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EDUCATIONAL POLICY ANALYSIS AND STRATEGIC RESEARCH

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Volume 13, Number 4

November 2018

Articles

A Meta-Analysis Study on Organizational Outcomes of Ethical Leadership

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to synthesize the results of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational justice, organizational commitment, organizational trust, organizational cynicism, motivation, job satisfaction and mobbing in educational organizations. In this respect, this study is a meta-analysis study. The studies derived from literature review conducted by using some keywords identified by the researcher were included in the meta-analysis using the selection criteria determined by the researcher. The total number of studies is 33. It has been revealed that there is no publication bias. The analyzes were performed according to the random effects model (REM). The findings are as follows; the effect size of ethical leadership on organizational trust [r =.82] is "*very strong*"; effect size of ethical leadership on job satisfaction [r =.63], organizational justice [r =.76] and organizational cynicism [r= -.56] is "*strong";* effect size of ethical leadership on organizational commitment [r=.44] and motivation [r =.47] is "*moderate*"; effect size of ethical leadership on mobbing [r= -.28] is "*modest*". According to the results, while the ethical leadership behaviors in educational organizations increase, organizational justice, organizational trust, organizational commitment and job satisfaction of education employees increase; whereas organizational cynicism behaviors and mobbing perceptions decrease. In this context, it can be stated that there should be an understanding of leadership that dominantly applies ethical principles in educational organizations.

Keywords: meta-analysis, ethical leadership, organizational outcomes.

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Introduction

Leadership is a necessity rather than a need for all living species showing the will to live together. Leadership, which is defined as the process of influencing others and being influenced from others, is an important power in terms of mobilizing individuals. Leadership is the activity of bringing people around a certain purpose, influencing and guiding their feelings, thoughts, attitudes and behaviors towards realizing this goal. In this respect, leadership has been a subject that attracted attention since the first days of history. Over time, along with some basic theories to explain leadership, different leadership approaches and types have also emerged focusing on different aspects of leaders. One of these leadership approaches is ethical leadership.

Ethical leadership is a leadership theory that sets forth maintaining and prioritizing relationships which are based on ethical values and principles (Erdogan, 2002). Ethical leadership is a form of leadership that develops ethical standards to guide employees' behavior, integrates values with ethical standards and implements these ethical standards effectively (Connock & Johns, 1995). From this perspective, trying to spread the good, respecting the personal characteristics of others, being sincere, honest, reliable, impartial and fair, supporting democratic decision-making and participation, being understanding and polite, distinguishing the right from the wrong (Cuilla, 1998; Daft, 2008), and also principles such as public interest and the rule of law constitute the basis of ethical leadership (Kilinc, 2010). The ethical leader is also engaged in intense efforts to spread and develop such values in the organization being employed (Karagoz, 2008). In this context, while encouraging their employees to adopt and implement ethical values, an ethical leader acts in accordance with ethical values and pay attention the values they care about and they are in line with the works they accomplished (Harvey, 2004). If the leader is not consistent in terms of discourse and action, the employees are negatively affected. In order for the leader's words to be valuable, the reflection of what they say should be represented in their behavior. If they are not consistent, a sense of trust cannot be developed between the leader and the employee. Unrealized statements yield negative consequences. In this respect, there should be consistency between the leader's statements and actions (Arslantas & Dursun, 2008). The ethical behavior of the leader has an influence on the dominant working atmosphere in the organization to display ethical characteristics and on employees to change their behaviour in a positive way. Ethical behaviors of the leader contribute to a decrease in behaviors that are deemed inappropriate in the organization and it has a preventive effect on employees who display inappropriate and negative behaviors (Peterson 2002). On the other hand, it is apparent that there are many negative consequences of unethical behaviors exhibited by organizations and managers. It is stated that unethical behaviors destroy collaboration, communication, creativity, peace and trust in organizations (Alatli, 1999). When the studies carried out in educational organizations are examined, it is seen that while ethical leadership behaviors increase perceptions of educational staff in terms of the

organizational commitment (Ayik et al., 2014; Toremen & Erol, 2013; Madenoglu et al., 2014), organizational justice (Acar, 2011; Ayik et al., 2014; Ugurlu & Ustuner, 2011; Comrade, 2018) and organizational trust (Cemaloglu & Kilinc, 2012; Kuru, 2017; Pasa & Nergis Isik, 2017; Akar, 2018), and increase their job satisfaction (Gungor, 2016; Madenoglu et al., 2014; Unverdi, 2016) and motivation (Acar, 2011; Bedir, 2017; Scott and Emirbey, 2017); it decreases their perception of organizational cynicism (Akan et al., 2014; Dogan & Ugurlu, 2014; Mete, 2013), mobbing (Bahceci, 2014; Cemaloglu & Kilinc, 2012; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2014) and their behaviors related to organizational silence (Pasa & Nergis Isik, 2017; Gunay et al., 2018).

Educational organizations are important structures that undertake important duties for the social, cultural and economic growth and development of a nation. The qualified human resources needed by the country are raised by educational organizations. On the one hand, educational organizations try to reveal and develop the endowments of the individual; on the other hand, they try to enhance the skills, behaviors, attitudes, values and habits of the individual that are considered valuable in the society. In this respect, it can be said that educational organizations have a function of reproduction of society. Undoubtedly, the most important role of the educational organizations in fulfilling this function is expected from the employees. There is a need for leadership behaviors that will positively affect and mobilize education employees so that they can perform the tasks expected from them. Ethical leadership is critical in this respect. The fact that the behaviors of managers giving importance to fairness, equity, tolerance, truthfulness, honesty, individual rights and freedoms can positively affect the attitudes and behaviors of the employees regarding the organization where they work, and their jobs highlights the importance of ethical leadership in educational organizations. In this context, there are several researches conducted on ethical leadership. It is seen that the number of studies carried out with different participants from different parts of the country have been increasing day by day. The need of having a holistic perspective and obtaining more valid results is the main reason of the research. It is expected that the findings of this research will provide more comprehensive information about the consequences of the ethical leadership practices in educational organizations in terms of organizational behavior. The aim of this study is to synthesize and re-discuss the results of studies that have been conducted in educational organizations in the last decade and examined the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational justice, organizational commitment, organizational trust, organizational cynicism, motivation, job satisfaction and mobbing.

Method

Meta-analytical method was used in the study. The meta-analytical method allows combining and reinterpreting the results of the studies which are conducted independently by different researchers on a specific subject. Thus, studies carried out in different places, time and sample on a specific subject can be addressed from a holistic perspective and more valid results can be drawn about the

subject (Akar, 2018; Littel, Corcoran & Pillai, 2008). In this study, the ethical leadership issue in educational organizations is addressed. In this context, the results of the studies conducted in the last decade in educational organizations examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational justice, organizational commitment, organizational cynicism, motivation, job satisfaction and mobbing have been synthesized.

Literature Review and Selection Criteria

First of all, a comprehensive literature review was conducted to obtain the studies to be included in the meta-analysis. In this context, the literature review was performed by searching Turkish and English equivalents of the concepts of *ethical leadership, organizational commitment, organizational justice, organizational cynicism, motivation, organizational trust, job satisfaction and mobbing,* seperately and dyadically along with the concept of ethical leadership in the databases of *Google Scholar, Ulakbim and YokTez*. The literature review was completed on 25 August 2018. The following criteria were used for the inclusion of studies in the meta-analysis as a result of the literature review.

- The studies that are published between 2008-2018

- The studies that include the number of samples (n), correlation coefficient (r) or regression coefficient (R^2) required for correlational meta-analysis

- The studies that are conducted within the borders of Turkey

- The studies whose sample consists teachers, school principal and academicians working in private or public educational organizations

37 studies were obtained according to the above mentioned criteria. Four of these studies could not be included in the meta-analysis since it was including the comparison of the variables in the sub-dimension level. Therefore, the remaining 33 studies were included in the meta-analysis. Descriptive statistics regarding the studies included in the meta-analysis are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics

Relations	Number of studies	Number of sample	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
EL-OJ	9	3099			1	2			4	1			1
EL-OC	14	5545	1	1		1		1	5	2	1		2
EL-OT	3	1627					1					2	
EL-OCy	3	893						1	2				
EL-M	4	1287				1			1			2	
EL-JS	3	1663							1		2		
EL-MOB	3	1967					1		2				

Type of Study		Content of Sample	
Thesis	16	Teacher	27
Article	17	Teacher+Manager	1
		Academician	4
		Manager	1

EL: Ethical leadership, OJ: Organizational justice, OC: Organizational commitment, OT: Organizational trust, OCy: Organizational cynicism, M: Motivation, JS: Job satisfaction, MOB: Mobbing

Analysis Process

In this study, the correlational meta-analysis method using correlation coefficient was utilized to calculate the effect size. In meta-analysis studies, there are generally two main models: fixed effects and random effects. Which of these two models to be used depends on the nature of the studies included in the meta-analysis and on the aim to be achieved? In this study, random effects model was used due to the fact that the studies included in meta-analysis were not considered to be functionally equal and the effect size was aimed to be generalized over a larger population (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins & Rothstein, 2013). Meta-analysis of the studies included in the research was carried out by using the application of CMA 2.0 (Comprehensive Meta-Analysis 2.0). The classification for correlational meta-analysis method recommended by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2013) to interpret effect sizes was used (".00–.10" weak, ".10–.30" modest, ".30–.50" moderate, ".50–.80" strong, ".80≤" very strong).

Review on publication bias

Publication bias refers to the situation that not all researches on a specific subject are published. Researchers generally tend to publish studies in which they find significant differences or significant relationships between variables. This situation reveals that there is publication bias (Borenstein et al., 2013). The publication bias in studies included in the meta-analysis leads to deviations in the effect size (Field & Gillett, 2010). In this respect, publication bias is an important issue in meta-analysis studies. Publication bias in this study was controlled by *Funnel plot graph*,

Classic Fail Safe N and *Egger Test*. Funnel Plot graphs of the studies included in the research are shown in Figure 1.
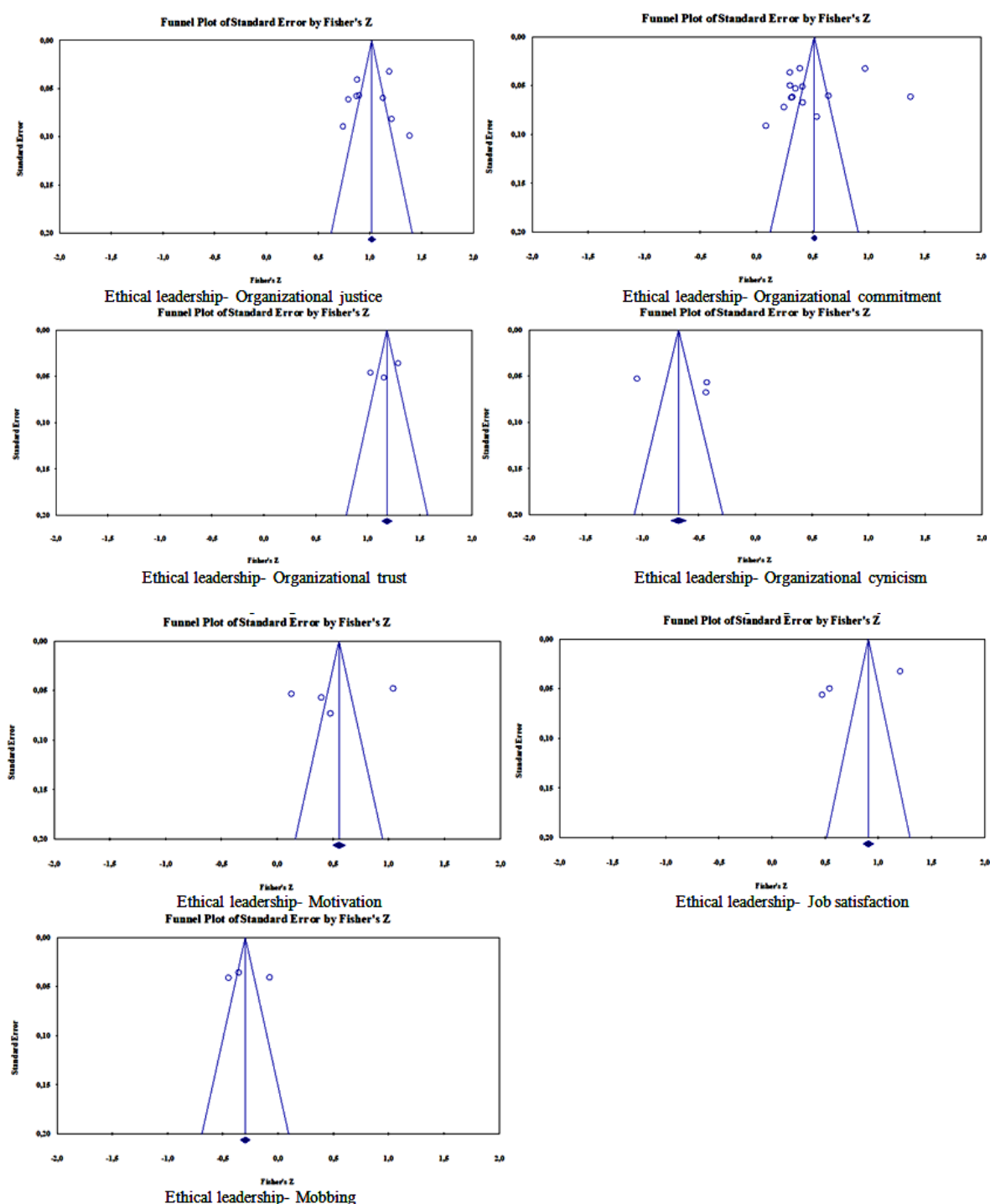
Figure 1. Funnel plot graphs

When the funnel plot graphs are examined, it can be interpreted that they do not have publication bias as the effect sizes of the studies included in the study are distributed close to the symmetry on both sides of the overall effect size and accumulated in the upper part of the graph

(Borenstein et al., 2013). However, the funnel plot graph is not a sufficient indicator for reaching an absolute judgment on publication bias. For this reason, the publication bias has been examined by using the tests of Clasic Fail Safe N and Egger. The results of the Clasic Fail Safe N and Egger test are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Results of Clasic Fail Safe N and Egger Tests

Relations	k	Classic Fail Safe -N	Egger Test
Ethical leadership - Organizational justice	9	6459	p = .66 > .05
Ethical leadership-Organizational commitment	14	4440	p = .51 > .05
Ethical leadership - Organizational trust	3	1691	p = .46 > .05
Ethical leadership-Organizational cynicism	3	293	p = .50 > .05
Ethical leadership-Motivation	4	363	p = .58 > .05
Ethical leadership-Job satisfaction	3	821	p = .09> .05
Ethical leadership-Mobbing	3	130	p = .83> .05

When Egger test results were evaluated, p values were found to be greater than .05 as seen in table 2. These results indicate that there is no publication bias. According to Clasic fail safe N statistics, the number of studies required to avoid publication bias is seen. The fact that there is a difference between the number of studies required and the number of studies reached can be interpreted as there is no publication bias.

Findings

In this section, the meta- analysis results of the studies which are conducted in educational organizations and which examines the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational justice, organizational commitment, organizational trust, organizational cynicism, motivation, job satisfaction and mobbing are presented.

1. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and organizational justice

The meta-analysis results of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational justice are as seen in Table 3.

Table 3. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and organizational justice

| Variables | k | N | ES | 95% Confidence Interval | | Heterogeneity | | |
				Lower limit	Upper Limit	Q	p	I^2
Ethical leadership-Organizational justice	9	3099	.76	.71	.81	95.84	.00	91.65

The effect size of ethical leadership on organizational justice according to the results of analysis based on random effects model is .76 as seen in table 3. This value means that ethical

leadership has "*strong level*" of effect on organizational justice (Cohen et al., 2013). When the findings about the heterogeneity test are examined, it is seen that the effect sizes of the studies included in the research have a heterogeneous distribution (Q = 95.84; p<.05). The forest plot graph of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational justice is shown in Figure 2.

Study name		Statistics for each study				Correlation and 95% CI
	Correlation	**Lower limit**	**Upper limit**	**Z-Value**	**p-Value**	
Acar, 2011	0,72	0,66	0,77	15,70	0,00	
Ayık et al., 2014	0,81	0,77	0,85	18,83	0,00	
Bahceci, 2014	0,71	0,66	0,74	21,45	0,00	
Cicek, 2014	0,88	0,83	0,92	13,98	0,00	
Kaya, 2014	0,63	0,51	0,72	8,29	0,00	
Ugurlu & Ustuner, 2011	0,83	0,81	0,85	36,62	0,00	
Yıldırım, 2010	0,84	0,78	0,88	14,83	0,00	
Yoldas, 2018	0,66	0,59	0,72	12,91	0,00	
Turan, 2015	0,70	0,64	0,76	15,01	0,00	
	0,76	0,70	0,81	15,29	0,00	

Figure 2. Forest plot graphs of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational justice

According to the forest plot graph in Figure 2, the correlation coefficient of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational justice varies between .63 and .88. When these results are combined with random effects model, it is found that there is a positive and high level of significant relationship between ethical leadership and organizational justice (r =.76; p<.05).

2. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and organizational commitment

The meta-analysis results of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational commitment are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. The meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and organizational commitment

Variables	k	N	ES	95% Confidence Interval		Heterogeneity		
				Lower limit	Upper Limit	Q	p	I^2
Ethical leadership-Organizational commitment	14	5545	.44	.30	.57	534.65	.00	97.57

According to the results of the analysis based on the random effects model in Table 4, it is seen that the effect size of ethical leadership on organizational commitment is .44. This value means that ethical leadership has a "*moderate level*" of effect on organizational commitment (Cohen et al.,

2013). When the findings about the heterogeneity test are examined, it is found that the effect sizes of the studies included in the research have a heterogeneous distribution (Q = 534.65; p<.05). The forest plot graph of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational commitment is shown in Figure 3.
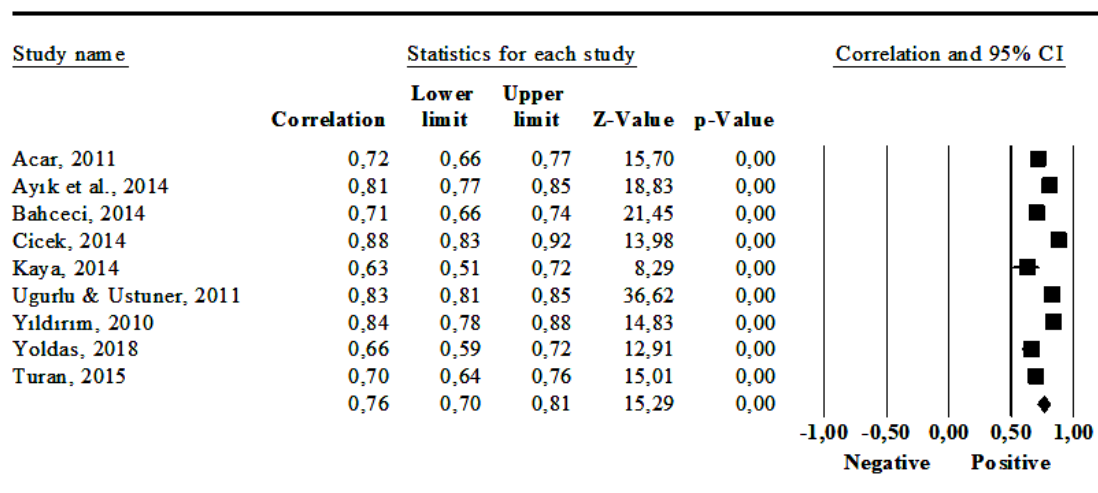
Study name	Correlation	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z–Value	p-Value
Ayık et al., 2014	0,88	0,85	0,90	22,35	0,00
Gurer & Ciftci, 2018	0,39	0,30	0,47	8,05	0,00
Işık, 2009	0,30	0,19	0,41	5,01	0,00
Kalaz, 2016	0,39	0,27	0,50	6,14	0,00
Karagoz, 2008	0,29	0,22	0,36	8,17	0,00
Kucuksuleymanoglu&Celik, 2014	0,09	-0,09	0,26	0,94	0,34
Madenoglu et al., 2014	0,75	0,72	0,78	29,71	0,00
Okcu, 2014	0,31	0,20	0,42	5,21	0,00
Sahin, 2015	0,57	0,48	0,64	10,61	0,00
Toremen & Erol, 2015	0,49	0,36	0,60	6,58	0,00
Ugurlu et al., 2013	0,24	0,11	0,37	3,42	0,00
Ugurlu & Ustuner, 2011	0,37	0,31	0,42	12,01	0,00
Yıldırım, 2014	0,34	0,24	0,42	6,59	0,00
Karakus, 2018	0,29	0,20	0,38	6,02	0,00
	0,44	0,29	0,57	5,40	0,00

Figure 3. Forest plot graph of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational commitment

According to the forest plot graph in Figure 3, the correlation coefficient of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational commitment varies between .29 and .88. No significant relationship between ethical leadership and organizational commitment was found in the study conducted by Kucuksuleymanoglu and Celik (2014). As a result of 14 studies included in the meta-analysis, it was found that there is a positive and moderately significant relationship between ethical leadership and organizational commitment when combined with random effects model (r =.44; p<.05).

3. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and organizational trust

The meta-analysis results of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational trust are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and organizational trust

Variables	k	N	ES	95% Confidence Interval		Heterogeneity		
				Lower limit	Upper Limit	Q	p	I^2
Ethical leadership-Organizational trust	3	1627	.82	.76	.87	20.96	.00	90.46

According to the results of analysis based on random effects model, the effect size of ethical leadership on organizational trust is .82 as seen in Table 5. This value means that ethical leadership has a "*very strong level*" of effect on organizational trust (Cohen et al., 2013). When the findings about the heterogeneity test are examined, it is found that the effect sizes of the studies included in the research have a heterogeneous distribution (Q = 20.96; p<.05). The forest plot graph of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational trust is shown in Figure 4.
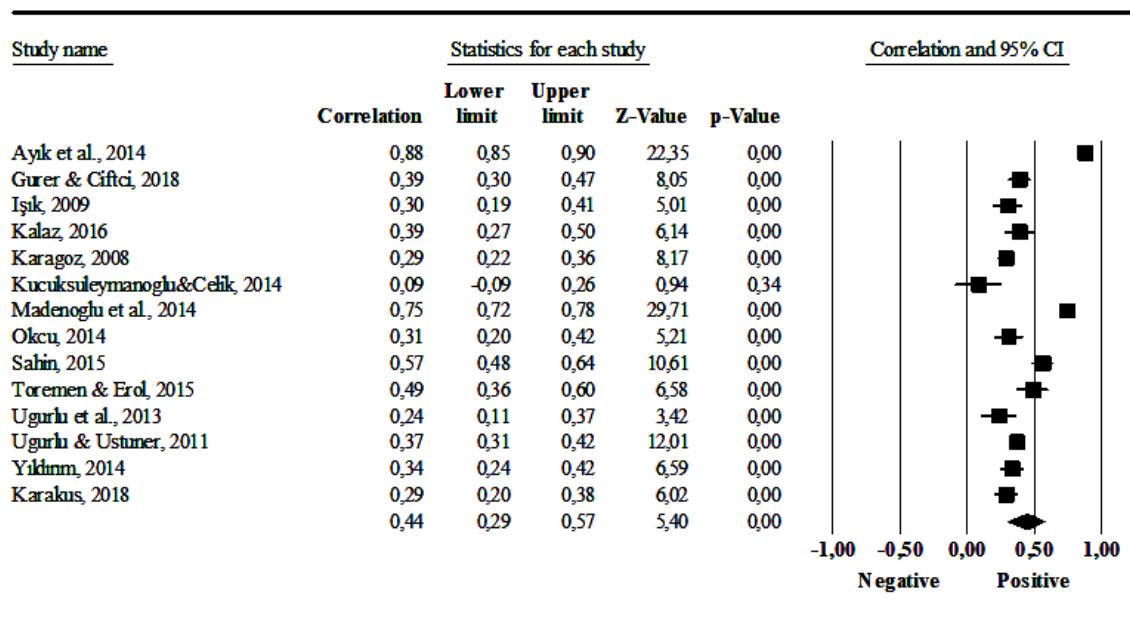
Study name	Correlation	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-Value	p-Value	Correlation and 95% CI
Cemaloglu & Kılınc, 2012	0,86	0,84	0,88	35,94	0,00	
Kuru, 2017	0,77	0,73	0,81	22,26	0,00	
Pasa & Nergis Isık, 2017	0,82	0,78	0,85	22,46	0,00	
	0,82	0,76	0,87	14,05	0,00	

Figure 4. Forest plot graph of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational trust

According to the forest plot graph in Figure 4, the correlation coefficient of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational trust varies between .77 and .86. When these results are combined with random effects model, it is found that there is a positive and high level of significant relationship between ethical leadership and organizational trust (r =.82; p<.05).

4. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and organizational cynicism

The meta-analysis results of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational cynicism are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. The results of meta-analysis related to ethical leadership and organizational cynicism

| Variables | k | N | ES | 95% Confidence Interval | | Heterogeneity | | |
				Lower limit	Upper Limit	Q	p	I^2
Ethical leadership-Organizational cynicism	3	893	-.56	-.79	-.21	80.24	.00	97.51

According to the results of analysis based on random effects model, the effect size of ethical leadership on organizational cynicism is found to be .56 as shown in Table 6. This value means that ethical leadership has a "*strong level*" of effect on organizational cynicism (Cohen et al., 2013). When the findings about the heterogeneity test are examined, it is noted that the effect sizes of the studies included in the research have a heterogeneous distribution (Q = 80.24; p<.05). The forest plot graph of

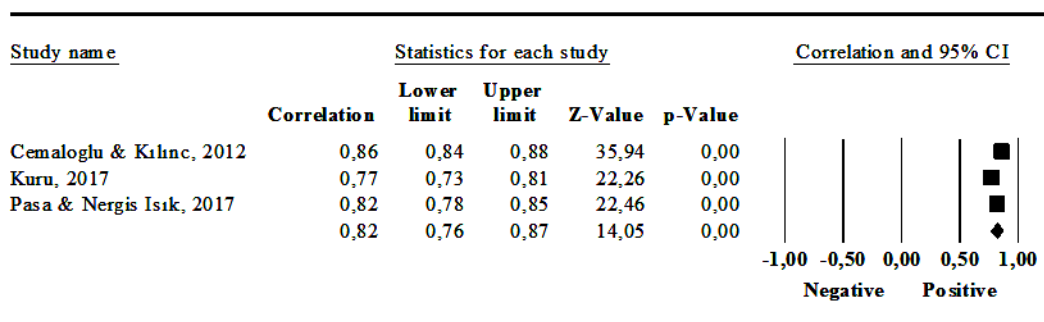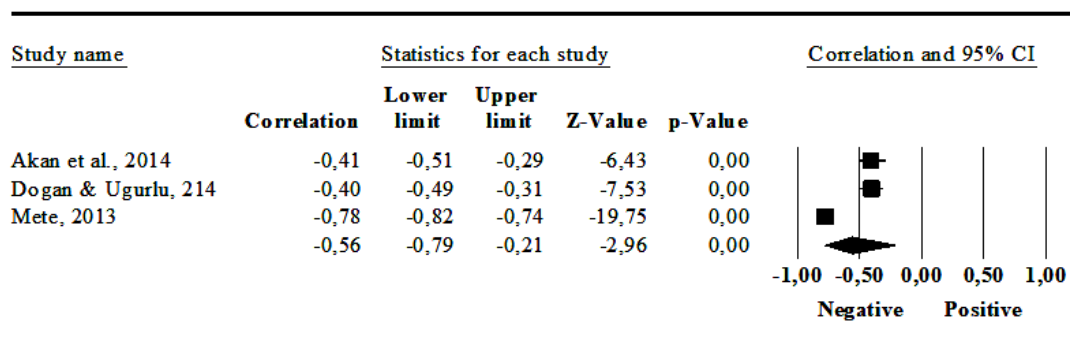the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational cynicism is shown in Figure 5.

Study name	Statistics for each study					Correlation and 95% CI
	Correlation	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-Value	p-Value	
Akan et al., 2014	-0,41	-0,51	-0,29	-6,43	0,00	
Dogan & Ugurlu, 214	-0,40	-0,49	-0,31	-7,53	0,00	
Mete, 2013	-0,78	-0,82	-0,74	-19,75	0,00	
	-0,56	-0,79	-0,21	-2,96	0,00	

Figure 5. Forest plot graph of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational cynicism

According to the forest plot graph in Figure 4, the correlation coefficient of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational cynicism varies between -.78 and -.40. When these results were combined with the random effects model, a negative and moderate level of significant relationship was found between ethical leadership and organizational cynicism ($r = -.56$; $p<.05$).

5. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and motivation

The meta-analysis results of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and motivation are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and motivation

Variables	k	N	ES	95% Confidence Interval		Heterogeneity		
				Lower limit	Upper Limit	Q	p	I^2
Ethical leadership-Motivation	4	1287	.47	.09	.73	174.23	.00	98.28

According to the results of analysis based on random effects model, the effect size of ethical leadership on the employee motivation is found to be .47 as shown in Table 7. This value means that ethical leadership has a "*moderate level*" of effect on employee motivation (Cohen et al., 2013). When the findings about the heterogeneity test are examined, it is seen that the effect sizes of the studies included in the research have a heterogeneous distribution ($Q = 174.23$; $p<.05$). Figure 6 shows the forest plot of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and motivation.
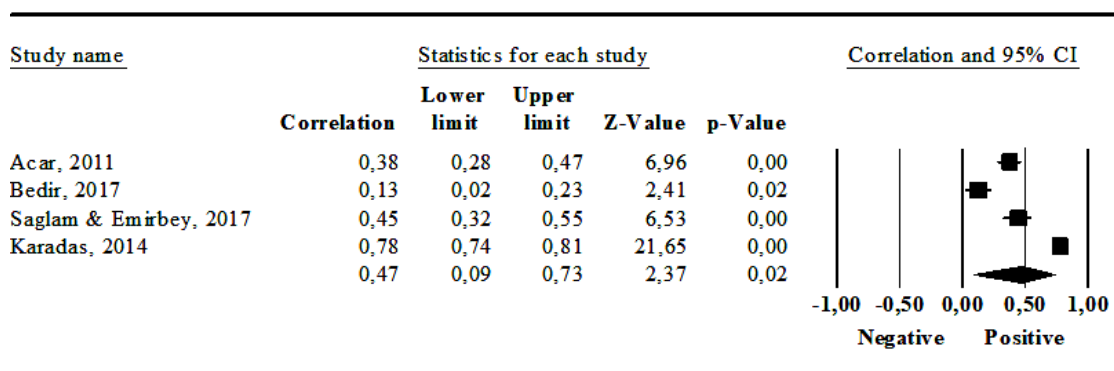
Study name	Correlation	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-Value	p-Value
Acar, 2011	0,38	0,28	0,47	6,96	0,00
Bedir, 2017	0,13	0,02	0,23	2,41	0,02
Saglam & Emirbey, 2017	0,45	0,32	0,55	6,53	0,00
Karadas, 2014	0,78	0,74	0,81	21,65	0,00
	0,47	0,09	0,73	2,37	0,02

Figure 6. Forest plot graph of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and motivation

According to the forest plot graph in Figure 6, the correlation coefficient of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and motivation varies between .13 and .78. When these results are combined with random effects model, it is found that there is a positive and moderate level of significant relationship between ethical leadership and motivation (r =.47; p<.05).

6. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and job satisfaction

The meta-analysis results of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and job satisfaction

Variables	k	N	ES	95% Confidence Interval		Heterogeneity		
				Lower limit	Upper Limit	Q	p	I^2
Ethical leadership-Job satisfaction	3	1663	.63	.23	.85	197.71	.00	98.98

Table 8 shows that the effect size of ethical leadership on job satisfaction based on the analysis of random effects model is .63. This value means that ethical leadership has a "*strong level*" of effect on job satisfaction (Cohen et al., 2013). When the findings about the heterogeneity test are examined, it is highlighted that the effect sizes of the studies included in the research have a heterogeneous distribution (Q = 197.71; p<.05). The forest plot graph of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction is shown in Figure 7.

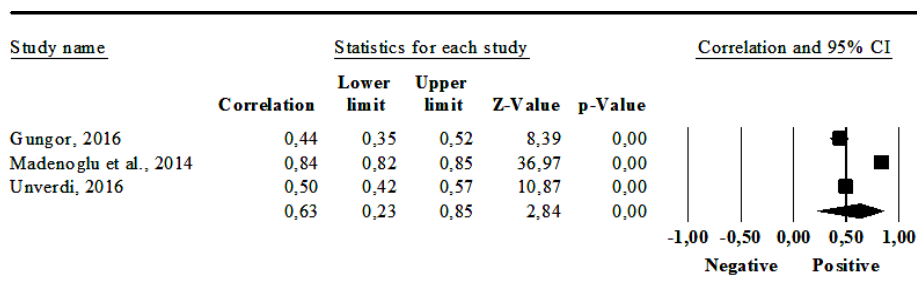| Study name		Statistics for each study				Correlation and 95% CI
	Correlation	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-Value	p-Value	
Gungor, 2016	0,44	0,35	0,52	8,39	0,00	
Madenoglu et al., 2014	0,84	0,82	0,85	36,97	0,00	
Unverdi, 2016	0,50	0,42	0,57	10,87	0,00	
	0,63	0,23	0,85	2,84	0,00	

Figure 7. Forest plot graph of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction

According to the forest plot graph in Figure 7, the correlation coefficient of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction varies between .44 and .84. When these results are combined with random effects model, it is found that there is a positive and moderate level of significant relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction (r =.63; p<.05).

7. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and mobbing

The meta-analysis results of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and mobbing are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Meta-analysis results related to ethical leadership and mobbing

Variables	k	N	ES	95% Confidence Interval		Heterogeneity		
				Lower limit	Upper Limit	Q	p	I[2]
Ethical leadership-Mobbing	3	1967	-.28	-.47	-.08	45.30	.00	95.59

According to the results based on the analysis of random effects model, it is seen that the effect size of the ethical leadership on mobbing is -.28. This value means that ethical leadership has "modest level" of effect on mobbing (Cohen et al., 2013). When the findings about the heterogeneity test are examined, it is found that the effect sizes of the studies included in the research have a heterogeneous distribution (Q = 45.30; p<.05). The forest plot graph of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and mobbing is shown in Figure 8.

