own. I encountered such situations. I did not receive support for my guidance services. Therefore, it was not efficient. I think if the number of children is large, guidance is necessary. Otherwise, it would not be efficient” (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

“But when we look at the conditions of Turkey, and if we consider it as a priority, it is not in early childhood, perhaps not even in primary school. Considering their conditions, secondary and high schools must have guidance services. Only after secondary and high schools, and only when the staff is enough, early childhood education institutions can absolutely have guidance services. But now they are urgently needed in secondary and high schools, not in early childhood education. One should also note this” (a male respondent with a degree in educational sciences).

Considering the reported reasons that psychological counseling and guidance services are necessary for early childhood education, the respondents’ views are grouped under the following categories: parent education, the preventive role of guidance, the developmental role of guidance, the interventionist role of guidance, and the facilitating role of guidance. The categories are discussed separately with example expressions for each category.

Parent Education in Guidance

According to the analysis results, the majority of guidance teachers stated that guidance services are especially necessary for early childhood education for organizing parental education programs. Considering the reasons for their views, some respondents pointed out that working with

children is difficult or not necessary, while others stressed that parental education is a form of both preventive guidance and interventionist guidance. Example expressions are as follows:

“Guidance is not directed towards children in early childhood education, and this is not possible. Children need to be reached indirectly by reaching families. It had to go on like this” (a male respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

“In early childhood education, all of our teachers are graduates in child development or early childhood teaching. I think there could be activities for parents. I think teachers are handling the part aiming at children. There are two nursery classes near my room; I give them little support. Because before they come to me, they can handle it; they are already equipped in guiding” (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

“Families can also be very unaware of issues about children. For this reason, parents of preschool students should also be informed about various topics such as reward and room arrangement. So, I think guidance services are necessary” (a male respondent with a degree in educational sciences).

The Preventive Role of Guidance

Another theme often expressed by the respondents following parent education was preventive guidance. Below are given example expressions that emphasize the preventive aspect of guidance services in the early childhood period.

“I think guidance services are essential for early childhood. Because early childhood education is like the foundation of a building. The more solid that foundation, the better the building” (a male respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

“Guidance services are necessary for early childhood education. Because the sooner you start guidance, the better the outcomes will be. ‘As the twig is bent, so is the tree inclined’, the proverb says” (a male respondent with a degree in educational sciences).

Considering the codes regarding preventive guidance, one respondent (a male respondent with a degree in philosophy) drew attention to the prevention of abuse by saying that “*Again an annoying picture, sexual abuse cases occur between 6-12 years of age. Children should be empowered and supported*”. An example expression that highlights the importance of preventing behavioral problems in children is as follows: “*So I give an example of whether a preschool child is hyperactive or not. Is he or she inattentive or overactive? Does he or she have fears? If such issues are identified and children are referred to the hospital in this period, they will be ready when they start primary school. Grade 1 in primary school is very different from the preschool. The preschool has games. Children do*

nothing but play. But they start reading and writing in the primary school. They sit for forty minutes and need to learn how to read and write. If they are not ready, I mean if you cannot solve their problems in the preschool, which problem will you deal with in the primary school?" (a male respondent with a degree in educational sciences).

The Developmental Role of Guidance

Some respondents who explained the necessity of guidance services in the early childhood period through an understanding of developmental guidance emphasized that the development of personality begins at an early age. An example expression is as follows: *"Guidance services are very necessary because we know that personality development begins in this period. We know that children start to become different at that time, which is very important. It is even more important than the development in the high school, secondary school, and primary school"* (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance). Below are given further example expressions that emphasize the understanding of developmental guidance.

"The essence of guidance lies in the successful completion of individuals' developmental tasks. Each age group has its own developmental tasks. Therefore, in the early childhood period, children have developmental tasks that they have to complete successfully. Of course, I believe in the importance of guidance for that age group" (a female respondent with a degree in psychology).

"We are addressing the developmental model. Hence, development begins at birth but not in early childhood or primary school" (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

"Absolutely necessary. I am telling you, the more well-grounded things are, the better they will be. The guidance services in practice must be based on the understanding of developmental guidance, starting from early childhood" (a male respondent with a degree in psychology).

The Interventionist Role of Guidance

The respondents who emphasized the interventionist aspect of guidance often referred to school adjustment or orientation work and to the importance of early diagnosis. Example expressions are as follow:

"There is a social environment; there are students and teachers in the school. First of all, there is a process of adjustment" (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

“Guidance in early childhood can be very useful for adjustment” (a female respondent with a degree in educational sciences).

“Of course, I think guidance services are necessary for early childhood. Because adjustment problems are among the most common problems that we encounter in early childhood” (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

“A lot of things can be unveiled through early diagnosis. In the nursery class, we provide guidance about students’ psychosocial, health, or mental problems” (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

“Now we know science has progressed a lot. It is said that babies perceive sounds in mother’s womb and feel whether they are wanted or unwanted babies. That is what the new scientific developments are saying. In the past, attention deficit and hyperactivity, and learning difficulties were not very well-known concepts. What do we know now? If children have such problems, the earlier the diagnosis is made, the sooner the treatment can be started. Or, let’s call it education, the treatment was a wrong example. Of course, guidance should be provided in preschools” (a female respondent with a degree in educational sciences).

The Facilitating Role of Guidance

Some respondents referred to the role of guidance teachers in inter-stakeholder communication and the importance of solving early childhood problems in relieving the upper levels of education, thereby stressing the facilitating aspect of guidance. Below are given example expressions.

“If some problems are not solved in the early childhood period, they are reflected in the first grade. Sometimes it takes a few years to solve children’s problems when discovered in the first grade. But in the nursery class, children’s academic burden is much lighter. It is very nice to solve a problem discovered in early childhood education and take precautions before children move to the next level of education” (a female respondent with a degree in educational sciences).

“Considering that many teachers have difficulty communicating with parents, it is absolutely necessary” (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

2. Results Concerning Guidance Teachers’ Suggestions for Restructuring Guidance Services in Early Childhood Education

Table 2 shows the themes, categories, and codes for the respondents’ views on restructuring guidance services in early childhood education.

Table 2. Themes, Categories and Codes Concerning Views on Restructuring Guidance Services in Early Childhood Education

| Theme | Category | Code | f |
|---|-----------------------|---------------------|----|
| Suggestions for restructuring guidance services in early childhood education | Necessity | Necessary | 70 |
| | | Unnecessary | 3 |
| | Administrative Issues | Separate assignment | 6 |
| | | Task description | 2 |
| | | Guidance program | 2 |
| | | Guidance hours | 1 |
| | | Student files | 1 |
| | Intervention plan | Family-oriented | 16 |
| | | Personal-social | 4 |
| | | Consultation | 2 |
| | | Guiding | 2 |
| | Intervention methods | Play | 5 |
| | | In-class | 1 |
| | | Observation | 1 |

Considering the analysis results on the respondents' answers to the question "How do you think guidance services should be restructured in early childhood education?", very few held the view that there is no need for restructuring. Example expressions are as follows:

"Since the nursery class is part of the school, the guidance teachers here should also take care of the nursery class. I think there is no need for a separate department" (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

"Guidance services can also be served by early childhood education teachers. Scales should be prepared for children of that age. Guidance teachers who will work in this area should get relevant education. Psychologists can also serve. There should be special courses in major cities. There was a special course in Istanbul. With the help of psychologists and special courses, teachers should educate themselves. Counseling and guidance services are dispensable" (a female respondent with a degree in classroom teaching).

The respondents' views on the fact that guidance services should be restructured in early childhood education are grouped under three categories including administrative issues, intervention plan, and intervention methods. These categories and relevant expressions are presented below.

Administrative Issues

Under this category, some respondents mentioned the need to assign separate guidance staff for early childhood education. Below are given example expressions.

“Perhaps guidance teachers can be employed to take care of only nursery classes in primary schools. Because primary schools have both preschool students and primary school students. Perhaps we can improve this process by employing an adequate number of teachers” (a male respondent with a degree in educational sciences).

“In order to maintain guidance services in early childhood education, first, at least one guidance teacher should be assigned to schools. This need should be satisfied. There is no need for anything else in terms of restructuring. Those teachers are doing all the work that needs to be done there” (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

A male respondent with a degree in educational sciences noted the necessity for separate staff in early childhood education institutions and described the qualities of the person holding this post as follows: *“Teachers can be trained. Not every guidance teacher, but those who will work in early childhood education, those who are voluntary and willing. Because professionals who will work with younger age groups should be trained through a different curriculum. These teachers can be provided with additional training in early childhood education”*.

Another highlighted situation under this category is clear task descriptions. A female respondent with a degree in counseling and guidance expressed this view as follows: *“The guidance teacher should be aware that there is a separate unit. Everyone should know what their post is. Teachers should not act like a principal and custodians should not act like a teacher. Such things can happen in schools and they should be circumvented”*. A male respondent with a degree in philosophy highlighted the necessity of guidance hours by stating that *“I think a planned and scheduled implementation and the practice of guidance hours will be helpful”*.

Some respondents suggested the need to design a separate guidance program for early childhood education. An example expression is as follows: *“In 2011 or 2012, word has it that early childhood education like other levels of education should have learning outcomes for guidance, but I do not know if it was implemented. Such a thing can be done, and activities can be provided by the guidance teacher”*. (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance). A male respondent with a degree in educational sciences explained this view situation as follows: *“Early childhood education guidance programs can be developed. Especially game-oriented activities can promote children’s socialization, personality development, and care skills in a sounder way”*.

Few respondents pointed to the need to keep student files. An example expression is as follows: “Every child used to have an observation file starting from early childhood education. These files were abolished. I think they should be brought back, of course, provided that they will be kept confidential. These documents were guiding us” (a male respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

Intervention plan

Under this category, most respondents pointed to the need for family-oriented work in early childhood education. Below are given example expressions.

“*As I said, we can communicate with parents*” (a male respondent with a degree in psychological services in education).

“Formerly, an education program for families of students aged 7-19 years used to be implemented. It was good. Family education will now be held for the ages of 0-18. We can be successful especially by working with families” (a female respondent with a degree in special education).

“Work should focus on families and games. In early childhood, more work should be done with families especially concerning behavior disorders. Therefore, guidance teachers who will work in early childhood education should be well equipped with adult education, family interviewing techniques, and family and marriage relations” (a male respondent with a degree in philosophy).

“I think work should focus on parent education. Because parents can break their links with teachers and schools starting from primary school, but this is not the case in early childhood. Most of the society can be reached through parent education and parent information seminars” (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

Some respondents suggested that personal guidance should be given importance in early childhood education. A male respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance explained this view as follows: “*I think that guidance services should be employed to improve children’s personal and social aspects. Besides, efforts should be taken to ensure that children adjust to the school*”. A female respondent with a degree in psychological services in education stated that “*There must be a guidance teacher in the period of early childhood education. In fact, many abnormal behaviors are exhibited in early childhood. Possibly pathological situations are beginning to exhibit symptoms. If there are children in need of special education, they can be identified beforehand. This also applies to language and speech problems. Therefore, a person who has received psychology education will be really helpful for preschool children*”.

Few respondents pointed to the guiding or referral process. For example, a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance noted that *“We, guidance teachers, only offer guidance because parents have a tighter relationship with teachers during the preschool and the first four years of primary school. We intervene when needed. For example, we can better explain it to parents when children need to be referred to the hospital. Early childhood education teachers may ask for our help in this regard”*. Again, few respondents pointed to consultation or counseling work in early childhood education. A male respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance stressed the importance of consultation as follows: *“First, there should be good communication between families and teachers. Here consultation efforts are of great importance”*. A female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance also stressed the importance of consultation by stating *“There must be developmental support. Experts need to tell teachers what to allow children to do”*.

Intervention Methods

The last category covers intervention methods. Some respondents highlighted the role of play as an intervention method. Below are given example expressions.

“Guidance activities should also be play-oriented because students are at play age. Activities should be performed through plays and should be at a level that students can understand” (a male respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

“Young children are often unaware of their problems or cannot express themselves. You can work with them by playing or painting” (a female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance).

A female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance noted that *“Activities should be carried out in classrooms. If we are working in early childhood education, we should focus more on classroom activities. Because it is not functional to take a little child and get him or her to the counseling department. Children feel more secure in classroom activities. That is why we perform activities in classrooms”*. A female respondent with a degree in psychological counseling and guidance noted that the observation technique should be utilized while working in early childhood education. She further stated that *“I think early childhood guidance should be based on observation. For example, I have a student who doesn’t eat. I have to observe this student for hours to solve the problem and to understand why. By observing the behavior of children at that age, you have some information about the problem”*.

Discussion and Suggestions

Considering the guidance teachers' views about psychological counseling and guidance services in early childhood education, the majority thought these services necessary, although few guidance teachers thought them unnecessary or expressed that the need for these services varies according to the situation. This result may be due to guidance teachers' lack of subject-matter knowledge since undergraduate programs have no course on psychological counseling and guidance services for early childhood (Akalın, 2014; Aktaş & Demirtaş-Zorbaz, 2018; Aliyev et al., 2012). Similarly, few guidance teachers referred to plays as a method that they can use in early childhood education, while most of them pointed to the importance of parental education rather than child intervention. This may also arise from a lack of knowledge. Under this perspective, the quality of the services offered can be improved by incorporating into undergraduate programs courses that highlight the importance and preventive role of psychological counseling and guidance services in early childhood and by organizing in-service training that eliminates shortcomings on guidance teachers' part.

Some guidance teachers emphasized the developmental and preventive role of early childhood services, which is consistent with their developmental and preventive guidance functions (Demircioğlu, 2016; Doğan, 2000; Korkut-Owen, 2011). Additionally, those who highlight the interventionist role of early childhood services point to early diagnosis and orientation. This result runs in parallel to previous research (Odom & Wolery, 2003; Zigler, 2000) that emphasizes the necessity of early intervention in early childhood. Additionally, considering that school counselors feel most competent in school adjustment practices (Aktaş & Demirtaş-Zorbaz, 2018), it is an expected result that the guidance teachers put an emphasis on orientation practices. In fact, children have to adjust to school life and rules, a new environment and so on during the early childhood education period. This adjustment process can lead to various problem behaviors. Research has shown that early childhood education teachers are unable to cope with problem behaviors on their own and need counseling and guidance (İkiz et al., 2016).

Among the guidance teachers' views, the most prominent was that psychological counseling and guidance services offered in early childhood education should focus on parent education. This result is consistent with Akgün (2010) reporting early childhood education teachers' view that guidance services should organize parent education programs. Previous research has proven the effectiveness of education given to parents of preschool children in reducing behavioral problems (Cicchetti et al., 2000; Lieberman, 1992). In this study, some guidance teachers defined early childhood services only as family-oriented. Thus, it seems that they may not be familiar with psychotherapy techniques with young children such as play therapy or that they may not know the

benefits of such techniques. Accordingly, a variety of in-service training may be organized to improve guidance teachers' competence in counseling with children.

All in all, this study has found that guidance teachers who are likely to work in early childhood education institutions have serious shortcomings concerning the provision of psychological counseling and guidance services in early childhood. Guidance teachers considered early childhood education services to be provided primarily to parents and spoke very little of other guidance activities such as psychological counseling with children and consultation with teachers. As a result of this, they were unable to offer comprehensive suggestions for restructuring guidance services in early childhood education. A reasonable approach to tackle this issue could be that counselor educators can offer elective courses or revise existing courses to inform pre-service counselors and guidance teachers about counseling services that can be offered to young children.

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Predicting Vocational Satisfaction of Pre-Service ELT Teachers by Vocational Values

Tugay Tutkunⁱ

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Çanakkale, Turkey

Abstract

Identification and recognition of the values that an individual possesses can help predict his future behaviors. In this context, it is important to examine the concept of values since it leads individual's preferences. It is also possible to see one's value orientation in profession choice. Individuals are expected to work in professions where their values can be met. It can be assumed that values are also related to vocational satisfaction. Individuals caring about their independency would be more satisfied if their occupation allows them to work independently. According to the Theory of Work Adjustment, which examines the place of vocational values in occupational choice and occupational satisfaction, the harmony between the individuals' values and the characteristics of the environment they work with ensures high vocational satisfaction. The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between the departmental satisfaction, vocational values and predicted reinforcer pattern for each type of value of pre-service English language teachers studying in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Education, and Department of English Language in the context of Work Adjustment theory. In this descriptive study, Turkish version of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (TMIQ) and Predicted Reinforcer Pattern (PRP) scale were used as data collection tools. Results of the study are presented using descriptive statistics, mean comparison tables and graphics. Although females were more satisfied than males, pre-service ELT teachers were found to being satisfied for choosing ELT major in general. Results suggest that the majority of ELT students believe that becoming a teacher will probably satisfy their needs associated to achievement, altruism and safety. However, majority of ELT students believe that becoming a teacher will probably not satisfy their need for; autonomy, status and comfort.

Keywords: Vocational values, departmental satisfaction, preservice ELT teacher

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ⁱ **Tugay Tutkun**, Assit. Prof. Dr., Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Education, Curriculum and Teaching Department, Çanakkale, Turkey

Email: tugay@comu.edu.tr

Introduction

There are many definitions of the term “values”. Basically the phenomena can be defined as “the beliefs that people have about what is right, wrong, and most important in life, business, etc. which control their behavior” (Values, Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary, 2018) and “principles or standards of behavior; one's judgement of what is important in life” (Values, Oxford Dictionaries, 2018). Çalışkur, Demirhan, & Bozkurt (2012) define values as the basic concept which constitutes the judgments of the individual about the good or the accuracy of the events around him/her. In another definition, the values are described as criteria that are desirable, useful and appreciated without regard to a particular situation or condition (Şirin, 1986). Schwartz (1996) defined the values as phenomena that lead to a specific filter and directing the events in the environment. As seen from the definitions values directs one's behavior and knowing the individual's values can help to estimate his/her behaviors in the future. In this context, values lead to individuals' preferences and in this case it is important to examine the concept of values.

It is possible to see effect of values in professional choices (Çalışkur, Demirhan, & Bozkurt, 2012). Research shows that there is a relationship between the values of individuals and the choice of profession (Lamsa, Sakkinen, & Turjanmaa, 2000; Myyry & Helkama, 2001; Uyguç, 2003). In this context, it is expected that people will want to work in the occupations which their values that can be fulfilled. For example; it is expected that individuals who give importance to money prefer to choose the most profitable professions, and individuals who give importance to comfort can be expected to choose non-stressful professions.

Job satisfaction is defined as employees' status of being happy or unhappy with their jobs (Kunin, 1955). The term has been defined by other researchers as; what individuals feel about various aspects of their professions (Spector, 1977), emotional reactions of individuals to their profession (Weiss, 2002), total of the individual's beliefs and feelings about his profession (George & Jones, 2008), satisfaction of individuals as doing their jobs (Karanikola & Papathanassoglou, 2015).

Job satisfaction theory based on Turner and Lawrence (1965) and Hackman and Lawler (1971) proposes that positive personal and work outcomes are obtained when three critical psychological states; (1) experienced meaningfulness of the work, (2) experienced responsibility for the outcomes of the work and (3) knowledge of the results of the work activities, are present. According to the theory, experienced meaningfulness of the work is enhanced by three core dimensions; skill variety, task identity, and task significance. Experienced responsibility for work outcomes is increased when a job has high autonomy and knowledge of results is increased when a job is high on feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). This theory specifies the importance of harmony between the human and the environment.

The importance of the harmony between the human and the environment in job satisfaction is also stated by some other theories; Theory of Vocational Choice (Holland, 1959) and Theory of Work Adjustment (Davis & Lofquist, 1984). Identifying six personality types (realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional) and six types of work environments with the same names, Holland's theory of vocational choices states that people's job satisfaction and vocational success depends largely on the congruence between their personality and work environment (Holland, 1959).

Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) was developed in the early 1960s as an organizing framework for the career-related constructs that were studied by the Work Adjustment Project at the University of Minnesota (Davis, 2005). The TWA is based on the assumptions that optimal vocational outcomes occur when the individual's abilities match the skills required for success in the job and the individual's needs are satisfied by the occupation. Focusing on individuals' needs and values, TWA aims to explain how person–environment correspondence contributes to job satisfaction and retention with an organization (Davis & Lofquist, 1984). Correspondence is a special term in this theory referred to the quality of the match between the individual's personality and the work environment and the occupation. TWA is a person-environment fit (P-E fit) theory (Psychology Research and Reference, 2018) which identifies two important variables; person (P) and environment (E) that interact with each other. (P) has certain needs and values and the (E) has a mechanism to meet the P's needs and values (Perkmen, 2012).

TWA identified 21 needs, which work as reinforces (see Table 1), influencing the individual's reaction to a particular occupation and its environment. These 21 needs/reinforces are grouped in six value dimensions (Davis & Lofquist, 1984). Multiple studies have examined the TWA, especially its aspects of the relation between worker-need, occupational-reward correspondence and job satisfaction. The results show that (1) need-reward correspondence is positively related to job satisfaction, (1) the greater correspondence on a specific dimension, the more satisfied the worker is with that aspect of the job, (3) the greater the overall correspondence between the total set of worker needs and environmental rewards, the greater the overall job satisfaction (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Melchiori & Church, 1997; Degges-White & Shoffner, 2002; Tziner, Meir, & Segal, 2002; Perkmen, Cevik, & Alkan, 2012; Sonmezer & Eryaman, 2008; Feij, van der Velde, Taris, & Taris, 1999).

Table 1. Definitions of the Values identified by TWA and Associated Needs

| Value | Definition | Needs |
|-------------|--|--------------------------------------|
| Achievement | the importance of using one's abilities and having a sense of accomplishment | Ability utilization, Achievement |
| Autonomy | the importance of being independent | Creativity, Responsibility, Autonomy |

| | | |
|----------|---|---|
| | and being in control | |
| Status | the importance of recognition, prestige, and being important | Advancement, Recognition, Authority, Status |
| Altruism | the importance of harmony with, and being of service to, others | Co-worker relations, Social service, Moral values |
| Comfort | the importance of being comfortable and avoiding distress | Activity, Independence, Variety, Compensation, Security, Working conditions |
| Safety | the importance of predictability, stability, and order | Company policies, Supervision-human relations, Supervision-technical |

In summary, TWA propose that job satisfaction results when the rewards provided by the occupation satisfy the needs of the worker. For example, if the individual gives importance to self-employment, and if the job she/he works in allows her to work independently, he/she will most likely to be satisfied with the job (Yildirim, 2015). In this respect, it is important that the characteristics of the job and the working environment meet the individual's values in order to be satisfied with the work done by the individuals.

Purpose of the Study

When students settle in department they will study at the university, they also determine their future profession to a large extent. University students' satisfaction with the department they are studying would be expected to show their future occupational satisfaction. So that, it can be hypotised that there is a relationship between university students' department satisfaction and their future job satisfaction. Based on the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA), the purpose of this study was to investigate pre-service ELT teachers';

- satisfaction level of choosing to become an ELT teacher,
- vocational values,
- correspondence in their predicted vocational satisfaction.

Method

The research design of this study was non-experimental and causal-comparative, which seeks to find relationships between independent and dependent variables after an action or event has already occurred (Salkind, 2010), as it studied the relationship between the ELT teachers' vocational values and demographics and also occupational satisfaction.

Participants

Participants were teacher candidates studying in Department of English Language Education in Faculty of Education at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University in the academic year of 2017-2018 (see Table 2). After deleting the missing data, (n=8), a total of 364 ELT teacher candidates (76 males, 288 females) from the Department of English Language Education participated in this study.

Table 2. Demographics of the Participants

| | | Gender | | Total |
|-----------------------|----------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | Male | Female | |
| 1 st Grade | F | 18 | 73 | 91 |
| | % within grade level | 19,8% | 80,2% | 100,0% |
| | % within gender | 23,7% | 25,3% | 25,0% |
| 2 nd Grade | F | 14 | 75 | 89 |
| | % within grade level | 15,7% | 84,3% | 100,0% |
| | % within gender | 18,4% | 26,0% | 24,5% |
| 3 rd Grade | F | 19 | 72 | 91 |
| | % within grade level | 20,9% | 79,1% | 100,0% |
| | % within gender | 25,0% | 25,0% | 25,0% |
| 4 th Grade | F | 25 | 68 | 93 |
| | % within grade level | 26,9% | 73,1% | 100,0% |
| | % within gender | 32,9% | 23,6% | 25,5% |
| Total | F | 76 | 288 | 364 |
| | % within grade level | 20,9% | 79,1% | 100,0% |
| | % within gender | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

Data Collection Tool

The data collection tool used in the study consisted of four sections. In the first section, there were 2 items for determining the demographic information; gender and grade level of the participants.

In the second section, there was one item asking the question of “how satisfied are you for choosing the ELT teaching department to study in the university. (in other words, choosing ELT teacher as a profession and career)?”, which aims to determine how satisfied the participants are in choosing the department they are studying. This item was conducted with 5 point Likert-type scale (1=Not satisfied at all, 2=Unsatisfied, 3=Neither unsatisfied, nor satisfied, 4=Satisfied, 5=Very satisfied).

In the third section, Turkish version of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (TMIQ), which was revised and adopted to 5 point Likert-type by Perkmen, Cevik, & Alkan (2012) was used to measure the vocational needs and values of the ELT pre-service teachers. Based on TWA and MIQ, this questionnaire consists of 21 needs items that make up six types of values (see Table 2). Participants were asked to indicate their level of importance with each item on a 5 point Likert-type scale; starting from “not important at all” to “very important”.

In the last section, Predicted Reinforcer Pattern (PRP) scale, developed by Perkmen, Cevik, & Alkan (2012), which aims to identify pre-service teachers’ perceived probability that their needs and values would be met if they were employed as a teacher in a public school was used. The PRP scale consists of 21 items and a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “do not agree at all” to “totally agree” is used.

Table 3. Values and Needs Identified by TWA and TMIQ items

| Value | Need | Items |
|-------------|-----------------------------|--|
| Achievement | Ability utilization | I could do something that makes use of my abilities |
| | Achievement | The job could give me a feeling of accomplishment |
| Autonomy | Creativity | I could try out some of my own ideas |
| | Responsibility | I could make decisions on my own |
| | Autonomy | I could plan my work with little supervision |
| Status | Advancement | The job would provide an opportunity for advancement |
| | Recognition | I could get recognition for the work I do |
| | Authority | I could tell people what to do |
| | Social status | I could be “somebody” in the community |
| Altruism | Co-worker relations | My co-workers would be easy to make friends with |
| | Social service | I could do things for other people |
| | Moral values | I could do the work without feeling that it is morally wrong |
| Comfort | Activity | I could be busy all the time |
| | Independence | I could work alone on the job |
| | Variety | I could do something different every day |
| | Compensation | My pay would compare well with that of other workers |
| | Security | The job would provide for steady employment |
| | Working conditions | The job would have good working conditions |
| Safety | Company policies | The company would administer its policies fairly |
| | Supervision-human relations | My boss would back up his men (with top management). |
| | Supervision-technical | My boss would train his men well |

Data Collection and Analysis

The data were collected on a voluntary basis by the researcher in the classes of the students studying in Department of English Language Education. Then the responses of the participants entered to the statistical software; SPSS 22.0, where all other analysis were conducted. Mean scores of each dimensions/vocational values for both the Turkish version of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire and the Predicted Reinforcer Pattern (PRP) were calculated. As TWA propose, in order to identify the quality of the match between the ELT students' personality and the work environment/occupation, correspondence scores for each value dimension were calculated by subtracting the associated PRP scores from the TMIQ scores. In order determine the internal consistency of the scales, Cronbach's α values were calculated. For the entire Turkish version of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire, Cronbach's α was 0.803. And for the sub-scales/vocational values dimensions; achievement, autonomy, status, altruism, comfort and safety, Cronbach's α values were 0.659, 0.651, 0.874, 0.731, 0.757 and 0.776 respectively. Cronbach's α was calculated as 0.791 for the entire Predicted Reinforcer Pattern (PRP) scale. And for the sub-scales/vocational values dimensions; achievement, autonomy, status, altruism, comfort and safety, Cronbach's α values were 0.629, 0.711, 0.829, 0.781, 0.721 and 0.802 respectively. The Skewness and Kurtosis values were examined for the normality of the groups to be compared and found to be between -2 and +2 for each group which is sufficient for the use of parametric tests (Field, 2005). Therefore, parametric tests used when comparing means.

Findings

In this section, the findings of the research are presented in tables and graphics and explained together with the results of the analysis.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare departmental satisfaction in male and female conditions.

Table 4. t-test Results Comparing Males and Females on Departmental Satisfaction

| Gender | n | Mean | Std. Dev. | T | df | p |
|--------|-----|------|-----------|--------|-----|-------|
| Male | 76 | 3.68 | .637 | -2.301 | 362 | .022* |
| Female | 288 | 3.89 | .717 | | | |

*: $p < .05$

Table 4 illustrates the t-test results. There was a significant difference in the departmental satisfaction level of males ($M=3.68$, $SD=0.64$) and females ($M=3.89$, $SD=0.72$); $t(362) = -2.301$, $p=0.022$. Female students were more satisfied of choosing to become an English language teacher.

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of grade level on departmental satisfaction level of ELT students in 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th grader conditions. 91 participants

in the 1st graders had a mean score of 3.96 (SD=0.63); 89 participants in the 2nd graders had a mean score of 3.80 (SD=0.73); 91 participants in the 3rd graders had a mean score of 3.79 (SD=0.77) and the 93 participants in the 4th graders had a mean score of 3.85 (SD=0.69).

Table 5. ANOVA Results Comparing Grade Levels on Departmental Satisfaction Level

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | p |
|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|------|
| Between Groups | 1580 | 3 | .527 | | |
| Within Groups | 179.109 | 360 | .498 | 1.059 | .367 |
| Total | 180.690 | 363 | | | |

Table 5 illustrates the ANOVA results which showed that the effect of grade level on departmental satisfaction level of ELT students was not significant [$F(3, 360) = 1.059, p = 0.367$].

Analysis of the data revealed that, of the six values, pre-service ELT teachers gave most importance to achievement ($M=3.43, SD=.61$) and then altruism ($M=3.31, SD=.56$), safety ($M=3.20, SD=.67$), comfort ($M=2.87, SD=.75$), autonomy ($M=2.68, SD=.81$) and status ($M=2.53, SD=.90$), (see table 6).

Multiple number of independent-samples t-tests were conducted to compare ELT students' values in male and female conditions.