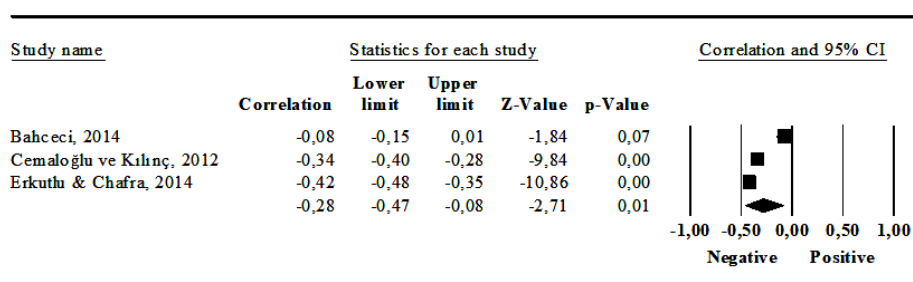| Study name		Statistics for each study				Correlation and 95% CI
	Correlation	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-Value	p-Value	
Bahceci, 2014	-0,08	-0,15	0,01	-1,84	0,07	
Cemaloğlu ve Kılınç, 2012	-0,34	-0,40	-0,28	-9,84	0,00	
Erkutlu & Chafra, 2014	-0,42	-0,48	-0,35	-10,86	0,00	
	-0,28	-0,47	-0,08	-2,71	0,01	

Figure 8. Forest plot graph of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and mobbing

According to the forest plot graph in Figure 8, the correlation coefficient of the studies examining the relationship between ethical leadership and mobbing varies between -.42 and -.28. In the study conducted by Bahceci (2014), it is found that there is no significant relationship between the two variables. When the results of 3 studies included in the meta-analysis are combined with random effects model, it is revealed that there is a negative and low level of significant relationship between ethical leadership and mobbing (r = -.28; p<.05).

Discussion and Conclusions

In this study, it is aimed to combine the results of studies in educational organizations examining the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational justice, organizational commitment, organizational trust, organizational cynicism, motivation, job satisfaction and mobbing by using the meta-analysis method and to obtain a general result. As a result of the literature review conducted by taking into the selection criteria determined previously by the researcher into consideration, 33 studies were included in the meta-analysis. The findings regarding the analysis on publication bias revealed that there was no publication bias. The studies included in the meta-analysis were analyzed based on random effects model.

As a result of the analyzes, it was concluded that the ethical leadership behaviors exhibited by the managers in educational organizations increase the perceptions of educational employees about organizational justice, organizational commitment and organizational trust, and increase the motivations and job satisfaction of them; while such behaviors decrease their perceptions about organizational cynicism and mobbing. Ethical leadership is highly associated with organizational trust and organizational justice. The researches conducted on the subject also supports this result (Acar, 2011; Ayik et al., 2014; Bahceci, 2014; Cicek, 2014; Ugurlu & Ustuner, 2011; Yildirim, 2010; Turan, 2015; Cemaloglu & Kilic, 2012; Pasa & Negis Isik, 2017). Since the behavior of ethical leaders is guided by ethical principles such as fairness, impartiality, equality, honesty, sincerity and accuracy (Senturk, 2011), this result is an expected outcome. The fact that the managerial practices in educational organizations do not change depending on the situation, time and person, and the fair and impartial attitude of managers affect the perceptions of the employees about justice in a positive way. Organizational justice is a phenomenon that is explained by equality theory of Adams (1965). According to this theory, the job satisfaction and success of the employee are highly dependent on egalitarian and non-egalitarian practices in the organization. In short, people working in an organization desire to be treated equally by their organizations and this desire affect motivation of employee. Equality here is not an absolute equality, but refers to the situation of getting what is deserved. In other words, the question is to distinguish those who put much effort from those who do not. In this respect, it can be said that the ethical behavior of the school leaders shapes the perceptions of the employees about justice significantly. When the results derived from the study conducted by

Ugurlu and Ustuner (2011) are examined, it is noted that ethical leadership behaviors of school managers significantly form teachers' perception of organizational justice. The study conducted by Altinkurt and Yilmaz (2010) emphasizes that administration of the school based on ethical values by school managers positively affects teachers' perception of organizational justice. In addition, ethical leadership behaviors such as fairness, sincerity, honesty and valuing individual play an important role in the formation of trust among educational staff towards school and its managers. Knowing that no harm and injustice will occur from the side of school administration and knowing that the administation will always be frank and honest towards the staff affect the organizational trust perception of employees in a positive way. In the study conducted by Cemaloglu and Kilic (2012), it has been emphasized that the inability of the school managers in being ethical enough in their behaviors related to attitude, decisions, communication network or school atmosphere; being sufficiently equal and fair; and not always telling the truth under any circumstances may damage employees' trust towards school managers. When the results of the study conducted by Uzun (2018) are examined, it is found that teachers thinking there is a network of social relations based on trust such as support, sincerity, integrity, honesty, consistency in their schools are emotionally attached to their schools and exhibit many voluntary behaviors in addition to their job descriptions. All these results show that the ethical leadership behaviors of school managers have an important role in the formation of perceptions of educational employees regarding organizational justice and trust.

Ethical leadership behaviors of school managers are also moderately related to employees' behaviours of motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational cynicism. The results of the studies conducted on this subject support this finding (Ayik et al., 2014; Toremen & Erol, 2015; Sahin, 2015; Akan et al., 2014; Mete, 2013; Dogan & Ugurlu, 2014; Madenoglu et al., 2014; Unverdi, 2016 ; Gungor, 2016; Karadas, 2014; Acar, 2011; Saglam & Emirbey, 2017). According to the results of this research, in schools where ethical principles are intensely exhibited by ethical school leaders, it is possible for the staff to develop some positive feelings and attitudes towards their work and therefore it is easier for the staff to adopt the school's goals, values and norms in order to identify themselves with the school and to increase their willingness to work for fulfilling the school's objectives. In a research conducted by Madeneoglu et al. (2014), it is concluded that ethical leadership behaviors of school principals directly affect the organizational commitment of teachers and it indirectly affects commitments through job satisfaction. In other words, as the ethical leadership behaviors of the school managers increases, the level of developing positive emotions and being satisfied from job among educational staff increase as well and this enhances their commitments accordingly. In a study conducted by Saglam and Emirbey (2017), it is seen that ethical leadership behaviors of school managers have a significant impact on the motivation of teachers. In addition, anger, frustration, hopelessness and similar negative thoughts and attitudes of the educational staff towards the organization and the managers decrease in educational organizations where ethical values

prevail. A research of Dogan and Ugurlu (2014) has also revealed similar results. In a study conducted by Dogan and Ugurlu (2014), it has been highlighted that ethical leadership behaviors of school managers reduce the cognitive, affective and behavioral cynical behaviors of teachers. In a study carried out by Mete (2013) on academicians it has been emphasized that the ethical leadership perceptions of academicians reduce the behaviors and attitudes towards organizational cynicism. In order to make an overall assessment, ethical leadership plays an important role in the job satisfaction of the educational staff, their willingness to do their jobs, their identification with the school they work and the absence of cynical behavior among them.

It is seen that unethical behaviors such as humiliation, contempt, blaming, forcing to obey the educational staff increase the perception of mobbing among employees. They perceive the non-ethical behaviors exhibited by their managers with the intention of harming and ill-treating as an attack against them. This increases their perception of being subjected to mobbing. The study conducted by Cemaloglu and Kilic (2014) highlights that ethical leadership affects teachers' perception of mobbing both directly and indirectly through the perception of organizational trust. In other words, as the ethical leadership behaviors of school managers increases, teachers' perceptions of organizational trust increase and this decreases their perception of mobbing. In this respect, it can be stated that unethical behaviors are the basis of mobbing.

According to the results obtained from the research, ethical leadership have a significant effect on organizational justice, organizational trust, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, mobbing, motivation, organizational cynicism of the educational staff. Hence, it is possible to suggest the authorities that are responsible for the management of educational organizations to perform their duties in accordance to the ethical principles such as justice, impartiality, equality, honesty, sincerity, and integrity. Besides, some challenges were encountered in the process of the research. Particularly in some of the studies that were examined during the literature review, it was observed that the relationships between the variables were examined in the sub-dimension level. These studies could not be included in the research since the relationship between the general scores of the variables was not reported. In this context, it may be advisable for researchers to report all information about the study for new meta-analysis studies to be conducted. At the same time, this research is limited with the studies conducted on educational organizations about the ethical leadership in Turkey for the last 10 years. Hence, it may suggest to researchers to conduct the meta-analysis with regard to studies that examine ethical leadership at an international level.

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An Investigation of Secondary School Students' Critical Visual Reading Skills In Terms of Different Variables

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the critical visual reading skills of secondary school students (5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grade) in terms of different variables (gender and grade level). Study sample consisted of 400 students of 4 schools located in the city center of Muş. A screening model was used in the research. Data were collected using the 5-point Likert-type Critical Visual Reading Scale 34-item developed by Söylemez (2015). The reliability of the scale was high (Cronbach's alpha = 0.814). Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows 22.0 at a significance level of 0.05. Number, percentage, mean and standard deviation were used for descriptive statistics of variables. T-test was used for analysis of quantitative continuous data in two independent groups while one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for analysis of quantitative continuous data in more than two independent groups. A Scheffe's test was used to to make posthoc comparisons between the groups to determine significant differences. Results show that secondary school students' critical visual reading skills differ significantly by grade level but do not differ by gender. Several suggestions were made based on the findings.

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Introduction

Humans possess many unique characteristics, the most important of which is the ability to think because such functions as thinking, comprehending and evaluating are bestowed only on humans. Cüceloğlu (1999) defines thinking as a mental process that humans rely on to make sense of the situations they are in. In parallel to thinking, critical thinking is another concept involving complex mental processes.

Thinking also means criticizing, which is to judge, analyze or interpret something objectively. The aim of criticism is the same as that of critical thinking: Recognizing weaknesses as well as strengths and flaws as well as merits (Paul, 1995, p. 521-552).

Critical Thinking

Defined by Socrates as "examining both the positive and negative aspects of something," critical thinking is also recognized as an inquiry method all over the world (Ruppel, 2005). Critical thinking was derived from Ancient Greek "kritikós" (of or for judging, able to discern") and passed to Latin as "criticus," and spread out to other languages (Kaya, 1997, p. 8).

Critical thinking is defined, discussed and classified in different ways in the literature. Sternberg (1999) defines critical thinking as a mental process, strategy and presentation of choice to solve problems. Schreglmann (2011, p. 30) defines it as a mental process of collecting all kinds of relevant data, and organizing, interpreting, separating and evaluating it based on a criterion without taking things (knowledge, skills and attitudes) for granted. Both definitions show that critical thinking is a disciplined mental process or activity. Hotaman (2008) emphasizes that critical thinking is a decisive mental activity. He also treats it as a cognitive skill that should be possessed by educated people; a motor activity that drives knowledge production; and an approach to solve a problem by means of reasoning. Ming-Lee Wen (1990) classifies the main functions of critical thinking as inquiry, comprehensive thinking, free thinking and restructuring. Johnson (2000) divides critical thinking into the stages of organization, analysis and evaluation.

Critical thinkers also have sound communication and observation skills. Fisher states that critical thinkers are able to communicate with various sources of information and determine the relevant and reliable ones. They also possess many other skills. Beyer (1991, p. 124) states that critical thinkers should be able to:

- Express a problem or a claim clearly

- Ask others to speak openly and clearly.

- Think before acting

- Check their own progress

- Be industrious in developing an idea

- Find and present the facts and evidence confirming their claims.

- Make a judgment not on the basis of dogmas and nostalgic convictions but on the basis of objectives, results and interpretations

- Use prior knowledge

- Doubt their judgment until sufficient evidence is found

Critical Reading

Critical thinking skills and critical reading skills are interrelated concepts. Critical thinkers are also able to critically evaluate what they read. The concept of reading is, therefore, of great importance. Wallace (2003, p. 4) states that reading skill, which is a personal linguistic proficiency or a cognitive ability consisting of a set of skills, is also a social and critical process which is open to interpretation.

Hoffman (1992) discusses the relationship between critical thinking and critical reading. He highlights that critical reading starts with the reflection of critical thinking skills on the process of understanding and making sense of text.

Bosley (2008) states that critical reading is a purposeful and conscious activity through which the reader communicates with the text on a metacognitive level and proceeds to make sense of it and to reconstruct it in his mind.

Critical reading skills include searching information sources, recognizing the author's purpose, distinguishing between opinions and facts, making inferences and arriving at a judgment (Cervetti, Pardeles & Damico, 2001; Eryaman, 2007).

Wheeler (2007) looks at it from a different perspective. To him, the purpose of critical reading is not to develop opposing views to the author. The critical reader not only strives to understand the author's views, but also seeks evidence for alternative views and ponders upon their coherence and adaptability.

Critical reading is a mental process like critical thinking and consists of several steps. Hardcastle (2002) lists the steps of critical reading as follows:

1. Examining the titles of a text before reading

2. Determining when, for what purpose and by whom the text was written

3. Asking questions about the text

4. Identifying one's own feelings and thoughts about the text

5. Determining the texts that have been read

6. Identifying the ideas conveyed in the text

7. Evaluating the ideas conveyed in the text

8. Comparing the text with other texts

El-Hindi (1997, p. 15) also states that "critical reading is a metacognitive process in which the reader interacts with texts, asks questions, makes predictions, makes connections via prior knowledge and experiences, breaks down prejudices, perceives hidden meanings and builds new knowledge."

A person who is able to engage in critical reading is referred to as a critical reader. Collins (1993) states that judgments, decisions and attitudes regarding the text affect the reader. He also states that critical readers should make effective evaluations and inquiries during reading and benefit from the fields of activity of critical thinking.

According to Leist, Woolwine and Bays (2012), critical readers follow the ideas of the author, and compare them with their own ideas. Shihab (2011) states that when reading a text, critical readers should be able to make sense of or fill in gaps that are not explicitly stated by the author.

Critical Visual Reading

One common trait of critical thinkers or critical readers is high-level of visual reading skills. In this respect, critical readers are able to critically assess everything around them.

Visual reading is the ability to accurately interpret visual messages and create such messages (Heinich, Molenda, Russell, Smaldino, 1999, p. 64). People with high visual reading skills are also successful in comprehension and visualization. According to Brill, Kim and Branch (2001), critical visual readers are able to:

1- Distinguish between objects and make sense of them

2- Create effective and meaningful visuals in a given environment.

3- Understand and appreciate what others make of visuality.

4- Visualize

Söylemez (2015) lists the characteristics of critical visual readers as follows:

1. Critical thinking disposition: Being enthusiastic about reading a visual text using critical thinking processes

2. Recognition: Understanding the importance of the visual text and recognizing hidden messages

3. Competence: Having sufficient knowledge about the subject of the visual text

4. Explanation: Making sure that the space, graphics, tables, concepts, problems or situations specific to the space in the visual text are sufficiently clear

5. Interpretation: Distinguishing between fiction and fact and identifying both overt and covert messages, commercial/propaganda etc. in the visual text

6. Arrangement: Identifying and mentally processing information and visuals in the visual text and choosing the ones to be used, classifying information and visuals in the visual text and ranking them according to level of significance

7. Reasoning: Predicting the reason why the selected visual was chosen

8. Inference: Producing results based on the data in the visual text

9. Creative thinking: Understanding the author's original solutions in the visual text and developing alternative solutions

10. Evaluation: Determining whether each image, information or event in the visual text is clear, consistent, logical and ethical in itself, understanding their purpose and reason, identifying the intention of the author in conveying that particular information/event and in choosing those images

11. Application: Using the information and achievements obtained from the visual text when needed in daily life

12. Communication: Sharing visual text-related ideas in written or oral form

13. Making critical thinking a habit: Using critical thinking when sharing visual text-related views and when preparing to read and reading a visual text

Objective of the Research

The aim of this study is to determine the critical visual reading levels of secondary school students (5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grade) and to examine them from various perspectives. To this end, the study sought answers to the following questions:

1. Wat are secondary school students' levels of critical visual reading skills?

2. Do secondary school students' levels of critical visual reading skills differ by gender?

3. Do secondary school students' levels of critical visual reading skills differ by grade level?

Method

This section addresses the research model, study group, and data collection and analysis.

Research Design

A screening model was used in this study to determine participants' critical visual reading levels. Screening models are research models that attempt to describe a past or present phenomenon as it was or is and are used to collect, sort and analyze important data (Çömlekçi, 2001). In screening models, the event, individual or object of interest is analyzed as it is. The relational screening model is a research model that aims to determine the presence and degree of change based on two or more variables (Karasar, 2003).

Study Sample

The research was conducted in the spring semester of the 2017-2018 academic year with the participation of the researcher. Secondary school students of 4 schools were contacted and 25 students were recruited from each grade (5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grade) of each school. The study sample, therefore, consisted of 400 students.

Data Collection and Reliability

Data were collected using the Critical Visual Reading Scale 34-item developed by Söylemez (2015). The items are scored on a 5-point Likert scale (Never = 1, Sometimes = 2, Undecided = 3, Often = 4, Always = 5), the lowest score being 34 and the highest score being 170. The higher the score, the higher the critical visual reading skills. The reliability of the scale was found to be 0.841 by Söylemez (2015) while it was 0.814 in this study.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows 22.0 at a significance level of 0.05. Number, percentage, mean and standard deviation were used for for descriptive statistics of variables. The t-test was used for analysis of quantitative continuous data in two independent groups while one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for analysis of quantitative continuous data in more than two independent groups. A Scheffe's Test was used to to make posthoc comparisons between the groups to determine significant differences.

Findings

This section reports the findings including explanations and comments based on them.

Table 1. Descriptive Characteristics of Participants

Tables	Groups	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Girl	210	52.5
	Boy	190	47.5
	Total	400	100.0
Grade	5	100	25.0
	6	100	25.0
	7	100	25.0
	8	100	25.0
	Total	400	100.0

Of 400 participants, 210 (52.5%) were girls and 190 (47.5%) were boys. 100 (25%) were fifth graders, 100 (25%) were sixth graders, 100 (25%) were seventh graders and 100 (25%) were eighth graders.

Table 2 shows participants' critical visual reading levels.

Table 2. Participants' Critical Visual Reading Mean Score

	N	Mean	Sd	Min.	Max.
Critical Visual Reading	400	115.620	16.898	44.000	163.000

Participants' critical visual reading mean score was 115.620±16.898 (Min = 44; Max = 163).