Table 6. t-test Results Comparing Males and Females on Vocational Values

| Values | Gender | n | Mean | Std. Dev. | t | df | p |
|-------------|--------|-----|--------|-----------|--------|-----|-------|
| Achievement | M | 76 | 3.5000 | .61101 | 1.146 | 362 | .253 |
| | F | 288 | 3.4097 | .61103 | | | |
| | Total | 364 | 3,4285 | ,61128 | | | |
| Autonomy | M | 76 | 2.8728 | .92695 | 2.368 | 362 | .018* |
| | F | 288 | 2.6273 | .76825 | | | |
| | Total | 364 | 2,6785 | ,80879 | | | |
| Status | M | 76 | 2.6217 | .95873 | 0.999 | 362 | .319 |
| | F | 288 | 2.5052 | .88982 | | | |
| | Total | 364 | 2,5295 | ,90452 | | | |
| Altruism | M | 76 | 3.3516 | .49597 | 0.716 | 362 | .475 |
| | F | 288 | 3.3000 | .57371 | | | |
| | Total | 364 | 3,3108 | ,55811 | | | |
| Comfort | M | 76 | 2.8711 | .68889 | 0.790 | 362 | .937 |
| | F | 288 | 2.8634 | .76195 | | | |
| | Total | 364 | 2,8650 | ,74637 | | | |
| Safety | M | 76 | 3.0958 | .59098 | -1.471 | 362 | .142 |
| | F | 288 | 3.2225 | .68678 | | | |
| | Total | 364 | 3,1960 | ,66913 | | | |

*: $p < .05$

Table 6 illustrates the t-test results of six values. There was not a significant difference in the achievement scores of males ($M=3.50$, $SD=0.61$) and females ($M=3.41$, $SD=0.61$); $t(362) = 1.146$, $p=0.253$. There was a significant difference in the autonomy scores of males ($M=2.87$, $SD=0.93$) and females ($M=2.63$, $SD=0.77$); $t(362) = 2.368$, $p=0.018$. Male pre-service ELT teachers gave more importance to the autonomy value than females. There was not a significant difference in the status scores of males ($M=2.62$, $SD=0.96$) and females ($M=2.51$, $SD=0.89$); $t(362) = 0.999$, $p=0.319$. There was not a significant difference in the altruism scores of males ($M=3.35$, $SD=0.50$) and females ($M=3.30$, $SD=0.57$); $t(362) = 0.716$, $p=0.475$. There was not a significant difference in the comfort scores of males ($M=2.87$, $SD=0.69$) and females ($M=2.86$, $SD=0.76$); $t(362) = 0.790$, $p=0.937$. There was not a significant difference in the safety scores of males ($M=3.10$, $SD=0.60$) and females ($M=3.22$, $SD=0.69$); $t(362) = -1.471$, $p=0.142$.

Multiple number of ANOVA were conducted to compare ELT students' vocational values in four grade level conditions.

Table 7. ANOVA Results Comparing Grade Levels on Vocational Values

| Values | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | p | Tukey |
|-------------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------|----------------------|
| Achievement | Between Groups | 11.864 | 3 | 3.955 | 11.502 | .000* | 1-3, 1-4 2-3, 2-4 |
| | Within Groups | 123.779 | 360 | .344 | | | |
| | Total | 135.643 | 363 | | | | |
| Autonomy | Between Groups | .108 | 3 | .036 | .055 | .983 | |
| | Within Groups | 237.347 | 360 | .659 | | | |
| | Total | 237.455 | 363 | | | | |
| Status | Between Groups | 4.690 | 3 | 1.563 | 1.926 | .125 | |
| | Within Groups | 292.305 | 360 | .812 | | | |
| | Total | 296.995 | 363 | | | | |
| Altruism | Between Groups | 1.388 | 3 | .463 | 1.492 | .217 | |
| | Within Groups | 111.685 | 360 | .310 | | | |
| | Total | 113.073 | 363 | | | | |
| Comfort | Between Groups | .201 | 3 | .067 | .119 | .949 | |
| | Within Groups | 202.018 | 360 | .561 | | | |
| | Total | 202.219 | 363 | | | | |
| Safety | Between Groups | 5.583 | 3 | 1.861 | 4.268 | .006* | 1-2, 1-3 1-4 |
| | Within Groups | 156.946 | 360 | .436 | | | |
| | Total | 162.529 | 363 | | | | |

*. $p < .05$

Table 7 illustrates the ANOVA results. There was a significant effect of the grade level on achievement scores of ELT students at the $p < .01$ level for the four conditions [$F(3, 360) = 11.502$, $p = 0.000$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean achievement scores of the 1st graders ($M = 3.69$, $SD = 0.65$) was significantly different than the 3rd graders ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 0.60$) and the 4th graders ($M = 3.25$, $SD = 0.53$). However, mean achievement scores of the 1st graders did not significantly differ from the 2nd graders ($M = 3.51$, $SD = 0.56$). Mean achievement scores of the 2nd graders did not significantly differ from the 3rd and 4th graders. And mean achievement scores of the 3rd graders also did not significantly differ from the 4th graders. 1st and 2nd graders gave more importance to the achievement value than the 3rd and 4th graders.

There was not a significant effect of the grade level on the mean autonomy scores [$F(3, 360) = 0.055$, $p = 0.983$], the mean status scores [$F(3, 360) = 1.926$, $p = 0.125$], the mean altruism scores [$F(3, 360) = 1.492$, $p = 0.217$] and the mean comfort scores [$F(3, 360) = 0.119$, $p = 0.949$]. A one-way analysis of variance showed that the effect of grade level on mean safety scores of the ELT students was significant [$F(3, 360) = 4.268$, $p = 0.006$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean safety scores of the 1st graders ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 0.52$) was significantly different than the

2nd graders (M=3.13, SD=0.60), 3rd graders (M=3.11, SD=0.74) and the 4th graders (M=3.13, SD=0.76). However, mean safety scores of the 2nd graders did not significantly differ from the 3rd graders and the 4th graders. And also, mean safety scores of the 3rd graders did not significantly differ from the 4th graders. 1st graders gave more importance to the safety value than the other three graders.

Table 8. TMIQ, PRP and Correspondence Scores

| Vocational values | TMIQ | | PRP | | Correspondence | |
|-------------------|------|---------|------|---------|----------------|---------|
| | Mean | Std. D. | Mean | Std. D. | Mean | Std. D. |
| Achievement | 3.43 | 0.61 | 3.22 | 0.57 | -0.21 | 0.07 |
| Autonomy | 2.68 | 0.81 | 1.66 | 0.51 | -1.02 | 0.31 |
| Status | 2.53 | 0.90 | 1.73 | 0.62 | -0.80 | 0.33 |
| Altruism | 3.31 | 0.56 | 3.12 | 0.53 | -0.19 | 0.08 |
| Comfort | 2.87 | 0.75 | 1.88 | 0.49 | -0.98 | 0.26 |
| Safety | 3.20 | 0.67 | 3.09 | 0.65 | -0.11 | 0.08 |

Table 6 illustrates correspondence scores calculated to identify the quality of the match between the ELT students' vocational values and the work environment. Since lower correspondence scores (differences between vocational value scores and PRP scores) indicate better fits, the safety correspondence has the best correspondence score and then altruism and achievement. However correspondence scores for the autonomy, status and status are large, which represent worse correspondences. These results suggest that the majority of ELT students believe that becoming a teacher will probably satisfy their needs associated to achievement, altruism and safety. However, majority of ELT students believe that becoming a teacher will probably not satisfy their needs for; autonomy (creativity, responsibility and autonomy), status (advancement, recognition, authority, social status) and comfort (activity, independence, variety, compensation, security and working conditions).

Table 9. Regression Results of Correspondence Scores Predicting Satisfaction

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | p |
|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|---------|-------|
| Regression | 26,968 | 6 | 4,495 | | |
| Residual | 12,275 | 357 | ,034 | 130,718 | ,000* |
| Total | 39,243 | 363 | | | |

*: p < .05

Table 7 illustrates the results of multiple linear regression that was calculated to predict vocational satisfaction based on correspondence scores; achievement, autonomy, status, altruism, comfort and safety. A significant regression equation was found [F (6, 357) =130.718, p=0.000], with an R² of .682. The results of the regression analysis indicated the six predictors; correspondence scores of vocational values, explained 68% of the variance in vocational satisfaction.

Table 10. Multiple Linear Regression Model Parameters (Coefficients)

| Variable | B | SE(B) | β | t | p |
|----------------------------|--------|-------|---------|---------|-------|
| (Constant) | ,869 | ,064 | | 13,589 | ,000 |
| Achievement-correspondence | -1,711 | ,234 | -,383 | -7,317 | ,000* |
| Autonomy-correspondence | -,371 | ,034 | -,348 | -10,889 | ,000* |
| Status-correspondence | -,288 | ,035 | -,286 | -8,275 | ,000* |
| Altruism-correspondence | -1,616 | ,149 | -,408 | -10,858 | ,000* |
| Comfort-correspondence | -,386 | ,040 | -,305 | -9,646 | ,000* |
| Safety-correspondence | ,588 | ,184 | ,147 | 3,202 | ,001* |
| R ² | | | ,682 | | |

*: p < .05

Table 10 illustrates details of multiple linear regression model parameters. All of the correspondence scores was significant predictors of vocational satisfaction at 0.05 level. Pre-service ELT teachers' predicted vocational satisfaction is equal to 0.869 -1.711 (achievement) – 0.371 (autonomy) – 0.288 (status) -1.616 (altruism) -0.386 (comfort) +0.588 (safety).

Discussion and Conclusion

Gender difference on departmental satisfaction revealed in this study is both supported (Tessema, Ready, & Malone, 2012; Gill, Herbert, Mathur, & Nagpal, 2011) and not supported (Perkmen & Sivrikaya, 2016) by the literature. Since this study was conducted in one department and departmental satisfaction was measured with only one item it is difficult to generalize its findings to other studies.

In this study, pre-service ELT teachers valued achievement most followed by altruism, safety, comfort, autonomy and status, which support the literature. Scott and Dinham (1999) stated that the strongest motivational factors for teachers are altruism, commitment and personal improvement. (Scott & Dinham, 1999). Erten (2015) also noted that altruistic reasons that were rated as the most important reasons for choosing teaching as a career (Erten, 2015). Olitalia, Wijaya, Almakiyah, & Saraswati (2013) stated that aaltruistic is one of the characters to be desire in a teacher (Olitalia, Wijaya, Almakiyah, & Saraswati, 2013). Suditu (2012) also expressed that altruism and achievement are most observed vales among teachers (Suditu, 2012).

The results of this study with regards to differences of vocational values between males and females partially support earlier research. Hales and Hartman's study (1998) which was conducted on elementary teachers found that means for females were above the means for males on altruism. Similarly, multiple research also reported gender differences of individuals on different value types

(Hales & Hartman, 1998; Hammond, 1996; Veugelers, 1995; Unos, 2017; Moses, Wilfried F, & Berry, 2016; Elien & Antonia, 2007).

The only grade level difference revealed in this study was in autonomy value which is partially supported by the literature. Besides the autonomy value, literature also states some other values differs by grade level (Wijting, Arnold, & AConrad, 1978). Shamashuddin (2008) also states that the emphasis on values differs at different grade levels and in different institutions (Shamashuddin, 2008). Suditu (2012) also noted grade level differences among pre-school and primary education and philology pre-service teachers (Suditu, 2012).

Regarding the correspondence scores, it is important to note that high level of correspondences was observed in achievement, altruism and safety values. However, correspondence scores were low for the values; “autonomy, status and comfort compared to others. Besides, all six of the correspondence scores were significant on predicted future job satisfaction. These results suggest that work adjustment theory offers a good framework for understanding pre-service ELT teachers’ satisfaction level with becoming a music teacher.

This study has its own limitations like every other study. First, this article is based solely on quantitative data obtained through a self-report survey so that it may be expanded by conducting in-depth analysis via qualitative methods. Second limitation of this study is that sampling was used for data collection, so that, larger samples or actual population represent more accurate results. In general, this study extends our knowledge on pre-service ELT teachers’ values and predicting their occupational satisfaction in regard to TWA.

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Pre-service Teachers' Views about Digital Teaching Materials

Özden Demirkanⁱ

Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey

Abstract

This study aims to reveal pre-service teachers' views about digital teaching materials which they have in their Technologies in Teaching and Materials Design course. In this qualitative study, phenomenological design was used. The participants of the study consist of 55 pre-service teachers studying and taking the above-mentioned course at Gazi Faculty of Education. Data were collected through "Written Form for Pre-service Teachers' Views about Digital Teaching Materials" developed by the researcher. Content analysis method was used to analyze the qualitative data collected. Findings of the study showed that pre-service teachers found the preparation of digital teaching materials useful, interesting and gripping, suitable for the age of technology, effective for their field of study. They also stated that the use of this kind of digital teaching materials needed to be more common. The study also revealed that pre-service teachers found Web 2.0 tools which they learnt to use such as presentation (Emaze and Powtoon), discussion (Padlet and Voice Threat) and interactive evaluation (Kahoot and Plickers) technically different, unusual, attractive, user-friendly, enhancing creativity and visually rich. The most frequently emphasized strengths of using these tools in the classroom were being interesting, attention grabbing, enhancing motivation and permanence, enabling active participation and effective discussion atmosphere, providing instant feedback. The limitations of using these digital teaching materials in the classroom were stated as such: the need for internet, many characters and features not being free of charge, it may lead to distraction if not used effectively, students might make insulting comments on each other, some students might feel unhappy when their faults are revealed, competition may lead to ambition. Challenges of using these tools in the classroom were stated as such: the need for fast internet connection, some tools have parts that are not free of charge and it hinders complete use of the tool, some tools are difficult to use. Considering the views regarding how digital teaching materials would support teaching process, it was found out that pre-service teachers thought such materials would draw and raise attention, make the lesson enjoyable; diverse, original and effective content would be created; more practice would be possible, learning would become permanent and easier; students' active participation would be enabled; students' motivation would be

ⁱ **Özden Demirkan**, Academic Member, PhD, Gazi University, Gazi Faculty of Education, Department of Educational Sciences, Ankara, Turkey

Email: oozden@gazi.edu.tr

increased; effective communication would be possible; technology would be involved in the process; students' success would increase.

Keywords: Digital teaching materials, pre-service teachers, Web 2.0, Technologies in Teaching and Materials Design course

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Introduction

In the digital era, technology has a key role worldwide. Many social systems such as industry, economy and communication expect educational institutions to raise individuals who can use technology. Education system expects the same function from teachers (Akpınar, 2003). According to the standards of International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE, 2016), teachers seek opportunities to improve learning and teaching facilities and support student success: teachers develop a common vision for a learning environment supported with technology; they support the idea of providing students with a chance to equally reach educational technologies, digital content and learning opportunities in order to meet different needs of all students; they become a model for their colleagues in recognizing, discovering, adopting, evaluating and enhancing new digital resources and tools for learning. According to the standards of Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT, 2012), teachers develop themselves as reflective practitioners who show that educational technologies and processes based on contemporary content and pedagogy could be effectively practised; they make learning easy by creating, using, evaluating and managing effective learning environment. Pre-service teachers who are trained to teach future generations need to use technology as a tool, integrate it with their fields, and use it with the most suitable pedagogical methods. Faculties of Education have a major role in equipping pre-service teachers with these qualifications and the course of Technologies in Teaching and Materials Design, which was included in teaching curriculum from 1998 on as a compulsory vocational course by the Council of Higher Education, has a significant role.

As Yaman (2018) states, if technological support could be used timely and effectively for the new generation, who are born into the era of technology and are called digital local or z generation, it would enhance learning. Here the two important words to be highlighted about technological support are using it timely and effectively. Digital teaching materials which can be used in classrooms are also important technological supports. Although digital teaching materials seem to be related with technology, actually it is closely related with educational status which is the third structural dimension of educational program or of a course, also known as learning and teaching processes. They can also be effectively used in the evaluation step of the course, depending on the use. The important thing to

be emphasized here is that technology should not be used as a purpose, but as a tool to reach the goals. The need to know how to use digital tools existing in the digital era and to focus on how to include such tools timely and effectively in the teaching process as teaching materials is of great significance, and studies on this issue are needed.

In one study, teachers' views about digital educational tools used in teaching English language were explored. As the results of the study revealed, teachers stated that digital tools motivated students and improved their skills by making them eager to learn the language (Celik and Aytin, 2014). As Demirel maintains, using technology in learning environment makes teaching more motivating as the lessons are presented effectively. At this point, teachers need to have the required pedagogical approaches and skills to integrate technology into their lessons (Eryaman, 2007; Basal, 2016). Richards also highlights that using technology in teaching has become more important today because teachers need to keep pace with students' knowledge of technology (Richards, 2014). Designing and developing interactive materials with new technologies and organizing resources for teaching are elaborate skills for teachers (Schlosser and Anderson, 1994; qtd. in Basal, 2016). It's true that technology offers many options in making teaching interesting and more productive in terms of development (Yordming, 2017). There are various technologies in free web sources which can support the process for teachers and learners. One of these technologies is Web 2.0 technologies. Web 2.0 technologies offer a variety of options to prepare digital teaching materials.

Creating digital teaching materials require a different approach and skill. A relevant study revealed that teacher training programs were inadequate in equipping their students with the knowledge and ability to integrate technology effectively with their curriculum or teaching methods; well-planned activities for designing and developing digital materials contributed positively to foreign language teachers' attitudes toward technology; a statistically meaningful difference was detected between teachers' attitudes toward Web 2.0 tools introduced in practice in line with the study; practical training for developing digital materials contributed to teachers' integrating technology effectively with their lessons. It was emphasized that integration of both pre-service and in-service applied technology training into their fields significantly helped teachers to adopt technological approaches (Basal, 2016).

At this point one is curious about the views of pre-service teachers regarding the use of digital teaching materials in teacher training. These being the starting point, this study reveals the views of pre-service teachers about digital teaching materials and hopefully it will contribute to literature in this field.

Aim

This study aims to reveal pre-service teachers' views about digital teaching materials which they have in their course named Technology in Teaching and Materials Design. In line with this aim, answers were sought for the following questions:

1. What are pre-service teachers' views about the preparation of digital teaching materials?
2. What are pre-service teachers' views about Web 2.0 tools for digital presentation, discussion and interactive evaluation, which they learnt to use?
3. What are pre-service teachers' views about the problems faced when preparing digital teaching materials?
4. What are pre-service teachers' views about how digital teaching materials would support the process in teaching?

Method

Phenomenological Design was used in this qualitative study. Phenomenological Design focuses on phenomena which do not have detailed and deep understanding despite being aware. In addition, research in phenomenology aims to find out what a phenomenon (event, concept, experience, perception etc.) means in individuals' lives (Yildirim and Simsek, 2016). This study is an attempt to discuss joint meaning of pre-service teachers' experiences in the phenomenon of preparing digital teaching materials, which is also a requirement for research in phenomenology (Creswell, 2014). The main focus of this study is the views regarding the phenomenon of preparing digital teaching materials in the course named Technology in Teaching and Materials Design.

Participants

Participants of the study consist of 55 pre-service teachers who are sophomores studying English Language Teaching and taking the course named Technology in Teaching and Materials Design in the Faculty of Education at Gazi University in the spring semester of 2017-2018 Academic year. Details about the participants are shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Participants of the Study

| Groups | Gender | | Total | % |
|-------------|--------|------|-------|-------|
| | Female | Male | | |
| Classroom 1 | 16 | 6 | 22 | 40.00 |
| Classroom 2 | 11 | 4 | 15 | 27.27 |
| Classroom 3 | 15 | 3 | 18 | 32.73 |
| Total | 42 | 13 | 55 | 100 |

As seen in Table 1, participants of the study consist of 55 pre-service teachers. There are 22 pre-service teachers in Classroom 1 (16 females, 6 males), 15 pre-service teachers in Classroom 2 (11 females, 4 males), and 18 pre-service teachers in Classroom 3 (15 females, 3 males).

6 pre-service teachers who previously used some Web 2.0 tools (Kahoot and Padlet) were excluded from the participants. Also, pre-service teachers who were repeat students were excluded from the participants as they took the course before and did not have to attend classes.

Data Collection Tools

“Written form for Pre-service Teachers’ Views about Digital Teaching Materials” was prepared in order to reveal pre-service teachers’ views about digital teaching materials which they had in the course named Technology in Teaching and Materials Design. When developing the form, the researcher did literature review first, examined studies, and completed the draft of the form by writing four open-ended questions which seeked answers to research questions. The researcher got opinions of two experts in this field about the form and edited punctuation in one item in line with the experts’ opinions. Besides, the form was applied to a student outside the study in order to detect required time for the questions and to test clarity of the questions. No changes were needed about the form since no problems occurred, so final draft was completed. Questions related to pre-service teachers in the form of views are as follows: 1. What are your views about preparing digital teaching materials? 2.a. What are your views about the technical features of Web 2.0 tools of presentation (Emaze and Powtoon), discussion (Padlet and Voice Threat) and interactive evaluation (Kahoot and Plickers), which you learnt to use? b. What do you think are the strengths and limitations of using these digital teaching materials in classrooms? Please explain in separate groups. 3. What are the problems you face when preparing digital teaching materials? 4. Please explain your views about how digital teaching materials would support teaching process.

Written form of views is used to collect detailed data from the participants and interpret them instead of quantitative data (Cepni, 2012; Yildirim & Simsek, 2008). Participants write about their views together with the reasons regarding open-ended questions in the form (Merriam, 2009).

Application and Data Collection

This study was carried out by the researcher in the course named Technology in Teaching and Materials Design taken by sophomores studying English Language Teaching at the Faculty of Education in Gazi University in the spring semester of 2017-2018 academic year. The above-mentioned course was offered for 4 hours a week in the curriculum; 2 hours of theory, 2 hours of practice. Considering the content and scope of the course, starting from the fifth week of the semester, the weekly two-hour theoretical part was completed within the normal process. For the remaining two-hour practice part, a Web 2.0 tool was introduced every week, pre-service teachers were taught in details how to use them, sample course materials were examined and prepared. The order of introduction and use of Web 2.0 tools in the process is as follows: Emaze, PowToon, Padlet, Voice Threat, Kahoot, Plickers. In the selection of these digital tools, three categories were determined, namely presentation, discussion and interactive evaluation, and two tools for each category were chosen. The reasons for choosing these Web 2.0 tools are that they can be used in educational process, they are free of charge, they are user-friendly. Besides, considering the department of the participants, the tools had to be suitable for using in English language teaching. The process was completed in 6 weeks, 12 class hours. Pre-service teachers were asked to prepare samples regarding the tools introduced and used. They had to do this out of class and about their field of study. For the preparation of samples, participants were told that they could check the videos on the researcher's portal called Vitamin Ogretmen if they needed (Emaze; <http://www.vitaminogretmen.com/videolar/1754#>, PowToon: <http://www.vitaminogretmen.com/videolar/1840>, Kahoot and Plickers; <http://www.vitaminogretmen.com/videolar/1619>). The researcher provided the participants with necessary support and feedback individually out of class, via email.

Once the six-week process was completed, "Written Feedback Form regarding Pre-Service Teachers' Views about Digital Teaching Materials", which was prepared by the researcher, was given to the participants by allocating free time to fill in that form. Forms were applied by the researcher.

Data Analysis

Content analysis method was used for the analysis of the qualitative data. Content analysis enables the revelation and comparison of world views, attitudes, prejudices, opinions. Similar data are gathered around common themes (Marvasti, 2004). The forms were numbered first in the study. Within this context, written forms of the data were coded, then they were combined under sub-themes depending on similarity in meaning, the sub-themes were gathered under main themes. In the final step of content analysis, the relations among the themes which were obtained in the light of the data were determined and findings were explained. In order to identify the reliability of coding, the coding list prepared by the researcher separately for each question was also used by another researcher

and the coding process was completed. The codings provided by the two researchers were matched and differences were identified. Miles and Huberman's (1994) Agreement Reliability = $\frac{x}{x+y}$ formula was used and coding match percentage was calculated separately for each question. Accordingly, coding match percentages were; 82% for the first question, 80% for the second question, 82% for the third question, and 81% for the fourth question.

Findings

Pre-service Teachers' Views regarding the Preparation of Digital Teaching Materials

First of all, pre-service teachers' views regarding the preparation of digital teaching materials were examined. Findings obtained as a result of the interviews are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Pre-service Teachers' Views regarding the Preparation of Digital Teaching Materials

| Theme | Sub-themes | Sample Views of Pre-service Teachers |
|---|---|--|
| Preparation of Digital Teaching Materials | Useful | S6 "Our era is the era of technology. Even three-year-old children can use mobile phones, tablets etc. Thus, using technological materials at school will keep pace with the era and make education more fun because we had fun while preparing and using ... their use should be taught and made common." |
| | Interesting and attention-grabbing | |
| | Suitable for Technological Era, modern, updated | S8 "I wish such programs had been used in our time, then we would have been at a very different level. The use of these tools should be made more common." |
| | Effective in teaching English | S10 "I found them really useful in general. They are effective materials in teaching English. These are different and convenient materials unlike ordinary teaching materials." |
| | Fun to prepare and use | |
| | Should be used more commonly | S13 "Really effective in teaching English. It is appropriate for English." |
| | Making teaching and learning easy | S22 "They were quite fun. They were the ones for which I told myself 'if I used in the classroom, students would love them'. Besides, I had fun while preparing materials." |
| | Economical | S23 "In my opinion the use of these materials is really interesting and useful. They particularly develop our creativity." |
| | Appealing to more than one sense | S31 "With the developing technology, smart phones, smart boards, using social media are at their peak. We live in an age when little children can download and play games on the tablet even before they learn to speak. As a teacher, it would be boring trying to catch up with them by using traditional materials. It would be more effective to keep pace with them on a platform which they know well and where they have fun. So, I think that preparing and using course materials on digital platforms is useful and convenient." |
| | Unusual, different | |
| | Enhancing creativity | |
| | Enhancing self-confidence | |
| | Motivating for the course | S34 "For me it is quite useful. These are applications which revive visual intelligence." |
| | Reviving visual intelligence | S35 "For me preparing digital teaching materials is more economical and interesting compared to traditional teaching materials." |
| | Enhancing permanency | S44 "I think they are very useful. I believe that such digital programs should be used more commonly." |
| | Although using some of the tools can be difficult, the results make happy | S46 "If I hadn't taken such a course, I would feel insufficient when I become a teacher. All pre-service teachers need to know about these tools and the use of such tools should become more common." |

* Pre-service teachers have more than one view.

*Views were ordered from the most frequent ones to the least.

When pre-service teachers' views about the preparation of digital teaching materials were examined from Table 2, it was found that more than half of the participants (f=38) stated it was useful. In addition, it was found that pre-service teachers regarded preparing digital teaching materials as interesting and attention grabbing, suitable for the technological era, modern, up-to-date, effective in teaching English, fun and they stated that its use had to be made more common, respectively. Moreover, it was stated to be making learning easy, economical, appealing to more than one sense, unusual and different. There were also views emphasizing that preparing materials in the digital environment improved creativity, enhanced self-confidence, motivating for the lessons, reviving visual intelligence and increasing permanency. Other than these views, there were also views, very few though, stating that although it could be challenging at first to prepare digital materials, the results made happy.

Pre-service Teachers' Views about Web 2.0 Tools for Presentation, Discussion and Interactive Evaluation, which They Learnt to Use

In the second step of the findings of the study, pre-service teachers views regarding Web 2.0 tools for presentation, discussion and interactive evaluation were examined in line with the second sub-question. As a result of the interviews, the findings regarding Emaze and Powtoon were shown in Table 3; findings regarding Padlet and Voice threat in Table 4; and findings regarding Kahoot and Plickers in Table 5.

Pre-service Teachers' Views regarding Emaze and Powtoon Presentation Tools

Table 3. Pre-service Teachers' Views regarding Emaze and Powtoon Presentation Tools

| Theme | Sub-themes | Sample Views of Pre-service Teachers |
|---|--|--|
| Technical Features of Emaze and Powtoon presentation tools | Rich in visual materials | S9 "You can choose and set everything your way, which enhances creativity." |
| | Useful | S13 "Visually quality. Presentations in any field could be prepared, templates are various." |
| | Unusual and different from traditional presentation tools | S16 "Visually rich. Also rich in 3D transitions and animation." |
| | Enhancing creativity | S20 "Templates to be used are so rich. There are templates about different themes and that's effective." |
| | Templates regarding different themes are various and effective | S32 "Very different from other presentation tools I know and they are also user-friendly. Besides, I think that they would be very useful in education process." |
| | Easy to add videos, pictures and sounds | |
| | Quality | |
| | Rich in 3D transition and animation features | |
| | User-friendly | |

| | |
|---|---|
| Easy to share on social media | |
| Strengths of using these presentation tools in the classroom | Interesting and attention grabbing for the student |
| | Enhancing focus |
| | Making the lesson fun |
| | Increasing motivation |
| | Enhancing permanency |
| | Effective in teaching English language |
| Limitations of using these presentation tools in the classroom | Need for internet, downloading unavailable |
| | Many characters and features not being free |
| | Distracting if not used effectively |
| | Powtoon is difficult to use, time-consuming, requires higher skills |

* Pre-service teachers have more than one view.

*Views were ordered from the most frequent ones to the least.

When pre-service teachers' views regarding Emaze and Powtoon presentation tools in Table 3 were examined, it was found that participants stated that technically these presentation tools were rich in visual aspects, they were useful, unusual and different from traditional presentation tools, they enhanced creativity, templates about different themes were rich and effective, it was easy to add videos, pictures, and sounds, they were quality, 3D transitions and animation features were rich, they were user-friendly and easy to share on social media. For strengths of using Emaze and Powtoon presentation tools, pre-service teachers stated that they were interesting and attention grabbing for the students; they enhanced focusing; they made the lessons fun; they enhanced motivation and permanency; finally, they were effective in teaching English language. Participant pre-service teachers stated that they needed internet to use these presentation tools, the tools could not be used without internet connection, and they regarded this as a limitation. Furthermore, some other limitations stated by the participant pre-service teachers were that many characters and features were not free, those that were free were not sufficient in terms of variety, these presentation tools could distract students if not used effectively. Participants also stated that Powtoon required higher skills and it was difficult to use, and it was time consuming.

Pre-service Teachers' Views regarding Padlet and Voice Threat Discussion Tools

Table 4. Pre-service Teachers' Views regarding Padlet and Voice Threat Discussion Tools

| Theme | Sub-themes | Sample Views of Students |
|---|--|--|
| Technical Features of Emaze and Powtoon presentation tools | Practical | S14 <i>"Links can be copied and pasted, sounds can be used to comment, write or to add videos, which enriches the tool."</i> |
| | User-friendly | S28 <i>"It is user-friendly. We can also use it on our smart phones."</i> |
| | Different | S32 <i>"It looks like social media but it is educational."</i> |
| | Suitable for teaching English language | S43 <i>"Adaptation of traditional discussion atmosphere into digital environment. We're bored with traditional methods. Using technology enriched the discussion environment."</i> |
| | Similar to social media | S55 <i>"It's suitable for teaching English language, particularly writing and speaking skills."</i> |
| | Rich in visual aspects | |
| | Can be used on smart phones | |
| | Rich in adding pictures, sounds and videos in discussions (Voice Threat) | |
| Strengths of using these discussion tools in the classroom | Open to different points of views | S7 <i>"Students have the opportunity to see different points of views."</i> |
| | Offers effective discussion environment and enhances interactivity | S5 <i>"It's very effective in taking the interaction in the classroom outside."</i> |
| | Enables critical thinking | S17 <i>"Useful in group homework, it offers interaction and enhances critical thinking."</i> |
| | Offers brainstorming | S18 <i>"A great tool to use in brainstorming in the classroom."</i> |
| | Can be used out of class | S20 <i>"It is a chance for students who are too shy to speak in the classroom. They can actively participate here. It may enhance students' critical thinking skills."</i> |
| | Offering chances to reach more than one view at the same time | S22 <i>"I can reach the views of many friends at the same time."</i> |
| | Enables active participation | S30 <i>"It offers effective discussion environment."</i> |
| | Opinions and views can be shared | S32 <i>"It enables active participation of all students. It also increases interactivity among students."</i> |
| | Offers group work | |
| Limitations of using these discussion tools in the classroom | Students might make insulting comments on each other | S6 <i>"Students might get bored if the comments are too long."</i> S7 <i>"Cannot be used without internet."</i> |
| | Certain points could be missed by students when they post redundantly | S15 <i>"It may get complicated when there are too many posts."</i> S17 <i>"Internet is a must to use it."</i> |
| | Students might get bored with long comments | S21 <i>"Students might make insulting comments on each other's views."</i> |
| | Need for internet to use | |
| | | |

* Pre-service teachers have more than one view.