Table 3 shows participants' critical visual reading mean scores depending on grade level.

Table 3. Participants' Critical Visual Reading Mean Scores by Grade Level

	Group	N	Mean	Sd	F	p	Difference
Critical Visual Reading	5	100	118.370	15.303	6.931	0.000	5>7
	6	100	120.280	18.657			6>7
	7	100	112.140	16.727			5>8
	8	100	111.690	15.210			6>8

A one-way Anova test was used to determine whether participants' critical visual reading mean scores differed significantly by grade level. A Scheffe's test was used to to make posthoc comparisons between the groups to determine significant differences. The Scheffe's test showed that participants' critical visual reading mean scores differed significantly by grade level (F=6.931; $p<0.05$).

According to the results, the fifth graders' mean critical visual reading score ($\bar{x}$=118.370) was statistically significantly higher than that of the seventh graders ($\bar{x}$=112.140). The sixth graders' mean critical visual reading score ($\bar{x}$=120.280) was statistically significantly higher than that of the seventh graders ($\bar{x}$=112.140). The fifth graders' mean critical visual reading score ($\bar{x}$=118.370) was statistically significantly higher than that of the eight graders ($\bar{x}$=111.690). The fifth graders' mean critical visual reading score ($\bar{x}$=118.370) was statistically significantly higher than that of the eight graders ($\bar{x}$=111.690). The sixth graders' mean critical visual reading score ($\bar{x}$=120.280) was statistically significantly higher than that of the eight graders ($\bar{x}$=111.690).

Table 4 shows participants' mean critical visual reading scores depending on gender.

Table 4. Participants' Mean Critical Visual Reading Scores Depending by Gender

	Group	N	Mean	Sd	t	p
Critical Visual Reading	Girl	210	115.991	16.950	0.461	0.645
	Boy	190	115.211	16.875		

A t-test was used to determine whether participants' mean critical visual reading scores differed significantly by gender. The results showed no statistically significant difference ($p>0.05$). The mean critical visual reading scores of male ($\bar{x}$=115.211) and female participants ($\bar{x}$=115.991) were very close to each other.

Conclusion, Discussion and Suggestions

This study aimed to examine the critical visual reading skills of secondary school students (5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grade) in terms of different variables (gender and grade level). The results were compared with those of previous studies for further discussion and interpretation. Several suggestions were made concerning further research on and improvement of critical visual reading skills.

There seems to be no research on the critical visual reading skills of primary school students, secondary school students or pre-service teachers. This is, therefore, the first study to address this issue. The results were compared with those of previous studies on critical thinking and critical reading.

Interpretation of visuals requires various skills. Critical interpretation of visuals also requires certain knowledge. Interpretation of visuals is more like reading because it is the ability to read abstract concepts transformed into different images. This ability sometimes allows us to understand a topic that is difficult for others to understand or that would take a long time to express by different narrative techniques. As Paul, Binker, Jensen and Krelau (1990, p. 32) state, "a picture is worth a thousand words."

Participants' critical visual reading mean score was 115.620±16.898 (Min = 44; Max = 163). Considering that the highest score that can be obtained from the scale is 170, participants' critical visual reading level can be regarded as relatively high.

Of 400 participants, 210 (52.5%) were girls and 190 (47.5%) were boys. The results showed no statistically significant difference in critical visual reading mean scores between male and female participants ($p>0.05$). The mean critical visual reading scores of male ($\bar{x}$=115.211) and female participants ($\bar{x}$=115.991) were very close to each other. Emiroğlu (2014) investigated the effect of critical reading education on critical reading skills. He reported that critical reading activities significantly improved ninth graders' critical reading skills regardless of gender. Altunsöz (2016) also reported that there was no statistically significant difference in critical reading skills between male and female fourth graders. This result is also consistent with that of the study conducted by Topçuoğlu Ünal and Sever (2013) on Turkish pre-service teachers' self-efficacy perceptions of critical reading. They also concluded that gender had no effect on critical reading skills. Some studies, however, reported that female students had greater critical reading skills than did male students (Sadioğlu & Bilgin, 2008). Facione, Giancarlo, Facione and Gainen (1995) investigated the effect of gender on critical thinking dispositions and reported that female university students were more likely to be open-minded than male ones.

Another result of the study showed that participants' critical visual reading mean scores differed significantly by grade level (F=6.931; $p<0.05$). The fifth, sixth, seventh and eight graders' mean critical visual reading scores were $\bar{x}$=118.370, $\bar{x}$=120.280, $\bar{x}$=112.140 and $\bar{x}$=111.690, respectively, with sixth graders having the highest score and eight graders the lowest score. Huitt (1998) states that teachers should be capable of providing their students of all grades with the opportunity to develop critical thinking skills in all areas of life and should evaluate those skills using appropriate instruments and give them feedback regarding their performance and improvement.

- The suggestions based on the results of this study are as follows:

- There is no research on student's critical visual reading skills. Further research is, therefore, warranted in this area.

- Critical visual reading skills should be included in all textbooks.

- Further research should be conducted on the relationship between critical visual reading skills and visual reading or critical thinking skills.

- Critical visual reading skills should be included in Turkish teaching curriculum, and activities should be designed and held accordingly.

- The results of this study were limited to fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth graders. It is, therefore, recommended that future studies investigate this subject matter with students of different grade levels.

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Applicability of Web Based Distance Education to Instrument (Guitar) Education

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Abstract

In this research, it is aimed to present the applicability of Web Based Distance Education (WBDE) method in instrument (guitar) education for Fine Arts High Schools. In accordance with this purpose, a web-based experimental study is developed within the scope of synchronous and asynchronous models for guitar education. The research is carried out in two different study groups in the 2017-2018 academic year at Aydın Doğan Fine Arts High School in Turkey. In order to evaluate web-based instrument education, the first study group is formed with 8 students in the 11th and 12th grade who have taken guitar education, and the second study group is formed with two students who have never studied guitar in order to evaluate the initial guitar education. In this mixed-method study, pretest-posttest matched control group random experimental pattern method is applied within the scope of quantitative method, interview and observation techniques are applied within the scope of qualitative method. Guitar performance grading scale (GPGS), initial guitar education basic behavior evaluation form, individual instrument course attitude scale, guitar course achievement test (GCAT), structured course observation form and interview form are used as data collection tools. According to the results of the study, the instrument (guitar) education program of Fine Arts High School could be applied by WBDE method and this method could be used as an alternative to traditional instrument education.

Keywords: Web based distance education, distance education, guitar education, instrument education, music education, Fine Arts High School

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Introduction

In our age, there are various developments and changes in many fields. Education is one of the most important areas where these developments and changes are experienced. In the last century education was generally defined as "the process of creating behavioral change in the desired direction in an individual", today it can be defined as all the processes in which the individual develops talents, attitudes and other forms of behavior such as especially problem solving ability of the individual, accessing information, analyzing information, interdisciplinary thinking, creative thinking (Gök, 2012, p.1). It is the most effective process in developing, changing, shaping and directing individuals and societies. Education covers all social processes that are organized with a content that includes science, technique and art, aiming to create permanent behavioral changes in individuals and societies, and that are effective in gaining the skills that can be used throughout life.

One of the most important elements of education is art education. Art education is the whole of the educational activities made to explain the feelings, thoughts and impressions of the person and to bring the talent and creativity to an aesthetic level. Art education, whose main objectives are to raise awareness in individuals, to gain critical thinking and interpretation and to guide towards creativity, should continue uninterruptedly through all levels of education.

Being a part of this universe, music education, is of great importance for the individual to express his cultural values in a different way, and to develop and enhance perception, skill, sensitivity and interpretation (Anatolian Fine Arts High School Introduction to Music Course, 2006). With the music education, the individual takes part in a systematic process that actually starts in the womb and continues all throughout the life and that causes changes in their musical attitude, ideas and the way they recognize and live their lives. In this process, the individual is under the influence of regular or irregular, conscious or unconscious music education.

Music education is initially carried out by the family, then by the social environment and formal and informal education institutions Music education in Turkey is given by conservatories, music teaching departments in faculties of education, music research centers, fine arts faculties, fine arts high schools, primary schools, secondary and high schools, military band schools, public education centers, private music courses and music clubs. These institutions, organizations and individuals are obliged to develop the music knowledge of the individuals at the maximum level, to popularize the music education as much as possible, and to train competent, effective and well-equipped individuals who can give music education. The application of modern education system in these institutions is of great importance for increasing the quality of education and for individuals growing under musical education to be trained in accordance with the equipment required by the 21st century, and for the development of music education in Turkey.

Today, considering the contemporary education systems, it is seen that the distance education system has an important place in education. Gaining power especially with the developments in internet and computer Technologies, web-based distance education method has been an effective education method used in the problems of education system.

WBDE is an education system where teachers and students can work together through the developing web technologies and computer conferencing systems, independent of time, place and distance (Guzley et al., 2001; Manzanares, 2004, cited in: Erümit, 2011, p.2). In this system, distant individuals can be reached based on the internet with Wide Area Networks (WAN) or Local Area Networks (LAN) (Sakarya, 2011, p.12). The course content prepared in WBDE is presented to the student with the help of computers. A universal information distribution area is created using standard Internet technologies such as TCP/IP Protocol and Web Browser (Erturgut, 2008, p.81). In this information distribution area, most commonly used multimedia tool "www" (world wide web) is called "WBDE". The technologies required for technical infrastructure in the application of WBDE can be analyzed in five groups: internet infrastructure, hardware infrastructure, software infrastructure, multimedia tools and education management system (EMS).

Instrument educaiton is one of the important areas where WBDE method can be used just like many other fields of education. It is carried out in three ways as general, specific and professional. The most important of these types of education is definitely professional instrument education. Professional instrument education in Turkey is given at the middle and upper secondary level of conservatories, high school level within the Ministry of National Education, undergraduate and graduate levels in non-conservatory universities. In these institutions, it is seen that there are some problems in terms of quality in instrument education. Lack of teaching staff to perform instrument education can be seen as the first of these problems. Uslu (2013), stated that the fact that quality of instrument courses could not be achieved at a desired level may refer to the lack of teaching staff in institutions that train music teachers, the high number of students, the number of students to participate in one course, etc. Especially for Fine Arts High Schools (FAHS), which is one of the important steps of professional instrument education, Çilden and Ercan (2004) approved the fact that the number of Anatolian FAHS, which was started to be applied in Istanbul in 1989, has increased gradually throughout the country, but stated that it was noteworthy that there were problems in terms of the quality of the teaching staff and teaching programs about instrument education. For the problems that occured in the teacher staff in instrument teaching of FAHS, Çiçek and Apaydınlı (2016), reported that FAHS students' academic achievement was adversely affected by stating the fact that they took courses from substitute teachers who were assigned to other institutions or had paid duties or teachers of other branches in their own school. Moreover, due to the inadequacy of the number of teachers, individuals cannot make a choice in the direction of their interests and wishes and

the principle of "equal opportunities in education" cannot be provided. It is thought that this important problem can be solved by "web based distance education" in contemporary education systems and a different dimension can be added to instrument education. From this idea; The question of whether or not instrument (guitar) education can be applied by WBDE method and whether this method can be a solution for the problem of teacher shortage as an alternative to traditional instrument education reveals the problem state of this research. Based on this problem, it is aimed to reach the following purpose.

In this study, it is aimed to present the applicability of WDBE method in instrument education for FAHS. For this purpose, the following sub-problems will be searched and the hypothesis of the research will be tested by developing a web based experimental study for guitar education within the scope of instrument education.

Sub-Problems

1. What are the opinions of students studying with WBDE method for distance guitar education?

2. Can the initial guitar education courses be performed effectively with the WBDE method?

Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference between the guitar performance grading scale (GPGS) pretest scores of the students studying with WBDE method and the students studying traditional education (TE) method.

2. There is a significant difference between the GPGS pretest and posttest scores of students studying with TE method favoring the posttest results.

3. There is a significant difference between the GPGS pretest and posttest scores of students studying with WBDE method favoring the posttest results.

4. There is no significant difference between the GPGS posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with the TE method.

5. There is no significant difference between the guitar course achievement test (GCAT) pretest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with the TE method.

6. There is a significant difference between the GCAT pretest and posttest scores of students studying with TE method favoring the posttest results.

7. There is a significant difference between the GCAT pretest and posttest scores of students studying with WBDE method favoring the posttest results.

8. There is no significant difference between the GCAT posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with the TE method.

9. There is no significant difference between the individual instrument course attitude scale (IICAS) pretest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with the TE method.

10. There is a significant difference between the IICAS pretest and posttest scores of students studying with TE method favoring the posttest results.

11. There is a significant difference between the IICAS pretest and posttest scores of students studying with WBDE method favoring the posttest results.

12. There is no significant difference between the IICAS posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with the TE method.

Method

Research Design

In this research, embedded pattern was used within the scope of mixed method research. One of the quantitative or qualitative methods in the embedded pattern was more prominent than the other. In other words, the research was largely quantitative or qualitative one but data obtained by alternative method were also needed to support, generalize or explain the data obtained (Cresswell and PlanoClark, 2007, as cited in: Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2013, s.356). The research has been evaluated within the frame of "completion" function which was one of the five important functions of mixed method research. Qualitative and quantitative methods in completion function are used to examine different aspects of research problem. A comprehensive study of the research was presented by integrating the data collected in line with these aspects (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013, p.352).

In the research, pretest-posttest matched control group random real experimental pattern was applied within the scope of quantitative method. This pattern was used to increase the likelihood that the subject groups are equivalent. For this purpose, pairs of subjects were formed on certain determined variables. Theories, researcher experiences, expert opinions or pretest scores could be used to create subject pairs. Then the subjects in these pairs were randomly placed in the experimental and control groups. The coding of the pattern could be done as follows (Büyüköztürk, Kılıç Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel, 2014, p.207).

Experimental Group	MR	Pretest	Web Based Distance Education	Posttest
Control Group	MR	Pretest		Posttest

In addition, interview and observation techniques are used in the qualitative method.

The interviews were conducted within the context of semi-standardized interview. Questions of this type of interview were asked systematically and consistently to the participants, but the interviewers had the freedom to go out of them. Interviewers could deepen the answers to the standardized questions they prepare (Berg and Lune, 2015, p.136). The observation technique used in the research was carried out in the structured field work type. In this type of observation, the investigator generally uses a structured observation tool or tools. Thus, the behaviors in the observed environment were separated and they are included on the observation form (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2013, p.202).

Study Groups

This study was carried out in ADFAHS (Aydın Doğan Fine Arts High School) with two separate study groups in 2017-2018 academic year.

First Study Group

The first study group consisted of 8 students in total, 4 students in the 11th grade and 4 students in the 12th grade. In order to create the experimental and control groups, guided by the opinions of their guitar teacher, "Johann Kaspar Mertz-Landler op.9 no.4" for the students who received guitar education in 11th grade and "Jose Ferrer-Ejercicio no.2 from coleccion 12a de Ejercicios" for the students who received guitar education in 12th grade were selected, and students were asked to prepare for the selected works for 2 weeks. The performance of the students during the play was recorded with a camera and presented to the evaluation jury consisting of 1 research assistant, 1 assistant professor and researcher. By using GPGS, the basic, technical and musical behaviors of the students during the play were measured and the experimental and control groups were formed and synchronized according to the measuring process.

Second Study Group

The main purpose of this study group was to determine whether the initial guitar training courses can be performed by WBDE method. Among the first and important steps of instrument education were the basic concepts of sitting-holding and basic knowledge. From time to time, these might require physical intervention to the student's posture, instrument holding, or sitting with the instrument in the instrument education given in TE method. Since there was no physical intervention in the WBDE method, it was approved to study these subjects with a separate study group.

The second study group included in the study was designed for the purpose of evaluating the initial guitar education using the observation technique within the scope of the qualitative research method. Since the students of 9th grade of ADFAHS had the information and experience about sitting-holding and basic knowledge in advance, for the experimental study to be evaluated properly, a separate study about sitting-holding information, right hand-left hand technique, finger excercises and notes in first position was carried out for 4 weeks with a separate two-person study group (second study group) to evaluate the applicability of web based instrument education without any interpretation.

Formation of Experimental and Control Groups

In the ADFAHS, performances of 5 students with guitar education in the 11th grade and 4 students with guitar education in the 12th grade during the play were scored by the performance evaluation jury with the use of GPGS and 2 different experimental and control groups were formed by analyzing the data obtained.

Experimental and Control Group in the 11th Grade

Grouping performance scores of the 5 students in the 11th grade from the evaluation jury are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Grouping Performance Scores of the 11th Grade.

Students	Evaluator1	Evaluator2	Evaluator3	Total	Average
A1	48	49	44	141	47
A2	32	31	27	90	30
A3	40	39	41	120	40
A4	38	36	34	108	36
A5	50	56	53	159	53

As shown in Table 1, A1's score average received by the evaluation jury is calculated as 47, A2's score average received by the evaluation jury was calculated as 30, A3's score average received by the evaluation jury was calculated as 40, A4's score average received by the evaluation jury was calculated as 36 and A5's score average received by the evaluation jury was calculated as 53. As the average score of A5 was higher than other students, A5 was excluded from the group, and the remaining students were matched according to the average score they received and divided into experimental and control groups as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Experiment and Control Groups in the 11th Class.

Experimental Group	Score	Control Group	Score
A3	40	A1	47
A4	36	A2	30
Group Score Average	38	Group Score Average	38,5

As shown in Table 2, the experimental and control groups ere formed by pairing A3 (40) with A1 (47) and A4 (36) with A2 (30). While forming groups, attention was paid to the fact that average scores of the two groups were close to each other, the average score of the experimental group was calculated as 38 and the average score of the control group was calculated 38.5 and 2 equal groups are formed.

Experimental and Control Group in the 12th Grade

Grouping performance scores of the 4 students in the 12th grade from the evaluation jury are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Grouping Performance Scores of the 12th Grade.

Students	Evaluator1	Evaluator2	Evaluator3	Total	Average
B1	40	41	45	126	42
B2	39	38	40	117	39
B3	50	50	50	150	50
B4	39	38	37	114	38

As shown in Table 3, B1's score average received by the evaluation jury was calculated as 42, B2's score average received by the evaluation jury was calculated as 39, B3's score average received by the evaluation jury was calculated as 50, and B4's score average received by the evaluation jury was calculated as 38. The students were matched according to the average score they received and divided into experimental and control groups as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Experiment and Control Groups in the 12th Class.

Experimental Group	Score	Control Group	Score
B3	50	B1	42
B4	38	B2	39
Group Score Average	44	Group Score Average	41,5

As shown in Table 4, the experimental and control groups were formed by pairing B3 (50) with B4 (38) and B1 (42) with B2 (39). While forming groups, attention was paid to the fact that average scores of the two groups were close to each other, the average score of the experimental group was calculated as 44 and the average score of the control group was calculated 41.5 and 2 equal groups are formed.

Study and Application Process

Before passing on to the application stage of the research, WBDE classes were established at Marmara University Distance Education Application and Research Center (DEC) and ADFAHS in order to perform WBDE and the internet, hardware, software and multimedia tools required for the study were made available to the computer system of the researchers and students. Also, the supplying and the installation of equipments used in the study such as TV screen, computer, guitar, microphone, speaker, printer, camera and so on. Were implemented and made ready for use by being tested before the study. In the study, Skype^{TM} application for voice and video communication with students and screen sharing feature of "perculus" application which was integrated with EMS (Education Management System) used in DEC were used for sharing the documents with students to be used during the course on the screen.

For the courses with the experimental group, the Guitar Training course was created on the EMS and the user pages that the students could join to the virtual classes by entering the user name and password are prepared.

For the application phase of the research, the course content was prepared by examining the achievements covering the 8-week guitar course curriculum of 11th and 12th grade in FAHS. In line with the content of the course, 1 course video for each week, 16 course videos in total for 11th and 12th grades and also 3 work study video for the works that would be studied were prepared. The prepared videos were added to the EMS to enable students to work with the asynchronous education model from the distance education types outside the course hours. In addition, the unit documents in the 11th and 12th grade guitar textbooks and the supporting documents required for the studies were added to the EMS.

In order to collect the quantitative data before the study was carried out, IICAS and GPGS were provided to be applied within the pretest and posttest stage, and the 11th and 12th grade GCAT was formed by the researcher.

All the steps and preparations required for the experimental study were checked and the application process was started.

The equipment used in the classes to enable distance guitar training is shown below.

Marmara University Distance Education Class

- 50 "127 Screen Full HD LED TV

- Laptop

- Web Cam (HD)

- Condenser Studio Microphone

- Table Type Microphone Stand

- Soundbar Sound System

- External Sound Card

Aydın Doğan Fine Arts High School Distance Education Class

- 65 inch LED Screen Smart Board

- Web Cam (HD)

- Condenser Studio Microphone

- Table Type Microphone Stand

- Soundbar Sound System

- External Sound Card

- Printer

First Study Group (Experimental and Control Groups) Application Process

Before passing on to the application stage of the research, "Miguel Llobet-El Testament d'Amelia" for the students who received guitar education in 11th grade and "Anonim-Soleares" for the students who received guitar education in 12th grade were arranged to include achievements of guitar courses, and students were asked to prepare for the selected works for 2 weeks. At the end of the determined period, the performances of the students were measured with GPGS and evaluated within the pretest. In addition, pretest data about the students' course achievement and attitudes towards the course were collected by applying GCAT and IICAS

Experimental group students were asked to set a username and password to be able to login to EMS and each student were registered to the previously prepared user pages. Informations such as usage of EMS, video-voice call with Skype^{TM}, usage of course screen sharing etc. were shared with the experimental group students. A support member in charge of the system was assigned to eliminate the problems that might occur in the courses and the students were encouraged to use the system in the first courses and in the following courses the control was left to the students.

At the application stage of the research, the course content for the experimental group was conducted one-to-one in a separate space, with synchronous and asynchronous education model, video-conference method, the control group was studied by the traditional training method, in the same place, one-on-one by the researcher. During the study, each student was given 40-minute courses in 1 day a week for 8 weeks.

In the research, courses of control and experiment groups were held with the use of guitar textbooks, the necessary supporting documents are given to the control group students, as for the experimental group students they are shared via the EMS. Additionally, videos and documents supporting the course that the experimental group students could use within the scope of the asynchronous education model were presented via the EMS. Prepared course videos were transformed into an interactive structure with "smart video" application in EMS. At certain times of the course videos, multiple choice questions related to the subject of course were placed, if the student could not answer the question about the subject correctly, the video was returned to the time when the related subject was started to be explained. When the questions are answered correctly, the video continues where it was left off. In addition, it was aimed to enable students to achieve all targeted achievements by making an arrangement that would make the next week's activities inactive when the weekly activities such as the video used in EMS, document, etc are not seen by the students. Thus, the experimental group students' studies were supported by an asynchronous education model.

Second Study Group Application Process

In the context of the initial guitar training, the course content was prepared for the second study group in terms of sitting-holding information, right hand-left hand technique, finger exercises and notes in the first position. The group was given 40-minutes courses each day a week with the use WBDE method and each course was recorded with the camera by the researcher for evaluation within the scope of the observation method.

The students were asked to determine their username and password in order to be able to login to EMS, and each student was registered to the previously prepared user pages. Informations such as usage of EMS, video-voice call with Skype™, usage of course screen sharing etc. were shared with the second study group students. A support member in charge of the system was assigned to eliminate the problems that might occur in the courses and the students were encouraged to use the system in the first courses and in the following courses the control was left to the students.

At the end of the application phase, "Ole Halen-Vals" was given to the students in order to measure their final performances and they were asked to study for 2 weeks. The performance of the students was recorded with the camera and presented to the evaluation jury. The basic and technical behaviors of students in the initial guitar education process were evaluated and interpreted.

Data Collection Tools

In this research;

1. Guitar performance grading scale,

2. Basic behavior assessment form for initial guitar education

3. Individual instrument course attitude scale,

4. Guitar course achievement test,

5. Structured course observation form,

6. The interview form were used as data collection tools.

Guitar Performance Rating Scale

Guitar performance rating scale which was developed by Akçay (2011) to determine students' performance objectively in Individual Instrument (Guitar) Courses in Music Departments of Fine Arts Faculties and Music Education Programs of Education Faculties was arranged according to nine experts' oral and written opinions and suggestions. Experts points out that it can be used to measure guitar performance.

The generated scale was applied to 7 students of individual instrument guitar course and 4 persons from teaching staff participated in the research as a scorer. The scope, format, Likert and scoring method of the scale are clearly understood by all the teaching staff. 15 items collected under 3 dimensions on the scale was able to be scored in a time that was convenient to the use of the measuring instrument during performance.

Basic Behavior Assessment Form for Initial Guitar Education

In the research, after the 4-week study, a 5-itemed form was prepared by the researcher in order to measure the performance of the students in the second study group, who received the guitar training for the first time and the opinions of 8 guitar teachers who are experts in their field were taken to determine the construct validity of the form and the suitability of the items in the form. In line with the opinions received, a basic form of evaluation of the initial guitar training was formed by making the necessary corrections.

Individual Instrument Course Attitude Scale

While the Individual Instrument Course Attitude Scale prepared by Yalçınkaya and Eldemir (2013) was developed, 60 students were asked to write an essay containing their opinions about individual instrument course. As a result of the analysis of the essay data, a 36-itemed draft scale

consisting of 20 positive and 16 negative propositions was formed. Arranged according to the expert opinions, the scale was applied to 373 students. As a result of the data obtained from the students, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test was applied to determine the structure validity and KMO value was found to be 0.96. Since this value was between 0.90 and 1.00, it could be said that the data were perfectly suitable for factor analysis.

As a result of the statistical analysis; An 18-item scale consisting of 2 factors, 12 positive and 6 negative propositions was obtained and the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was found to be $\alpha = 0.947$. This result shows that the scale was valid and reliable to measure the attitudes of the students towards the individual instrument course.

Guitar Course Achievement Test (GCAT)

Covering the 8-week course for the experimental study, the achievements for the Guitar Teaching Program of 11th and 12th grade in the FAHS were examined to determine the population and sample of the behaviours, measurement tools were formed according to the determined sample, and in order to evaluate the suitability of the tests in terms of appearance, scope and structure validity, the tests were presented to 7 academist guitar instructors who are experts in their field to ask their opinions and necessary corrections were made by examining the achievements during 8-week course of study in 11th and 12th Grade in the FAHS and moved onto the pilot scheme. The pilot scheme was carried out in 7 FAHS in İstanbul, İzmir, Muğla and Mersin provinces. The data required for the forming of the achievement tests were collected by the pilot application performed with 40 students who took guitar courses in 11th and 12th grade in these high schools.

11th Grade Guitar Course Achievement Test

In accordance with the achievements to be applied within the scope of the experimental study, pilot application was conducted with 26 participants by creating a 18-itemed GCAT was created. As a result of the analysis with the obtained data, the item discrimination index (D) of the 2 items was found to be less than 0.20, therefore was excluded from the test, the average item difficulty index (P) of the 16-itemed achievement test was found to be 0.64 and the mean discrimination index (D) was found to be 0.50. Reliability of the test was analyzed with the internal consistency test, Cronbach's Alpha test, and a 16-item success test with $\alpha = 0.795$ coefficient was obtained. As a result of the expert opinions and analyzes obtained, it can be said that the achievement test is valid and reliable to measure the students' achievements.

12th Grade Guitar Course Achievement Test

In accordance with the achievements to be applied within the scope of experimental study, pilot scheme was performed with 14 participants by forming a 10-itemed GCAT of 12th grade, with

the data obtained from scheme the average item difficulty index (P) of the test was found to be 0.57 and the average discrimination index (D) was found to be 0.60. The reliability of the test was analyzed with Cronbach's Alpha test and 10-itemed achievement test with $\alpha = 0.785$ reliability coefficient was obtained. As a result of the expert opinions and analyzes obtained, it can be said that the achievement test is valid and reliable to measure the students' achievements.

Structured Course Observation Form

For the initial guitar education courses conducted with WBDE method to be examined in the research, a total of 8 courses during 4 weeks were carried out with two students (C1, C2) from the second study group who have not taken guitar education. During the application, all the courses were recorded with the camera as a part of the observation method and the collected data were registered to the structured observation form according to the categories determined in the scope of the research questions. During the observation, data were collected to evaluate whether the initial guitar education courses could be carried out with WBDE method; in this regard, whether the students' attitudes in the courses and the teaching of the course could make up to the guitar education given by traditional education method.

The Interview Form

In the research, individual interviews were conducted with experimental group students that are in the first study group after the experimental study. As a result of the interview consisting of 6 basic questions, the data gathered were registered to the interview form and analyzed and the themes and codes were determined and interpreted.

Data Analysis

In the research, within the scope of analysis method, pretest and posttest used to collect quantitative data were analyzed and interpreted with the Mann-Whitney U test, which is the nonparametric counterpart to the significance test of the difference between two independent groups, and Wilcoxon test, which is the nonparametric correspond to the significance test of the difference between the two dependent groups.

The data collected by taking students' opinions about experimental study were analyzed within the scope of descriptive analysis method and the themes and codes determined as a result of analysis of the data were interpreted.

The data obtained by observation technique were analyzed and interpreted by using structured course observation form.

Results and Comments

1. The results for hypothesis "There is no significant difference between the the GPGS pretest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying TE method" are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Results of Mann-Whitney U Test to determine if there is any difference between the GPGS pretest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with TE method.

Score	Groups	N	Average Rank	Total Rank	U	z	p
Performance Dereceleme Scale Pretest	Control	4	4,50	18,00			
	Experimental	4	4,50	18,00	8,000	,000	1,000
	Total	8					

As shown in Table 5, there was no statistically (p>0.05) significant difference between GPGS pretest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with TE method. In determining the experimental and control groups, it was seen that the group performances they presented after the students were divided into groups according to the works they play, were correlatively equal and experimental studies were started with two equal groups.

2. The results for hypothesis "There is a significant difference between the GPGS pretest and posttest scores of students studying with TE method favoring the posttest results" are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test to determine if there is any difference between the GPGS pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with TE method.

Score	Ranks	N	Average Rank	Total Rank	z	p
Performance Posttest	Negative	0	,00	,00		
	Positive	4	2,50	10,00	-1,826	0,068
Performance Pretest	Equal	0				
	Total	4				

As shown in Table 6, there was statistically (p>0.05) significant difference between GPGS pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with TE method. The performance grading scale pretest and posttest scores given by the evaluation jury to the students studying with TE method are shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 GPGS Pretest and Posttest Scores of the Students Studying with TE method.

Group	Students	Pretest	Pretest Average	Posttest	Posttest Average
Control	A1	27	31,25	51,3	56,05
	A2	27		50,3	
	B1	34		59,6	
	B2	37		63	

As seen in Table 6.1, obtained from GPGS, the average of pretest score of the students studying with TE method was found to be 31.25, and the posttest score average was found as 56.05. It was detected that there was no statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with the TE method, but that they showed a certain level of improvement at the end of the education.

3. The results for hypothesis "There is a significant difference between the GPGS pretest and posttest scores of students studying with WBDE method favoring the posttest results" are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test to determine if there is any difference between the GPGS pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method.

Score	Ranks	N	Average Rank	Total Rank	z	p
Performance Posttest	Negative	0	,00	,00	-1,826	0,068
	Positive	4	2,50	10,00		
Performance Pretest	Equal	0				
	Total	4				

As shown in Table 7, there was no statistically (p>0.05) significant difference between GPGS pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method. The performance grading scale pretest and posttest scores given by the evaluation jury to the students studying with WBDE method are shown in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 GPGS Pretest and Posttest Scores of the Students Studying with WBDE Method

Group	Students	Pretest	Pretest Average	Posttest	Posttest Average
Experimental	A3	27	32	51	62,125
	A4	26		50,6	
	B3	39		79,6	
	B4	36		67,3	

As shown in Table 7.1, obtained from GPGS, the average of pretest score of the students studying with WBDE method was found to be 32, and the posttest score average was found as 62,125. It was detected that there was no statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method, but that they showed a certain level of improvement at the end of the education.

4. The results for hypothesis "There is no significant difference between the GPGS posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with the TE method" are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Results of Mann-Whitney U Test to determine if there is any difference between the GPGS posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with TE method.

Score	Groups	*N*	*Average Rank*	*Total Rank*	*U*	*z*	*p*
	Control	4	4,00	16,00			
Performance Grading Scale Posttest	Experimental	4	5,00	20,00	6,000	-,577	0,564
	Total	8					

As shown in Table 8, there was no statistically (p>0.05) significant difference between GPGS posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method and students studying with TE method. The performance grading scale posttest scores given by the evaluation jury to the students studying with WBDE method are shown in Table 8.1

Table 8.1 GPGS Posttest Scores of the Students Studying with the WBDE Method and Students Studying with TE method.

Groups	Students	Posttest	Posttest Average
Control	A1	51,3	
	A2	50,3	
	B1	59,6	56,05
	B2	63	
Experimental	A3	51	
	A4	50,6	
	B3	79,6	62,125
	B4	67,3	

As shown in Table 8.1, GPGS posttest points average of the students studying with TE method was found to be 56,05, and the posttest point average of the students studying with WBDE method was found to be 62,125. It was seen that there was no statistically significant difference between the GPGS posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method and students studying with TE

method, yet when the performance scores of the students were evaluated, compared to TE method, WBDE method was seen to be more effective on students' performance.

5. The results for hypothesis "There is no significant difference between GCAT pretest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with the TE method" are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Results of Mann-Whitney U Test to determine if there is any difference between the GPGS pretest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with TE method.

Score	Groups	N	Average Rank	Total Rank	U	z	p
Achievement Test Pretest	Control	4	4,00	16,00			
	Experimental	4	5,00	20,00	6,000	-,584	0,559
	Total	8					

As shown in Table 9, there was no statistically (p>0.05) significant difference between GPGS pretest scores of the students studying with WBDE method and students studying with TE method. It was seen that the success levels of guitar course students in the experimental and control groups were equal and experimental studies were started with two equal groups.

6. The results for hypothesis "There is a significant difference between the GCAT pretest and posttest scores of students studying with TE method favoring the posttest results" are shown in Table 10.

Table 10. Results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test to determine if there is any difference between the GCAT pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with traditional educational method.

Score	Ranks	N	Average Rank	Total Average	z	p
Achievements Test Posttest	Negative	0	,00	,00		
	Positive	4	2,50	10,00	-1,826	0,068
Achievement Test Pretest	Equal	0				
	Total	4				

As shown in Table 10, there was no statistically (p>0.05) significant difference between GCAT pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with TE method. GCAT pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with TE method are also shown in Table 10.1.

Tablo 10.1 GCAT Pretest and Posttest Scores of the Students Studying TE method.

Group	Students	Pretest	Pretest Average	Posttest	Posttest Average
	A1	37,5		62,5	
Control	A2	18,75	29	37,5	70
	B1	50		80	
	B2	10		100	

As seen in Table 10.1, obtained from GCAT, the average of pretest score of the students studying with TE method was found as 29, and the posttest score average was found as 70. It was detected that there is no statistically significant difference between GCAT pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with TE method, but that they showed a certain level of improvement at the end of the education.

7. The results for hypothesis "There is a significant difference between the GCAT pretest and posttest scores of students studying with WBDE method favoring the posttest results" are shown in Table 11.