*Views were ordered from the most frequent ones to the least.

As seen in Table 4, pre-service teachers stated about the technical features of these discussion tools that they were practical, user-friendly, different, suitable for teaching English language, they were similar to social media, rich in visual aspects, they could be used on smart phones, rich in adding pictures, sounds and videos to discussions. As the strengths of Padlet and Voice Threat, participants stated that different points of views could be seen, these tools offered effective discussion environment

and enhanced interactivity, they enabled critical thinking, they offered an environment for brainstorming, they could also be used out of classroom, many different views could be reached at the same time, they enabled active participation, opinions and views could be shared, students had a chance to have group work. On the other hand, as limitations of using these discussion tools, pre-service teachers stated that students might make insulting comments on each other's views, they might miss some parts in the case of too many posts, they might get bored with long comments, and these tools required internet to use.

Pre-service Teachers' Views about Kahoot and Plickers Interactive Evaluation Tools

Table 5. Pre-service Teachers' Views about Kahoot and Plickers Interactive Evaluation Tools

| Theme | Sub-themes | Sample Views of Pre-service Teachers |
|---|---|--|
| Technical Features of these interactive evaluation tools | Very different | S8 <i>"Easy to prepare and use. Great opportunity to add pictures and videos to the questions."</i> |
| | Easy to prepare and use | |
| | Practical | S18 <i>"You may prepare as many questions as you wish, check and use others' questions, add pictures and videos to questions. I've already got addicted to it."</i> |
| | Enable students to add pictures and videos to questions | S55 <i>"Easy to use and prepare; different."</i> |
| | Unlimited number of questions | |
| | <u>Questions prepared by others could be used</u> | |
| Strengths of using these interactive evaluation tools in the classroom | Fun | S1 <i>"It makes asking oral questions fun."</i> |
| | Attention grabbing | S3 <i>"Unusual and attention grabbing ... practice is enabled with questions."</i> |
| | Effective | S8 <i>"Quite fun ... You have the opportunity to evaluate the success of a class quickly. Enables the teacher to revise the subjects."</i> |
| | Being in the game format | |
| | Enable active participation of all students | S12 <i>"Being able to check the statistics and archive them is very important."</i> |
| | Instant feedback | |
| | Offers statistical data which can be archived | S33 <i>"It's fun to deal with questions from different points of views ... There is competition in the classroom and these tools make the lessons interesting, increase permanency."</i> |
| | Enhance motivation | S35 <i>"It's a strength to see the result instantly and correct the mistakes."</i> |
| | Lead to competition | |
| | Enhance interactivity in the classroom | S39 <i>"Their being in the game format makes the process fun."</i> |
| | Practising the subjects | S40 <i>"It's very effective that these tools enable active participation of all students."</i> |
| | Increase permanency | S49 <i>"Bringing technology into the classroom, turning lessons into games."</i> |
| | Draw attention to the lesson | S55 <i>"They are interactive and appeal to the whole class."</i> |
| | Instant evaluation | |
| | Opportunity to revise the subjects | |
| | Integrating technology into the classroom | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Limitations of using these interactive evaluation tools in the classroom | Monitoring mistakes may lead to frustration | S6 <i>"Need for internet may pose problems."</i> |
| | Competition may lead to ambition | S11 <i>"The need for smart phones for Kahoot might be a limitation since using smart phones in secondary and high schools is banned."</i> |
| | Need for internet to use | S35 <i>"Some students might be unhappy with their mistakes monitored."</i> |
| | Smart phones are required (for Kahoot) | S52 <i>"Competition may lead to ambition unnecessarily among students."</i> |
| | | |

* Pre-service teachers have more than one view.

*Views were ordered from the most frequent ones to the least.

As seen in Table 5, regarding Kahoot and Plickers interactive evaluation tools, pre-service teachers stated most frequently (f=42) that these tools were different. It was also found that participants stated these tools were easy to prepare and use, they had the opportunity to add pictures and videos to questions, there were unlimited number of questions, and students might check and use questions prepared by others. The most frequently mentioned (f=48) strength of using Kahoot and Plickers interactive evaluation tools in the classroom was that they were fun, and they made dealing with questions fun. Besides, as for strengths of using these interactive evaluation tools in the classroom, pre-service teachers explained that these tools were interesting and attention grabbing, effective, they were in the game format and enabled active participation of all students, they offered instant feedback and statistical data, the data could be archived, they enhanced motivation and created a competitive atmosphere, they increased interaction in the classroom, they enabled practice, increased permanency, raised attention towards lessons, offered instant evaluation and revision, and these tools integrated technology into the classroom. On the other hand, pre-service teachers stated some views about the limitations of using these tools in the classroom; some students might be unhappy with their mistakes monitored, competition might lead to ambition, internet was required to use these tools, using Kahoot required smart phones.

Pre-service Teachers' Views regarding the Problems Faced in the Preparation of Digital Teaching Materials

In this study, pre-service teachers' views regarding the problems faced in the preparation of digital teaching materials were examined in line with the third sub-question. The findings as a result of the interviews are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Pre-service teachers' views regarding the problems faced in the preparation of digital teaching materials

| Theme | Sub-themes | Sample Views of Pre-service Teachers |
|---|---|---|
| Problems faced in the preparation of digital teaching materials | Need for internet | S2 <i>"I had problems with the internet. Some programs require high internet speed."</i> |
| | Internet speed | S5 <i>"In some tools some of the features were not free and it limited the use of the program and I had to look for alternatives."</i> |
| | In some programs having difficulty at first, but then getting easier after a few trials | S12 <i>"I did not face many problems. I just had problems with the internet when preparing. Some tools were also challenging."</i> |
| | Using some programs can be time consuming | S17 <i>"Using some of the tools may be time consuming but this is quite normal to get good results."</i> |
| | Some programs require good equipment | S35 <i>"At first I had difficulty in using these tools, but after a few attempts I understood that preparing these programs was in fact easy and fun. Besides, internet is required to use them."</i> |
| | Limited use due to sections that require payment | S36 <i>"At first I had difficulty in using these tools because I had never used such tools before. But after a few attempts I saw that they were really easy."</i> |
| | Having difficulty in using some of the programs | S37 <i>"Internet speed being low caused some problems in preparing the materials."</i> |
| | Not being able to use technology well | S42 <i>"Because we were not familiar with these materials, learning to use them took some time."</i> |
| | | S43 <i>"At first I had difficulty in using these digital materials as I had never used them before, but I coped with the problems once I got used to them."</i> |
| | | S52 <i>"I'm not very good at using technology, so I had some difficulty."</i> |

* Pre-service teachers have more than one view.

*Views were ordered from the most frequent ones to the least.

As seen in Table 6, the majority of pre-service teachers (f=46) stated that the need for internet posed problems when preparing digital teaching materials. Participants also emphasized that high speed internet was needed and if not, it would cause problems. For some programs participants had difficulty at first but they found it easier to use after a few attempts. Pre-service teachers also stated that some programs took much time and some programs needed good equipment. The fact that some parts of the tools were not free prevented participants from complete use of the tools. On the other hand, a few pre-service teachers (f=4) explained that they had difficulty in using these tools at first since they were not good at using technology. A few of the pre-service teachers (f=8) stated that they had no problems at all. One of the pre-service teachers explained that s/he did not have any problems because s/he could use the technology very well:

S14 *"I had no problems at all because I'm very good at using technology. So, it was really fun to prepare something with these tools and focus on educational aspects."*

Pre-service Teachers' Views about How Digital Teaching Materials would Support the Process

In the study pre-service teachers' views regarding how digital teaching materials would support the learning and teaching process when they became teachers were analyzed in line with the fourth sub-question. The findings as a result of the interviews are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Pre-service teachers' Views regarding How Digital Teaching Materials would Support the Learning and Teaching Process

| Theme | Sub-themes | Sample Views of Pre-service Teachers |
|--|--|--|
| How digital teaching materials would support the learning and teaching process | Attract attention and raise curiosity | S6 <i>"I think these materials will offer an atmosphere without stress and anxiety."</i> |
| | Make the lesson fun | S7 <i>"I believe that they will be useful in making the lessons more fun and motivating the students."</i> |
| | Create colorful, original and effective content | S13 <i>"I think these materials can increase success in terms of learning and they can draw students' attention because they are fun."</i> |
| | Practising and enhancing permanency | S14 <i>"I believe thanks to these materials I will be able to make the lessons more effective, memorable and fun."</i> |
| | Making learning easy | S30 <i>"I'm sure they will be more interesting for students."</i> |
| | Enable active participation of students | S32 <i>"I think they will be useful in grabbing students' attention. With these materials I'm sure lessons will be more fun. So, student participation, motivation and success will increase."</i> |
| | Increase student motivation | |
| | Communicate effectively and create positive classroom atmosphere | |
| | Offer variety and make the lessons fun | |
| | Make the lessons productive and effective | |
| | Integrate technology into the classroom | |
| | Increase student success | |
| | Offer an atmosphere without stress and anxiety | |
| | Develop oneself | |
| | Enhance interaction | |
| | Make the lessons more exciting | |

* Pre-service teachers have more than one view.

*Views were ordered from the most frequent ones to the least.

As seen in Table 7, majority (f=40) of the pre-service teachers stated that digital teaching materials would be useful in attention grabbing and raising curiosity. Besides it was found that the participants stated digital teaching materials would support teaching by making the lessons fun, creating colorful, original and effective content, enabling practice and enhancing permanency, making learning easier, encouraging active participation of students, enhancing student motivation, communicating effectively and creating a positive classroom atmosphere. It was also found that participants stated using digital teaching materials would offer variety in lessons, they would make the lessons productive and efficient, integrate technology into classrooms, increase student success, offer an environment away from stress and anxiety, improve students, enhance interaction and make the lessons more exciting.

Results, Discussion and Implications

This study aimed to reveal pre-service teachers' views regarding digital teaching materials. Considering the views regarding digital teaching materials, findings of the study revealed that pre-service teachers found these materials useful, attention grabbing and interesting. This finding has similarities with the results of other studies (Celik ve Aytin, 2014; Yamauchi, 2008; Weber, 2014; Putman, 2014; *Rioseco, Paukner-Nogués, ve Ramírez-Muñoz, 2017; Yordming, 2017; Cam, 2018*). Besides, when the views which regarded preparation of digital teaching materials as avantgarde were examined, participants' responses were remarkable. Pre-service teachers emphasized that even little children could use digital tools easily, so they stated that it was of great significance they used such tools. Using such technologies in classrooms would offer an alternative way for the teacher to reach students who were already using them. Using such technologies in the classroom which students are familiar with would enable to build up sound bridges between the teacher and the students (De Weber vd., 2007; Akt, Başal, 2016).

Another remarkable result of the study was the emphasis that digital teaching materials were effective in teaching English language. Another finding was that pre-service teachers stated they found preparing digital teaching materials fun. As literature review shows there are a number of studies on digital tools which found that such digital tools were fun (Kuriakose ve Luwes, 2016; Solmaz and Cetin, 2017; Chou, 2017; Iwamoto, vd., 2017; Yapici ve Karakoyun, 2017; Demirkan, Gurişik and Akın, 2017; Cam, 2018). Another remarkable finding was that pre-service teachers stated use of such digital tools needed to be made more common. In his PhD dissertation titled 'A Suggested Program of Vocational Development to Improve Lecturers' Technological and Pedagogical Field Knowledge', Cam (2018) found that majority of lecturers who participated in his study stated it was their first encounter with such applications and that they had not gone through a contemporary education system based on technology. As Cam emphasized, that finding revealed the fact that teachers were not trained in line with contemporary requirements, which would bring to mind that attempts to make faculties of education contemporary were insufficient. Besides, Cam highlighted that considering innovations in teacher training programs, integrating technology into classrooms was a must (Cam, 2018).

As for pre-service teachers' views regarding Emaze and Powtoon presentation tools, it was found that they regarded these tools as rich in visual aspects, useful and effective, different from traditional presentation tools, unusual and enhancing creativity. Rioseco et al. (2017), in their study to reveal students' views regarding developing learning activities about undergraduate teacher training, found that students had positive views about using Powtoon and that students found it useful in the field of education and it also encouraged challenging creativity not only for teachers but also for students.

Strengths of using Emaze and Powtoon presentation tools in classrooms were stated as such: they grabbed students' attention, enhanced focusing, made the lessons fun, increased motivation and permanency. It was particularly emphasized that these tools were attention-grabbing, different from traditional presentation tools students were familiar with, so they were interesting and they enhanced focusing. Taking these into consideration, it could be maintained that digital tools would affect motivation. Rioseco et al. (2017) similarly found in their study that undergraduate students regarded Powtoon as a motivating tool in order to create interactive materials through animations and videos.

Participant pre-service teachers also stated that these digital presentation tools would be effective in teaching English language. *Literature review shows that there are studies which support this result; Weber (2014), for example, emphasized that these digital presentation tools could be used in any classroom, they would be useful particularly in English language classes. Similarly, Rioseco et al. (2017) agreed on that.* Findings regarding the limitations of using these digital presentation tools revealed that pre-service teachers stated internet was needed to use these tools in the classroom and that they could not be used without internet. While the free parts of these presentation tools cannot be downloaded as they are used in classrooms, they can also be downloaded into a computer by paying certain amount of money and then can be used anywhere without internet. Even though pre-service teachers were informed about this, it was found that many of them ignored it. In addition, it should be remembered that digital environment includes online works. As a limitation of using these tools, participants stated that many of the characters and features were not free of charge, those which were free lacked variety and were not so good. Similarly, Rioseco et al. (2017) found in their study that while some students stated using Powtoon was easy, others stated it was complicated. Besides, some students who participated in their study saw restrictions in free accounts as a serious problem and they stated they could reach many tools and resources only through charged membership. In fact, some features of these tools being free of charge is important in recognizing, using, and experiencing the tool. Once it is proved to be effective, it could be used more productively by paying the required amount. Pre-service teachers were told about this throughout the reserach process and it was emphasized that they could work with these tools comprehensively and fully by paying for them.

Results regarding Padlet and Voice Threat revealed that pre-service teachers stated these tools were practical, user-friendly, different, and suitable for teaching English language. Using these tools is quite easy, which was also emphasized by the participants. It was also found that pre-service teachers highlighted these tools looked like social media, they were rich in visual aspects and they could be used on smart phones. Considering this finding, it could be maintained that students who use smart phones in everyday life and follow social media in this era of technology have fun using smart phones in the classrooms as well.

Strengths of using Padlet and Voice Threat discussion tools were stated as such: different opinions and points of views could be seen, they offer effective discussion environment and enhance interaction, they encourage critical thinking, they offer a suitable atmosphere for brainstorming, they could be used out of classroom, a number of views could be reached at the same time, they enable active participation and group work. Putman (2014), who found similar results with those of this study, asserts that the number of users who could arrange a wall on Padlet at the same time should not be limited. Putnam also maintains that when the changes could be seen instantly, it would enhance the opportunity for collaboration. He regards Padlet as an effective application in order for students to join group discussions and share ideas about learning.

Limitations of using Padlet and Voice Threat discussion tools were stated as such: students might make insulting comments on each other's views, students might miss some parts in the case of too many posts. Deni and Zainal (2015), in their study where they used Padlet in teaching communication skills, stated that some introverted students were not able to cope with their fear of sharing because of reasons resulting from either low self-confidence or anxiety.

As for the findings about Kahoot and Plickers interactive evaluation tools, the study revealed that these tools were easy to prepare and use and they were practical. It could be maintained that pre-service teachers did not have difficulty but had fun in preparing these tools. Strengths of using these tools were stated as such: fun, effective, attention grabbing, being in the game format. Literature review on interactive evaluation tools reveals that there are similar findings in that answering questions by using these interactive tools is fun (Kuriakose and Luwes, 2016; Solmaz and Cetin, 2017; Chou, 2017; Iwamoto, et al., 2017; Yapici and Karakoyun, 2017). Another strength of using these tools in the classroom was that they encouraged active participation of the students and offered instant feedback. Instant feedback helps students to correct their mistakes (Kuriakose & Luwes, 2016). The fact that programs such as Kahoot and Plickers give instant feedback and enable students to correct their mistakes serve to the purpose of interactive evaluation (Zengin, Bars and Simsek, 2017) and show which points need revising or making effort (Sellaheewa, 2012). That interactive evaluation tools such as Kahoot and Plickers give feedback instantly facilitates creating effective teaching and learning environment (Elmahdi et al., 2018).

Some other strengths of using interactive evaluation tools such as Kahoot and Plickers are that they offer statistical data and the data can be archived, they enhance motivation, create competitive atmosphere, increase in-class interaction, enable practice and permanency, raise attention for the lessons, offer quick evaluation and revision, integrate technology into the classroom. Limitations of using these tools in the classroom were stated as such: some students might feel unhappy with their mistakes monitored, competition may lead to ambition, internet is needed to use them and smart phone is required for Kahoot.

Regarding the problems faced in the preparation of digital teaching materials, the findings revealed that the majority of pre-service teachers emphasized the need for internet as a problem. Besides, the participants stated that internet speed needed to be high, otherwise there would be problems in preparing the materials. Participants stated that they had difficulty in using some of the programs at first but it got easier after a few attempts, some programs were time consuming and some others required good equipment. Powtoon, in particular, requires good equipment. As it is a comprehensive program, weak equipment may slow down the speed of work. In fact, this challenging situation does not result from the program itself, it is important that being well-equipped is important to work with such programs. Another problem stated by the participants was that the programs are not completely free. Pre-service teachers explained that since some parts of the program were not free of charge, they did not manage to fully use it. As stated earlier, such programs offer certain features for free to introduce them but the rest are to be paid for. On the other hand, a few pre-service teachers stated that they did not have any problems at all and one of them explained that he did not have any problems because he was really good at using technology. This finding of the study shows that today using technology is a must and the important thing is to use technology as a tool to reach goals, not as a goal to reach. It is a significant requirement that instead of spending effort to use technology, one needs to know how to use it and focus on how it could be effectively integrated into education process.

Findings regarding the views of pre-service teachers about how digital teaching materials would support learning and teaching process show that pre-service teachers' responses were as such: draw attention and raise interest, make the lessons fun, create colorful, original and effective content, allow practice and increase permanency, make learning easy, encourage active participation of students, enhance student motivation, communicate effectively, create positive classroom atmosphere. Participants also stated that such tools would enrich lessons and offer variety, make the lessons productive and efficient, integrate technology into classroom, increase student success, offer an environment away from stress and anxiety. At this point, it could be stated that pre-service teachers get bored in lessons and they need diversity in classes, so they think when they become teachers using digital teaching materials would support the process and they are eager to design and use digital teaching materials. Literature review on this topic revealed that Basal (2016) stated in his research, the participants who learnt to use Web 2.0 tools would prepare materials using these tools, thus, integrating technology into their classrooms. Besides, in his PhD dissertation Cam (2018) mentioned that lecturers and pre-service teachers thought about using these tools in the teaching process for their positive aspects.

In line with the results of the study, possible implications would be as such: these digital teaching materials that would facilitate and enrich arranging educational environment need to be introduced and encourage in-class practices. Therefore, it would raise awareness in making lessons

more effective, productive and fun. In order to do this, arrangements need to be carried out in teacher training programs, digital teaching materials need to be developed in the course Technology in Teaching and Materials Design, and while doing this pedagogical aspect needs to be given priority apart from technological aspect. Qualitative research could be carried out in order to evaluate the effect of digital teaching materials on student success. Considering technical problems in the applications, educational environment could be supported and developed accordingly.

Declaration of Deconfliction: In this study, free versions of Web 2.0 tools were used.

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Reconsidering the Assessment Policy: Practical Use of Liberal Multiple-choice Tests (SAC Method)

Kürşat Cesurⁱ

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Çanakkale, Turkey

Abstract

Examinees' performances are assessed using a wide variety of different techniques. Multiple-choice (MC) tests are among the most frequently used ones. Nearly, all standardized achievement tests make use of MC test items and there is a variety of ways to score these tests. The study compares number right and liberal scoring (SAC) methods. Mixed methods sequential explanatory research design was used which consists of both quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data. A test with ten questions was conducted to 73 prospective English teachers who were selected purposively and they were asked why they had chosen more than one option in the second part of the test. Priority was on the quantitative data obtained from the test results. Qualitative data were collected using participants' explanations for their answers. The analysis of the qualitative findings was used to explain the findings of the quantitative results. The results reveal that liberal scoring method rewards partial knowledge and penalizes blind guessing. It is superior to the conventional scoring methods as it eliminates their disadvantages. Though it eliminates the disadvantages of other scoring methods, liberal scoring method is difficult to be used practically in the classroom. Without a technological help, teachers may find liberal scoring method really difficult. The study also provides teachers with a Microsoft Excel document for practical use of liberal MC tests. With the help of this document, teachers can easily conduct liberal MC tests in their exams. Suggestions to the test designers and policymakers at both national and international levels about the use of liberal scoring method were provided at the end of the study.

Keywords: Scoring Methods for Multiple-choice Tests, Liberal Multiple-choice tests, Partial Knowledge, Blind Guessing

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ⁱ **Kürşat Cesur**, Assit. Prof. Dr., Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Faculty of Education, Foreign Languages Education, English Language Teaching, Çanakkale, Turkey

Email: kursatcesur@comu.edu.tr

Introduction

Testing is an indispensable part of the teaching and learning process. It includes a wide variety of different techniques to assess students' performances. Of these techniques, multiple-choice tests are frequently used by institutions, educators, test designers, teachers, and etc. However, some researchers are really in doubt whether multiple-choice tests properly measure students' true performances or not. Madsen (1983) claims "while multiple-choice tests can be used successfully in testing grammar, they do not seem to work as well in testing conversational ability" (p. 38). Though multiple-choice tests are not good at testing all language skills, they are still being used in many English Proficiency tests at both national and international levels. In Turkey, English proficiency tests such as YDS and YOKDIL (foreign language exams) make use of multiple-choice test items. There are lots of examinees to take these exams, and their exam results must be objectively assessed. Thus, multiple-choice tests are the best choice for standardized achievement tests if the practicality is the main concern. These tests provide "high score reliability, ease of administration and scoring, usefulness in testing varied content, and objective scoring" (Kurz, 1999, p. 3). However, their scoring methods vary, and teachers, test designers, institutions, and educators need to make use of alternative scoring methods for multiple-choice tests.

Literature Review

Multiple-choice questions take many forms. Hughes (1989) points out that "there is a stem and a number of options, one of which is correct, the others being distracters" (p. 59). The question can be given either through an incomplete sentence or through a full question. Despite their advantages, these test items have some disadvantages such as "decreased validity due to guessing and failure to credit partial knowledge" (Kurz, 1999, p. 2). Many scholars provided suggestions to overcome such disadvantages. Different scoring methods for multiple-choice tests have been created so far. Ng and Chan (2009) and Lesage, Valcke, and Sabbe (2013) summarized multiple-choice test methods and listed them as Conventional and Non-conventional scoring methods. While Number right scoring (Kurz, 1999) and Negative marking (Betts, Elder, Hartley, & Trueman, 2009) are among the conventional scoring methods; Liberal multiple-choice (MC) test (Bush, 2001), Elimination testing (Coombs, Miholland, & Womer, 1956), Confidence marking (Gardner-Medvin, 1995), Two-stem multiple-choice question / Permutational multiple-choice question (Farthing, Jones, & McPhee, 1998), Probability Testing and Order-of-preference scheme (Ben-Simon, Budescu, & Nevo, 1997) are among the non-conventional ones.

Nearly all of the multiple-choice tests, including the standardized achievement tests, being applied in Turkey make use of either number right scoring or negative marking. In number right scoring, students are told to pick one of the choices. There is one correct answer, and this scoring

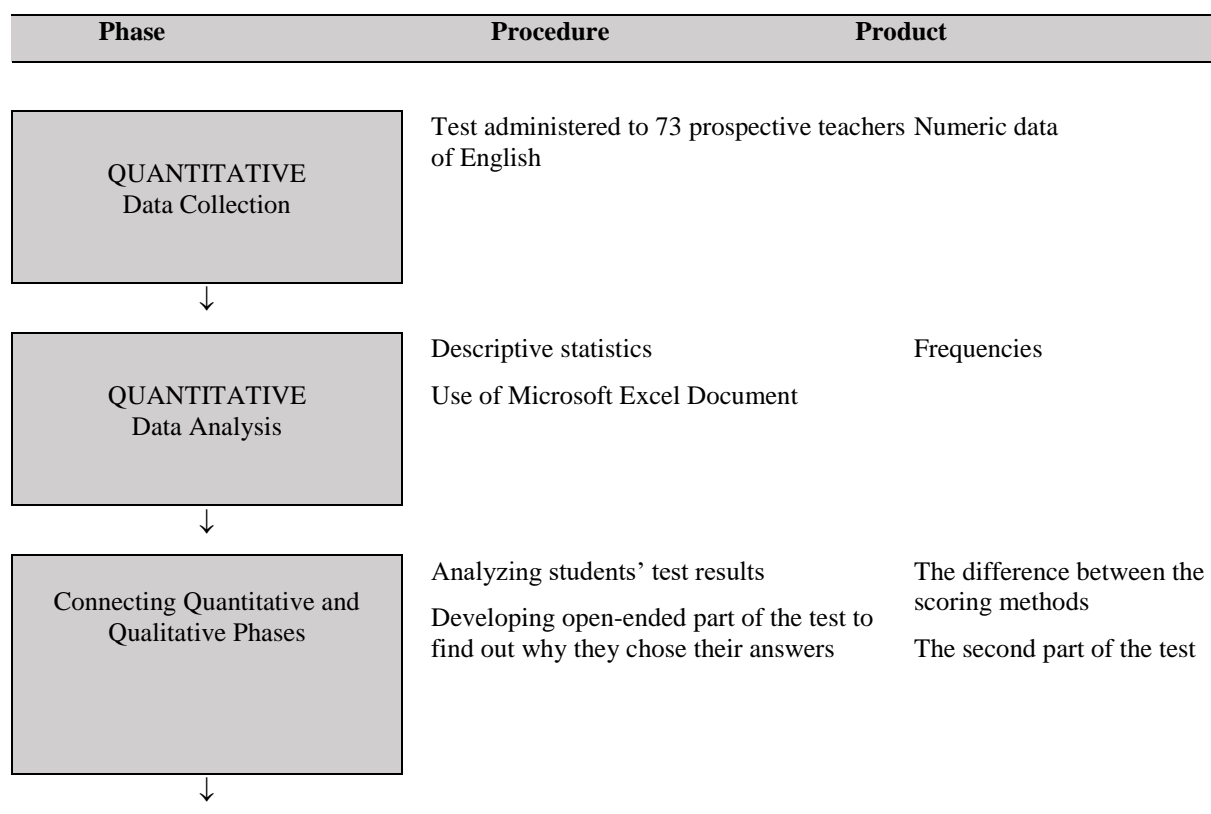
method limits students to use their partial knowledge. In this method, unmarked answers and the incorrect answers have a value of zero. Thus, it encourages blind guessing. Correct options consist of the total test score. In negative marking, students are penalized when they mark incorrect options. Though it is used in order to discourage blind guessing, this type of scoring also discourages students to use their partial knowledge in their exams (Jennings & Bush, 2006).

To reward students' partial knowledge, Bush (2001) made use of liberal / free-choice MC tests. His team made use of four-answer questions in their tests. Later, they shared their experiences of using liberal MC tests. Jennings and Bush (2006) presented the comparison of the conventional number right scoring method and liberal / free-choice scoring method theoretically. In this study, it was aimed to see the differences between the two scoring methods in practical classroom use, and find answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the differences between number right and liberal scoring methods?
2. Does liberal scoring method reward partial knowledge and prevent blind guessing?

Methodology

Mixed methods sequential explanatory research design was used which consists of both quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data (Creswell, 2014).



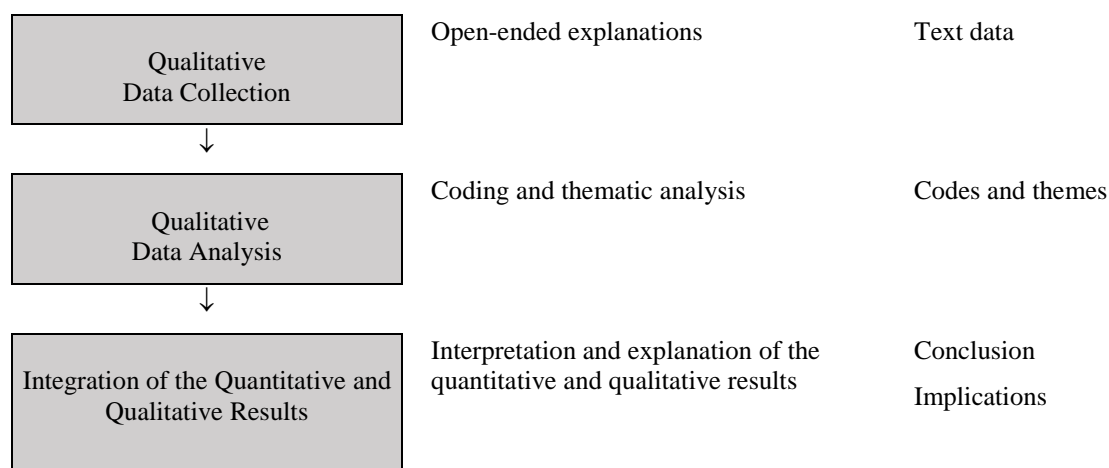


Figure 1. Visual Model for Mixed-Methods Sequential Explanatory Design Procedures (adapted from Ivankova et al., 2006, p. 16)

In the first part (quantitative) of the study, students' answers to the questions were presented using frequencies as a result of which the difference between the two scoring methods was explained. The second phase (qualitative) of the study helped explain, or elaborate on the quantitative results obtained in the first phase (Ivankova, Creswell, and Stick, 2006). The researcher collected the quantitative and qualitative data together, but analyzed the quantitative ones first because priority was on the quantitative data. Later, the analysis of the qualitative findings was used to explain and interpret the results of the quantitative data. The quantitative and qualitative results were integrated in the conclusion and implications part (Creswell, 2014).

Data Collection Tool

In this mixed research method, the researcher conducted a test with ten questions as the primary data collection tool. The questions had been previously asked at the standardized achievement tests such as KPDS (foreign language proficiency examination for state employees), YDS (foreign language exam), and UDS (interuniversity council foreign language exam) in Turkey. As the students' answers to the questions are limited in the representation of the whole picture, the second part of the answer sheet aimed to explain why students have chosen more than one answer in the "Scoring All Choices" part. They were asked to explain how they have found the correct answer in the open-ended part of the answer sheet. The researcher and two other instructors chose the questions and formed an answersheet to collect the data (See Appendix A).