Table 11. Results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test to determine if there is any difference between the GCAT pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method.

Score	Ranks	N	Average Rank	Total Average	z	p
Achievements Test Posttest	Negative	0	,00	,00		
	Positive	4	2,50	10,00	-1,826	0,068
Achievement Test Pretest	Equal	0				
	Total	4				

As shown in Table 11, there was no statistically ($p > 0.05$) significant difference between GCAT pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method. GCAT pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with TE method are also shown in Table 11.1.

Tablo 11.1 GCAT Pretest and Posttest Scores of the Students Studying WBDE Method.

Group	Students	Pretest	Pretest Average	Posttest	Posttest Average
	A3	81,25		93,75	
Experimental	A4	37,5	42	93,75	97
	B3	10		100	
	B4	40		100	

As seen in Table 11.1, obtained from GCAT, the average of pretest score of the students studying with WBDE method was found to be 42, and the posttest score average was found as 97. It was detected that there was no statistically significant difference between GCAT pretest and posttest

scores of the students studying with WBDE method, but that they showed a certain level of improvement at the end of the education.

8. The results for hypothesis "There is no significant difference between the GCAT posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with the TE method" are shown in Table 12.

Table 12. Results of Mann-Whitney U Test to determine if there is any difference between the GCAT posttest scores of the Students Studying WBDE Method and the students studying with traditional educational method.

Score	Groups	N	Average Rank	Total Rank	U	z	p
Achievements Test Posttest	Control	4	3,25	13,00			
	Experimental	4	5,75	23,00	3,000	-1,488	0,137
	Total	8					

As shown in Table 12, there was no statistically (p>0.05) significant difference between GCAT posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method and students studying with TE method. GCAT posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with TE method are also shown in Table 12.1.

Tablo 12.1 GCAT Posttest Scores of the Students Studying WBDE Method and the Students Studying with Traditional Educational Method.

Groups	Students	Posttest	Posttest Average
Control	A1	62,5	70
	A2	37,5	
	B1	80	
	B2	100	
Experimental	A3	93,75	97
	A4	93,75	
	B3	100	
	B4	100	

As shown in Table 12.1, GPGS posttest points average of the students studying with TE method was found to be 70, and the posttest point average of the students studying with WBDE method was found to be 97. It was seen that there was no statistically significant difference between the GCAT posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method and students studying with TE method, yet when the performance scores of the students were evaluated, compared to TE method, WBDE method was seen to be more effective on students' performance.

9. The results for hypothesis "There is no significant difference between IICAS pretest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with the TE method" are shown in Table 13.

Table 13. Results of Mann-Whitney U Test to determine if there is any difference between the IICAS pretest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with TE method.

Score		Groups	N	Average Rank	Total Rank	U	z	p
Attitude Scale Pretest		Control	4	3,75	15,00			
		Experimental	4	5,25	21,00	5,00	-,877	0,381
		Total	8					

As shown in Table 13, there was no statistically (p>0.05) significant difference between IICAS pretest scores of the students studying with WBDE method and students studying with TE method. It was seen that the attitudes of the students in the experimental and control groups towards individual instrument course are equal and experimental ere arwe started with two equal groups.

10. The results for hypothesis "There is a significant difference between the IICAS pretest and posttest scores of students studying with TE method favoring the posttest results" are shown in Table 14.

Table 14. Results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test to determine if there is any difference between the IICAS pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with traditional educational method.

Score	Ranks	N	Average Rank	Total Rank	z	p
Attitude Scale Posttest	Negative	1	3,00	3,00		
	Positive	2	1,50	3,00	-0,000	1,000
Attitude Scale Pretest	Equal	1				
	Total	4				

As shown in Table 14, there was no statistically (p>0.05) significant difference between IICAS pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with TE method. IICAS pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with TE method are also shown in Table 14.1.

Tablo 14.1 IICAS Pretest and Posttest Scores of the Students Studying TE method.

Group	Students	Pretest	Pretest Average	Posttest	Posttest Average
Control	A1	3,94		3,94	
	A2	4,44	4,44	5,00	4,42
	B1	4,56		3,83	
	B2	4,83		4,94	

As seen in Table 14.1, obtained from IICAS, the average of pretest score of the students studying with TE method was found to be 4,44, and the posttest score average was found as 4,42. It was detected that there was no statistically significant difference between IICAS pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with TE method, but that, the students' attitudes towards individual instrument course decreased at a certain level at the end of the education.

11. The results for hypothesis "There is a significant difference between the IICAS pretest and posttest scores of students studying with WBDE method favoring the posttest results" are shown in Table 15.

Table 15. Results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test to determine if there is any difference between the IICAS pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method.

Score		Ranks	N	*Average Rank*	*Total Rank*	z	p
Attitude Scale Posttest		Negative	0	,00	,00		
		Positive	3	2,00	6,00	-1,604	0,109
Attitude Scale Pretest		Equal	1				
		Total	4				

As shown in Table 15, there was no statistically (p>0.05) significant difference between IICAS pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method. GCAT pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with TE method are also shown in Table 15.1.

Tablo 15.1 IICAS Pretest and Posttest Scores of the Students Studying WBDE Method.

Group	Students	Pretest	Pretest Average	Posttest	Posttest Average
Experimental	A3	4,67		4,89	
	A4	3,94	4,6	4,67	4,86
	B3	4,83		4,89	
	B4	5,00		5,00	

As seen in Table 15.1, obtained from IICAS, the average of pretest score of the students studying with WBDE method was found to be 4,6, and the posttest score average was found as 4,86. It was detected that there was no statistically significant difference between IICAS pretest and posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method, that, the students' attitudes towards individual instrument course increased at a certain level at the end of the education.

12. The results for hypothesis "There is no significant difference between the IICAS posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with the TE method" are shown in Table 16.

Table 16. Results of Mann-Whitney U Test to determine if there is any difference between the IICAS posttest scores of the Students Studying WBDE Method and the students studying with traditional educational method.

Score		Ranks	N	*Average Rank*	*Total Rank*	U	z	p
Attitude Posttest	Scale	Control	4	4,13	16,50			
		Experimental	4	4,88	19,50	6,500	-0,438	0,661
		Total	8					

As shown in Table 16, there was no statistically (p>0.05) significant difference between IICAS posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method and students studying with TE method. IICAS posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and the students studying with TE method are also shown in Table 16.1.

Tablo 16.1 IICAS Posttest Scores of the Students Studying WBDE Method and the Students Studying with Traditional Educational Method.

Groups	Students	Posttest	Posttest Average
Control	A1	3,94	
	A2	5,00	
	B1	3,83	4,42
	B2	4,94	
Experimental	A3	4,89	
	A4	4,67	
	B3	4,89	4,86
	B4	5,00	

As shown in Table 12.1, IICAS posttest points average of the students studying with TE method was found to be 4,42, and the posttest point average of the students studying with WBDE method was found to be 4,86. It was seen that there was no statistically significant difference between the IICAS posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method and students studying with TE method, yet when the performance scores of the students were evaluated, compared to TE method, WBDE method was seen to be more effective on students' performance.

13. The results for subproblem "What are the opinions of students studying with WBDE method for distance guitar education?" are as below.

After the interviews with the students studying the WBDE method, the collected data were analyzed and 3 different themes in distance education such as the applicability (functionality), usefulness and effectiveness of the curriculum were determined. Examining the codes of these themes, under the theme of "applicability", all students reported that distance learning was an effective learning model and that they might prefer distance education in higher education. In addition, students A3 and B4 reported that distance education was more effective than traditional education, A3 reported

that distance education would be more appropriate where there was no traditional education and that A4 might prefer distance education rather than not being able to study in higher education. Nevertheless, under the theme of "practicability", all students reported that distance education was effective with reducing the need for teachers, the functionality of the EMS and course materials used in distance education. Also under this theme, students stated their opinions as follows:

A3; "We may not always find the teacher in traditional education. We may not ask our questions clearly. Maybe we are afraid to do so. There is no such problem in distance education. A shy student can improve himself / herself by watching videos when he / she cannot ask the teacher. When there is a subject that we don't understand, we can reinforce it by solving the tests and watching the videos there. There are documents, videos, tests defined in the system. We can reach videos whenever and wherever we want,"A4; "I get to have live courses without my guitar. I listen to the videos, I watch. I'm trying harder. Videos can attract students' attention more," B3; "In distance education, we can watch videos again. There are documents. There are questions and answers. I can meet my needs with videos. There is no such thing in traditional one. Someone in the traditional is not able to meet their needs. These can be considered as advantages," B4; "We see the teacher once in the traditional education, and that is in the course. We can't see them again, but we can see them continually in distance education. We are able to repeat videos continuously. EMS had very detailed information. It was very helpful."

Under the theme of the "effectiveness of the curriculum", all of the students reported that distance education was effective in the realization of the curriculum through distance education. Students A3 and A4 reported that distance learning was more effective in information acquisition, B3 and B4 reported that there was no difference between traditional education and distance education, in terms of skills acquisition, A3, A4 and B4 reported that distance education was more effective, while B3 reported that there was no difference between traditional education and distance education.

According to the results for subproblem "What are the opinions of students studying with WBDE method for distance guitar education?", it was concluded that the WBDE method was an effective method, and that the EMS used in distance education and the course materials uploaded on this system facilitate learning, and that students could prefer distance education as a method of education.

14. The results for subproblem "Can the initial guitar education courses be performed effectively with the WBDE method?" are as below.

1- How do students behave about the preparations at the beginning of the course?

At the beginning of the classes, the students were asked to start the video call, then to join the virtual classroom for themselves and to open the document sharing screen by logging in to the distance education system. In all the courses, students were able to complete the mentioned preparations in 2 to 5 minutes and started the classes.

In the first lesson with the students, the subject of sitting and holding was studied. In 5 of the other 6 courses, the students started the courses by paying attention to this subject. Student C2 started the third lesson by holding the guitar on their right foot and made the necessary correction after the warning.

2- Can visual and auditory communication between the student and the teacher be fulfilled in an effective way?

In the experimental study, web cam and television screen for visual communication, condenser microphone, sound card and sound system were used for auditory communication. During the courses, voice and video calls were carried out with Skype^{TM} application and document sharing was carried out with EMS' screen sharing feature. In the courses, it was observed that guitar keyboard or strings could be seen easily, that right or wrong movements concerning the right hand-left hand finger movements could be recognized in the courses, that the documents to be studied in the courses could be seen easily on the screen and the students and the teacher did not have any problems about communication.

3- Is there any need for physical intervention to the students for technical studies in courses?

In the classes, there were studies on sitting-holding, right hand-left hand posture, finger exercises, notes in first position and a beginning level work and no physical intervention to the students was required in the studies. All targeted behaviors were explained, demonstrated to the students and applied without any problems.

4- How do students and teachers use the course documents?

The documents to be used in the course are arranged in the desired order and converted to pdf format and uploaded to EMS. The document to be used during the course was shared with the student on the television screen with the screen sharing feature of EMS. The document shown on screen sharing could be moved up and down when requested under teacher control, all the details can be highlighted with the help of the cursor on the document and ease of operation could be provided by expanding the focused document sections such as size, line, picture etc. Students or teachers did not experience any problems with the use of documents.

5- Do the students have the will, motivation and discipline to participate in the studies during the course?

Studies were conducted with the students for 4 weeks. It was observed that the students participated in all the studies in the courses, followed the instructions, they did not give up the experiment despite the difficulties in some studies, they were not interested in any other subject except the course, they continued to complete the last work they were working on though the course time was up and they were attentive in the communication they established with the teacher.

6- How is the students' feedback about the course achievements?

At the end of the courses, students were told what to pay attention in general about the studies and students were asked to repeat the studies until the next course. In the second and third courses with C1, a feedback regarding previous courses' achievements could not be received at the expected level, in the 4th lesson, the feedback was taken close to the expected level, in the second and third courses with C2, feedback was received at the expected level regarding the achievements previous courses, and the feedback could not be received at the expected level in the 4th lesson. It was observed that the extracurricular studies of the students were insufficient in general, but the knowledge and skill levels of the students were increased in every course.

In addition, in order to determine the performances of the students after the experimental study, a study was conducted at a beginning level in the 4th course and the performance of the students towards the work at the end of the determined period was measured with the initial guitar training basic behavior evaluation form. The results are shown in Table 17.

Table 17. Students' Initial Guitar Training Basic Behavior Evaluation Form Points.

Students	Evaluator1	Evaluator2	Evaluator3	Total	Average
C1	75	70	65	210	70
C2	85	80	70	235	78,3

As seen in Table 17, in accordance with the performance scores of the students regarding the work they played after the evaluation of the work, the average performance score of C1 was found as 70 and the performance score of C2 was found as 78.3. It was determined that the students provided feedback at the expected level in relation to their course achievements according to their performance score averages.

7- How do the students and the teacher use the duration of the course in terms of the obtaining the target achievements?

The first few minutes of the 40-minute course with the students were about the distance education system. During the rest of the course, all targeted achievements were transferred to the

students. It was observed that the students were able to realize the details required in the study and apply them at the expected level and they were able to work sufficiently during the course.

According to the results of the subproblem "Can the initial guitar education courses be performed effectively with the WBDE method?", it was concluded that in the WBDE courses, the behaviors of the students about the preparations to be made during the beginning of the course did not show any difference according to the TE, that there was no difference in terms of the teaching of visual and audio communication between the student and the teacher compared to the TE, that there was no need for physical intervention to students and that physical intervention which can be seen as an advantage in TE was not a disadvantage in distance education, that the students and teachers used the course documents more functionally than the TE, and that students had the motivation and discipline to participate in the studies in the course, and there was no difference compared to the TE in terms of the teaching of the course, that the student and teacher usde the course documents more functionally than TE, students had the will, motivation and discipline to participate in the studies in the course and there was no difference compared to the TE in terms of the teaching of the course, that the students provided feedback at the expected level related to the course achievements and there was no difference between the TE and the lesson in terms of the efficient use of course time.

Discussion

According to the 4th result of the study, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between the GPGS posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method and students studying with TE method. This result shows that when guitar courses are being conducted, behaviors aimed at achieving performance can be provided by WBDE method and this method can be used as an alternative to TE method. In addition, when the performance scores of the students are evaluated, it is seen that the performance scores of the students studying with the WBDE method are higher than the performance scores of the students studying with the TE method. This result obtained from this research is similar to that of Karahan (2016).

The asynchronous education model implemented within the WBDE method is considered to be an effective factor for the high performance scores of students studying with WBDE method. With the asynchronous education model, the students have access to the course videos prepared for the purpose of supporting the course whenever and wherever they want and they have benefited from this model effectively. According to Erümit (2011), the fact that WBDE allows the use of asynchronous education is one of the most important advantages. In this training model, students can benefit from the sources in the system whenever and however they want.

According to the 8th result of the study, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between GCAT posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method

and the students studying with TE method. This result shows that when guitar courses are being conducted, behaviors aimed at achieving success can be provided by WBDE method and this method can be used as an alternative to TE method. In addition, when the achievement test scores of the students are evaluated, it is seen that the achievement test scores of the students studying with the WBDE method are higher than the performance scores of the students studying with the TE method. In this result, it is ultimately thought to be one of the most influential factors for the implementation of WBDE.

Through the EMS, the interactive preparation of some materials were enabled as well as presenting video, document etc. materials to the student. In this context, the videos used to support the courses in the research were presented to the students in a more functional way with the "smart video" application. Multiple choice questions related to the subject of the course were prepared at certain times of the course videos if the student were not able to answer the question about the subject correctly, the video was returned to the time when the related subject started to be told. When the questions were answered correctly, the video continued where it was left off. In addition, when the weekly activities (video, document, exam, etc.) prepared on the EMS were not completed by the students, an arrangement has been made to keep the activities of the next week inactive. In this way, students could see all the videos and documents prepared for the targeted achievements and avoid missing any subject. This result of the study matches the results of Aydın's study (2011). Aydın states that the EMS system helps to work more effectively in a short period of time, thus increasing the performance in the courses, and that the EMS is beneficial in terms of feedback and that the learning process is used more effectively. It can be said that these and similar advantages provided by EMS are effective factor for the fact that success of the students studying with the WBDE method is higher than the students studying with TE method. In the research, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between the ingroup and inter group pre-test and posttest scores of the students according to the 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th results obtained from the analysis of the data from the IICAS applied to determine the attitudes of the students towards the course. This result shows that there is no change in the attitudes of students while performing guitar lessons with WBDE method and WBDE method can be used as an alternative to TE method. In addition, when the attitude scale scores of the students were evaluated, it was determined that the posttest scores of the students studying with the WBDE method were higher and the posttest scores of these students were higher than the posttest scores of the students who were educated by the TE method. Çetin (2010) reported a similar finding in his study in a different field.

It is thought EMS and the technological software and equipment used in this method are considered to be the factor for the IICAS posttest scores of the students studying with WBDE method to be higher than the students studying with TE method. Today, the developments in the field of

technology are known to be highly effective especially on the population called the millennium generation. In addition to being able to know and use the tools such as internet, computer, smartphone and tablet in this age group, it is seen that they are followers and even developers of technologically supported studies such as artificial intelligence, hologram technologies and space journeys whose research-development studies are in progress or intended to be fulfilled in the future. Günüç, Odabaşı and Kuzu (2013) stated that students are individuals, who are familiar with technology, are present on the internet and social networks and have technology-related knowledge and skills. In addition, they anticipated that the technology usage skills of the students will increase more in the future and their behavior will be affected more by technology with the increasing popularity of technology and access to technological developments. In this study, it can be said that the students who formed the experimental group had the potential to be interested in the mentioned studies due to their ages, therefore the advantages of WBDE method conducted by using technology support and the EMS, which is used as a technological tool in realizing the instrument course, positively affect the attitudes of students towards the course. According to the 13th result of the study, it was concluded that the WBDE method was applicable practical (functional) and effective in the teaching of the curriculum as a result of the interviews with the students studying the WBDE method. In the interviews, it was emphasized that the WBDE method differs from the traditional education, especially under the theme of "practicability", and that this difference occurs in the effectiveness of the materials presented in the EMS and in reducing the need for teacher support.