Validity and Trustworthiness

Not only for quantitative studies but also for qualitative ones, the major concerns are the accuracy of the findings and the correct interpretation of the data (Creswell, 1998). As the study consisted of two phases, validity and trustworthiness issues were established considering different

principles suggested by Creswell and Miller (2000). The researcher made use of investigator triangulation and peer debriefing (Cresswell & Miller, 2000). One more coder helped the researcher during the analysis of the data. The other coder was trained for the assessment procedure of the data collection tool. The coder and the researcher analyzed the data separately. Later, they came together and discussed whether there were any inconsistencies or not and reached full-consensus. Moreover, the researcher consulted an expert in the field of Evaluation and Measurement about the face validity of the answer sheet which was used to collect the data.

Research Context

In this study, both number right scoring and liberal scoring methods were used in one test. In the first part (Number right scoring), 1 mark is awarded for a correctly chosen option while 0 marks are awarded for an incorrectly chosen one. In the second part (Liberal scoring), in a question with N options and one correct answer, 1 mark is awarded for a single correctly chosen option and $-1/(N-1)$ for each incorrect one (Bush, 2001; Jennings & Bush, 2006; Warwick, Bush, & Jennings, 2010). The formula for the scoring method can be difficult to figure out for some, especially for teachers aiming to use this method in their classes. Therefore, the following figure makes it clearer to characterize students' level of knowledge for a given answer considering Bradbard, Parker, and Stone's (2004) classification. To simply explain the scoring method, suppose that the teacher asks 25 multiple-choice questions in a test and gives 4 points for each question which makes 100 in total. As in questions 5 and 6 in the following figure, students leaving all the alternatives unmarked (0 points) gets the same score when compared to students marking all the alternatives [$+4$ points (1 correct option) - 4 points (4 incorrect options) = 0 points]. As students are allowed to mark all the alternatives and the teachers are supposed to score all choices, I named the method 'Scoring All Choices' (SAC) method (Cesur, 2009). The name "SAC method" is used in place of liberal (free-choice) scoring method in this study.

| Correct Option | Question | A Student’s Answers | | | | | A Student’s Score for Each Question | Level of Knowledge (Bradbard at al., 2004) | |
|----------------|----------|---------------------|---|---|---|---|--|---|---------------------------|
| A | 1 | A | B | C | D | E | 4 points | Full Knowledge | |
| A | 2 | A | B | C | D | E | 3 points | I am in a dilemma | Partial knowledge |
| A | 3 | A | B | C | D | E | 2 points | One in 3 is correct | |
| A | 4 | A | B | C | D | E | 1 point | I only know this is the incorrect answer | |
| A | 5 | A | B | C | D | E | 0 point | Absence of Knowledge | |
| A | 6 | A | B | C | D | E | 0 Point | | |
| A | 7 | A | B | C | D | E | -1 point | This is not the correct one | Partial Misinformation |
| A | 8 | A | B | C | D | E | -2 points | Both are wrong | |
| A | 9 | A | B | C | D | E | -3 points | None of the three is correct | |
| A | 10 | A | B | C | D | E | -4 points | Full Misinformation | |

Figure 2. Explanation of Liberal Scoring (SAC) Method for Classroom Use

As it can be clearly seen in the figure above, this kind of scoring is successful in crediting partial knowledge (questions 2-4) and discourages blind guessing (questions 6-10). For example, in Question 2, the student is not sure about the correct answer. If he marked only 'B', he would get 0 points in number right scoring method. Now, as he marks both 'A' and 'B', he is rewarded 3 points for his partial knowledge, which means he is quite sure that the other three choices are incorrect. Moreover, in question 4, the student does not know the correct answer, but the only thing he or she knows is that 'E' is not the correct one. Therefore, he or she leaves that option unmarked and gets 1 point out of 4 for that partial knowledge. As for preventing blind guessing, this method works well as it penalizes the incorrectly marked options. As in the 7-10th questions in the figure above, students get -1 point for each incorrect option. If they do not know the answer for sure, they need to leave the options unmarked. Otherwise, they will lose a point for each incorrect answer.

Participants

The researcher made use of purposive sampling which means he chose specific people with a purpose in mind (Ritchie, Lewis, & Elam, 2003). 73 prospective teachers of English at the English Language Teaching Department of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University participated in the study. They were assumed to have a good command of English. Bush (2001) highlights:

Students who are used to conventional MC tests may find the idea of negative marking difficult to accept... The unfamiliar marking scheme and its ramifications must be explained slowly and carefully in advance to avoid any possible misunderstandings, even if the instructions on the test papers are perfectly clear. (p. 161)

Therefore, the participants were informed about the SAC method for 6 lesson hours. Before they actually had the exam for the main study, they had taken 3 different quizzes that were scored using the SAC method. Their answers were discussed and they got familiar with the scoring method. Still, 3 students either did not understand or misunderstood the scoring method in the main study. Therefore, their answers were omitted and 70 prospective teachers' answers to 10 different questions were analyzed.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected from 70 prospective teachers of English and 700 questions in total were analyzed to see the difference between the two scoring methods. In the first part of the data collection instrument (See Appendix A), participants gave answers to the questions in two different columns; one was for number right scoring, the other one was for liberal (SAC method) scoring. In the second part, they explained the reason why they had chosen more than one option in the SAC method. Their answers to the questions were transcribed into the Microsoft Excel worksheet. The quantitative data obtained from the test were analyzed by the use of descriptive statistics considering the different knowledge levels of the participants. Each knowledge level of the participants was analyzed. The Frequencies of the answers given to the questions provided a valuable source to compare two different scoring methods. To analyze the qualitative data, Strauss and Corbin's (1998) coding stages were followed. Codes and subcodes were created from the transcriptions of the answers given to the open-ended questions. These codes and subcodes were then grouped into a number of categories and themes considering the classification of knowledge levels (Bradbard et al., 2004) of the participants. Finally, they were analyzed and used to explain why the participants chose more than one option to find the correct answer.

Findings and Discussion

Differences between Two Scoring Methods

In general, the SAC method was not student-friendly as the questions were difficult for the participants. Similar to what Bush (2001) experienced, “the better students understood and mostly liked the new test format, while poor students strongly disliked it” (p. 161). When their total score is examined, it can be seen that only 11 of 70 participants got higher scores in the SAC method than they did in number right scoring. 11 students were among the ones who got higher marks in number right scoring method too. Those who are not sure of the correct answer or who do not know it got fewer points when compared to the ones they obtained from number right scoring. For example, the most successful student got 34 out of 40 in SAC method while the least successful one got -6. The most successful student got 2 more points in SAC method when compared with the score he did from number right scoring (32 points). However, the least successful student got -10 points less than he did from number right scoring (4 points). Bush (2001) was completely right in his argument that in liberal MC tests “the difference in test scores between the best and worst student can be very wide” (p. 162).

Table 1. Frequencies of the scores obtained from two different scoring methods

| Questions | Number Right Scoring | | | Liberal (Free-choice) Multiple-choice Test: SAC Method | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|---------------------------|---|------------|--|-------------------|------|------|---------------------------------|-------|-------|---------------------------------|-------|-------|
| | Full Knowledge (4 points) | Absence of Knowledge or Misinformation (0 points) | (0 points) | Full Knowledge (4 points) | Partial Knowledge | | | Partial Misinformation | | | Full Misinformation (-4 points) | Total | |
| | | | | | 3 p. | 2 p. | 1 p. | Absence of Knowledge (0 points) | -1 p. | -2 p. | | | -3 p. |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Q1 | 4 | 66 | | 1 | 15 | 5 | 0 | 3 | 35 | 10 | 1 | 0 | 70 |
| Q2 | 18 | 52 | | 9 | 23 | 6 | 0 | 2 | 15 | 13 | 2 | 0 | 70 |
| Q3 | 32 | 38 | | 16 | 17 | 3 | 0 | 5 | 16 | 9 | 4 | 0 | 70 |
| Q4 | 31 | 39 | | 20 | 14 | 6 | 1 | 4 | 10 | 13 | 1 | 1 | 70 |
| Q5 | 31 | 39 | | 21 | 15 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 14 | 10 | 4 | 0 | 70 |
| Q6 | 34 | 36 | | 22 | 19 | 6 | 1 | 2 | 14 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 70 |
| Q7 | 61 | 9 | | 38 | 23 | 5 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 70 |
| Q8 | 45 | 25 | | 33 | 11 | 6 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 11 | 1 | 1 | 70 |
| Q9 | 46 | 24 | | 24 | 22 | 7 | 1 | 1 | 11 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 70 |
| Q10 | 30 | 40 | | 14 | 21 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 11 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 70 |
| Total | 332 | 368 | | 198 | 180 | 49 | 11 | 24 | 131 | 91 | 14 | 2 | 700 |

Each question is regarded as a case in this study. Therefore, the researcher talks about 700 questions rather than 70 participants. Table 1 clearly shows that in 332 questions, participants got 4 points in number right scoring. However, in 198 of them, they were sure of the answer. Participants lost 1, 2 or 3 points just because they were not sure of the correct answer and chose more than one options together. Moreover, in number right scoring, participants get 0 points for the absence of knowledge or misinformation. While in 368 questions participants got 0 points in number right scoring, only in 24 questions they got the same score in the SAC method. This means that they really do not know the answer to 24 questions of 368. In the rest 344 questions, they were either rewarded for their partial knowledge or penalized for the misinformation they had.

Partial Knowledge and Blind Guessing

To see the number of questions in which participants' partial knowledge was rewarded and the misinformation they had was penalized, the questions were analyzed one by one. The following Table shows the frequencies of the scores they got from number right scoring and SAC method.

Table 2. Rewarding Partial Knowledge & Penalizing Blind Guessing

| Participants who ... | NR Scoring | SAC Method | n | % |
|---|------------|--------------|------------|-------|
| were sure of the correct answer | 4 points | 4 points | 198 | 28.29 |
| | | 3 points | 107 | |
| answered correctly, but were not sure of the correct answer | 4 points | 2 points | 20 | 19.14 |
| | | 1 point | 2 | |
| | | 0 points | 5 | |
| | | Total | 134 | |
| were rewarded for their partial knowledge | 0 points | 3 points | 73 | |
| | | 2 points | 29 | 15.86 |
| | | 1 point | 9 | |
| | | Total | 111 | |
| did not know the correct answer | 0 points | 0 points | 19 | 2.71 |
| did not know the correct answer, but still wanted to guess it | 0 points | -1 point | 131 | |
| | | -2 points | 91 | 34 |
| | | -3 points | 14 | |
| | | -4 points | 2 | |
| | | Total | 238 | |
| The Number of Questions | | | 700 | 100 |

It is clearly seen in the Table that SAC method not only rewarded partial knowledge but also penalized blind guessing if students do not know or are not sure about the correct answer. As mentioned before, in the SAC method participants got 0 points from 24 questions. However, in 5 of these questions, they guessed the correct answer and got 4 points in number right scoring, but left the question unmarked in SAC method in the fear of losing points. In 15.86 percent of the questions, participants were rewarded for their partial knowledge. For example, while answering the first question *Participant 6* was in dilemma between ‘C’ and ‘D’, he chose the option ‘D’ and got 0 points in number right scoring. Nevertheless, he got 3 points in the SAC method as he marked both of them. He explained the reason why he marked both choices as *“I could not decide on the correct answer. ‘C’ and ‘D’ are the only answers that I think can be true.”* In 73 of the questions, the participants made use of the same strategy. Similarly, *Participant 7* got 2 points in SAC method while she got 0 points in number right scoring. She expressed *“I am quite sure that the answer is not ‘C’. The meaning in ‘B’ is irrelevant. That is why I have marked three of them.”* Also, *Participant 18* is sure that ‘B’ is not the correct answer. He says *“‘B’ seems impossible; however, I am not sure about the other choices.”* He marked all 4 options other than ‘B’ and got 1 point for his partial knowledge.

19.14 percent of the participants lost points as they were not sure of the correct answer. They got 4 points at number right scoring, but fewer points in liberal scoring method. Qualitative data verify these findings. For example, *Participant 32* was not sure about the correct answer. Though he got 4 points for the 7th question in number right scoring, he said *“I think ‘C’ is the most appropriate answer, but ‘D’ is okay. I cannot choose the best one”* and got 3 points for his answer. *Participant 42* also marked 3 options saying *“I could not decide the correct one”* although she got full points at number right scoring. Moreover, in 34 percent of the questions, participants got minus (-) points for their misinformation. They got 0 points in number right scoring, but still, they wanted to guess the correct answer without knowing anything about it. In 131 questions, they got -1 point as their answer was not correct. The more blind guesses they took, the more points they lost. In their answers to the open-ended questions, the participants made use of expressions such as *“I am sure the others are wrong”*, *“I am not sure which one is correct”*, *“Both are possible”*, *“These three options cannot be the correct answer”*, *“This can be the correct answer”*, *“The only thing I know that this is not the correct answer”*. These expressions clearly show that participants lose points when they are not sure of the answer (19.14 percent of the questions) or when they do not know the answer (34 percent of the questions). Nearly in 53 percent of the questions participants lost points. Therefore, in our case, SAC method (Liberal MC Tests) both penalized blind guessing and rewarded partial knowledge. However, the number of the points that were penalized for the misinformation the participants had was more than the ones that were rewarded for their partial knowledge.

Conclusion and Implications

Variety of ways can be used to score multiple-choice tests. There have been lots of research studies mainly focusing on the comparison of conventional scoring methods. The study compares number right and liberal scoring (SAC) methods using a test with 10 multiple-choice questions. As the number of the participants is limited, the findings of this study may not be applicable to interpret the patterns in other research settings. “What appears to work well in one setting does not in another or in a replication” (Frary, 1989, p. 92). The results are specific to this study and reveal that liberal scoring method rewards partial knowledge and discourages blind guessing. The method eliminates the effects of students’ lucky guesses and encourages students to use their partial knowledge. There is no best scoring method in testing students’ performance; however, this scoring method is superior to the conventional ones as it eliminates their disadvantages. In the case of partial knowledge, “liberal/free-choice tests are more generous than conventional tests” (Jennings & Bush, 2006, p. 4). The participants got higher scores for their partial knowledge. Bush (2001) proposes liberal MC tests as the best method for anyone wishing to use MC tests to assess examinees’ partial knowledge. However, the participants lost more points due to blind guessing. They should have been informed more about penalizing blind guessing so that they would not have gambled. Since “the extent to which they are punished increases with the amount of ‘misinformation’ per question” (Jennings & Bush, 2006, p. 5), they had better leave the questions that they do not know anything about unmarked not to lose any more points.

It is easy for the students to cheat in conventional multiple-choice tests as there are only four or five options and a single correct answer. Students not only can see the answer sheets of their friends sitting nearby, but also can communicate with their friends nonverbally to give the correct answer (Hughes, 1989; Madsen, 1983). It was observed that this is not the case in liberal multiple-choice tests. As the students can mark as many choices as they want, there will be more options marked. Thus, no matter how clear a student sees his/her friend’s answer sheet, he/she will not be able to detect which answer is correct or which one is wrong. Besides taking blind guesses, cheating to find the correct answers is quite difficult in this test format.

Though they are more advantageous, liberal MC tests have some limitations. For instance, applying these tests could be very demanding especially in terms of instructing examinees. As the examinees are new to the scoring method, there can be some problems regarding the reliability of liberal MC tests. In this case, the liberal MC test did not prevent blind guessing but penalized it. When examinees get used to the method and informed well about it, they will be more careful about blind guessing. As they lose more and more points, they will not mark any options if they do not have any idea about it. Another disadvantage of using liberal scoring method is that it is really difficult to score

each question without any technological help. It can be really confusing for teachers to give 1 point for each correct option and $-1/(N-1)$ point for each incorrect one. To solve this problem, Microsoft Excel document (See Appendix B) was provided for practical use of liberal multiple-choice tests (SAC method). Teachers can make use of this document and easily apply liberal MC tests in their classes. If a large volume of data has to be collected and processed within a short period of time, Optical Mark Recognition (OMR) is one of the fastest and safest methods for data entry. The examinees' answers to the test questions can be collected using OMR reader. Then, the data can be transferred into the Excel Document and their scores can easily be measured. Solving all these problems, the test designers and policymakers at both national and international levels may make new decisions about using liberal MC tests in standardized achievement tests.

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APPENDIX

A. Answer Sheet for the two scoring methods

Part 1

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------|-------|---------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Name Surname: | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| CHOOSE THE CORRECT ONE | | | | | | Score | Score | SCORING ALL CHOICES | | | | | |
| 1. | A | B | C | D | E | | | 1. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 2. | A | B | C | D | E | | | 2. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 3. | A | B | C | D | E | | | 3. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 4. | A | B | C | D | E | | | 4. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 5. | A | B | C | D | E | | | 5. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 6. | A | B | C | D | E | | | 6. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 7. | A | B | C | D | E | | | 7. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 8. | A | B | C | D | E | | | 8. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 9. | A | B | C | D | E | | | 9. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 10. | A | B | C | D | E | | | 10. | A | B | C | D | E |

Part 2

Explain why you have chosen more than one answer in the “SCORING ALL CHOICES” part. Try to explain how you have found the correct answer.

| |
|-----|
| 1. |
| 2. |
| 3. |
| 4. |
| 5. |
| 6. |
| 7. |
| 8. |
| 9. |
| 10. |

B. Microsoft Excel Document for Practical Use of Liberal Multiple-choice Tests (SAC method):

<https://goo.gl/YZkPn8> / **Web Page:** <https://goo.gl/e454sJ>

School Choice of Middle-Class Parents and Students in the Context of Neoliberal Policiesⁱ

Zehra Keser Özmantarⁱⁱ

Gaziantep University, Gaziantep, Turkey

Dilek Karataşoğluⁱⁱⁱ

Gaziantep University, Gaziantep, Turkey

Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to examine the reasons of school choices of middle-class families and their children within the context of the neoliberal education policies in Turkish education system. The study adopts a qualitative descriptive research approach. The data were collected via semi-structured interviews. The first study group consisted of 22 parents (13 public and 9 private schools). The second study group consisted of 30 students (16 public and 14 private school students) who were middle class, had high enough exit-exam score to be able to choose science high schools in Gaziantep province in the academic year of 2016-2017. The data were analyzed using the descriptive and content analysis techniques. The findings indicated that academic, economic, environmental, personal, social and cultural, religious, politic factors and physical conditions affected middle class parents and students school choices. The multi-factorial features demonstrate that middle-school parents and students are rather cautious and thorough in school selection. An important inference from the findings is that middle-class tends to see education as a re-generational tool serving to hold on to their social status and existence.

Keywords: school choice, neoliberal policies, parents, middle-class

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ⁱⁱ **Zehra Keser Özmantar**, PhD., Faculty of Education, Department of Educational Sciences, Gaziantep University, Gaziantep, Turkey.

Correspondence: zehrakeser@hotmail.com

ⁱⁱⁱ **Dilek Karataşoğlu**, Department of Educational Sciences, Gaziantep University, Gaziantep, Turkey.

Introduction

Education outputs far from the desired results, increased costs and insufficient state intervention in the education system to mobilize entrepreneurs are all among the cited reasons to privatize education (Adnett, 2004). According to Friedman (1997), since students and families will have the opportunity to choose the schools themselves if education is privatized, the “principle of competition,” one of the fundamental bases of neoliberalism, will come into play in the market and the desired success will be achieved in education.

Paulo Freire (1970), one of the leading names of critical pedagogy, has pointed out that students will be in the position of a consumer as a result of the privatization of education and their only objective would become a diploma with a potential of employment. Those who position themselves against privatization argue that commercialization of education brings about transfer of teacher authorities to the business world and hence the business world would become the winning party at the expense of creating disqualified teachers (see for example Apple, 1982; Molnar, 2006; Giroux, 2008).

Robertson and Dale (2013, pp.427) approach to the privatization from a different perspective and argue that privatization of education defines new terms and means in relation to the individuals, education and society. According to them, privatization of education transforms information into “diploma,” learning into “consumption” and learners into “human capital.” This can be considered as a new form of governmentality, which refers to a (renewed) relationship between those who govern and the ones who are governed (Lauder et al., 2006). According to Foucault (1997, pp.81), management is the guidance of individuals’ behaviors. He defines the use of power as a technique for shaping the actions of individuals (Foucault, 1982, pp.75-77). Therefore, the “force” that the power will use is a regulatory or transformative one. In his studies where he analyzed the concept of “power”, Foucault emphasizes the phrase “make someone willing” rather than “pressure” (Neumann and Sending, 2010). As a result, the state becomes governmentalized without the society being nationalized (Foucault, 1977, pp.286-287). The government tries to manage the desires and needs of individuals instead of managing them. People who are regenerated and reshaped become subjects of the government (Foucault, 1982, p.57-63) and freedom is managed (Foucault, 2010, pp.63).

Education is one of these areas of “freedom.” According to Ball (2003b, pp.166) and Reay et al. (2013), neoliberal policies in the field of education create an environment of constant race and competition and the “middle class” is the most affected strata. Ball (2003) points out that marketization in education forces middle-class families to secure the advantages of their class position for their children and that they find themselves in a class struggle and hence become workers of the “invisible hand.” Middle-class is aware that education is a means for their existence and regeneration.

Therefore, middle-class attaches importance to selecting the best alternatives for their children's education which is again subject of neoliberal policies.

The notion of class has long been examined from the Marxian and Weberian perspectives on the basis of economic capital, a transformation began in the analysis of class by the 1970s. For example, Bourdieu's views of class include the concepts of habitus, field and cultural capital. Cultural capital is the sum of knowledge gained through education (Bourdieu, 1986). Jaeger (2011) states that cultural capital accounts for differences between/among individuals. Bourdieu argues that cultural capital is effective in determining the societal positions of individuals and that this type of capital has an impact on maintaining societal positions of classes by allowing them to regenerate themselves. Families attempt to maintain their class existence by transferring their cultural background to new generations. Hence, cultural capital, which Bourdieu defines as "knowledge capital", has great significance in the continuity of class position (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 2003, pp.108).

Several studies showing how middle-class regenerates themselves through education (Ball, 2003; Brantlinger, 2003; Power et al., 2003; Devine, 2004; Balkan and Oncu, 2013; Aratemur Cimen 2015; Rutz and Balkan, 2016) also indicate that education has great significance for this class's maintenance of its existence. In this context, middle-class is a relatively advantageous group in the area of education compared to other classes, simply because this class is well-educated. As a result, they have sufficient knowledge and skills to control the complex systematic structure of education (Apple, 2001; Eryaman, 2009).

Official introduction of neoliberal understanding into the field of education was realized by the alignment programs prepared under the collaboration of the IMF and the World Bank in the 1980s (Sayilan, 2006). As of the 1980s, governments began to restructure education systems and practices with the influence of global neoliberalism in order to adapt to the new world order. International actors such as the European Union (EU), The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), The World Bank (WB), International Monetary Fund (IMF), General Agreement on Tariffs and Services (GATS) and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) played a role in this restructuring. In Turkey, privatization of education became official on an international level with the signing of GATS in 1998. Educational grants that have been paid to private school students since 2014 by the Turkish government have raised the interest in private schools (Education Reform Initiative, 2016, pp.11) and paved the way for families to make their school choices more carefully and diligently.

Secondary education in Turkey as an area of competition for the middle class

Turkey stands out as one of the countries where the level of success among schools in secondary education differs quite significantly (OECD, 2010). The main reason of this variation is the placement of students in secondary education institutions through nationwide exit-exams. Students who receive high scores in the exit-exams prefer science high schools, private science high schools and high schools specializing in social studies and hence these high schools turn out to be the most successful ones (Assesment, Selection and Placement Center, 2017). The study program implemented in “Anatolian Imam Hatip (Imam and Preacher) High Schools Practicing a Science and Social Studies Project or Programme and in “Project Schools” which have been serving under the General Directorate of Religious Education since 2016, is one of the most preferred programs due to features such as the ability of school managers to select the teachers of these programs and the single-sex education programs (i.e. separate education for boys and girls).

Purpose of the research

The purpose of this research is to examine the factors that affect the school choices of middle-class families and their children in the context of neoliberal policies in the Turkish education system. The study examines the reasons underlying the decisions and actions of families and their children in a period of neoliberal education policies.

Method

Selection of the study group

This research is designed as a phenomenological study, which focuses on high-school students and their parents. The main reasons to focus on high-school level are (1) that students’ and families’ are able to choose the high-school without restriction of hinterland (area of enrollment) in Turkey at the high school level; (2) that success levels of students are assessed with a nationwide exit-exam (held for the transition to secondary education); and (3) that the choice of high school is seen as critical for students and parents due to the concern that it will affect the level of success in the university entry-exams. While selecting the schools, public science high schools with the highest entry scores in the exam for transition to secondary education and private science high schools that accept students with equivalent scores are preferred.

Data have been collected through semi-structured interviews with middle-class families and their children. To identify the study group, literature related to the middle-class has primarily been reviewed. The studies such as Gilbert and Kahl (1993) and Power et al. (2003) suggest three main criteria for differentiation of middle-class: education, occupation and income level. In selecting the

study group, these three criteria were used. Regarding education level, participating families were expected to be graduates of at least high-school or college (associate's degree). With regard to income level, it was decided that a monthly household income of approximately \$1100 and above would be required as a result of the analysis of the data of the Research on Turkish Family Structure (TAYA, 2011) and the Turkish Statistical Institute (TÜİK, 2014) taking into account the hunger and poverty thresholds in Turkey. Due to the above-mentioned reasons, the criterion sampling method of the purposeful sampling methods was chosen for the identification of the study group. In the identification of parents, the criteria of (1) level of education (at least high school graduate), (2) occupation, and (3) monthly household income (minimum \$1100) were used. While selecting students, in addition to those criteria, exit-exam score was also considered.

Participants

30 students and 22 parents from 9 different high schools (4 public and 5 private schools) participated in the study. All parents of students enrolled in private schools and 84% of parents of students enrolled in public schools stated that school choice was a joint decision taken by them and their children. Therefore, reasons behind the preferences of parents and students were examined. 13 of the parents were selected from public schools while 9 were selected from private schools and 16 of the students were selected from public schools while 14 were selected from private schools. 19 of the parents are females, while 3 of them are males. 20 of the students are females, while 10 of them are males. Ages of the parents range from 34 to 53, while the ages of the students range from 14 to 16. 4 of the parents are high school graduates, 13 are university graduates and 5 have postgraduate degrees. Parents who are interviewed have the following occupations: teacher (9), housewife (5), public official (2), engineer (2), military officer (1), doctor (1), pharmacist (1) and financial advisor (1). All of the interviewed parents are married. 13 of the parents can speak English and 4 Arabic as a second language. 5 of them do not know any foreign languages. Rather than using the names of the participants, the students, parents, public schools and private schools are referred to as "S", "P", "PBS" and "PRS" respectively and then they are numbered. For example, S-PRS1 refers to the first student enrolled in a private school.

Data collection

In the research, data have been collected through semi-structured interviews. Two separate interview forms were prepared for students and parents. Questions in relation to demographic variables as well as questions that would reveal the reasons for the school preferences were included in the interview forms. The parents were chosen from among the volunteers meeting the pre-determined criteria with the help of school administrations and the students who were interviewed before. It was observed that especially, almost all of the parents of students enrolled in private schools meet the

criteria for middle-class mentioned earlier. Hence, parents with higher education levels, occupational position and monthly incomes as well as knowledge of second language have been prioritized in the selection.

Data analysis

In this research, the content analysis techniques were used. The data were analyzed in four stages: (1) data were coded, (2) categories were identified, (3) codes and themes were arranged, (4) findings were identified and interpreted. Following the interviews, it was seen that parent and student preferences can be aggregated into 8 categories: academic, physical, economic, environmental, personal, social and cultural, religious and political. The categories and codes that were created to provide reliance were presented for expert analysis. Coder reliability rate was calculated on the basis of Miles and Huberman (1994) and the result was 0.91, which was high enough.

Findings

Findings with regard to parents' school choice

Findings obtained from the interview data regarding the factors affecting middle-class parents' school choices are provided in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Factors affecting middle-class parents' school choice

| Categories | Codes | Public school parents (N=13) | | Private School Parents (N=9) | |
|-------------------------|---|------------------------------|-----|------------------------------|-----|
| | | f | % | f | % |
| Academic Factors | Exit-exam score ranking of the school in the province | 13 | 100 | 6 | 67 |
| | Success level of graduates in the university exam | 9 | 69 | 8 | 89 |
| | Qualification of academic staff | 7 | 54 | 9 | 100 |
| | Strict regulations | 2 | 15 | 1 | 11 |
| | Monitoring students' work | 1 | 8 | 7 | 78 |
| | Being a project school | 7 | 54 | 0 | 0 |
| | Quality of foreign language teaching | 0 | 0 | 8 | 89 |
| | Counseling services | 0 | 0 | 8 | 89 |
| | More weekly class-hours | 0 | 0 | 5 | 56 |
| Physical factors | School security | 7 | 54 | 6 | 67 |
| | Richness of the resources and equipment | 1 | 8 | 6 | 67 |
| | Closeness to home | 3 | 23 | 1 | 11 |
| | Cleanliness and hygiene | 1 | 8 | 2 | 22 |
| | The school location (in a good district) | 2 | 15 | 1 | 11 |
| | Availability of a dorm within the school premises | 2 | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| | Small number of students in a class | 0 | 0 | 8 | 89 |
| Economic Factors | Similar economic milieu | 12 | 92 | 7 | 78 |
| | Scholarship opportunity | 0 | 0 | 9 | 100 |
| | Affordable school fee | 0 | 0 | 5 | 56 |

| | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|----|----|---|----|
| Environmental Factors | Features of the circle of friends | 8 | 62 | 7 | 78 |
| | Reputation of the school | 3 | 23 | 2 | 22 |
| | Others' recommendation | 2 | 15 | 4 | 44 |
| Personal Factors | Willingness to go to a private school | 0 | 0 | 5 | 56 |
| | Willingness to receive a privileged education | 0 | 0 | 3 | 33 |
| Social and cultural factors | Social and cultural similarity of the families | 10 | 77 | 4 | 44 |
| | Guidance for social and cultural activities | 0 | 0 | 8 | 89 |
| | Effective educational counseling | 0 | 0 | 8 | 89 |
| Religious factors | Imam-Hatip (Preacher) high school | 5 | 38 | 0 | 0 |
| | Single-sex education | 4 | 31 | 0 | 0 |
| | Compatibility of the religious views with those of the school | 0 | 0 | 2 | 22 |
| Political Factors | Closure of certain private schools | 9 | 69 | 0 | 0 |
| | Governmental support to the school type | 5 | 38 | 0 | 0 |
| | Association of school administration with the government | 0 | 0 | 1 | 11 |

As seen in Table 1, academic, physical, economic, environmental, personal, social and cultural, religious and political factors affect the school choice of middle-class parents. When academic factors are examined, exit-exam score ranking of the school stands out as the most referred feature while making a decision on school. The PRS parents consider qualification of academic staff as the most important feature. P-PRS9 stated as follows:

The quality of teachers is very important to me; these people will be role models for my child. That's why I sent my daughter to a private school, so that she can have selected teachers. And if we're not satisfied with the teacher, it's easy to change him/her next year, a complaint will do it

This parent saw the fact that the academic staff in the private schools can be changed in response to requests and complaints as an advantage. 54% of the PBS parents cited the selection of teachers through a central exam (the exam that teachers in Turkey take in order to work at public schools) as a superiority and included it in their reasons of preference. P-PBS2 explained her thoughts on the teachers' lack of qualifications in private schools as follows:

We didn't want to send our kid to private school, because there are no successful teachers there. If the teacher was successful s/he would've passed the exam and gotten appointed; s/he wouldn't be wasting his/her time at a private school.