The course videos and documents uploaded to EMS have been an important source for students to use after the one-to-one lessons when they had difficulties in understanding a subject and to apply when they forgot about the important points explained in the course. It was observed that when the students encountered a problem after the one-to-one courses, they used the videos and documents uploaded to EMS instead of finding the teacher's free time or waiting fort he next course. Thus, there was no extra burden on the teacher and the students had the opportunity to complete their missing information. Kuzu and Balaban (2014) reached the following results in their research: "With the materials presented to the students, the student can repeat them as much as they wish and start and finish them wherever they want. Most of the study group students also expressed their satisfaction." It can be said that in accordance with the findings obtained in the 4th, 8th and 12th results, the materials uploaded to EMS directly affect the students' performances, achievements and attitudes, and that they are an effective factor for the students studying with WBDE method to score higher compared to the students studying with TE method.

Another important result obtained from the student opinions was formed under the theme of "applicability" for WBDE method. Students reported that the WBDE method was an effective learning model and that they could prefer distance education in higher education. WBDE applications are

frequently encountered in higher education. WBDE has many individual and corporate advantages in terms of its structural characteristics. It has become more preferred by individuals and institutions over time due to its outstanding advantages such as the provision of savings in education expenditures, the conveying of education services to long distances, and the increasing of effectiveness of education programs. It is thought that the reason why students prefer WBDE method in higher education is due to the effect of the curriculum and the experiences gained by the students in the study. The students reported that the WBDE method was more effective than the TE method, especially in terms of knowledge and skills acquisition.

According to the 14th result of the study, it can be said that the initial guitar education courses performed with WBDE method did not make any difference compared to the TE method in terms of the course process within the initial guitar education courses. It is thought that some aspects of the course are important when performing the initial guitar training with TE method. These can be listed as: "Students' preparation for the course, the visual and auditory communication between students and teachers, physical intervention to support technical studies such as sitting-holding, the students' and teacher's functional use of course documents, voluntary participation of the students for the works made in courses, having the motivation and discipline, getting feedback from the students at the expected level about the course achievements and using of the time efficiently." The most striking point here is the physical intervention to students as a technical support. This study is of particular importance since there will be no physical intervention to the students in the WBDE method. According to Can and Yungul's (2017) views on distance instrument education from graduate students; it was stated that it was required to have physical intervention on students for posture, holding and some technical issues in the instrument education from time to time, instrument course program given by TE method were more effective on students given that there was no study on this subject in distance education

As a result of the observation made in the study, all the behaviors intended to be acquired in the initial guitar training performed by WBDE method were explained to the students, demonstrated and applied without any problems. It was seen that there was no need for physical intervention to students in the courses and the physical intervention which could be seen as an advantage in the TE method did not constitute a disadvantage in WBDE method. According to the 14th result of the study, it can be said that there is no difference between the WBDE method and the TE method in terms of the teaching of the course.

Suggestions

1. It is recommended to determine the need for instrument teachers in FAHS music education institutions by determining permanent and substitute teachers in these institutions.

2. It is recommended that web based distance education studies should be conducted for all instrument types that are taught in FAHS.

3. It is recommended that web-based distance education studies should be conducted for the other courses in the FAHS Music Education Program.

4. According to Tuncer and Bahadir (2017), it cannot be said that distance education programs are yet entirely alternative to traditional educational practices. Some of the studies are converged on the concerns about the effectiveness of distance education programs. In this case, it is essential to overcome the deficiencies of this form of education by focusing on the problems in distance education. In particular, it is important to identify the problems experienced by learners in this process. In this respect, it is recommended to conduct longer and more comprehensive studies on distance instrument training and to identify possible problems and to search for solutions.

5. It is recommended that studies should be conducted to evaluate distance music education within the Open Education High School.

6. It is seen that Karahan (2016); Can and Yungul (2018) conducted web-based distance education studies on the synchronous training model for instrument education within the scope of undergraduate education. It is recommended to conduct studies in which asynchronous training model will be used with synchronous training for undergraduate education.

7. Can and Yungul (2017) stated in their study that students who received music education at postgraduate level expressed their positive opinions about web-based distance education. In this context, it is suggested to conduct studies for graduate level instrument training within the scope of web based distance education.

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The Role of the Professional Characteristics of Teachers in the Context of the General Qualifications of the Teaching Profession

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to find out the role of teacher traits within the context of general qualifications of the teaching profession. The participants of this study, which was designed as a qualitative case study, consist of parents, teachers and administrators selected by the sampling technique. In the study, observation, interview, and document analysis techniques were used to collect data. The data obtained from the study were analyzed by employing the descriptive analysis technique. The findings of the study conclude that parents, teachers, and administrators generally emphasize the qualifications about attitudes and values regarding teaching profession while defining a qualified pre-school teacher. Activity observation conducted at a school, classroom environment observation and data obtained from photographs exhibited at the end of school year reveal that teachers' general qualifications regarding teaching profession do not overlap with the ones in professional knowledge and professional skills.

Keywords: preschool, qualification, preschool teacher, professional skills.

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Introduction

Some basic qualifications that teachers have are crucial factors in increasing the students' development and achievement at school. Teacher characteristics are one of the factors affecting both the child's development and the quality of pre-school education. Preschool teachers offer children various learning opportunities. However, it is only possible for children to benefit from the learning opportunities offered when they perceive themselves as loved persons and feel secure. Therefore, pre-school teachers should be able to organize educational and learning processes and environments accordingly and develop coherent and safe relationships with children keeping in mind that children have some basic individual differences. In addition, pre-school teachers should consider the individual characteristics of children. Classroom activities should focus on the process and the efforts of children rather than the outcome obtained from the process in the classroom. On the other hand, well-designed educational environments support effective learning. The fact that teachers design learning environments in a supportive way are important to develop and update the development of children's existing skills. It is stated that it is necessary to establish learning corners in classrooms for effective learning in the Pre-School Education Program, which was updated in 2013 (Ministry of National Education, General Directorate of Basic Education, 2013). The main determinant of improving the quality of learning corners is the teacher (Ramazan, Arslan-Çiftçi & Tezel, 2018). However, relevant researches conducted in the field reveal that teachers experience problems with organizing learning corners, using the organized corners effectively and observing children in the learning corners (Metin, 2017).

In Turkey, the process of teacher training for pre-school education, the schools where teachers are employed, and the functioning of these schools are all determined by the central administration (Higher Education Council, General Directorate of Teacher Training, Ministry of National Education). Various updates are made in order to increase and evaluate teacher qualifications. The General Qualifications of Teaching Profession in our country were last updated in 2017. The updated qualifications of the teaching profession consist of three qualifications (professional knowledge, professional skills, attitudes, and values) and 11 qualifications within these 3 fields. Having the relevant professional knowledge, which is one of the three basic fields of professional qualifications covers having advanced theoretical and methodological knowledge in the field of occupational knowledge, having the knowledge of the curriculum and pedagogical content of the field, knowing their rights and responsibilities as a teacher and individual. In the field of professional skill is planning the teaching and learning process, providing appropriate materials, and organizing safe education environments.

In the field of "attitudes and values", taking into consideration the national spiritual and universal values, having a supportive attitude towards the development of students, communicating

effectively with students, colleague, and parents, and participating in the studies for personal and professional development can be counted (General Directorate of Teacher Training and Development, 2017). On the other hand, some studies suggest that early childhood teachers should have some occupational characteristics. These are loving their job, developing positive and warm relationships with children, participating in children's activities energetically, knowing that children can have intense emotions, knowing how children develop and learn, involving humour, volunteering in taking responsibility, evaluating their own performance, being willing to learn, being respectful and sensitive to colleagues and families (Alat, 2015). In the literature, there are researches regarding the effects of pre-school teachers' qualifications or characteristics on children. Some of these studies reveal that teachers' educational status does not predict children's academic skills (Lin & Magnuson, 2018), but the quality of teacher-child interaction makes a difference in terms of children's self-regulation ability (Güler-Yıldız, Ertürk-Kara, Fındık-Tanrıbuyurdu, & Gönen, 2014). The success of schools as organizations is causally related to the qualifications of teachers who will operate the education system (Blanton et al., 2003; cited in Şahin, 2011). The qualifications of the teachers are also among the factors affecting the quality of pre-school education. Quality is defined in the pre-school education program updated in 2013 in Turkey as *" indicating how something is and what distinguishes it from other things. Quality is a systematic approach to efficiency, flexibility, effectiveness, compliance with the program, process, investment, and perfection. In other words, quality is the compliance to specifications and customer requests." The assessment of the quality of pre-school education depends on keeping the records of what teachers do and to what extent teachers benefit from the facilities provided at schools.* Considering the elements in this definition, it could be suggested that the satisfaction of the family and children who take part in the preschool education as a consumer closely depends on teachers who interact with them most. In the Preschool Education Program booklet, teachers are mentioned as one of the factors affecting quality, and the quality of pre-school education services is associated with some characteristics of teachers. These are stated as the level of knowledge and understanding of teachers' training program, how young children learn, and how teachers and other adults support children in solving their conflicts (Ministry of National Education General Directorate of Basic Education, 2013)

In general, physical state and regulations in an education program supporting all areas of development of the child, teacher-child interaction, family participation in the education program, and the evaluation of the program are considered in quality assessment in early childhood education (Kandır, 2003). The quality related studies conducted within this context in our country are mostly used in ECERS and CLASS in a limited number of studies. ECERS is generally used to evaluate the quality of the school as well as the quality of the classes in particular, and the quality of interaction (4 items) on the scale aims to determine the quality of teacher-child interaction (Baştürk & Işıkoğlu, 2008). CLASS was designed to assess the quality of the class and is measured by teacher-child-

interaction under the sub-dimensions of emotional support, educational support, and classroom organization on the scale (Ertürk-Kara, 2013). The results of the surveys conducted with the use of these scales reveal that quality is often lower than the target set at preschool education institutions (Güçhan-Özgül, 2011; Göl-Güven, 2009; Kalkan & Akman, 2009; Baştürk & Işıkoğlu, 2008; Solak, 2007).

However, high-quality preschool education environments where children are satisfied are essential elements for them to develop various skills (Cunningham, 2010) as well as their future school achievements (Stotz, 2008; Sandstrom, 2012). In the literature, there are some researches in which the evaluation of some dimensions of quality is done as well as the evaluation of teachers, parents, or children. It is understood that these researches are carried out within the framework of the expectations of parents from preschool education and the perceptions/satisfaction of children regarding pre-school education institutions. The results of the research based on the perceptions and expectations of the children and families regarding the quality at school can be evaluated within the context of children's views. Findings from the study conducted by Şimşek and İvrendi (2014) take into account the practices of the families and teachers considering their educational background and family participation. In some studies, families expressed their expectations from teachers as being educated, experienced, positive, and building good relationships with children (Şahin, Sak & Şahin, 2013).

In the study conducted by Stotz (2008), children stated that the three most important things for them in the school were playing games, having a playmate and predictable class activities. In another study conducted in eight preschool classrooms with high and low-quality standards, children defined what made them happy as "*plays, playing with friends, and playing together*". In addition, the findings of this study indicate that children are not satisfied with some negative behaviours in the school setting such as hitting, kicking, punching, biting, ridiculing, using bad language (Wiltz & Klein, 2001). The findings of the research conducted by Kyrönlampi-Kylmänen and Määttä, (2012) conclude that 5-7-year-old children perceive school as a playground and that they are not pleased with their friends' teasing.

In a study conducted with some children from Denmark and the United States, it was found out that the best thing in school was to play with peers and to have friends, and the worst thing was not to have a friend to play, to sit in class, to fight other children in the classroom, to stay out of the game (Kragh-Müller & Isbell, 2011). According to the findings of the study conducted by Einarsdottir (2005), playing with friends and interacting with friends were found to be the most favourite activities for 5-6-year-old children and the least loved ones were found to be "being teased, being told off" at schools.

When the research findings about children's perceptions regarding pre-school education and their expectations from the pre-school education are examined, it could be said that the school quality is the reason for children to be satisfied with the school and playing games with peers and the relations with peers are also some other reasons to be satisfied with the school. Pre-school education institutions are the ones that will generally meet these expectations. However, it is the teachers who provide an appropriate planning and environment to meet the expectations of children at schools. Therefore, it could be said that the qualifications of the teachers are an important indicator determining if the expectations of the children from the pre-school education institutions are met. This study was conducted to find an answer to the research question, which is "What is the role of teacher characteristics defined in this research within the context of the general qualifications of the teaching profession?"

Method

This research was designed as a case study, which is one of the qualitative research methods. In this study, the professional characteristics of teachers were taken as cases.

Participants

The participants of the study were selected according to the convenience sampling method which is one of the purposeful sampling methods. For teachers and managers to be chosen as the sample, having at least 5 years of experience was set as the criterion. Face to face interviews was conducted with the participants and the aim of the study was explained, and the research was conducted with the participation of 7 preschool teachers who volunteered to participate in the study, 11 teachers working at these schools and 7 parents whose children attended to these schools. The school principals participating in this research are graduates of different undergraduate programs and have at least five years of management and teaching experience. Teachers have a bachelor's degree and have at least 5 years of teaching experience. All the parents except for one parent (with an undergraduate degree) consist of mothers who are graduates of high school and lower education level.

Data collection instruments

In this study, the centralized management of teacher training programs in our country (national teacher training program established by the Higher Education Institution) and the central management of pre-school educational institutions (Ministry of National Education) were considered and all the teachers with an undergraduate degree were assumed to have relevant basic professional knowledge, skill, and values. Therefore, the research was carried out on two stages.

At the first stage, 7 principals, 11 teachers and 7 parents who participated in the study voluntarily from different provinces were investigated. Semi-structured interview forms, observation

and face-to-face interview techniques were used to collect data. The semi-structured interview forms were given to the participants. Interviews were conducted in the fall and spring semesters of the 2017-2018 academic year.

The semi-structured interview questions are as follows:

S1. Could you identify the teacher behaviours that illustrate the definition of quality/good teachers under the light of the experiences that you have had so far?

Q2. Could you identify the teacher behaviours that illustrate the definition of poor quality/bad teachers under the light of the experiences that you have had so far?

II. Stage

A voluntary school was chosen among the participating schools at the second stage, and data were collected through interviews, document analysis and observation techniques. In this context, formal and informal interviews were conducted with the administrators of the school (principal and deputy director) and 1 teacher at the school. The interviews lasted 90 minutes. In the scope of the observation, one teacher at the school was observed during the activity session at different times and the observation was tape-recorded by the researcher. Exemplary observations were selected from at least two similar observations. Within the scope of the document review, the year around exhibition photographs and the daily exhibition boards where all teachers exhibited their activities throughout the year were examined. Marshall and Rossman (2006) claim that the photographs taken by the researcher or previously taken photographs could be examined as documents in qualitative researches (Reported by Baş & Akturan, 2008). In addition, the physical order of the classes in the school was observed within the scope of the observation (learning corner, written materials).

Data Analysis

The data obtained at the stage I was evaluated according to the descriptive analysis technique. The participant responses coded in this context as themes were placed within the general qualifications (professional knowledge, professional skills, attitudes, and values) of the teaching profession which were determined as themes (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2003). Themes and codes are presented in the findings section of the study.

In addition to the descriptive analysis, document analysis technique was also used in the analysis of the data at the II. stage. In this context, the exhibition photos of the last two years (2016, 2017) of the school were examined. The photographs were not included in the study due to the confidentiality principles, but examples were presented by describing the activities in the photographs. In this study, individual and group activities of the children were examined, and the activities carried out within the scope of project studies were not taken into consideration.

Validity and reliability

In this study, one of the applications made within the scope of validity is to include direct quotations from the participants (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2003).

Results

Findings Regarding I. Stage

Definitions of teachers, administrators, and parents in different provinces regarding quality / good teacher

The responses given to the question "Could you identify the teacher behaviours that illustrate the definition of quality/good teachers under the light of the experiences that you have had in your job so far?" asked school directors, teachers and parents were analysed one by one (see Figures 1,2 and 3). While defining the quality / good teachers, it is seen that the teaching profession general qualifications, attitudes and values were referred most often (patient, cheerful, self-given, voluntary, conscientious, sharing, empathy, open to learning etc.). It is also understood that a limited number of principals referred to the qualifications of teachers in the field of professional skills (recognizing children, observation, guiding children, attracting children's attention, teaching by living) (General Directorate of Teacher Training and Development, 2017). When the teachers defined high quality / good teachers, it was seen that they mostly referred to the attitudes and values qualifications in the teaching profession general qualifications (patient, investigative, reading, loving the profession, good communication with the parents, conscientious, honest, caring, respectful, energetic, pleasant etc.).

In addition, a limited number of teachers were found to refer to the qualifications of teachers in their fields of professional knowledge (good knowledge of the field) professional skills (using the game in all activities). When defining quality/good teachers, parents were found to refer to the attitudes and values in the teaching profession general qualifications, (warm, friendly, cheerful, self-renewing, gentle and friendly to parents, making the child feel loved, approaching the child with motherly affection etc.). In addition, a limited number of parents were found to refer to the qualifications in the field of professional skills (providing good education, helping children to gain a sense of responsibility). It is stated that when the general qualifications of teaching profession are used by different institutions and teachers (career planning, recruitment, determining the need for in-service training, evaluating teachers' performance, teachers' self-evaluation, teaching practice, candidate teacher training), minimum standards can be established for the teaching profession (General Directorate of Teacher Training and Development, 2017). In this study, it was found that teachers, principals, and parents emphasized teachers' attitudes and values more than their professional knowledge and skills.