Parents from both types of schools indicated that they made the school choice after researching the academic staff of the school. Success level of the graduates in the university entrance exam, strict regulations, and monitoring students' work were included in the reasons of preference by both group of parents, though with different rates. The parents appeared to differ while making school

choice with regard to quality of foreign language education, weekly class hours, counseling services and project schools. PBS parents feel that project schools can be beneficial for them as they are a new practice of MoNE (Ministry of National Education). On this issue, P-PBS4 expressed that

...project schools have just opened. So we think that the ministry will attach a greater importance to the academic success of these schools.

While making a decision, parents considered the **physical factors** of the school as important such as security capacity, richness of the resources and equipment, closeness to home, cleanliness and hygiene and the school location in a good district. 15% of the PBS parents were concerned with dorm facilities, while all PRS parents referred to classroom size.

In terms of **economic factors**, both group of parents attach importance to similar economic milieu in their school preference; yet, PRS parents attach additional importance to the scholarship opportunities and affordable school fees. It is worth noting here that In addition, PBS parents put more emphasis on similar economic milieu than those of PRS parents. Parents mentioned about the problems that both they and their children could experience if the economic profile of parents in the school of their choice would not be similar. For instance, P-PBS13 stated:

We were careful to ensure that there wasn't a huge gap between the financial situation of the parents at school and our financial situation. We wouldn't be able to buy what they buy for their children and that would upset both the child and us. In fact, that's the reason why we enrolled the child in public school while s/he could go to a private school.

In terms of **environmental factors**, both group of parents attach importance to the features of the circle of classmates, reputation of the school as well as others' recommendation. Most of the parents appeared to be concerned with the circle of friends, though through from different perspectives. Some approach from academic perspectives and others from a moral view. P-PBS3 approached the case from an academic perspective:

The reason I chose a public school for my kid is the circle of friends. If I sent him to a private school, he would see the spoiled kids there and would ignore his lessons and duties. But that's not at all how a student at a public school is. They're driven, hardworking and all they think of are their lessons.

In terms of **personal factors**, receiving private and privileged education are the factors leading parents to the private schools. P-PRS5 indicated her willingness as follows:

Actually, when our kid went to a private school for elementary education we thought she should go to a private school again. So we always researched the private schools during the preference process, we didn't even look at public schools.

In terms of **social and cultural factors**, similarity of families regarding social and cultural features appeared to be a concern shared by the majority of the PBS parents. For instance, P-PRS2 stated:

I'm a cultured person. I attach importance to reading books, going to cinema and theater. I raised my kid in the same way. I'd like the other parents and their children at the school to be like that as well.

In a similar vein, P-PBS2 mentioned as follows:

We were careful in selecting a school where there were families whose cultures matched ours. Otherwise our kid would have a difficult time in that environment.

An interesting finding is that while PBS parents do not take into account the guidance of school for social and cultural activities, the majority of PRS parents (89%) attached importance to this feature in making a school preference.

In terms of **religious factors**, it is worth noting here that religious factors are more traceable in the decision of PBS parents than those of PRS parents. Especially those who preferred Imam-Hatip high school indicated that they made this decision since these schools blended religious and science education into a single program. For this regard, P-PBS1 explained his thoughts as follows:

I thought that the school being both a science and an Imam-Hatip high school was a great blessing for us. Because we wanted our daughter to receive a science education as well as a religious one.

Separate education for boys and girls is found to be another religious factor affecting the school choice of certain families. Some parents expressed that the availability of a separate education for boys and girls in some science high schools positively influenced their decision. P-PBS3 said that science high schools with separate education for boys and girls is a great necessity for families like themselves. On the other hand, some parents emphasized the importance of the compatibility of religious views with those of the school administration. On that matter, P-PRS8 made the following statement:

They didn't allow my daughter to get up on stage because of the length of her skirt during the secondary school graduation ceremony and I went mad. Even though we like the school

in terms of classes, we changed it this year and selected a school that's more appropriate for us.

In terms of **political factors**, it can be seen that the political incidents in the country affect the school choices of the parents. PBS parents emphasized that due to the closure of private high schools, they had concerns for diplomas received from private high schools as they could create problems in the future and attached importance to this issue in their choice of schools. P-PBS7 mentioned the adversities that they might experience if they preferred a private school with the following statement:

...while we were choosing a school we decided that we absolutely wouldn't select a private school. Because some schools were closed right during this period of preference. There's no way of knowing whether the private school we chose would be closed or not in the future. What good would a diploma from a closed school be then? It would cause trouble.

State support of the school type (38%) is also included in the reasons of preference of PBS parents. This issue has been brought up by the parents of Imam-Hatip Science High School students. Some parents mentioned that the government attached importance to these schools and that those who received an education in these schools might have privileges in the future. P-PBS5 of the parents provided an explanation as follows:

The state attaches great importance to imam hatip science high schools. That's why we placed this school at the top of our preferences.

One PRS parent drew attention to the importance of close association of school administration with the government. P-PRS3 has expressed her opinion on this issue as follows:

In our school preference, we looked at schools that don't have a problem with the government. The one we chose is close to the government.

Findings with regard to students' school choice

Findings obtained from the interview data regarding the factors affecting middle-class students' school choices are provided in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Factors affecting middle-class students' school choice

| Category | Codes | Public school students (N=16) | | Private school students (N=14) | |
|------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------|-----|--------------------------------|-----|
| | | f | % | f | % |
| Academic Factors | Exit-exam score ranking of the school in the province | 16 | 100 | 13 | 93 |
| | Success level of graduates in the university exam | 10 | 63 | 14 | 100 |
| | Qualification of academic staff | 8 | 50 | 13 | 93 |
| | Being a project school | 9 | 56 | 0 | 0 |
| | Quality of foreign language teaching | 0 | 0 | 12 | 86 |
| | Monitoring students' work | 0 | 0 | 10 | 71 |
| | Counselling services | 0 | 0 | 10 | 71 |
| | Preparation for foreign universities | 0 | 0 | 2 | 14 |
| Physical factors | Richness of the resources and equipment | 3 | 19 | 10 | 71 |
| | Small number of students in a class | 0 | 0 | 14 | 100 |
| Economic Factors | Scholarship opportunity | 0 | 0 | 14 | 100 |
| | Affordable school fee | 0 | 0 | 1 | 7 |
| Environmental Factors | Features of the circle of friends | 14 | 88 | 12 | 86 |
| | Reputation of the school | 10 | 63 | 11 | 79 |
| | Others' recommendation | 7 | 44 | 8 | 57 |
| Personal Factors | Willingness to go to a private school | 0 | 0 | 4 | 29 |
| | Willingness to receive a privileged education | 0 | 0 | 4 | 29 |
| Social and Cultural Factors | Guidance for social and cultural activities | 10 | 63 | 13 | 93 |
| Religious Factors | Imam-Hatip high school | 9 | 56 | 0 | 0 |
| | Single-sex education | 5 | 31 | 0 | 0 |
| Political Factors | Closure of private schools | 4 | 25 | 0 | 0 |

As seen in Table 2, the school choice of public and private school students is affected by academic, physical, economic, environmental, personal, social and cultural, religious and political factors. In terms of academic factors, there many features matching to the ones expressed with the parents. In a similar vein to the parents, some PBS students indicated that they chose a public school over a private one as they thought that teachers in private schools were not adequate. When the students are compared among themselves, it is seen that private school students differ from public school students in areas such as the quality of education in foreign languages (86%), monitoring the student work (71%) and preparation for studying abroad (14%). S-PRS8 of private school students emphasizes the importance of foreign language education for himself/herself with the following statement:

My dream is to study abroad for university. So, the capabilities of schools in foreign language education were very important in my choice of school.

Some PBS students (56%) mentioned that they intentionally chose their school, as it was a project school; particularly because project schools would be more successful than other science high schools academically due to their features. S-PBS15 explained such as:

Project schools have different practices compared to other science high schools. For instance, they pick the academic staff themselves. This has really impressed me. I think these schools are going to be more successful.

In terms of physical features, it is seen that while all private school students took into account small classroom size in school choice, public school students did not mention about this. Private school students seemed to associate the quality of the school with the classroom sizes. Both group of students expressed that the resources and equipment of the school were effective in their choice of school. Technological capabilities of the school, instructional equipment of the classrooms, the availability of separate classrooms for classes such as music and painting and the availability of advanced laboratories appear to have an effect on students choices. Some private school students stated that they changed their preference after seeing the laboratory of a certain school. S-PRS4, for instance, explained:

I had actually placed another school at the top of my list of preferences. But after I participated in the orientation program of the (private) school I completely changed my mind. I think the most important feature that a science high school must have is the richness of its laboratories.

In terms of economic factors, it is seen that while public school students had nothing to say about this aspect, private school students chose schools by using criteria such as the scholarship opportunities of the school and the school fee being affordable. S-PRS5 stated:

I've wanted to study at A college since the 7th grade. But my score wasn't enough for their full scholarship program. So I preferred another private school.

In terms of environmental factors, both group of students attach importance to the circle of friends, the school reputation and others' recommendation. The students have expressed concern that the circle of friends at the school must be academically and socially appropriate. S-PBS8, for example, highlighted the academic success of the students in public schools:

I think students in public schools are more successful since they care classes. So I picked a public school, I wanted the environment to help me become more driven.

On the other hand, private school students tend to approach the friendship as a matter of socialization. S-PRS3, for instance, put it as follows:

Students at private schools are more social. I wanted to go to a private school since I'm a social and fun-loving person.

With regards to **personal factors**, it can be seen that the willingness of private school students to go to a private school and receive a privileged education are effective in their choice of school. Some private school students stated that they would like to study at a private school during high school as well, since they studied at a private school during primary and/or secondary school.

In terms of **religious factors**, PRS students do not refer to these factors in explaining their school choice; however, PBS students seemed to have more concerns with such factors in their accounts. Religious factors were especially evident in the expression of those students attending in PBS implementing Imam-Hatip program. These students expressed that they were attracted to the fact that Imam-Hatip science schools provide religious studies along with science programs. S-PBS1 expressed that

I had actually preferred a normal science high school. Afterwards, when I heard of this type of school I immediately transferred to this one, because the fact that the school is both an imam hatip high school and a science high school attracted me more.

When the opinions of students with regard to the choice of school are examined in terms of political factors, only do public school students voice their opinions as in the case of religious factors. Closure of private schools is included as an effective factor in the school choice of public school students. S-PBS11 of the students expressed this issue as follows:

I'm afraid of private schools now. If they get closed my whole life could be affected by that diploma. I think the best option is a public school. Its diploma is applicable anytime, anywhere.

Discussion

According to the report published by the World Bank, the middle-class comprised 7.6% of the world population in 2000. In the report, it is stated that this ratio will reach 16.1% by 2030 (World Bank, 2007). In their research, Kapas and Liang (2009) state that while the ratio of the middle class to the whole population is 11% in 2008 in countries such as Turkey, China, India, Mexico, Brazil and Russia, it is expected that 40% of the total population in these countries will be composed of the middle-class by 2028. Despite such projections, Ohmae (2006) determines that the majority of the middle class (80%) shift towards lower levels (classes). This finding might provide evidence to

Marx's (1963, pp.218) argument that the middle class would not be able to resist the capitalist competition and disappear. Irrelevant of whether Marx would be proven right or wrong, the current situation signals that middle-class, a large population, is in a struggle for existence to preserve its present position.

According to Gorz (2011, pp.21), the principle of competition, which neoliberalism is based on, has permeated all areas of life. The neoliberal subject dedicated himself/herself to working and producing by acting with the awareness of the existence of competition in any field of life (Marazzi, 2010, pp.42-49). These subjects who become "entrepreneurs of themselves" (Dardot and Laval, 2012) are aware that the responsibility of all their decisions lie with themselves. Thus, neoliberalism forces these neoliberal subjects whom it completely individualizes and holds responsible for everything to develop strategies in every area of life including consumption habits, social life, business life, entertainment culture, education, the area they live in and even the school where their children study and requires them to always be successful in the competition within the market (Oren, 2015, pp.165). Therefore, it can be said that the middle-class tries to fulfill its responsibility in the area of education by behaving both as "successful strategists" and "capable selectors" (Power, 2001) as well as "risk auditors" (Crook, 1999). This is because the middle-class sees the choice of school as an instrument for regenerating itself and hence the school choice of the middle class consists of a chain of quite complicated factors (Cucchiara and Horvat, 2014) as also has become clear in this study. Findings of this study, as in other studies (Ball, 2003; Brantlinger, 2003; Power et al., 2003; Devine, 2004; Balkan and Oncu, 2013; Aratemur Cimen, 2015), verify that the middle-class is trying to regenerate itself with education. From this point of view, this study reveals, as the research of Benson et al. (2015) does, that the middle-class consists of people who take careful and meticulous decisions on and who are active selectors of education.

This study made it clear that middle-class parents and students choose schools according to the exam results of the school, its academic success and the quality of the education provided at the school. Similar findings regarding the middle-class families' school choice are also reported elsewhere (e.g. Dimaki, et al., 2005; Crozier, et al., 2008; Vincent et al., 2012; Aratemur Cimen, 2015). Rutz and Balkan (2016) associate the importance attached to the school's academic success by the middle-class with their belief that paving the way for a successful university education for their children depends on academically successful high-schools. There are studies providing evidence that middle-class students are academically more successful than the ones from other classes (Lareau, 1997; Power et al., 2003; Crompton, 2008) and such findings support the idea that middle-class pays close attention to the academic success.

This study showed that middle-class parents and students considered the quality of teaching staff in their school choices. Others also made similar observations (e.g., Goldring and

Phillips, 2008; Ajuwon and Bradshaw, 2009; Crozier et al., 2011). The research studies compiled evidence that quality of teachers was an important predictor of students' academic success (see, for example, Rivkin et al., 2005; Hattie 2009). Results of these studies prove middle-class parents right in their expectations of teaching staff. A seminal study conducted by Crozier et al. (2011), in which the school preferences of middle and working-class families are compared, reports that middle-class families attach more importance to the quality of teachers. When our findings along with the others' are taken together, it could be inferred that as the middle-class is well-educated, they make use of this advantageous position while communicating with the teaching staff and hence somehow attempt to control them, acting as covert auditors (see also Lareu, 1997; Crozier, 1998).

Findings of this study point out that environmental factors as features of friends, school's reputation and others' recommendation are important for both parents and students while making a school choice. Researchers, such as, Woods (1996), van Zanten (2003), Bernal (2005), Crozier et al. (2011) and Aratemur Cimen (2015) touch upon the role of the environmental factors in the school preferences. An interesting observation comes from Bernal (2005) who argues that middle-class sees reputable and prestigious schools as a means to get differentiated from the working-class. Hence, middle-class pays close attention to the friendship opportunities, reputation and others' recommendation as all these features in one way or another potentially exhibit their difference.

Another important finding of this study was that middle-class parents and students tended to prefer schools with students whose families were economically and culturally similar to theirs in their choice of school. Similar observations are also made by others as well (see, Reay and Ball, 1997; Bernal, 2005; Maloutas, 2007; Raveaud and van Zanten, 2007; Crozier et al., 2011; Aratemur Cimen, 2015; Benson et al. 2015; Stacey, 2016). The researchers stated that middle-class did not want to choose schools consisting mostly of students from lower classes. School location was also found to be effective in school choice of middle-class parents. Similar findings are also reported by others (see, McNally, 2002; van Zanten, 2003; Vincent and Ball, 2004; Bernal, 2005; Maloutas, 2007; Goldring and Phillips, 2008; Rasky and Ringrose, 2009; Garnett, 2010; Aratemur Cimen, 2015; Benson et al., 2015; Prichard and Swezey, 2016). By preferring schools with students whose families have economic, cultural and social qualities similar to theirs, middle-class families actually try to preserve their own economic, cultural and social qualities and try to ensure this by their children's education (Lareau, 1997; Brantlinger, 2003; Power et al., 2003; Devine, 2004). Also Bourdieu (2006) argued that middle-class people tried to preserve their continuity by transferring their economic, cultural and social capital to their children through education.

That middle-class parents attach importance to the socio-economic status of the families of other students can also be indirectly associated with Coleman et al. (1966), Jencks et al. (1972) and the Plowden Report (1966). These sources have made a common observation that the family's societal

class and its cultural, social and economic qualities have a significant role in the success of the student. When looked at from this perspective, the fact that the middle class prefers schools with students whose families are economically, socially and culturally similar to theirs could be assessed as an indicator of their desire for their children to study together with academically successful students.

Though not directly related to our findings, we feel it worthwhile to note here that there are studies which reveal that middle-class families find themselves in a dilemma where they are adversely affected by the cultural richness while considering schools with students from different ethnic backgrounds (Gibbons and Machin, 2003; Raveaud and van Zanten, 2007; Boyd, 2011; Benson et al., 2015). After the civil war in Syria, the number of Syrian students studying in Turkey has become an issue that concerns the educators and the families. In 2011, the number of Syrian students studying at temporary education centers in Turkey is 34,000. The Syrian students were allowed to receive education with Turkish students at public schools with the “Regulation of Education Services for Foreigners” that was published by MoNE in 2014. The number of students studying at public schools has reached 450,000 in 2016 (MEB-MoNE, 2016). Therefore, ethnic background may be a new criterion in the coming years for the school choice of the middle-class in Turkey.

Consistent with findings of many studies examining the effect of religious factors in the school preferences of the families (Chang-Ho and Boyatt, 2007; Cohen-Zada and Sander, 2008; Ajuwon and Bradshaw, 2009; Belinda et al., 2013; Prichard and Swezey, 2016; Rowe, 2017), this study has found that the religious identity of the school is important for parents. In Turkey, schools which practice science/social studies programs in addition to the program of an Imam-Hatip high school (Project school) have begun operating in 2016. In this context, opening of schools which practice the programs of both an imam hatip high school and a science high school and the fact that boys and girls study separately at these schools have been an identifier for some middle-class families who consider religious and academic factors together. This can be interpreted as the willingness of the middle-class to preserve its religious values by providing their children with a school environment where their religious values are put in practice. According to Ajuwon and Bradshaw (2009), parents try to support the education of their children in a way that would be consistent with their religious beliefs.

One of the primary political reasons which especially affect the school preferences of parents is the closure of 1,017 private schools and 15 Foundation Universities following the coup attempt that occurred in Turkey on July 15, 2016. These closures occurred right before the period of preference for high schools. Therefore, this caused the middle-class parents and students to consider political factors while making a school choice such as the governmental support to the school type and association of school administration with the government. When the relevant literature is reviewed, it is seen that there are several studies that mention the impact of politics, political parties, party sympathies and the ruling government on education (Iversen and Stephens 2008; Jakobi et al., 2010; Vis, 2012; Gift and

Wibbels 2014; Garritzmman and Seng, 2016). The middle-class can be considered as a class that is aware of the relationship between politics and education and has the ability to make strategic choices accordingly (Apple, 2001; Benson et al., 2015). The choice of school is also a political act for the middle-class (Reay et al., 2013; Cucchiara and Horvat, 2014).

We finish discussion with an observation that we made during the study. Throughout this study, we observed that mothers were more active in the determination of the school preferences (19 mothers - 3 fathers). The majority of the participants in many other studies (Billingham and Kimelberg, 2013; van Zanten, 2003; Aratemur Cimen, 2015) focusing on middle-class parents were also mothers as well. We believe that mother dominance in our and other studies is far from a simple coincidence; it is, we think, related to the (and in fact reflect) middle-class mothers' qualities. In many studies conducted on the middle-class and education (Reay, 1998, 2005; Ball 2003; Griffith and Smith 2005; Crozier et al., 2011; Gottzén, 2011; Irwin and Elley, 2012; Rowe and Windle, 2012; Stacey, 2016; Yamamoto, 2016; Leyton and Rojas, 2017), the interest of middle-class mothers in education due to their educational backgrounds and the fact that they are the party taking an active role in the decisions regarding the education of their children are mentioned. May (2012) attributes the fact that middle-class mothers are responsible for the decisions taken during their children's education process to the reduction of mother and child relationships to an entrepreneurial one. According to May, mothers see their children as an investment instrument and try to maximize their profits by obtaining a good university diploma at the end of the process.

Conclusions and educational implications

In the study, it has been concluded that the school preferences of parents and students are affected by academic, physical, economic, environmental, personal, social and cultural, religious and political factors. This multi-dimensionality showed how careful and meticulous the middle-class is in their school choices. In line with this conclusion, it can be said that the middle class uses education as an instrument to regenerate itself.

In the study, it has been concluded that middle-class parents attach importance to the fact that parents of other students are economically, socially and culturally similar to themselves. The desire of the middle-class for their children to study with students from a similar habitus, reveals that this is a class which tries to preserve its advantageous position with its economic, social and cultural capital.

It has been seen that the middle class also attaches importance to its religious values, especially in public school preferences. This can be said to arise from the fact that the middle class tries to continue its struggle for existence by preserving its humane, ethical, religious and universal values as well as its economic and cultural capital. In the study, it has been found that the middle-class

parents and students make their choice of school by assessing political factors as well. In the research, it has been discovered that the participants position themselves according to the political incidents in the country during the choice of a school and they acknowledge that all types of schools have either a religious or a political identity regardless of them being a private or public school.

Our final words are concerned with a brief consideration of educational implications of our findings. In the study, it has been seen that the personal preferences of students in particular, remain in the background during their choice of school. The pressure of academic success and “diploma” on the students may turn them into unhappy and ordinary individuals in the future. Preferences and priorities of young people must be considered independently of market conditions, even during the struggle for class position and existence and steps must be taken in this direction. Academic, physical and social insufficiencies of public science high schools in particular, make the middle-class become dependent on the private sector and lead them into a vicious-circle. In order to overcome this, the public schools must look for ways to rescue itself from the clutches of neoliberal policies.

This study has been conducted with middle-class parents and students. The school choice process can be examined by adding different dimensions including school administrators and teachers to studies. Also, the determining factors can be revealed by researching the university preferences of the middle-class and other classes in the context of neoliberal policies implemented at the higher education level.

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Student Misbehaviors Confronted by Academics and Their Coping Experiences ⁱ

Cahit Erdem ⁱⁱ

Afyon Kocatepe University, Afyonkarahisar, Turkey

Mehmet Koçyiğit ⁱⁱⁱ

Afyon Kocatepe University, Afyonkarahisar, Turkey

Abstract

This study aims to put forth student misbehaviors confronted by academics and their experiences of coping with these behaviors with respect to types of student misbehaviors, setting, student characteristics, academics' responses, students' reaction to intervention, academics' feelings, attributions to possible causes of misbehaviors, and precautions to prevent repetition of misbehaviors. In this phenomenological study, the data were gathered from 19 academics working at different departments of various universities in Turkey through a semi-structured interview form in which they were asked to narrate a memory about a student misbehavior. Descriptive analysis was employed in analysis process and the codes were constantly compared. Interrater reliability of the coding was found as .80. Some of the main findings of the study include; student misbehaviors are grouped into categories of interfering with teaching of a lesson, not being interested in the lesson, inappropriate behaviors towards the academic, inappropriate behaviors towards peers, and disobeying the rules. The ratio of misbehaviors conducted by 'problematic' students is close to students who are perceived as 'unproblematic' or 'agreeable' students by the academics. The academics' responses to student misbehaviors include verbal warming, ignoring, imposing sanctions, resorting to violence, making changes about the class and leaving the setting. The students continued misbehavior, quitted misbehavior, resorted to violence or left the setting. Academics' attributions to misbehaviors are out-of-class causes (family-related, society-related and school administration related) and in-class causes (students-related, academic-related and curriculum/ school system related). With this study, it is aimed to contribute to research in the literature on academics' classroom management.

Keywords: Classroom management, academics, student misbehavior

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ⁱⁱ **Cahit Erdem**, PhD., School of Foreign Languages, Afyon Kocatepe University, Afyonkarahisar, Turkey.

Correspondence: cerdem@aku.edu.tr

ⁱⁱⁱ **Mehmet Koçyiğit**, PhD., Faculty of Education, Afyon Kocatepe University, Afyonkarahisar, Turkey.

Introduction

Education aims to rehabilitate undesired student behaviors as well as to help students gain positive behaviors (Özer, Bozkurt & Tuncay, 2014). Realizing these aims necessitates effective classroom management skills to create a sound learning environment. In the formation of this environment, the behaviors performed by each stakeholder in the classroom play significant roles for a positive teaching-learning atmosphere. Behavior is the act, react or function of an individual driven by one's motives and intents (Johnson, 2003). Behavior involves affective, intellectual and psychomotor reactions against stimuli and includes feelings, attitudes and mental processes which are not directly observed as well as overt physical actions (Ada & Baysal, 2018; Özel & Bayındır, 2008). Teachers try to foster positive student behaviors and dissolve undesired ones. Undesired student behaviors are mostly referred to as student misbehaviors. Teachers try to eliminate student misbehaviors to create a well-managed classroom where interaction, affect and immediacy are high and discipline problems are rare (Richmond, Wrench & Gorhan, 2009).

Student misbehaviors are behaviors that hinder teaching-learning process or affect it negatively (Başar, 2009; Celep, 2008). These behaviors also threat positive classroom behaviors (Bingham, Carlson, Dwyer & Prisbell, 2009). Korkmaz (2013) lists the characteristics of student misbehaviors as hindering learning, risking safety, giving damage to properties and blocking socialization. Yiğit (2018) groups student misbehaviors as individual behaviors such as being unprepared for the lesson, not paying attention to the lesson, talking without permission, lying; behaviors towards peers such as holding a grudge of their success, complaining, giving nicknames, bullyragging; and behaviors towards the teacher such as not fulfilling a duty, opposing, and sitting inconveniently. Student misbehaviors are categorized as active or passive, as well (Richmond, Wrench & Gorhan, 2009).

There are various reasons for student misbehaviors. While some stem from in-class characteristics, some other stem from out-of-class causes. Student misbehaviors may be associated with family-related issues, physical properties of classrooms, curriculum-related problems or teacher's classroom management abilities. Coping with these misbehaviors requires effective classroom management strategies. McLeod, Fisher & Hoover (2003) groups classroom management strategies as prevention and intervention. Prevention strategies include positive reinforcement (social, privilege and tangible reinforcers), negative reinforcement (nonverbal and verbal) and extinction while intervention strategies include demand, consequence (restitution, restoration, restriction and reflection), individual intervention plan and outside referrals (administrators or outside professionals). However, it should also be noted that classroom management in the 21st century requires proactive discipline measures

which suggest preventing conflicts and problem behaviors as opposed to punishing misbehaviors when they arise (McLeod, Fisher & Hoover, 2003).

Furthermore, the types and reasons of student misbehaviors vary according to the level of education and they are up to various variables. Therefore, it is not possible to suggest a single remedy for preventing or resolving these problem behaviors (Ada & Baysal, 2018). As student misbehaviors may also lead to other and potentially more problematic behaviors, they need to be resolved when they occur as well as taking measures before they show up. The intricacy of dealing with student misbehaviors unearths the significance of teachers' classroom management skills. A well-managed classroom is the first step in providing effective instruction.

The literature on classroom management with regard to students misbehaviors is ample; however, the research studies mostly focus on pre-school, elementary and secondary levels (Aksu, 1999; Çankaya & Çanakçı, 2011; Sadık, 2006; Siyez, 2009; İflazoğlu & Bulut, 2005) and there is limited research as to student misbehaviors confronted by academics at tertiary level (Al Qahtani, 2016; Bingham et al., 2009; Meyers, Bender, Hill & Thomas, 2006; Murphy, 2010), particularly in Turkish context (Güleç, 2013; Sapancı & Kuyumcu Vardar, 2018; Üstünlüoğlu, 2013).

Sapancı & Kuyumcu Vardar (2018) identified the frequency of student misbehaviors encountered by academics and their levels of disturbance due to these behaviors. Güleç (2013) identified student misbehaviors at English preparatory classes at a university. Üstünlüoğlu (2013) determined misbehaviors at university level, strategies used by academics and possible causes of these behaviors and compared the results with American counterparts. Research is needed in this field because as well as being scarce in Turkey, the available studies are quantitative, except for one, and focus on only one aspect of student misbehaviors such as frequencies of the behaviors. Beside the student misbehaviors, the academics' responses, the effect of their response on students, the setting of the problem behavior, the characteristics of students with misbehaviors, the feelings of academics, possible causes of the problem behavior and precautions for preventing reoccurrence of misbehaviors are to be studied. Therefore, this study aims to put forth student misbehaviors confronted by academics in instruction process and their experiences of coping with these behaviors. To this end, the research questions to be answered in this study are as follows:

1. What are the characteristics of university students' misbehaviors?
2. How do the academics cope with student misbehaviors?
3. What do the academics attribute to as possible causes of student misbehaviors?
4. How do the academics prevent potential student misbehaviors?

Method

This is a qualitative phenomenological study. Phenomenological study design is based on unearthing the lived experiences of several participants related to a common phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). In this study, the phenomenon of classroom management is explored with a focus on Turkish academics' classroom management experiences regarding students' misbehaviors. To this end, the participants were asked to tell one of their memories about student misbehaviors that they regard as the most important or unforgettable one.

Participants

The participants are 19 academics working at different departments of various universities in Turkey selected through convenience sampling. Data were demanded from academics with various teaching backgrounds. Demographics of the participants are provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographics of the Participants

| Participant | Gender | Field of study | Faculty of graduation | Education level | Seniority |
|-------------|--------|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------|
| P1 | Male | History | Science and Letters | PhD | 8 years |
| P2 | Male | Turkish Ed. | Education | PhD | 11 years |
| P3 | Female | Math. Ed. | Education | PhD | 9 years |
| P4 | Male | Tourism | Tourism | PhD | 6 years |
| P5 | Female | English Ed. | Education | MA | 15 years |
| P6 | Male | Psychological counseling | Education | PhD | 1 years |
| P7 | Female | English Ed. | Education | BA | 9 years |
| P8 | Female | English Ed. | Education | PhD | 9 years |
| P9 | Female | English Ed. | Science and letters | BA | 5 years |
| P10 | Male | English Ed. | Education | BA | 10 years |
| P11 | Male | English Ed. | Education | PhD | 10 years |
| P12 | Male | English Ed. | Education | PhD | 11 years |
| P13 | Male | English Ed. | Education | MA | 9 years |
| P14 | Male | English Ed. | Education | PhD | 6 years |
| P15 | Male | English Ed. | Open and Distance | BA | 8 years |
| P16 | Male | Special Ed. | Education | MA | 3 years |
| P17 | Male | English Ed. | Education | PhD | 16 years |
| P18 | Male | Education Administration | Education | PhD | 12 years |
| P19 | Female | English Ed. | Education | MA | 9 years |

Data collection and analysis

The data in the study were gathered through a semi-structured interview form developed by the researchers based on the studies in the literature. Through the interview form, the participants were asked to narrate a memory about student misbehaviors and questions included what these behaviors are, the setting in which misbehaviors occur, characteristics of misbehaving students, academics' coping strategies with these behaviors, their feelings in this process, students' reaction to academics' intervention, potential reasons of these behavior and precautions taken to prevent repetition of similar behaviors. The data were gathered in the fall semester of 2018-2019. Descriptive analysis was preferred in data analysis and constant comparison method was employed in this process. The data were analyzed in parallel with research questions and reported with direct quotations.

Validity, Reliability and Ethics

To provide validity and reliability, the data were coded by the researchers with constant comparison and were cross checked when needed during the process. Besides, direct quotations were presented here in the study. None of the names or any other information that would reveal the identity of the participants or the students from the memories were used. The participants were coded as P1, P2 etc. To ensure the consistency between coders in the data analysis, Miles & Huberman interrater reliability coefficient was calculated. According to Miles & Huberman (1994), the reliability was found to be .80 which means there is a consistency of the data coded by the researchers.

Findings

Findings regarding the student misbehaviors reported by the academics

Student misbehaviors as reported by the academics can be listed alphabetically as abusing the academic's goodwill and making fun of her; not sitting in one's place; being disrespectful to the academic; being late to class and demanding not to be recorded as absent; being late to class repeatedly; cheating; chewing gums in a disrespectful manner despite being warned; dealing with stuff not related with the lesson such as listening to music on the phone; getting into classroom without permission and taking a student out; inappropriate sexual affair; insulting; sleeping in the class; rejecting criticality and demanding package knowledge; talking among themselves; talking irrelevantly without permission; threatening the academic; trying to attract attention and getting into power struggle with the academic; violence against peers.

These student misbehaviors can be grouped into five main categories. The first one is *interfering with teaching of a lesson*. Not sitting in one's place, trying to attract attention, talking loudly and giving irrelevant answers to academic's questions are examples of this category. P11 and

P14 report these behaviors as: “I had to get a student out of the classroom as she insisted on talking loudly in way that hinders my teaching although I warned her many times.” (P11). “One of the students was giving irrelevant answers to all discussions in the class and he was doing this without permission and he didn’t allow others to speak at all”. (P14)

The second category is *not being interested in the lesson*. These behaviors include dealing with irrelevant objects such as mobile phones, sleeping or not engaging with the lesson. P12 narrates such a behavior as:

At that time, I was fully against students’ using mobile phones during the class and I importunately told them not to. I could not take it kindly if students used mobile phones particularly when I was teaching an important subject. Just like this, I was teaching present perfect tense diligently and I noticed one of my students playing with his mobile phone. We caught each other’s eye and he continued playing the phone although he noticed I was trying to warn him. I got really angry with his reckless manner. (P12)

Though these behaviors do not directly interfere with the instruction process going on, they affect the classroom atmosphere negatively.

The third category is *inappropriate behaviors towards the academic*. Being disrespectful, insulting, threatening and making fun are examples of this type of student misbehaviors. An unordinary case was reported by P2 as follows:

I was going to teach about Tevfik Fikret (a Turkish author) and I planned the lesson beforehand and made preparation for it. When I entered the classroom, one of my students, (normally a popular and respectful student), was holding ten banknotes of 100 USD and swinging it like a hand-held fan. First, I ignored it and started the lesson, but he was still doing the same thing. I told him to put those banknotes into his wallet so that we could go on the lesson. He then threw the banknotes towards me and said: “Keep on teaching, teacher. Chill, OK?!”

Similarly, P17 reported a student swearing at him and attacking physically. In some cases, these behaviors are not physical but create trouble for the academic. For instance, P19 reported that she believed in one student that his mother had a physical disability and reprehended other students for making fun of that student. However, it came out that his mother was healthy, and they were making fun of the academic. These behaviors challenge the authority of the academic as well as hindering the instruction process.

The fourth category is *inappropriate behaviors towards peers* such as inappropriate sexual affair and violence. In one of the cases, the academic reported that he saw two students having

intercourse in an empty classroom while in another case one of the students was using violence repeatedly against his peer. The last category is *disobeying the rules*. Cheating in the exams, being late to class and entering the classroom without permission are some of them.

Findings regarding the settings in which student misbehaviors occurred

The participants were asked in which settings the students displayed misbehaviors. As most of the interaction among the students and academics take place in the classrooms, most of the participants (16) stated that the misbehaviors occurred in the classroom during the instruction process. In two of the cases, the misbehaviors were reported as during exams. One student cheated in an exam and the academic was a proctor. In the second case, one student rejected sitting in the desk the proctor had asked him to in an exam. The last case happened again in the classroom but not during the instruction process. The academic went to the class early for some preparation to find two students having intercourse in the classroom.

Findings regarding the characteristics of students with misbehaviors

Analysis of the data reveal that of the 19 cases, 14 were individual misbehaviors while 5 misbehaviors were displayed by a group of students. Of the 14 individual misbehaviors, 11 were acted by male students while 3 were by female students. This distribution shows that boys tend to display misbehaviors when compared to girls.

Regarding their general behavior patterns, 6 students were reported to be problematic students whereas 5 students were reported as unproblematic and well-mannered students in general. The students perceived as problematic by the academics were described as “student with strange behaviors”, “unsuccessful”, “careless, unlikable and spoiled”, and “having behavioral disorders”.

P5 describes the students as:

I don’t remember exactly but that class was the worst class of that year academically and morally. She was an unsuccessful student. She wouldn’t pass the class mathematically, but she attended classes in order not to fail the class due to absenteeism as they could pass the class if they did not have any problem with absenteeism.

The students perceived as normal and unproblematic by academics were described as “respectful in general”, “normal”, “quiet and calm” and “actually, he was a good student” and so on. P2, for instance, described the student as: “Normally, he was a popular student among his friends. His father was a tradesman. He sometimes worked at his father’s shop. He never disrespected elderly.”.

Findings regarding academics' responses to misbehaviors

The participant academics displayed a wide array of responses to student misbehaviors such as shouting, changing students' places, reminding school rules, beating and so on. The responses of the academic can be grouped into six main categories. The categories and sample behaviors are listed in Table 2.

Table 2. Categories and Sample Behaviors of Academics' Responses to Student Misbehaviors

| Categories of academics' responses | Sample responses | f |
|------------------------------------|--|----|
| Verbal warning | Raising voice, reminding rules, demanding empathy from the student, talking to student on problematic issue | 11 |
| Ignoring | Not taking personally, not giving any reaction | 5 |
| Imposing sanctions | Marking the student absent, asking the student to leave the class, addressing the administration, take the minutes | 5 |
| Resorting to violence | Beating the student, breaking pen to threaten students | 3 |
| Making changes about the class | Giving a break, asking students to make suggestions as to instruction process | 3 |
| Leaving the setting | Leaving the class, withdrawal | 2 |

The most frequent response category is verbal warning. Actually, it is mostly the entry level intervention type of academics. While in some cases, the academics' responses are limited to verbal warnings such as raising voice or reminding rules, in some cases they are followed by other types of behaviors. For instance, P14 found it adequate to warn him verbally: "I tried to ignore him. Then I warned him that his chattering and frivolousness would lessen respect to himself and tried to continue to ignore his behaviors.". However, when verbal warning does not solve the problem, other types of responses come after as in the case of P5:

One student was chewing gum in a way that distracted my concentration. I asked her to quit but she told she wouldn't. I asked her a few times more but this time shouting but she insisted on chewing gum. I really got angry as she was overthrowing my authority. So, I left the classroom.

The data reveal that after verbal warming or ignoring, the most frequent responses are imposing sanctions such as marking the student absent or declassing the student. Though in two cases the academics first warned students before resorting to violence, in one case the academic (P15) attacked the students without warning due to an inappropriate affair: "With the surprise of the event, I angrily attacked the male student physically and the female student verbally. I had a burst of anger and hit him hard. Then I took them to administration and demanded an investigation.".

When the academics feel desperate, they prefer to leave the setting. In one case, the academic left the classroom and came back in the next hour but in the other case the academic totally withdrew from the class and didn't want to teach them anymore.

Findings regarding the students' responses back to the academics

The students reacted variously in response to academics' interventions to misbehaviors. While in some cases the misbehavior disappears, in some other cases the misbehavior continues. The students' responses are categorized into five main groups and listed in Table 3.

Table 3. The Students' Responses to Academics' Interventions

| Categories of students' responses | Sample responses | f |
|--|---|----------|
| Continuing misbehavior | Insisting on the misbehavior persistently, responding inconsiderately | 8 |
| Obedying and quitting misbehavior | doing what is told though with some grumbling, apologizing, not repeating the misbehavior | 7 |
| Unresponsiveness | Remain unresponsive, accepting the guilt and keeping silent | 3 |
| Resorting to violence | Walking up to the academic, threatening in the office | 2 |
| Leaving the setting | Leaving the classroom | 2 |

When the students' responses to academics' interventions are examined, it is evident that the students quitted misbehaviors only in 7 cases. In 8 cases the students continued the misbehaviors. Adding the resorting to violence and leaving the setting behaviors, the number of these cases increases up to 12. The misbehaviors which were abolished were comparatively minor problems. For instance, P6 reports his case as follows:

Some of the students were trying to attract attention and getting into power struggle with me. I also witnessed them having arguments with their peers. I solved this problem through communicating with them in that they should settle their conflicts outside the classroom as it is normal to have disagreements. I preferred not to get into power struggle with them and they started to behave positively in just two weeks.

It is an interesting finding that the intervention types that abolishes the student misbehaviors for good are physical violence and serious verbal warning such as reprimanding the student firmly. P18 reports his response when a student came late to class without knocking the door and sat at his desk directly:

I took him out of the classroom and told him what he needed to do in a way he could understand (means reprimanding firmly). I told him that we were at university not at his former high school. Other academics hearing my voice also came out of their classrooms. After that, he never came

late to school and also his other problematic behaviors disappeared. Besides, some other students also gave up their minor misbehaviors.

There are also cases in which the students responded physically to the academic or just left the class. These student behaviors left the academics in a desperate situation. One academic reported that after the class, the student came to his office, walked up to him and threatened him as well as insulting. Though these behaviors are in minority, they constitute severe problems for academics.

Findings regarding feelings when coping with student misbehaviors

The academics' feeling in coping with student misbehaviors are listed in Table 4 with respect to their frequencies.

Table 4. Academics' Reported Feelings in Coping with Student Misbehaviors

| Feeling | f |
|----------------|----------|
| Angry | 14 |
| Upset | 4 |
| Surprised | 4 |
| Fear | 3 |
| Regret | 3 |
| Calm, patient | 2 |
| Out of control | 2 |
| Decisive | 2 |
| Disappointed | 1 |
| Helpless | 1 |

The most frequent feeling as reported by the academics is anger. This feeling mostly stems from students' disrespectful behaviors and risk of losing authority. P17 reported that he got really angry as the student was harming his authority in the class:

I warned him many times not to ruin the peace in the class. He continued misbehaviors that undermined my authority...(after having physical trouble with the student but being obliged to disclaim request for discipline committee due to administration) I was devastated out of anger. My authority was completely lost in the class.

Following anger, the academics reported feeling upset and surprised. The feeling of surprise stems from misbehaviors from unproblematic students that the academics trusted. In two cases academics stated that they lost their control and attacked the students physically.

Findings regarding the academics' attributions as the causes of misbehaviors

The participant academics were asked what the possible causes of student misbehaviors might be. The possible causes stated by the academics can be grouped into two main categories: in-class causes, and out-of-class causes. In-class causes are also grouped into sub-categories of students-related, academics-related and curriculum/school system related. Out-of-class causes are sub-categorized into family-related, society related and school administration-related causes. The categories are presented in Figure 1.

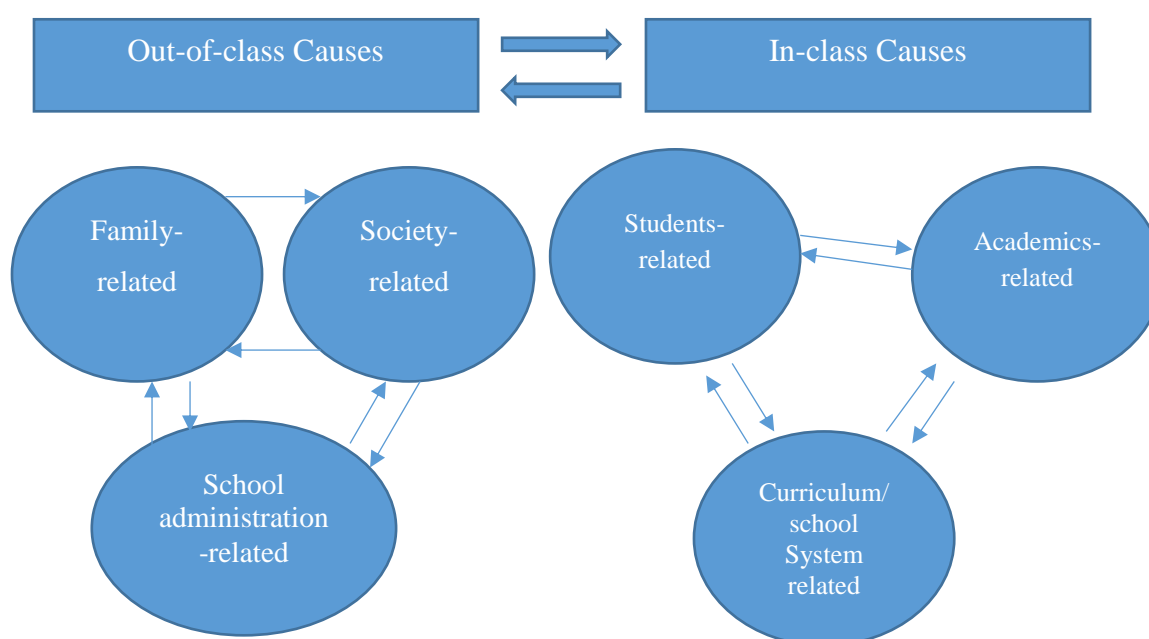


Figure 1. Possible Causes of Student Misbehaviors Perceived by Academics

As present in Figure 1, the causes are in interaction with each other. In most cases, the participants provided multiple causes rather than one-single cause. Though family, society and school administration related causes are grouped as out-of-class causes, they highly interact with in-class causes and student misbehaviors. Family related causes are preference of departments to study by family pressure and family's lack of education. P14 attributes the student misbehaviors to family pressure as well as students-related causes:

I guess the student was going through psychological problems and as far as I understood from our dialogues, he chose the department with family pressure and he was studying reluctantly. They forced him because ELT graduates can find employment and English is important.

Insufficient education level of family members is also perceived by the academics as one of the main causes of student misbehaviors. The second sub-category of out-of-class causes are society-

related causes which are ‘teacher perception in the society’ and ‘moral problems in the society’. One academic stated that teachers and academics are not valued in the society therefore the students do not respect them. Another academic suggested that as moral problems in the society are prevalent, the students think that it is normal to conduct immoral behaviors at school. The last sub-category is related to school administration. The academics criticize the administration for being loose in discipline-related issues and passing over problems. P17 reports a typical case of this kind:

(after being exposed to physical violence and threats by the student) The principal talked to the student. He even offered tea to the student. Then he talked to me and told that the student was regretful and tried to reconcile us. His parents also called the rectorate. As a result, the administration had me withdraw my petition. I lost my authority in the class and the student committed violence against his friends many times later on.

Regarding in-class causes, the academics mostly blamed students for their misbehaviors rather than their own classroom management skills. Characteristics of students such as frivolousness and excessive self-confidence, attaching great importance to money, desire to attract attention, purposelessness, being used to teacher-centered instruction, having psychological problems, perception of university life are listed by the academics. P18 lists this kind of causes as the student’s past learning experiences, urban legends about universities and the student’s circle of friends. P1 also describes the student as frivolous and excessive self-confidence due to being a university student.

There are also academics, though few, who see their own characteristics as possible causes. Looking young/ being close to students’ ages, deficiency in classroom management, being new in the institution, not raising voice and not being authoritarian are thought to be potential causes. P17 gives a full explanation of possible causes of student misbehaviors due to her own characteristics as she faced misbehaviors by a large group of students:

There are various causes of this case. First, there were many problematic students in the same class. The second is my inability in settling my authority as of the beginning of the semester. Third, I could not observe and get to know students adequately. Forth, I made concessions to discipline in order not to ruin class atmosphere or prevent students from hating me as a rigid, authoritarian teacher. Fifth, I intervened to seating arrangement and thus, the bad students spoiled the good ones. Sixth, I was inexperienced both in human relations and in professional teaching. The last one is my lack of anger management.

Issues related to curriculum or school system is the last sub-category of in-class causes of student misbehaviors. As well as crowded classes or education system in general, the most apparent problem is about preparatory English classes where academic success is not needed to pass to departments unless the students do not have problems with absenteeism. This case results in a number

of students who do not care about the instruction but need to stay in class. This problem was stated by four academics.

Findings regarding precautions taken by academics to prevent student misbehaviors

The academics were asked about the precautions they took to prevent repetition of the misbehaviors they confronted. It was revealed that the academics in six cases did not take any precautions to this end. Though some cases are extraordinary and cannot be prevented, such as students' inappropriate affair, some could be prevented but the academics did not care about them. Regarding the 13 cases, the precautions vary depending on the case such as entering the exam hall a few minutes late so that the students have time to settle, trying to prevent copying through keeping the exam documents in a file or closing the window if the files are close to it, trying to be more considerate and patient in relationships with students and trying to give a serious image to students particularly in the beginning of the semesters to keep authority.

Though the precautions vary depending on the case, there are two major types of common precautions. The first one is *setting rules or informing students on a certain issue at the beginning of the semester*. This type of precaution was reported five times by the academics. For instance, P7 stated: "In the beginning of the semesters, I informed students that I would mark them absent if they were late to class.". Similarly, P16 requests her students to let her know if their attention is lost so that she could make an intervention. P18 stated: "In the following years, I set rules with the class and informed them they shouldn't be late to class.".

The other common precaution is trying to *establish stronger communication with students and get to know them more*. P19 provides a good example for this type of precaution:

First of all, I am now trying to get to know my students and their families. I do this by giving students questionnaires or short essays about themselves at the beginning of the semester. This way, I learn about students' private issues before their friends and try to prevent any exploitations...

Discussion and Conclusion

This study explores student misbehaviors displayed at tertiary level, which is mostly ignored in the literature, and academics' coping experiences with these behaviors with respect to type of student misbehaviors, setting, student characteristics, academics' responses, students' reaction to intervention, academics' feeling, attributions to possible causes of misbehaviors, and precautions to prevent repetition of misbehaviors. Depending on a descriptive analysis on data from 19 academics of various departments and universities in Turkey with different teaching backgrounds, the findings are

reported in parallel with research questions. The results are discussed with the available studies in the literature.

The academics confronted various student misbehaviors such as listening to music on the phone; cheating, being disrespectful to the academic; being late for class and demanding not to be recorded as absent; insulting; talking irrelevantly without permission; violence against peers; threatening the academic and so on, which can be grouped into five main categories: interfering with teaching of a lesson, not being interested in the lesson, inappropriate behaviors towards the academic, inappropriate behaviors towards peers, and disobeying the rules. It can be suggested that these findings are in parallel with the findings of other studies on student misbehaviors at tertiary level. Sapancı & Vardar (2018) lists these behaviors as using mobile phone in the lesson, talking, sleeping, disrespect, and using slang. In addition to these, other reported misbehaviors are lack of interest in the lesson, resisting authority, violence and being late to class, plagiarism in homework and research (Al Qahtani, 2016; Üstünlüoğlu, 2013; Yumru, 2013). The findings of these studies overlap with the categories of student misbehaviors formed in this study.

The misbehaviors were mostly reported to be acted during the instruction period. This is due to the fact that academics' interaction with students are mostly limited to class time; however, the data also put forth that though the misbehaviors occur in the class time, the effects of it continues out of the class, as well. Some academics had to withdraw from the class or backdate the maternity leave to avoid seeing the students. Two other academics reported that the students they had problems with continued to disturb them in the following years by loud laughter or gazing at them.

Regarding the characteristics of students, males tend to show misbehaviors more. Given the socio-cultural characteristics of Turkey, male students tend to be more confident and extrovert. So, they are more prone to display misbehaviors. Female students' misbehaviors usually include not paying attention to the instruction as opposed to interfering with the instruction or acting violent behaviors towards academics or peers. Students may show misbehaviors individually or in groups. Another interesting finding is that the ratio of misbehaviors conducted by 'problematic' students is close to students who are perceived as unproblematic or agreeable students by the academics. Yet again, the misbehaviors by the problematic students are more overt such as violence or insulting. The characteristics of students are not dwelled on in the literature, to the researchers' best knowledge.

The academics' responses to student misbehaviors are grouped into six categories in this study: verbal warming, ignoring, imposing sanctions, resorting to violence, making changes about the class and leaving the setting. Üstünlüoğlu (2013) reports two main strategies which are verbal warming and outlining the expectations. In this study, outlining expectations or informing students about an issue through setting rules are carried out by the academics as a strategy they used in the next

years or semesters. The experience taught them that they should inform students on issues such as mobile phone usage or being late to class at the beginning of the semester. Similarly, Al Qahtani (2016) reports the intervention strategies used by academic in Saudi Arabia as providing a plan at the beginning of the semester, establishing discipline rules and follow them, respecting students and eye contact.

This current study is distinguished from most of the studies in the literature in that it focuses on specific memories on student misbehaviors. Therefore, it provides academics' instant responses to emergent misbehaviors, by which rich data are obtained. This characteristic of the research design allows one to learn about students' reactions to interventions by the academics, which is rare in the literature. The students' responses are grouped as continuing misbehavior, obeying and quitting misbehavior, unresponsiveness, resorting the violence, and leaving the setting. These responses unearth the effectiveness of academics' interventions to student misbehaviors. The data reveal that the students quitted the misbehavior totally only in seven cases. More interestingly, the interventions which totally abolished the misbehaviors are violence or rigid reprimanding by the academics, which can be accounted for socio-cultural characteristics of the students. Interventions such as considerate verbal warmings or ignoring have been effective in very rare cases. During these processes, the most frequent feeling as reported by the academics is anger stemming from students' disrespectful behaviors and risk of losing authority. Feelings upset and surprised follow anger.

Another significant result is related to the attributions to possible causes of student misbehaviors. Academics' attributions can be grouped into two main groups: out-of-class causes (family-related, society-related and school administration related) and in-class causes (students-related, academic-related and curriculum/ school system related). It is evident in the findings that student characteristics are perceived as the main causes of student misbehaviors, which is followed by family and society related causes. Few academics associated the misbehaviors with their own classroom management skills. In the same vein, Üstünlüoğlu (2013) found out that the student misbehaviors were attributed to parents and students by both American and Turkish academics. Few American academics related them to their own characteristics. In studies on student misbehaviors at lower education levels such as secondary school, teachers also attribute to students and their parents as the main causes of misbehaviors (Görmez, 2016).

In some studies it can be seen that in Turkey, university students choose the university or departments to study not only according to the academical criteria but also there are some other factors such as parental or social involvement in the process of selection (Koçyiğit, Eğmir & Akçıl, 2018) and moreover most of the times the goals of the higher education and the goals of the students do not overlap (Koçyiğit, Eğmir & Akçıl, 2018; Koçyiğit & Eğmir, 2015). These also form a background for student misbehaviors in tertiary level. Hence, it can be seen that student misbehaviors may stem from

various causes; however, academics' classroom management skills lead the way for potential misbehaviors. Therefore, academics should be aware of their own classroom management skills and its potential effects on student misbehaviors and classroom atmosphere, which is in direct connection with efficiency in instruction.

The experiences of student misbehaviors have affected most of the academics with respect to their classroom management skills positively. Depending on their experience, the academics have taken some precautions such as setting classroom rules or getting to know students in order to prevent similar misbehaviors either in that class or in following other classes. In this respect, these experiences have been didactic and practical for them.

This study has investigated student misbehaviors at higher education institutions through academics' narration of a significant memory for them. It was found out in the study that academics experienced such kind of misbehaviors mostly in the early years of their teaching career. This finding posits that experience is a significant factor in classroom management skills. Given that, unlike teachers at elementary or secondary levels, academics mostly do not need to go through a pedagogical training to be an instructor at universities in Turkey and research on student misbehaviors at tertiary level is rare particularly in Turkey, this study fills an important gap in the literature through providing data on student misbehaviors at tertiary level from various respects. Similar thorough studies, rather than providing just frequencies of student misbehaviors, are needed. Findings of these studies may serve for a needs-assessment to be used for designing in-service training for enriching academics' classroom management skills. These findings also address educational administrators and policy makers.

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Preservice Classroom Teachers' Opinions on Use of Educational Games in Instructions of Primary School Courses

Murtaza Aykaçⁱ

Niğde Ömer Halisdemir University, Niğde, Turkey

Davut Köğçeⁱⁱ

Niğde Ömer Halisdemir University, Niğde, Turkey

Abstract

This study aimed to examine preservice classroom teachers' opinions on how educational games improve their teaching skills. In accordance with this purpose, the qualitative research design was employed. The study group was composed of 60 preservice teachers course attending the Department of Primary Education in the Faculty of Education at a state university in the spring term of the 2017/2018 academic year they all who took the physical education and game teaching. A semi-structured, open-ended question form prepared in accordance with the purpose of the research and letters were used as the data collection instruments. Answers of the preservice teachers to the open-ended questions were scanned as images and transferred into digital medium. Next, the obtained data were subjected to a content analysis with the MAXQDA 12 qualitative data analysis software and the data products were analyzed with the "data coding" technique. The data obtained from the preservice teachers with letters were analyzed by both researchers descriptively. The findings achieved in the analysis were utilized to reinforce the findings on themes and codes achieved in the analysis of the data obtained with the semi-structured interview forms. It was concluded that educational games improved the preservice classroom teachers' competencies of planning and implementing the use of games in the instruction of primary school course attainments. It was also concluded in the study that the participants had been very little aware of educational games' definition and their contributions to student learning before the application and their awareness increased after the application.

Keywords: Educational games, game teaching, preservice classroom teachers

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ⁱ **Murtaza Aykaç**, Assist. Prof. Dr., Department of Preschool Education, Faculty of Education, Niğde Ömer Halisdemir University, Niğde, Turkey.

Correspondence: murtazaaykac@gmail.com

ⁱⁱ **Davut Köğçe**, Assist. Prof. Dr., Department of Elementary Mathematics Education, Faculty of Education, Niğde Ömer Halisdemir University, Niğde, Turkey.

Introduction

Innovations and developments in the social domain have manifested themselves also in the educational domain. Education plays a great role in raising the future generations in a better way and bringing them to the society. In other words, education has a key role in society's scientific and technological development and transformation. These transformations have led to important changes in the perspective of education, causing the rote learning approach based on transferring information to students to lose its validity (Aykaç ve Çakır İlhan, 2014).

The rapid process of change that has been observed in almost every domain orientates societies to a constant search for raising more qualified manpower (Gürkan and Gökçe, 2000). Among such searches, perspective of teacher has naturally changed along with the changing perspectives and approaches of education. Therefore, a teacher has not been an individual who teaches only by transferring information and evaluates whether what he/she has told is learned. In the modern mentality of education, a teacher should be an individual who guides children in their paths to develop freely, express themselves in a better way and become humans who are sensitive, thoughtful, questioning, creative and implementing (Yavuzer, 2008). Important duties fall to teachers in this guidance process. It is expected from teachers to guide the act of learning and take students to the center and contribute to achieving the purposes of courses in primary education by creating a culture in classroom settings which are equipped with the values and attitudes required by democratic life (Doğanay, 2005; Riedler & Eryaman, 2016). In this sense, it is expected from teachers to be equipped with general culture, occupational and content knowledge as well as being competent at using contemporary instructional methods and techniques. That is to say, teachers need to have competencies in regard to using methods and techniques which allow students to actualize themselves in efficient learning environments (Eryaman, 2006; Geist, 2001). One of the main methods that allow students to participate in the learning process efficiently and render the learning process effective is educational games (Adıgüzel, 1993). Educational games are important instruments in children gaining important experiences, being able to think independently, express their thoughts and in the development of the creativity process. With teacher-centered methods that do not enable students to participate in the learning-teaching process, it is not possible for students to take an interest in the courses in primary school.

Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

Akandere (2013) defines educational games as activities which ensure children's mental and physical health development, provide them with good behaviors and habits and give pleasure and joy to players. Demirel (1993) defines it as an instrument that helps learned information reinforced and individuals learn in a more comfortable environment by improving their physical and mental abilities.

According to Güven and Özerbaş (2016), educational games are instruments used in learning the attainments of any course in an entertaining way through a healthy communication among students.

Given these definitions of educational game together, it is possible to define educational game as activities which make courses effective and fun to ensure that children enjoy the course, establish interactions and improve their mental activities accordingly to achieve the attainments of the related course. Furthermore, educational games function to address children's cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills in a holistic way to provide a rich and retentive learning environment with versatile stimuli.

Since some of the courses in primary education (Mathematics, Science, etc.) contain abstract subjects for students, they may find it hard to focus their attentions in these courses. Once attainments of these courses are structured with educational games, children use all their senses efficiently during a game. Consequently, educational games can provide them with an opportunity learn by doing, experiencing and having fun within a group. Importance of educational games included in the learning process comes forth in regard to this function (Kırbaş and Koparan Girgin, 2018).

Particularly in primary education, educational games are activities that can be included in the instructional part of courses (Demirel, 1993). There are great duties and responsibilities that fall to teachers in using educational games as instruments in the teaching of course attainments. Teachers to achieve this need to have skills and competencies required by the curriculum.

Being aware of positive effect of a game on children, a teacher can benefit from educational games to render the learning-teaching process more entertaining and help students achieve attainments of a course and reinforce what they have learned (Çangır, 2008). It is expected from teachers to train themselves in educational games and use educational games as an instructional method in the classroom so that the curriculum can be effective. It is important for teachers to have an effective planning and implementing skill to do this in the required way. Hence, preservice classroom teachers who will raise new generations in future need to have the competency to plan and implement educational games in the instruction of primary school courses. Because primary school years are of special importance in personality development and development of linguistic skills. Performed by teachers for students who are just starting the primary school, educational games present a brand-new experience.

There are studies from several domains which explore that educational games have positive effects on students' learning. Studies carried out by Gülhan (2012), Özyürek and Çavuş (2016), Koç (2017), and Varan (2017) on primary education courses; Randel, Morris, Wetzel and Whitehill (1992), Altunay (2004), Çuha (2004), Tural (2005), Çankaya (2007), and Gökbulut and Yumuşak (2014) on Mathematics course; Özaslan (2006), Gül (2009), Gedik (2012), and Gülsoy (2013) on Turkish course;

Bayazitoğlu (1996) and Hanbaba and Bektaş (2007) on Life Sciences course; Kaya (2007) and Işık (2016) on English course; Karabacak (1996), Pehlivan (1997), Altınbulak (2004) and İlter (2015) on Social Studies course; Ercanlı (1997), Şaşmaz Ören and Erduran Avcı (2004), Yurt (2007), Coşkun, Akarsu and Kariper (2012), Bayat, Kılıçaslan and Şentürk (2014), Kaya and Elgün (2015), Alıcı (2016), Çelik (2017), and Can (2017) on Science and Technology course; Doğanay (2002) on History course; Zengin (2002), Çangır (2008), and Karasan (2013) on Religious Culture course; Gökay (2003) on Art course; and Duman (2013) on Visual Arts course concluded that educational games increased students' achievements levels. Moreover, it was emphasized in these studies that educational games ensured an effective learning-teaching process. These studies on educational games tried to identify the effect of use of educational games in primary education courses on student achievement and teacher opinions on the use of educational games in the instructional process. However, no studies were observed on increasing the educational game repertoires of primary school teachers and preservice classroom teachers to be used in the instruction of primary school courses and improving the planning and implementing skills for the instruction of primary school courses' attainments by using such games. Hence, it was aimed in this study to identify preservice classroom teacher opinions on educational games improving their teaching skills. To this end, answers to the following research questions were sought for:

What are the pre- and post-application opinions of the preservice teachers on the definitions of educational game?

What are the pre- and post-applications of the preservice teachers on advantages and disadvantages of using educational games in the instruction of primary school courses?

What are the pre- and post-application opinions of the preservice teachers on which courses educational games can be used in?

What are the pre- and post-application opinions of the preservice teachers on planning the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses?

What are the pre- and post-application opinions of the preservice teachers on implementing the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses?

Method

Research Model

Aiming to identify the opinions of preservice classroom teachers on educational games improving their teaching skills, this study used the qualitative research design. Qualitative research ensures that data are read over and over to be divided into codes and categories based on their

similarities and differences and research results are presented (Merriam, 1998; Çepni, 2012; Karasar, 2016; Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2016).

Study Group

The study group was composed of 17 male and 43 female students (60 preservice teachers in total) attending the Department of Basic Education in the Faculty of Education at a state university in the spring term of the 2017/2018 academic year and they all took the physical education and game teaching courses.

Data Collection Instrument

A semi-structured, open-ended question form and letters were used as the data collection instruments. One of them is the question form which was composed of 5 open-ended questions prepared in accordance with the purpose of research. The open-ended questions allowed preservice teachers to express the reasons for their answers and reflected the way they thought of these concepts (Gronlund and Linn, 1990). This is why open-ended questions were utilized as data collection instrument.

Before preparing the question form, the related literature was reviewed in detail. Next, 10 open-ended questions were prepared in accordance with the purpose about concept of educational game and use of educational games in primary school courses and for determining the competencies of preservice teachers at using these games. These questions were submitted to the review by three field experts. Since some of the questions prepared in accordance with the opinions of the field experts were similar and serve the same purpose, 5 of them were excluded from the form to finalize it. The finalized open-ended questions in the form are given below:

1. What do you think an educational game is? Explain with examples.
2. What do you think of using educational games in the instruction of primary school courses (Turkish, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies, etc.)? Explain your opinions in terms of advantages and disadvantages.
3. In which of the abovementioned courses would it be more appropriate to use educational games in your opinion? Why? Explain.
4. Do you find yourself competent at planning and preparing exemplary activities for using educational games in the instruction of primary school courses? Explain.
5. Do you find yourself competent at implementing educational games in the instruction of primary school courses? Explain.

At the end of the Physical Education and Game Teaching course conducted for 14 weeks, the preservice teachers were asked to write letters, as the second data collection instrument used in the study, according to the following instruction: “Write to a friend of yours with whom you have exchange letters on professional, cultural and artistic matters for a long time about the benefits of the Physical Education and Game Teaching course you took in this term to your professional field, your opinions and recommendations on the instruction of the course and what you have learned in this course in the format of letter.”

Data Collection and Analysis

The data were collected in two stages in this study. In the first stage, the question form prepared by the researchers were applied to the preservice teachers to determine their current status before informing them of instruction with educational games at the beginning of Physical Education and Game Teaching course. The preservice teachers were subjected to the same question form again at the end of 14-week instruction of Physical Education and Game Teaching course in the second stage. In addition, the preservice teachers were asked to write letters according to the following instruction: “Write to a friend of yours with whom you have exchange letters on professional, cultural and artistic matters for a long time about the benefits of the Physical Education and Game Teaching course you took in this term to your professional field, your opinions and recommendations on the instruction of the course and what you have learned in this course in the format of letter.”

After the application of the question form, form of each preservice teacher was assigned a number. For example, “PT1” represents the preservice teacher 1. Next, answers of the preservice teachers to the open-ended questions were scanned as images and transferred into digital medium. The data were subjected to MAXQDA 12 qualitative data analysis software and “data coding” was utilized as the data analysis method (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2016).

To analyze the obtained data in a reliable way, the answers given by 10 randomly chosen preservice teachers to the question form were classified and analyzed categorically according to their similarities and differences separately by the two researchers (Merriam, 1988; Yin, 1994). The degree of agreement of the coding performed separately by the researchers was calculated with the formulation “Reliability=(Number of agreed categories) / (Total number of agreed and disagreed categories)” (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The reliability values achieved in regard to the agreement of the analyses performed separately by the researchers were found to be 0.88 for data on the definition of educational game, 0.86 for data on the use of educational games in primary school, 0.85 for data on the courses in which educational games would be more appropriate to be used according to the preservice teachers, 0.86 for data on preservice teachers’ competencies at planning the use of educational games in the instruction of courses, and 0.88 for data on preservice teachers’ competencies

at implementing educational games in the instruction of courses Miles and Huberman (1994) state that concordance between the two coders being 0.70 and above is sufficient for reliability. Accordingly, it was decided that the concordance between the coders was reliable.

These themes and codes created by the researchers were submitted to the review by three field experts. Themes and codes created in accordance with the opinions of the field experts were reviewed by the two researchers together to clarify the agreed categories, the disagreed categories were discussed and a consensus was achieved (Merriam, 1988; Yin, 1994). The answers given by the remaining 50 preservice teachers were categorically analyzed by one of the researchers in terms of their similarities and differences. The codes and themes created once the analysis of all the data was completed were submitted to the review by the same field experts and finalized in accordance with their recommendations; they were next presented in tables (Table 2-Table 6) with percentage-frequency values and citations from the actual answers given by the preservice teachers.

The data obtained from the preservice teachers through letters were subjected to descriptive analysis by the two researchers and the resulting data were presented descriptively in the findings section to reinforce the data on themes and codes created in the analysis of the answers given to the question form.

Validity and Reliability Measures

The validity and reliability measures required for the qualitative research method were taken in this study (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2016). Hence, it was ensured that the participant preservice teachers answered each question in consideration of their current status to achieve internal validity during the implementation of the data collection instruments. For the external validity, the findings were presented in consistency with the research questions in an effort.

To achieve the external reliability, the position of the researchers conducting the data analysis within the research process, conceptual framework used for the data analysis as well as the codes and themes were described and detailed explanations made on the data collection and analysis methods. For the internal reliability, the researchers and the three field experts participated in the analysis steps and the achieved data were presented in a detailed way and in a descriptive approach.

Instructional Process of Physical Education and Game Teaching Course

At the beginning of the research, the preservice teachers were informed of the physical education and game teaching course. The study was conducted in three stages: preparation-pre-application of the question form, implementation process and post-application of the question form-general evaluation. The form of five semi-structured questions were completed by the preservice

teachers in the first course. The Physical Education and Game Teaching course was performed with the preservice teachers in 42 hours in total as 14 workshops with each taking three hours between February-May 2018. The first seven workshops were managed by an instructor. The instructor had the preservice teachers play seven different games in each course, and the attainments of the games were discussed and evaluated together. Furthermore, ideas were exchange on which courses and attainments the games can be used in. Each week, the games managed by the instructor were played in a certain theme. The Table 1 below presents the themes, games played and an attainment with which they can be associated in a detailed manner.

Table 1. Games Played in Physical Education and Game Teaching Course

| Weeks | Themes | Games | Examples of relatable attainments |
|--------|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|--|
| Week 1 | Introduction | Hello | Each of these games were for students getting to know each other and saying their names. The games can be adapted according to targeted attainments. For example, in the game “Name Chain”, rhythmic numbers from 1 to 20 can be thought instead of names. |
| | | Tell Your Name | |
| | | Name Chain | |
| | | Do you like your neighbor? | |
| | | Onion Garlic | |
| | | Sheet | |
| | | Wheel of Fortune | |
| Week 2 | Communication and Interaction | Puss in the Corner in a Circle | These games are based on communication and interaction. Each of them for talking about different aspects of communication. For example, the game “Parasite” is for understanding the importance of both verbal and non-verbal (gestures and mimics) and an appropriate environment for an effective communication. Moreover, the game “Parasite” can be used for the attainment of another course. The information that “zero is the neutral element of addition” can be taught with “Parasite”. |
| | | Scream | |
| | | Parasite | |
| | | Chinese Whispers | |
| | | Mrs. İnci | |
| | | Ashure | |
| | | Landlord / Tenant | |
| Week 3 | Trust Activities | Car | These games are for students to realize the importance of trusting each other. Moreover, the game “Car” can be used for the attainment of another course. For instance, concepts of left-right, forward-backward, forth-back can be taught. |
| | | Where are you? I am here | |
| | | Pilot | |
| | | Trust Walks | |
| | | Walking by holding shoulders | |
| | | -Walking hand in hand | |
| | | Walking by holding index fingers | |
| Week 4 | Harmony Activities | Follow the Leader | These games are for students to move in harmony. Moreover, the game “Magnet” can be used for the attainment of another course. For |
| | | Guess who is the Leader | |
| | | | |

| | | |
|--------|---------------------------------------|--|
| | | Managing and Managed Persons example, forces of thrust and attraction can be taught. |
| | | Mirror |
| | | Magnet |
| | | Cushion Filling |
| | | Counting from 1 to 20 |
| Week 5 | Rhythm and Sense Games | Shattered |
| | | My name is |
| | | Cho-Co-La-Te |
| | | I have, Neighbor has |
| | | Glass with Rhythm Game |
| | | Drawing on the Back |
| | | Recognizing the Hand |
| Week 6 | Self-Expression and Roleplay Games | What Are You Doing? |
| | | It is Available Next to Me |
| | | Pantomime |
| | | Simon Says |
| | | Who is the Murderer |
| | | The Ghost |
| | | Find your Pair |
| Week 7 | Problem-Solving and Psychomotor Skill | Knot |
| | | Drum Shawm 1, 2, 3 |
| | | Fruit Basket |
| | | Cabbage Field |
| | | Dominos |
| | | Dribbling |
| | | Stop |

After the instructor had had the preservice teachers played the games, they created pairs and chose any attainments of primary school courses (Mathematics, Social Studies, Life Sciences, Turkish, English, etc.) and made and implemented plans to teach that specific attainment through game. Following the presentations, the group who did the implementation evaluated their own plan and the implementation process in terms of teaching skills. Next, their classmates and the instructor assessed this process in a detailed way and provided feedbacks. At the end of the fourteenth week, the preservice teachers were asked to complete the semi-structured form of five questions which had been applied at the beginning of the study and to write letters which were mentioned in detail in the data collection instruments section.

The following is an exemplary activity for a Mathematics attainment of addition with natural numbers performed by the instructor with educational games.

Course: Mathematics

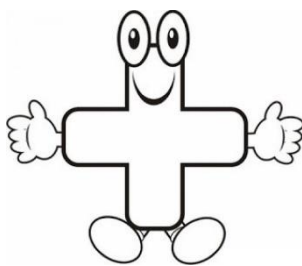
Subject: Addition with Natural Numbers

Group: First-Grade Students (20 girls and 10 boys; 30 students in total)

Place: Classroom

Tools: Flashcards, Thin Stick, Posterboard, Plastic Cup, Carrot-shaped colorful cardboard, Patafix

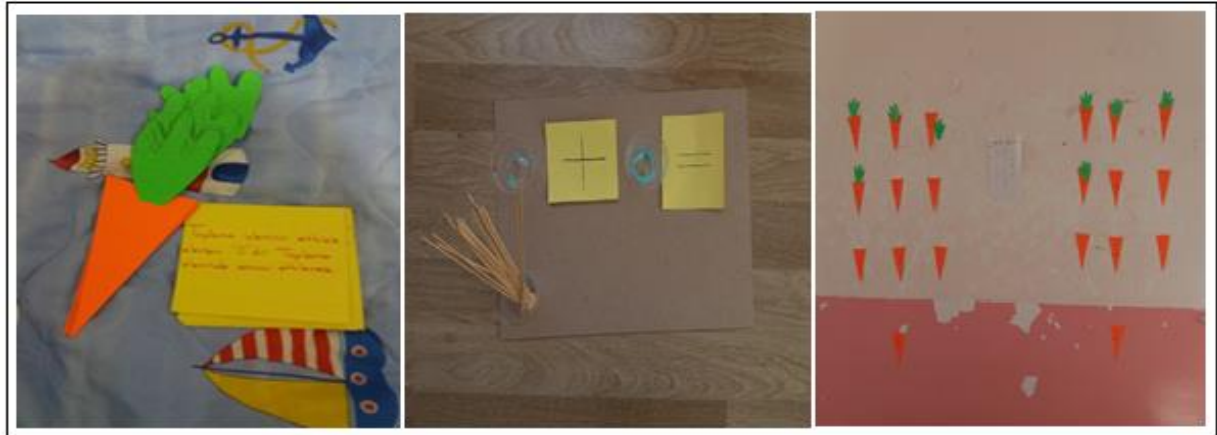
Attainment: Student operates addition with natural numbers (including 20) of which sum is up to 20.



Go learn the properties of addition (Adapted from Addend, plus, Equal and Result-Port-Starboard-Deck game)

Teacher draws four imaginary lines parallel to each other in the classroom. Names of the lines are “Addend”, “Plus (+)”, “Equal (=)” and “Sum”. Both names and images are hung next to the imaginary lines. With the instruction of the teacher, students change places among these lines quickly. If anyone mixes up where to go or goes there late, they read the information hung on the wall by the teacher. The game continues until one player is left, and all cards are read for a few times. In the second stage of the game, if the student who mixed up where to go or went there late tells a property that remained in his/her mind from the flashcards, he/she is back in the game; otherwise, he/she is out. The last student wins the game.

Go Add: The class makes a circle and is divided into two groups by counting 1-2. Student operates the addition by materializing the problem written on the carrot across with sticks in the cup and tries to complete the carrot by getting the right result written on the carrot leaf before his/her rival. The student who completes the carrot in the right way scores 1 for the group. The game goes on like this and the winning group is determined.



Annexes:

On the Flashcards

1. To add means bringing together, including.
2. Symbol of addition is plus and it is illustrated as “+”.
3. Equals is the symbol used to give the result of problem or operation after the necessary operations required for a given problem have been done. It is illustrated as “=”.
4. In an addition, the added numbers are called “Addend” and the result of the operation is called “Sum”.
5. Neutral element of addition is “0”. It does not affect the result of addition.
6. Elements of addition can be replaced. For instance, $1+2=2+1$.
7. Addition is done vertically and horizontally.
8. The operation line in vertical addition functions as equal in horizontal addition.

Operations on the Carrots:

a) $2+1=3$ b) $13+2=15$ c) $5+1=6$ ç) $9+7=16$ d) $10+3=13$ e) $11+5=16$ f) $3+4=7$

Findings

The findings achieved with the analysis of data that were obtained with the instruments specified in the methods section of this study aiming to identify the opinions of preservice classroom teachers on educational games improving their teaching skills are explained in tables. Percentage values may exceed 100% because the expressions of the pre-service teachers were placed under

multiple codes. Data achieved on the opinions of the definition of educational game are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Opinions on the definition of educational game

| Codes | Pre-application | | Post-application | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------|-------|------------------|-------|
| | f | % | f | % |
| 1 Teaches while entertaining | 18 | 30 | 56 | 93.33 |
| 2 Ensures effective learning | 2 | 3.33 | 56 | 93.33 |
| 3 Improves attention skills | 2 | 3.33 | 50 | 83.33 |
| 4 Contributes to self-expression | 3 | 5 | 48 | 80 |
| 5 Improves thinking skills | 4 | 6.66 | 45 | 75 |
| 6 Ensures physical development | 6 | 10 | 35 | 58.33 |
| 7 Ensures mental development | 6 | 10 | 32 | 53.33 |
| 8 Ensures materialization of concepts | 3 | 5 | 25 | 41.66 |
| Blank | 16 | 26.66 | 0 | 0 |

According to Table 2, 8 different codes referring to the attributes of educational game were achieved given the distribution of statements of the preservice classroom teachers on the definition of educational game. Although 26.66% of the preservice teachers provided no statement on the definition of educational before the application, it was observed that all of them defined educational game by featuring some attributes of educational game in their own way. While very few preservice teachers defined educational game by emphasizing its basic characteristics before the application, almost more than half of them emphasized attributes of educational game after the application. For instance, 30% of the preservice teacher emphasized “teaches while entertaining” attribute of educational game before the, and 93.33% of them stated that after the application. Likewise, before the application, only 3.33% of the preservice teachers emphasized that educational game ensures effective learning whereas 93.33% of them defined educational game by featuring this attribute after the application. 3.33% of the preservice teachers before the application, 83.33% of them after the application emphasized that educational game improve attention skills; only 5% before the application and 80% after the application stated that it contributes to self-expression; only 6.66% before the application and 75% after the application stated that it improves thinking skills; only 10% before the application and 58.33% after the application emphasized that it ensures physical development; 5% before the application and 41.66% after the application stated that it ensures mental development; and 10% before the application and 53.33% after the application emphasized that it ensures materialization of concepts.

For example, the following is the statement of PT7 who defined educational game by featuring the codes of “teaches while entertaining”, “ensures effective learning”, and “contributes to self-expression”:

“PT7: Educational games are games that have important contributions to children’s learning while having fun and to their development. Educational games also improve students’ physical and mental abilities. They can ensure that they express themselves in a better way. It helps learned information be more retentive, effective and entertaining in their minds.”

The statement of PT22 who defined educational game by featuring the codes of “improves attention skills”, “improves thinking skills” and “ensures mental development” is as follows:

“PT22: When children are distracted, their attention can be drawn with games. Attainments taught to children can be made more fun by reinforcing them. Ensuring their mental development, games can also contribute to the development of their thinking skills.”

PT13 wrote in the letter after the application that educational games would be effective in the instruction of courses involving abstract concepts such as mathematics and geometry for materializing the concepts:

“PT13: This course made significant contributions to my personal and professional life. I communicated with others more comfortably, and this process made me socialized. I will teach social values with educational games when I will become a teacher. Educational games are very important for more enjoyable and retentive learning of numerical courses such as mathematics and geometry which are abstract.”

Data obtained from the opinions on advantages and disadvantages of using educational games in the instruction of primary school courses are given in Table 3.

Table 3. The opinions on advantages and disadvantages of using educational games

| Codes | | Pre-application | | Post-application | |
|------------|--|-----------------|-------|------------------|-------|
| | | f | % | f | % |
| Advantages | 1 Increases interest to ensure overcoming the prejudice against the course | 3 | 5 | 57 | 95 |
| | 2 Facilitates learning | 18 | 30 | 56 | 93.33 |
| | 3 Ensures learning by having fun | 18 | 30 | 56 | 93.33 |
| | 4 Ensures students blow off steam | 0 | 0 | 55 | 91.67 |
| | 5 Ensures learning by doing and experiencing | 1 | 1.67 | 52 | 86.67 |
| | 6 Keeps from getting bored | 16 | 26.67 | 50 | 83.33 |

| | | | | | | |
|------------|----|--|----|-------|----|-------|
| Advantages | 7 | Increases participation in the course | 1 | 1.67 | 45 | 75 |
| | 8 | Ensures students get socialized | 1 | 1.67 | 48 | 80 |
| | 9 | Ensures students overcome the gender barrier | 1 | 1.67 | 42 | 70 |
| | 10 | Ensures materialization | 5 | 8.33 | 36 | 60 |
| | 11 | Improves communication skills | 2 | 3.33 | 35 | 58.33 |
| | 12 | Attracts attention | 3 | 5 | 28 | 46.67 |
| | 13 | Makes learning retentive | 21 | 35 | 28 | 46.67 |
| | 14 | Facilitates conceptual learning | 0 | 0 | 14 | 23.33 |
| | 1 | Classrooms being unfit for playing games | 2 | 3.33 | 45 | 75 |
| | 2 | Preparation of educational game for each subject being difficult | 0 | 0 | 43 | 71.67 |
| | 3 | One might stray away from attainments | 0 | 0 | 42 | 70 |
| | 4 | If not played properly, it may become a loss of time | 11 | 18.33 | 35 | 58.33 |
| | 5 | Managing the class is difficult | 0 | 0 | 28 | 46.67 |
| | 6 | When not associated with the attainment, interest is lost | 2 | 3.33 | 27 | 45 |

According to Table 3, regarding the distributions of opinions on advantages and disadvantages of using educational games in primary school courses, advantages were gathered under 14 different codes whereas disadvantages were gathered under 6 different codes. Although minority of the preservice teachers stated the codes about advantages and disadvantages of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses before the application, the preservice teachers stated these codes at higher rates after the application. Considering the instructional advantages of educational games, 5% of the preservice teachers before the application and 95% of them after the application stated that they increase students' interest in the course and ensure that they overcome their prejudices; 30% before the application and 93.33% after the application stated that it ensures students learn by having fun and facilitates learning; 1.67% before the application and 86.67% after the application stated that it ensures learning by doing and experiencing; 26.67% before the application and 83.33% after the application stated that they would prevent the course from becoming boring; 1.67% before the application and 75% after the application stated that they would increase participation in the course; 1.67% before the application and 80% after the application stated that they would ensure students overcome the gender barrier; 8.83% before the application and 60% after the application stated that they would ensure learning through materialization; 3.33% before the application and 58.33% after the application stated that they would improve students' communication skills; 5% before the application and 46.67% after the application stated that they would attract attention to the course; and 35% before the application and 46.67% after the application stated that they would make learning retentive. Whereas none of the preservice teachers provided the codes "Ensures students blow off steam" and

“Facilitates conceptual learning” before the application, 91.67% and 23.33% of them stated that they would ensure students blow off steam and they would facilitate conceptual learning, respectively.

As for the advantages of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses, the statements of PT11 who featured the codes “Increases participation in the course”, “Ensures students blow off steam”, and “Attracts attention”, PT13 who featured the codes “Ensures materialization”, “Facilitates learning”, “Makes learning retentive”, and “Ensures students get socialized” and PT25 who featured the codes “Ensures learning by having fun”, “Makes learning retentive”, “Increases participation in the course”, and “Ensures students overcome the gender barrier” are as follows:

“PT11: It may ensure that introvert students and students with lack of confidence become more active in the course. It prevents courses from being monotonous and boring and ensures student blow off steam and draws their attention toward the course. That is, it teachers by entertaining.”

“PT13: I think that using educational games in the instruction of primary school courses will teach a lot of things to children. Abstract concepts that are hard to learn in courses especially such as mathematics can be taught in a more entertaining, easier and retentive way. When playing, students participate in the course actively, communicate with their friends and get socialized.

“PT25: Teacher can teach the attainments to students in an entertaining, retentive and easier way. Moreover, participation in the course increases when attainments are taught with games, and their communication skills improve as they interact with each other. The gender barrier is overcome.”

PT15 stated in the post-application letter that subjects can be learned more easily by having fun through educational games, and games would ensure that students are socialized and blow off steam as follows:

“PT15: ... My communication with my friends is now better thanks to this course, and I can now get along with people whom I prejudge as we played games. I think that I can implement the games I learned in this course in many course during my teaching. We can teach more easily, efficiently and entertainingly in the courses such as Mathematics and Science with which students have trouble. This way, it will help them blow off steam and acquire many skills such as attention, quick thinking, rhythm and efficient use of senses.”

Regarding the codes on the disadvantages which educational game might present from certain aspects, 2% of the preservice teachers before the application and 75% after the application stated that

classrooms are unfit for playing games; 11% before the application and 58% after the application stated that if not played properly, it may cause a loss of time; and 2% before the application and 45% after the application stated that When not associated with the attainment, interest may be lost. While none of the preservice teachers mentioned about the disadvantages that preparation of educational game for each subject is difficult, one might stray away from attainments when not played properly and managing the class is difficult before the application, 71.67% of them stated that preparation of educational game for each subject is difficult, 70% stated that one might stray away from attainments when not played properly and 46.67% stated that managing the class is difficult after the application.

For instance, the following is the statement of PT22 who featured the codes “Classrooms being unfit for playing games” and “Managing the class is difficult” in regard to the disadvantages that might be posed by the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses:

“PT22: Level of effect would decrease when game and attainment are not properly associated. Crowded classrooms may not be fit for playing games. Teacher might lose the dominance.”

The statement of PT35 who emphasized that preparing or finding an educational game for every subject of primary school courses might pose a disadvantage for the instruction with a game is as follows:

“PT35: It is nice to teach attainments with games but it may be really hard to find and prepare a game suitable for every subject.”

Data obtained from the opinions on which courses it would be more appropriate to use educational games for instruction in are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Opinions on which courses it would be more appropriate to use educational games

| Codes | | Pre-application | | Post-application | |
|-------------|--|-----------------|------|------------------|-------|
| | | f | % | f | % |
| Mathematics | 1 Geometric shapes | 0 | 0 | 45 | 75 |
| | 2 In teaching the multiplication table | 1 | 1.67 | 42 | 70 |
| | 3 Our moneys | 0 | 0 | 42 | 70 |
| | 4 In teaching numbers | 9 | 15 | 36 | 60 |
| | 5 In teaching numerals | 2 | 3.33 | 36 | 60 |
| | 6 Four operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication and division) | 2 | 3.33 | 28 | 46.67 |
| | 7 Rhythmic counting | 3 | 5 | 26 | 43.33 |
| | 8 Improves mental four operation skills | 1 | 1.67 | 18 | 30 |
| | 9 Pattern | 0 | 0 | 17 | 28.33 |

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|----|----------------------------|----|-------|----|-------|
| | 10 | No explanation | 15 | 25 | 0 | 0 |
| Turkish | 1 | Synonyms | 1 | 1.67 | 30 | 50 |
| | 2 | In teaching letters | 2 | 3.33 | 30 | 50 |
| | 3 | Antonyms | 1 | 1.67 | 28 | 46.67 |
| | 4 | Punctuation | 0 | 0 | 25 | 41.67 |
| | 5 | Proverbs | 0 | 0 | 23 | 38.33 |
| | 6 | Idioms | 0 | 0 | 21 | 35 |
| | 7 | Elements of sentence | 0 | 0 | 20 | 33.33 |
| | 8 | No explanation | 17 | 28.33 | 0 | 0 |
| Science | 1 | Seasons | 3 | 5 | 39 | 65 |
| | 2 | Digestive system | 2 | 3.33 | 37 | 61.67 |
| | 3 | States of matter | 0 | 0 | 36 | 60 |
| | 4 | Effects of force | 1 | 1.67 | 35 | 58.33 |
| | 5 | Light pollution | 1 | 1.67 | 33 | 55 |
| | 6 | Motions of Sun | 0 | 0 | 32 | 53.33 |
| | 7 | Motions of Earth | 0 | 0 | 29 | 48.33 |
| | 8 | Senses | 0 | 0 | 28 | 46.67 |
| | 9 | No explanation | 6 | 10 | 0 | 0 |
| Social Studies | 1 | Natural disasters | 7 | 11.67 | 34 | 56.67 |
| | 2 | Individual traits | 6 | 10 | 33 | 55 |
| | 3 | Occupations | 0 | 0 | 32 | 53.33 |
| | 4 | Geographical regions | 0 | 0 | 26 | 43.33 |
| | 5 | Individual needs | 4 | 6.67 | 23 | 38.33 |
| | 6 | No explanation | 15 | 25 | 0 | 0 |
| Life Sciences | 1 | Types of transport | 4 | 6.67 | 38 | 63.33 |
| | 2 | School and classroom rules | 6 | 10 | 38 | 63.33 |
| | 3 | Traffic signs | 3 | 5 | 35 | 58.33 |
| | 4 | Values | 3 | 5 | 32 | 53.33 |
| | 5 | Seasons | 1 | 1.67 | 30 | 50 |
| | 6 | Family members | 5 | 8.33 | 28 | 46.67 |
| | 7 | Life of Atatürk | 0 | 0 | 18 | 30 |
| | 8 | No explanation | 1 | 1.67 | 0 | 0 |
| English | 1 | Occupations | 2 | 3.33 | 31 | 51.67 |
| | 2 | Colors | 0 | 0 | 30 | 50 |
| | 3 | Numerals and Numbers | 0 | 0 | 28 | 46.67 |
| | 4 | Seasons | 0 | 0 | 26 | 43.33 |
| | 5 | Sports | 1 | 1.67 | 25 | 41.67 |
| | 6 | Months | 0 | 0 | 22 | 36.67 |

According to Table 4, as for the distributions of opinions on which primary school courses it would be more appropriate to use educational games for instruction in, the preservice teachers suggested that educational games can be used in the instruction of several courses (9 subjects of Mathematics; 7 subjects of Turkish; 8 subjects of Science; 5 subjects of Social Studies; 7 subjects of Life Sciences; and 6 subjects of English).

While few number of preservice teachers provided opinion on which primary courses it would be appropriate to use educational games for instruction in before the application, number of the preservice teachers who provided such opinions increased after the application. Although significant number of preservice teachers gave the name of courses in which educational games can be used for instruction but did not stated any subjects before the application, it was observed that all of the preservice teachers stated names of courses and subjects for which educational games can be used.

Whereas the number of preservice teachers who stated that educational games can be used in the instruction of Mathematics was low before the application, 75% of them suggested geometric shapes, 70% multiplication table and our moneys, 60% numerals and numbers, 46.67% four operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication and division), 30% mental operation skills, and 28.33% patterns for the instructional use of educational games after the application. The following is the statements of PT30 and PT42 who stated that it would be appropriate to use educational games in the instruction of Mathematics subjects:

“PT30: I think that educational games are suitable rather for the instruction of subjects in Mathematics courses. Since Mathematics is an abstract course, students are generally afraid of it. Therefore, educational games can be benefited in the instruction of multiplication tables, numbers, moneys, rhythmic counting, pattern and geometric shapes both to make Mathematics loved and increase students’ interest in it and overcome their prejudices against it.”

“PT42: Game teaching can be used in Mathematics very well. Because students are more afraid of Mathematics than other courses according to studies. They find it difficult to learn because they are afraid. Therefore, if several subjects of Mathematics such as numbers, mental operation, four operations and numerals are taught with games, they will learn them in a better way and they will have learned them more retentively. Consequently, Mathematics can be rendered an entertaining rather than a boring course to reduce students’ mathematical fear.”

Similarly, while the number of preservice teachers who stated that educational games can be used in the instruction of primary school Turkish courses was low before the application, 50% of them suggested letters and synonyms, 46.67% antonyms, 41.67% punctuation, 38% proverbs, 35% idioms,

and 33.33% elements of sentence for the instructional use of educational after the application. The statement of PT37 who stated that it would be appropriate to use educational games in the instruction of Turkish subjects is as follows:

“PT37: I think that educational games are much more suitable for the instruction of Turkish subjects. They can be efficiently used particularly for teaching synonyms and antonyms, proverbs, idioms, punctuation and letters.”

Likewise, although few preservice teachers stated that educational games can be used in the instruction of primary school Science course before the application, 65% of them suggested seasons, 61.67% digestive system, 60% states of matter, 58.33% effects of force, 55% light pollution, 53.33% motions of Sun, 48.33% motions of Earth, and 46.67% sense for the instructional use of educational games after the application. The statement of PT54 who stated that it would be appropriate to use educational games in the instruction of Science subjects is as follows:

“PT54: Educational games would be more effective and retentive for teaching Science subjects primarily such as states of matter, senses, digestive system, motions of Sun. Because tools such as visual materials can be used in the game, too.”

Another primary school course that was suggested by the preservice teachers for the use of educational games was Social Studies. Although few preservice teachers stated that educational games can be used in the instruction of Social Studies before the application, 56.67% of them suggested natural disasters, 55% individual traits, 53.33% occupations, 43.33% geographical regions, and 38.33% individual needs for the instructional use of educational games after the application.

Another primary school course that was suggested by the preservice teachers for the use of educational games was Life Sciences. Whereas the number of preservice teachers who stated that educational games can be used in Life Sciences course was quite low before the application, 63.33% of them suggested types of transport and school and classroom rules, 58.33% traffic signs, 53.33% values, 50% seasons, 46.67% family members, and 30% life of Atatürk for the instructional use of educational games after the application.

The statement of PT45 who stated that it would be appropriate to use educational games in the instruction of Social Studies and Life Sciences subjects is as follows:

“PT45: If planned well, educational games can be used in all courses. But Life Sciences and geographical regions, occupations, individual traits and values subjects of Social Studies can be taught very easily with games. Children can learn them through games by doing and experience in an entertaining way. I think they would not forget what they learn.”

English is another course that can use educational games according to the preservice teachers. Although the number of preservice teachers who stated that educational games can be used in English course before the application, 51.67% stated that they can be used for teaching occupations, 50% colors, 46.67% numerals and numbers, 43.33% seasons, 41.67% sports and 36.67% months after the application. The statement of PT51 who stated that it would be appropriate to use educational games in the instruction of English subjects is as follows:

“PT51: I think educational games can be very effective in teaching the English equivalence of Turkish words and sentences in the English course. The results of the application I performed with my classmates confirm it. Children can learn especially English equivalences of months, seasons, colors, numerals and occupations in Turkish more easily in games.”

Data obtained from the opinions on planning the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Competencies at planning the use of educational games in courses

| Codes | | Pre-application | | Post-application | |
|-------|---|-----------------|------|------------------|-------|
| | | f | % | f | % |
| Yes | 1 I can prepare games that can attract children's attention | 1 | 1.67 | 52 | 86.67 |
| | 2 I may have difficulty because I do not have enough experience | 5 | 8.33 | 7 | 11.66 |
| No | 1 I do not have enough knowledge | 54 | 90 | 0 | 0 |
| | 2 Because it is difficult to prepare a game | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1.67 |

According to Table 5, regarding the distribution of opinions on planning the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses, opinions of the preservice teachers were grouped in two themes: yes and no. While 90% of the preservice teachers reported that they did not have enough knowledge on planning the use of educational games before the application, it was observed that the rate at the beginning descended after the application. Furthermore, while the number of preservice teachers who found themselves competent at planning was quite low before the application, 86.67% of them stated that they could prepare games that attract children's attention and 11.66% found themselves competent but stated that they might have difficulty as they do not have enough experience of game preparation. The following is the statement of PT31 who found himself/herself competent at planning the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses:

“PT31: Thanks to the game teaching course I took, I find myself competent at planning the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses. I think I have enough

knowledge on which game is more suitable for which course and subject. In this sense I can do the necessary planning.”

Data obtained from the opinions on implementing the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Competencies at implementing the use of educational games in courses

| Codes | | | Pre-application | | Post-application | |
|-------|---|---|-----------------|-------|------------------|------|
| | | | f | % | f | % |
| Yes | 1 | I can use a readily-given game | 8 | 13.33 | 2 | 3.33 |
| | 2 | I can design and implement a game suitable for attainments | 0 | 0 | 57 | 95 |
| | 3 | I may have difficulty because I do not have enough experience | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1.67 |
| No | 1 | I cannot implement games in the course | 52 | 86.67 | 0 | 0 |

According to Table 6, regarding the distribution of opinions on implementing the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses, opinions of the preservice teachers were grouped in two themes: yes and no. While 86% of the preservice teachers reported that they did not have enough knowledge on implementing the use of educational games before the application, it was observed that much less participants reported so after the application. Although few preservice teachers (13.33%) who found themselves competent at implementing reported that they can use a readily-given game before the application, 95% stated after the application that they can design and use a game suitable for attainments of each course in primary school. Pre-application and post-application statements of PT45 who found himself/herself competent at implementing the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses are as follows:

“PT45: (Pre-application) ... I do not find myself competent at implementing because I have not done much of it. That is why I think I have a lot to learn. I believe I can manage the classroom fully by using the games.”

“PT45: (Post-application) ... We have learned a lot about how we can use games in the course, done applications; therefore, I now think that I can prepare an exemplary activity. Not only I can integrate the games we learned with attainments but also teach the attainments by designing new games. I can implement the games in primary school courses easily. I can prepare games after identifying the attainments. I do not think I would have trouble with implementing the plan I made with children. I find myself very competent at implementing.”

Results and Discussion

In this section, the relevant literature was associated with the findings of this research which aimed to identify preservice classroom teachers' opinions on educational games improving their teaching skills, the findings were discussed and recommendations were made on the results.

As for the findings about the opinions on the definition of educational game, very few of the preservice teachers emphasized the basic characteristics of educational game in its definition before the application, and in fact, about one fourth of them did not make any explanation about the definition of educational game. On the other hand, all the preservice teachers defined educational game by emphasizing its certain attributes after the application. In other words, almost all of the preservice teachers emphasized the attributes "teaches while entertaining", "ensures effective learning", "improves attention skills", "contributes to self-expression", and "improves thinking skills", almost half of them defined it by emphasizing the attributes "ensures physical development" and "mental development" and "ensures materialization of concepts" after the application. Considering the findings overall, the preservice classroom teachers defined educational games as games that make courses effective and fun and help children enjoy the course, interact with each other and improve their mental activities to enable them to achieve the attainments of related course. The statements of the preservice teachers on the definition of educational game coincide with the definitions made by Demirel (1993), Akandere (2013), Koç (2017) and Varan, (2017) for its contribution to physical and mental development, Güven and Özerbaş (2016) and Onay (2006) for teaching while entertaining and contributing to self-expression and Çangır (2008) for improving thinking skills. It is observed that "contributing to self-expression" and "ensuring the materialization of concepts" attributes of educational game achieved in this study are not emphasized in the definitions made in the literature. In this study, it can be understood from the fact that the preservice teachers emphasized these attributes when defining the educational game after the application that they noticed the potential of educational game in students' learning. Hence, it is recommended in the light of the result regarding the definition of educational game that contributions to be made by educational games to the preservice teachers in the game teaching courses for students' learning are addressed and attributes of educational game are scrutinized.

As for the findings achieved from the preservice classroom teachers' opinions on the advantages and disadvantages of using educational games in primary school courses, few of the preservice teachers stated the advantages and disadvantages before the application whereas significant number of them became aware of the advantages and disadvantages of educational games for students' learning after the application. It was observed after the application that almost all of the preservice teachers became aware of the instructional advantages of educational games such as increasing interest

in the course and overcoming the prejudice, facilitating the learning, learning by having fun and ensuring that students blow off steam. In addition, about third fourth of the preservice teachers realized that educational games would provide advantages such as students' learning by doing and experiencing, preventing the course from being boring, helping students get socialized, increasing their participation in the course, ensuring that they materialize the concepts and improving their communication skills. This result coincides with the results of several studies in the literature. In the studies performed by Bayazıtöğlü (1996), Şaşmaz Ören and Erduran Avcı (2004), Altınbulak (2004), Gülsoy (2013), Gökbulut and Yumuşak (2014), Alıcı (2016), Işık (2016), Can (2017) and Çelik (2017), it is stated that the students learned the subject more easily and retentively and had increased academic achievement in the courses reinforced with educational games. Similarly, Özyürek and Çavuş (2016) concluded in their research on the instructional use of educational games by primary school teachers that it facilitated the learning when the primary teachers benefited from games during the instructional games, they ensured that the students learned by having fun, therefore increasing both teachers' teaching skills and students' achievements. Furthermore, Çuha (2004) states in the study titled "Effect of educational games in mathematics teaching on achievement, academic self, achievement motive and retention" that the group which was exposed to educational game aided instruction became more successful than the traditional instruction group.

Although very few preservice teachers were aware of the disadvantages that might educational games have instructionally before the application, about three fourth of them reported instructional disadvantages such as classrooms being unfit for playing games, difficulty of preparing educational game for each subject and one might stray away from attainments when proper guidance is not provided during the game after the application. Considering the results regarding advantages and disadvantages of educational games in the instruction of courses as a whole, it can be argued that the preservice teachers became more aware of the advantages and contributions of educational games for students' learning and the instructional process when used properly after the application. Since no studies putting forth instructional disadvantages of educational games when not used properly were observed in the literature, it is anticipated that this result of the study would contribute to the literature.

As for the findings obtained from the opinions on which courses it would be more appropriate to use educational games in, although the number of preservice teachers who suggested courses in which it would be appropriate to use educational games in teaching the attainments was very low before the application, great number of preservice teachers stated that educational games can be used in certain courses after the application. In other words, there was a great increase in the number of preservice teachers who thought that educational games can be used for teaching the primary school attainments after the application. After the application, more than half of the preservice teachers had higher awareness of using educational games in the instruction of geometric shapes, multiplication

table, our moneys, numbers and numerals subjects in Mathematics course; seasons, digestive system, states of matter, effects of force, light pollution and motions of Sun subjects in Science course; natural disasters, individual traits, occupations subjects in Social Studies course; types of transport, school and classroom rules, traffic signs, values and seasons in Life Sciences course; and occupations and colors in English course. It can be argued in the light of these results that the preservice classroom teachers became more aware that educational games can be used in teaching several attainments after the application. Indeed, it is also seen that the results in regard to planning and implementing the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses reinforce this result.

In regard to the findings on planning and implementing the use of educational games in the instruction of primary school courses, while almost all of the preservice teachers found themselves incompetent at planning and implementing the use of educational games before the application, again, almost all of them achieved the competency at preparing games that would attract children's attention and use these games when teaching the primary school attainments after the application. It can be understood from this result that applications supported with activities using the educational games in the course contributed to the development of preservice classroom teachers' teaching skills and their increased competency at using them as an instructional tool.

According to these results, it is recommended that studies are conducted with broader samples to improve planning and implementing skills of preservice classroom teachers and classroom teachers so that they can use educational games more effectively and efficiently during the educational-instructional process. Furthermore, in-service trainings should be organized to improve relevant skills and competencies of classroom teachers actively serving at schools.

Recommendations

According to these results, it is recommended that studies are conducted with broader samples to improve planning and implementing skills of preservice classroom teachers and classroom teachers so that they can use educational games more effectively and efficiently during the educational-instructional process. Furthermore, in-service trainings should be organized to improve relevant skills and competencies of classroom teachers actively serving at schools.

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An Analysis of the In-Class Oral Feedback Provided by the Teachers of Turkish as a Foreign Language

Fatma Bölükbaş Kayaⁱ

Istanbul University, Istanbul, Turkey

Mehmet Yalçın Yılmazⁱⁱ

Istanbul University, Istanbul, Turkey

Abstract

Feedback can be defined as the act of providing information to the student regarding their behavior throughout the learning process as well as how much progress has been achieved as a result of such behavior. In other words, it is the communicative process that explains how successful or unsuccessful a student is at a given topic, by providing them with the opportunity of self-assessment and correction. The aim of this study is to specify the in-class oral feedback elements provided by the teachers of Turkish as a Foreign Language, along with the analysis of these feedback types and offering suggestions to those who work in the field. Employing the specific case study method among the existing qualitative research methods, this study involves the 4-week observation of the courses given by the instructors of Turkish as a Foreign Language at Istanbul University Language Center at A1, A2, B1, B2 and C1 levels. The oral feedback provided by the instructors throughout the observation sessions has been noted down and compiled. These feedback items were then analyzed in accordance with Schimmel's feedback classification (1988). Accordingly, these feedback items were classified in four groups as confirmation feedback, correct response feedback, explanatory feedback and bug-related feedback. The results of the study have shown that the instructors preferred mostly the confirmation feedback and the correct response feedback, usually used the confirmation feedback and correct response feedback in combination. On the other hand, the frequency of explanatory feedback decreased as the students' language competence level increased, and the least preferred feedback type was found to be the bug-related feedback.

Keywords: Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language, feedback types, oral feedback.

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ⁱ **Fatma Bölükbaş Kaya**, Assoc. Prof. Dr., Istanbul University - Cerrahpaşa Hasan Ali Yücel Faculty of Education, Department of Turkish and Social Sciences Education, Istanbul, Turkey.

Correspondence: fbolukbas@istanbul.edu.tr

ⁱⁱ **Mehmet Yalçın Yılmaz**, Assist. Prof. Dr., Istanbul University Research Institute of Turkology, Department of Turkish Language and Literature, Istanbul, Turkey.

INTRODUCTION

Feedback can be defined as the act of providing information to the student regarding their behavior throughout the learning process as well as how much progress has been achieved as a result of such behavior. In other words, it is the communicative process that explains how successful or unsuccessful a student is at a given topic, by providing them with the opportunity of self-assessment and correction. There are various definitions of feedback in academic literature. For instance, Peker defines the notion of feedback as "a communicative process providing information about whether a specific human behavior is right or wrong as well as offering us the opportunity of correcting our mistakes and improving our performance (1992: 35). According to Cüceloğlu, feedback is "the reply sent by the target, in response to the message sent by the source" (2013: 71). On the other hand, Slavin defines feedback as "the information an individual gets in relation to their actions or efforts" (2014: 447).

Feedback is the information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way (Ramaprasad, 1983: 4). Feedback provides pupils with information about their responses to learning tasks (Narciss & Huth, 2006). According to Narciss (2012: 1285) feedback is all post-response information which informs the learner on his/her actual state of learning or performance in order to regulate the further process of learning. This information can be provided by external sources of information (i.e., teachers, peers, parents, computer-based trainings), and by internal sources of information (i.e., information perceivable by the learner while task processing). Feedback is information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. A teacher or parent can provide corrective information, a peer can provide an alternative strategy, a book can provide information to clarify ideas, a parent can provide encouragement, and a learner can look up the answer to evaluate the correctness of a response. Feedback thus is a "consequence" of performance (Hattie & Timperley, 2007:81).

Bloom mentions giving clues, participation, reinforcement and feedback and correction as four fundamental elements of improving service quality of a teaching process, and considers these elements to be the pillars of achieving educational quality (1979: 10-11). To be able to decide whether s/he should maintain or change a certain type of behavior, it is of utmost importance for a student to realize his/her own learning process and to know whether his/her response was correct, wrong, lacking or perfect. Feedback is considered one of the most powerful factors influencing learning in various instructional contexts (Hattie & Gan, 2011: 249). According to Narciss (2013: 14), feedback can affect the learning process at various levels, and can therefore have numerous different functions. It can for example acknowledge, confirm, or reinforce correct responses or high quality learning outcomes, and

in doing so promote the acquisition of the knowledge and cognitive operations necessary for accomplishing learning tasks.

Informing a student about the outcomes of a specific behavior of his/hers is essential; however, statements that can have an adverse or negative effect on the student's psychology or demotivate him/her should be avoided. In other words, the feedback provided by the teacher should not only be informative; it should also be guiding, motivating, encouraging and reinforcing. The feedbacks that comply with the cognitive and affective characteristics of a student not only facilitate the establishment of good communication between the student and the teacher, but also motivate the learner towards the lesson and the learning objective. According to Hattie and Timperley (2007:86) effective feedback must answer three major questions asked by a teacher and/or by a student: Where am I going? (What are the goals?), How am I going? (What progress is being made toward the goal?), and Where to next? (What activities need to be undertaken to make better progress?) The answers to these questions enhance learning when there is a discrepancy between what is understood and what is aimed to be understood. It can increase effort, motivation, or engagement to reduce this discrepancy, and/or it can increase cue searching and task processes that lead to understanding.

According to Brookhart (2008:9) feedback can be very powerful if done well. Good feedback gives students information they need so they can understand where they are in their learning and what to do next—the cognitive factor. Good feedback contains information that a student can use, which means that the student has to be able to hear and understand it. Students can't hear something that's beyond their comprehension; nor can they hear something if they are not listening or are feeling like it would be useless to listen. Good feedback should be part of a classroom assessment environment in which students see constructive criticism as a good thing and understand that learning cannot occur without practice. If part of the classroom culture is to always "get things right," then if something needs improvement, it's "wrong." If, instead, the classroom culture values finding and using suggestions for improvement, students will be able to use feedback, plan and execute steps for improvement.

When chosen in accordance with the mental and psychological development level of the student and the nature of the topic to be learned, as well as how and when it is presented to the student, feedback plays a key role on learning and motivation. According to Nicole and Macfarlane-Dick (2006:205), good feedback practice provides the following to the learning environment:

1. helps clarify what good performance is (goals, criteria, expected standards);
2. facilitates the development of self-assessment (reflection) in learning;
3. delivers high quality information to students about their learning;

4. encourages teacher and peer dialogue around learning;
5. encourages positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem;
6. provides opportunities to close the gap between current and desired performance;
7. provides information to teachers that can be used to help shape the teaching.

There are various methods to categorize in-class oral feedback types. For instance, Tunstall and Gipps classify feedback types in two groups as evaluative feedback and descriptive feedback (1996). Evaluative feedback can be defined as the approval or disapproval of a student's response. Descriptive feedback, on the other hand, informs the student about his/her progress and guides the student accordingly. Both of these feedback types can be positive or negative. Tunstall and Gipps categorize feedback types as follows:

Table 1. Typology of teacher feedback

| | Type A | Type B | Type C | Type D | |
|-------------------|-------------|--------------------------------------|---|---|----------------------|
| Positive Feedback | Rewarding | Approving | Specifying attainment | Constructing achievement | Achievement Feedback |
| | Rewards | Positive personal expressions | Specific acknowledgement of attainment | Mutual articulation | |
| | | Warm expression of feeling | Use of criteria in relation to work, behavior; teacher models | Additional use of emerging criteria; child role in presentation | |
| | | General praise | More specific praise | Praise integral to description | |
| Negative Feedback | | Positive non-verbal feedback | | | Improvement Feedback |
| | Punishing | Disapproving | Specifying improvement | Constructing the way forward | |
| | Punishments | Negative personal expression | Correction of errors | Mutual critical appraisal | |
| | | Reprimands; negative generalizations | More practice given; training in self-checking | Provision of strategies | |
| | | Negative non-verbal feedback | | | |
| | Evaluate | | Descriptive | | |

According to the time when feedback is provided, feedback types can be categorized as concurrent feedback and delayed feedback (Shute, 2008; Kangalgil & Demirhan, 2009; Kleij et al., 2011). Concurrent feedback is the feedback provided to the student instantaneously, right after the student has accomplished the learning task. Delayed feedback, on the other hand, is provided after a certain amount of time has passed upon the completion of the learning task. Concurrent and immediate feedback is especially effective in foreign language learning classes, as the student may not be able to remember his/her mistakes, responses or statements after a certain while.

The feedback classification method by Schimmel (1988) has been utilized for the analysis of the data within this study. Schimmel classified in four groups as confirmation feedback, correct

response feedback, explanatory feedback and bug-related feedback. Confirmation feedback specifies whether a student's response is correct or not. In this type of feedback, students are offered the correct feedback whether the student provided a correct or incorrect answer. The teacher does not provide any explanation. Instead, the teacher only makes feedback statements to inform the student about whether his/her response is correct or not, such as “correct, wrong, yes, no, keep on”. Correct response feedback is usually accompanied by confirmation feedback. For instance, following an incorrect response of student, the teacher makes a statement such as “No, that's incorrect. Here is the correct version...”, Such a statement will involve both confirmation and correct response feedback. Explanatory feedback is the feedback type in which the teacher corrects a student's response, makes reminders about the topic and sometimes summarizes the topic briefly. In explanatory feedback, the teacher supplies certain guiding for helping the student's thinking move towards the desired answer. Bug-related feedback, on the other hand, is the feedback type in which the teacher provides explanations by detecting the source of a mistake that a student makes systematically due to misunderstanding the topic.

Purpose of the Study

When the literature is reviewed, it can be seen that the feedback provided in accordance with the student's mental and psychological development level contributes to academic success and fortifies the relationship between the student and the teacher (Brookhart, 2008; Hattie &Timperley, 2007; Kleij, at al.,2011; Narciss, 2012; Nicol, & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Sadler, 1989). Therefore, teachers are expected to provide effective feedback to their students. The aims of this study are to determine the oral feedback items utilized by the teachers of Turkish as a Foreign Language during the class, to analyze the typology of such feedback and to make suggestions to the teachers working in this field. Schimmel's feedback classification method (1988) has been appointed for the categorization of the feedback types. The feedback types preferred by the teachers at specific language levels have been specified, and these feedback types have been analyzed in accordance to their functionality.

Method

Research Model

Among the existing qualitative research methods, the specific case study method has been employed within this study. The case study method bases itself on the questions “how?” and “why?”, and enables the researcher to thoroughly analyze a certain case or a phenomenon that the researcher cannot comprehend or control (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011:277). The reason behind adopting such a method is that the specific case study method allows for a thorough analysis of a certain case by

utilizing various data collection tools and facilitates the process of answering questions such as “what?”, “how?” and “why?”.

Sampling

The sampling of this study consists of five language instructors who teach Turkish as a Foreign Language at A1, A2, B1, B2 and C1 levels in Istanbul University Language Center. The information pertaining to the instructors involved in this study are given in the table below.

Table 2. Features of Participants

| Participants | Age | Gender | Graduate program | Experience | Class |
|--------------|-----|--------|---|------------|-------|
| P1 | 27 | F | Teaching Turkish as a foreign language (MA) | 5 years | A1 |
| P2 | 34 | M | Teaching Turkish as a foreign language (MA) | 7 years | A2 |
| P3 | 32 | F | Turkish language education (BA) | 7 years | B1 |
| P4 | 30 | F | Turkish language education (MA) | 6 years | B2 |
| P5 | 38 | F | Turkish language and literature (MA) | 12 years | C1 |

As it can be seen in the table above, the instructors involved in the study have an experience of teaching for at least five years. Four of the instructors have a graduate degree of Turkish language, whereas one of them has an undergraduate degree in the same field. All of the instructors are native speakers of Turkish, and the number of students in the classes involved in the study ranges from 18 to 22.

Data Collection and Analysis

To collect the data of this study, the oral feedback items employed by the instructors have been recorded and compiled during the observation sessions conducted in four weeks. The classes of the participating instructors, who teach Turkish as a Foreign Language at Istanbul University Language Center have been audited for one hour per week. Subsequently, the recorded and compiled feedback data has been evaluated in accordance with the feedback classification method by Schimmel (1988). To achieve consistency, the observed feedback types have been separately classified by each researcher, and the results have been compared. The feedback types preferred by the teachers at specific language levels have been specified, and these feedback types have been analyzed in accordance to their functionality.

Findings

Based on the data obtained from the observation sessions conducted for four hours (four weeks – one hour per week) for each of the five instructors of Turkish as a Foreign Language who teach at A1, A2, B1, B2 and C1 levels, the oral feedback items used by the participant instructors have been classified as follows:

Table 3. The Classification of the Oral Feedback Items Used by the Participating Instructors

| Participants | Class | Confirmation feedback | Correct feedback | responseExplanatory feedback | Bug-related feedback | Total |
|--------------|-------|-----------------------|------------------|------------------------------|----------------------|-------|
| P1 | A1 | 44 | 28 | 32 | 14 | 118 |
| P2 | A2 | 35 | 32 | 31 | 11 | 109 |
| P3 | B1 | 41 | 37 | 26 | 4 | 108 |
| P4 | B2 | 44 | 35 | 23 | 9 | 111 |
| P5 | C1 | 46 | 34 | 20 | 2 | 102 |
| Total | 5 | 210 | 166 | 132 | 40 | 548 |

As it can be seen in Table 3, the instructors preferred to utilize confirmation feedback (210) and correct response feedback (166) the most. On the other hand, bug-related feedback has been found to be the least frequently used feedback type (40). It has also been observed that the instructors preferred to use confirmation feedback and correct response feedback in company. The following statements have been found to be the most frequently used phrases while providing confirmation feedback: “no, it’s wrong, yes, that’s correct, very good, bravo!, that’s it!, are you sure?, think a little bit more...”

The observations have also revealed that the instructors tended to give the correct answer themselves while teaching A1, A2 and B1 level students. While doing this, they combined correct response feedback items with confirmation feedback items, and provided explanations by saying “No, it’s wrong. Here is the correct answer...”. However, the instructors teaching B2 and C1 levels avoided providing the answer immediately; instead, they preferred to direct the question to the other students in the classroom.

Another finding of this study is that the frequency of explanatory feedback decreases with an increase in the language level or competence of the students. A1 has been found to be the level where explanatory feedback is most frequently used (32), whereas C1 has been found to be the one where the same type of feedback appeared the least. It has been recorded during the observation sessions that the

instructors opted for offering clues to their students, and if they still can't find the answer, the instructors provided a short summary of the topic in question. Besides, none of the participating instructors used explanatory feedback solely when there is a wrong answer; instead, they used explanatory feedback even for correct answers in order to explain the rest of the class why the answer was correct.

The least frequently preferred feedback type has been found to be the bug-related feedback. However, bug related feedback directly points at the source of a specific mistake. It has been seen during the observation sessions that the participating instructors used bug-related feedback mostly at A1 and A2 levels, for correcting the mistakes related to the vowels and consonants in Turkish (e.g. vowel harmony, consonant harmony, haplology, epenthesis, consonant mutation, etc.).

When Table 3 is analyzed, it can be seen that A1 is the level where feedback is provided the most frequently, whereas C1 level classes involve feedback less frequently than any other level. This can be explained by the fact that A1 level students need teacher's correction and guidance the most, while C1 level students are competent and independent users of the language, and therefore need teacher guidance less often. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, A1 and A2 level students are regarded as basic users, whereas B1 and B2 level students are considered to be competent, and C1-C2 level students are regarded as independent users of a specific language. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages mentions the following for C1 level: "Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions..."(Council of Europe, 2001:5). Therefore, it is not surprising to see less feedback, especially less of explanatory feedback and bug-related feedback, in C1 level classes.

Discussions and Conclusion

The following conclusions have been drawn in this study, which has been conducted with the aim of specifying the oral feedback items used by the teachers of Turkish as a Foreign Language and analyzing the typology of such feedback:

1. The teachers preferred to use confirmation feedback and correct response feedback the most frequently at all language levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1). This situation complies with the findings of the studies indicating that confirmation feedback and correct response feedback are two of the most frequently utilized feedback types (Ata, Yakar, Karadağ, 2018; Coşgun & Sarı, 2015; Çimer, Bütüner and Yiğit, 2010; Lee, 2010; Lyster, 2004; Yoshida, 2008). Additionally, the instructors participating in this study preferred to combine confirmation feedback and correct response feedback, which signifies that the instructors tended to utilize feedback items for the purpose of stating whether a student's

response is correct or wrong, of for correcting a student's mistakes. However, effective feedback should be guiding, explanatory and encouraging, and it should help the student find his/her mistake and evaluate his/her own development process (Brookhart, 2008; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Narciss, 2013; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). In-service training sessions aimed at supporting the instructors to provide effective feedback can be organized, and the instructors can be encouraged to realize their own learning process by recording their own classes.

2. It has been seen that the instructors opted for stating the correct answer themselves while providing correct response feedback at A1, A2 and B1 levels. However, at B2 and C1 levels, it has been observed that they preferred to direct the question to the other students in the classroom and expected them to answer it. The correct answer given by the other students was then repeated by the instructor. According to Butler, Godbole and Marsh (2013: 290), including the correct answer in the feedback message substantially increases the efficacy of feedback because it provides the information that learners need to correct their errors.

3. It has been seen that the frequency of explanatory feedback decreased as the students' language competence level increased. It has also been noted that explanatory feedback was seen most frequently at A1 level, whereas it was seen the least frequently at C1. This situation can be explained by the fact that that A1 level students need teacher's correction and guidance the most, while C1 level students are competent and independent users of the language, and therefore need teacher guidance less often. When the literature is reviewed, it can be seen that the explanation provided by the teacher instead of just giving the correct answer has proven to be more effective (Butler, Godbole and Marsh, 2013; Lee, 2010, Narciss, 2013). As a result, the instructors are expected to occasionally repeat a specific subject in accordance with the students' answers, as well as explaining why a specific answer is correct or wrong.

4. Bug-related have been found within this study to be the least frequently preferred feedback type. However, bug related feedback directly points at the source of a specific mistake; it facilitates future learning procedures and reduces the possibility of repeating an error (Butler and Winne, 1995; Narciss and Huth, 2006; Schimmel, 1988). Therefore, the instructors are expected to involve bug-related feedback more in the classroom.

TALQAC (2014), summarizes the basic principles of providing effective feedback to students:

1. Identifies where students are doing well.
2. Identifies where students' areas of improvement are, and offers ideas and suggestions about how to approach these.
3. Is clearly related to future assessment tasks, and is designed to help students prepare for them.
4. Wherever possible, is formative and not summative.
5. Is explicit.
6. Is constructive, and treats student learning as a developmental rather than a deficit issue.
7. Is timely enough so that it can be used by students in preparing for future assessment

and in engaging with the subject matter. 8. Is provided in sufficient amount of detail. 9. Is provided in contexts where students can ask questions about the feedback, provide it to each other, and discuss their interpretation of it with each other. 10. Is pitched at an appropriate level. 11. Is stated clearly and, if written, is legible. 12. Explains how and why students received the mark they did in assessment tasks.

When the literature is reviewed, it can be seen that the feedback provided in accordance with the student's mental and psychological development level contributes to academic success and fortifies the relationship between the student and the teacher (Brookhart, 2008; Butler and Winne, 1995; Coşgun and Sarı, 2015; Hattie and Timperley, 2007; Kleij at al., 2011; Lee 2010; Narciss 2012 and 2013; Peker, 1992; Sadler, 1989; Schimmel, 1988; Slavin, 2012). Therefore, the instructors should be informed about how to select the right type of feedback for a specific situation, and they should be professionally supported for self-assessment by realizing the feedback types that they utilize. It should be always be kept in mind that the improvement of educational quality and the acquisition of desirable behavior by students depend on the quality of teacher behavior. Bearing this in mind, it can be said that the findings of this study will contribute to the instructors teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language.

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