Keeping up with technology

Using games in all teaching activities

Reading

Interrogator

Investigative

Good field knowledge

Voluntee

Self-renewing

Building good communication with administration and other teachers

Integrated with children

Patient

Energetic

Open to innovation

Tolerably

Loving his/her profession

In touch with parents

Providing emotional satisfaction

Loving his/her job

Loving children

Understanding

Touching students' hearts

Flexible

Disciplined

Respectful

Open for communication with parents

Affectionate

Honest

Conscientious

Teacher of the students coming to school and leaving with happy faces

Well-behaved

Being a learner rather than a teacher

Self-improving

Playin with children not making them play

Thinking well before reacting events

Valuing

Figure 1. The codes regarding the definitions of quality/good teachers

Professional Knowledge and Skill

Attitudes and Values

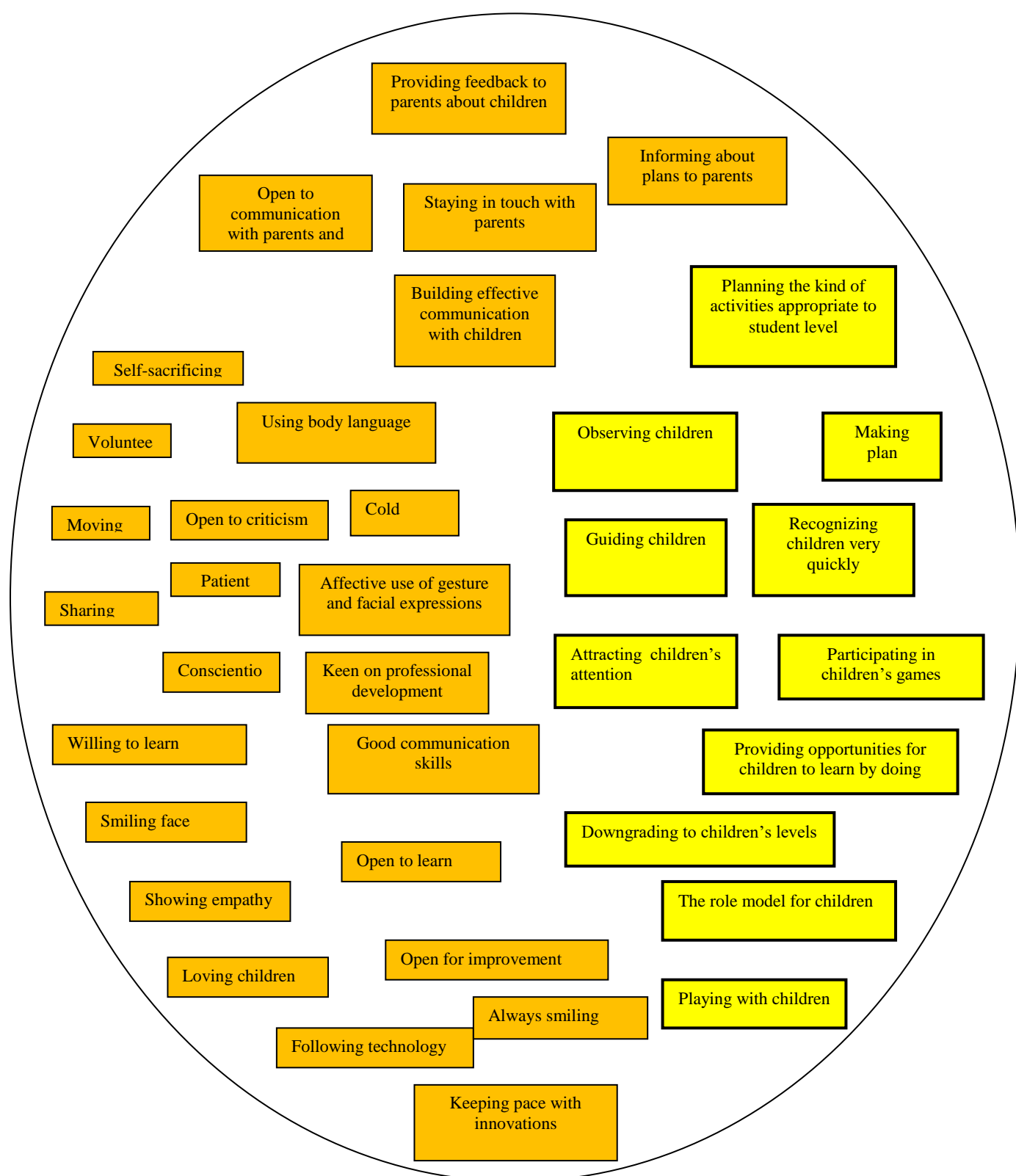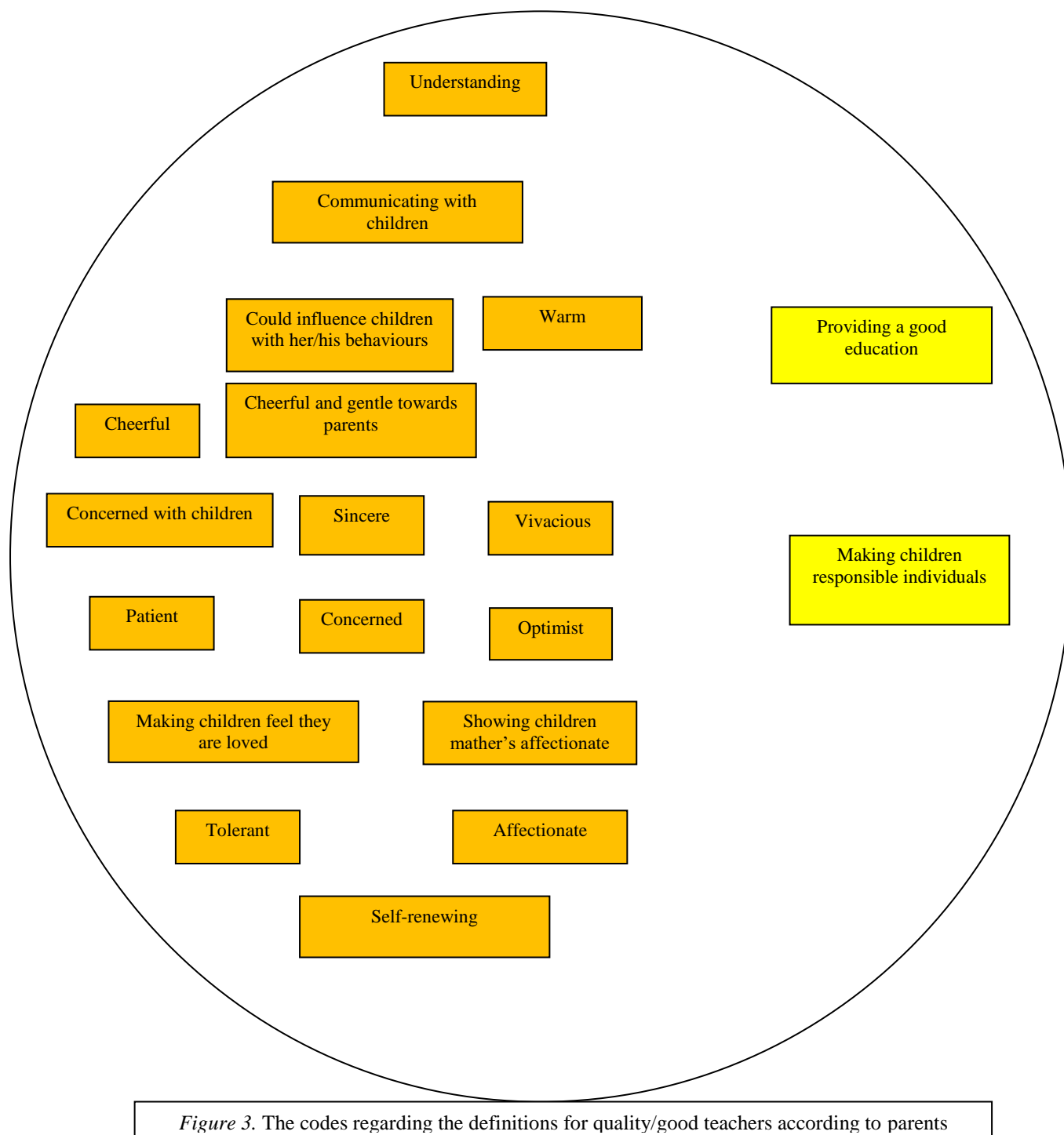*Figure 2*. The codes regarding the definitions of quality/good teachers according to principals

Figure 3. The codes regarding the definitions for quality/good teachers according to parents

In defining the bad / poor quality teachers, administrators were found to refer to the attitudes and values in the general qualifications of the teaching profession most (bad human relations, no emotional fluctuations, closed to communication, dull, not reading, no self-development, avoiding parent etc.) (see figure 4). It is also understood that a limited number of school principals refer to the competency of teachers regarding professional knowledge (not having a good command of field) and professional skills (children are constantly seated, there are conflicts among children and no settled

class rules). In defining the poor quality / bad teachers, it was found out that most teachers referred to the attitudes and values in the general qualifications of the teaching profession and personality traits (unhappy, selfish, disrespectful, innovation-free, self-developed, non-affectionate, etc.). In addition, a limited number of teachers were found to refer to professional skills (fixed class order, use of stereotypical methods, not downgrading the teaching based on student level). Parents have not produced any definition regarding of the poor quality/ bad teacher. This may be related to the fact that parents do not have the opportunity to observe different teachers.

Teachers' and administrators' opinions Regarding poor quality / bad teachers

The responses given to the question "Could you identify the teacher behaviours that illustrate the definition of poor quality/bad teachers based on the experiences that you have had so far?"

ADMINISTRATORS' OPINIONS	TEACHERS' OPINIONS
Attitudes and Values Not caring for children Bad human relations Not caring if others are hurt Reserved against children No emotional fluctuation Implementing the plan and forgetting about the rest Not loving the profession Evading responsibility Dull Closed to communication Having bad communication skills Not reading Neglecting self-improvement Pacing out of the classroom Avoiding contact with parents **Professional Knowledge Category** No control in the field knowledge (Professional Knowledge) **Professional Skill Category** Children stand still and always sit in the classroom (Professional Skill) The type of teacher in the class where there is always a conflict among students rather than harmony (Professional Skill) Not having a class with settled rules (Professional Skill)	**Attitudes and Values** Having problems with colleagues and administrators Ignoring the complaints from parents Lacking eagerness to learn Not exhibiting love to children Failing in establishing relationships with children Exhibiting bad behaviours around including students Closed to innovations Making it a habit of shouting at children Not flexible No self-development Selfish Rude Unhappy **Professional Skill Category** Sticking to the same class order every year/classroom activities Using stereotyped methods Failing in downgrading to students'level

Figure 4: The themes and codes regarding bad/poor quality teachers

Within the scope of this study, the participants were requested to give an example of the quality/good and poor quality/ bad teacher behaviours that they encountered during their professional experience. Below are the direct quotations of the participants about the quality / good, poor quality / bad teacher behaviour. (T: teacher, P: Principal)

T1. Good quality / good teacher: In her class, she had a student with a genetic, physical, mental, perceptive, motor, ie obstacle with all aspects. She went to dinner with her family to get to know this boy. In a parent-teacher meeting, she introduced the child to the other parents mentioning about the boy's father as "we have Ahmet in our classroom, you all know, and he will tell us about Ahmet now. The father told about his experiences with Ahmet beginning from the birth.

P1. Quality / good teacher: Teaching not just in the classroom but everywhere. He does different activities. For example, he makes a milkshake with the students using the milk distributed by the school. He gets prepared before events. For example, if he is going to the school garden, he prepares the materials necessary for the garden, and he realizes one of the concepts in the garden which is a part of the daily plan (for example, he counts the kernels). For example, it is compulsory to visit 5 parents. However, he visits the parents of all the children. If you hear cheerful sounds and child laughers coming from the school, it is definitely his classroom.

P1. Poor quality / bad teacher: When high-quality teachers line up the students, he speaks to the students as "come on my flowers". The poor teacher speaks to the students as loudly "get in line, why don't you get in line?" He gets out of the garden unprepared. He doesn't make any effort to encourage children to participate voluntarily in the activities in the garden. If there is noise at school, it is certain that he is the one shouting at children.

P2. Poor quality/ poor teacher: He defined one side of the carpet as the border. When the children are going to communicate with him or say something, they speak standing in the defined line.

T1. Poor quality / poor teacher: He shouts at the children, insults them. If there is a child with a behavioural problem in his class or has any disabilities, he makes negative shares with other children in the class and the teachers at the school.

T2. Poor quality/ poor teacher: I was playing games with the children on the floor. She came in the class and asked why I was on the floor because she usually sits at her desk.

P5. Poor quality / poor teacher: he hangs around, visits another classroom at every opportunity, there is no discipline, there is a chaos in the classroom, there are conflicts among the children instead of harmony, the rules are not settled in the classroom, he evades the parents and he

has bad communication skills. The teachers who do not like his profession are poor quality teachers. He's working to get the salary.

T6. Good quality / good teacher: There is a teacher in the classroom and he piles up boxes full of with waste materials and expects beautiful activities and participation in the activity. However, another teacher gives examples, shows pictures, lets them examine nature. Then he pulls out the materials and accompanies them in their journey to their dreams

T6. Poor quality / poor teacher: These people choose the way to shout too much to ensure discipline in the classroom. They are usually in competition for ego satisfaction with their students or parents. They do not choose the mechanisms of reasoning and solution generation.

T9. Poor quality / bad teacher: I was disappointed with the school when I started with an excitement whereas I thought I would learn a lot in the school. He was only doing art activities, letting us watch cartoon films all day, letting students free. The aim was to create a positive image in parents' minds with the art activities. The education of the children was not important for him.

T10. Poor quality / bad teacher: He orders children as if they were soldiers in the army and tells off the ones who do not obey the orders.

P5. Poor quality / bad teacher: He is undisciplined, irregular, purposeless at school, takes children to the garden and he himself sits on a bench. The quality teacher plays with children. A purposeless teacher who does not think what he can do to improve the child.

When the given examples are evaluated, it is understood that teachers and principals emphasized more on the attitudes and values among the characteristics of the teacher qualifications in defining teachers as quality/good or poor quality / bad teacher based on their experiences.

Findings of the data at stage II

Evaluation of teacher qualifications based on the end-of-year exhibition photos of the school, observation of activity time and physical order of classes

Below is an evaluation of end-of-year photos, physical observation of the classrooms, teacher observations conducted at activity sessions in order to evaluate the quality of the teachers at the school. In this study, the photographs of the activities of the teachers taken in the activity sessions and exhibited in the end-of-year exhibitions (photos of the project work were not included in the study) were examined. When the photos were examined, it was understood that there was no information regarding the dates when the activities were done. However, it is expected that teachers consider the date information on the activities as the records regarding the gradual improvements in the skills of the students. When the end-of-year photographs were examined, the art activities that were exhibited were

usually made with the materials and that students used the same materials and similar works were made by cutting, tearing, and folding technique (fund carton, A4 paper or Eva paper were used as the main material). According to these, it is understood that there is a choice of colour selection in the materials used in some activities, but children are not given the option of creating different shapes (examples 1, 2, 3, 4). In the exhibition, the activities that reflect the drawing skills of children were found to be extremely limited. This implies that teachers neglected the type of activities that improve their skills in some areas. However, it is stated in the pre-school education program that children should be given the right to choose the activities in the pre-school education program (Ministry of National Education General Directorate of Basic Education, 2013). Activity and class observation: In this context, a teacher at the school was observed at least twice in the activity sessions (art, play in the garden, play time). The data obtained from the observation shows that the teacher had problems in pre-preparation for the activities, active participation in the activities, guiding children, and choosing the activity appropriate for the development of the child. These issues are among the qualifications required for teachers within the scope of professional knowledge and skills (examples 5,6, 7).

Evaluating the physical conditions of the class: In this context, all the classes of the school were observed. Although the classes had an exceptionally large physical area (60 m2), it was found out that they were not divided into specific corners. The materials were placed on top or inside of the cabinets arranged by the wall. There is one event exhibition board on the wall. In the classroom walls, no written materials were used on the classroom walls except the names of the learning corners and the children's names in the children's cabinets (the names of the children were written with so small fonts that it was not possible to read them from a distance. The importance and necessity of having classroom learning corners in a preschool education program are clearly stated. Teachers are expected to use this in the class, which is clearly specified in the program which the teacher is responsible for in the implementation process. These centres should be considered by teachers as an opportunity to observe children's interests, individual differences, and peer relations (Ministry of National Education General Directorate of Basic Education, 2013).

Below are some direct examples regarding the class observation, teacher observation and photographs from the end-of-year exhibition:

Example 1: White paper plate painted with white pink paints as materials, black pon pon, moving eyes, mouth made of yellow Eva paper, ears cut in a circle from pink Eva paper were used. These specified materials were attached to the bottom of a paper plate and a bear figure was formed.

Example 2: There are red and yellow stripes representing the sun's rays made of the same material around the yellow / stained plastic/paper plates. There is no different feature in the plates except the number of the stripes.

Example 3: In the activity, the same size of paper/plastic cups painted in yellow, eyes of the evil eye and chicks with foot and beak detail from the orange background cardboard were found.

Example 4: The reverse side of the paper sheet painted in red was gently sealed and glued onto white A4 paper. The head, tail and legs of the black background carton were cut in the same standard size as the top surface of each plate, and turtles are formed.
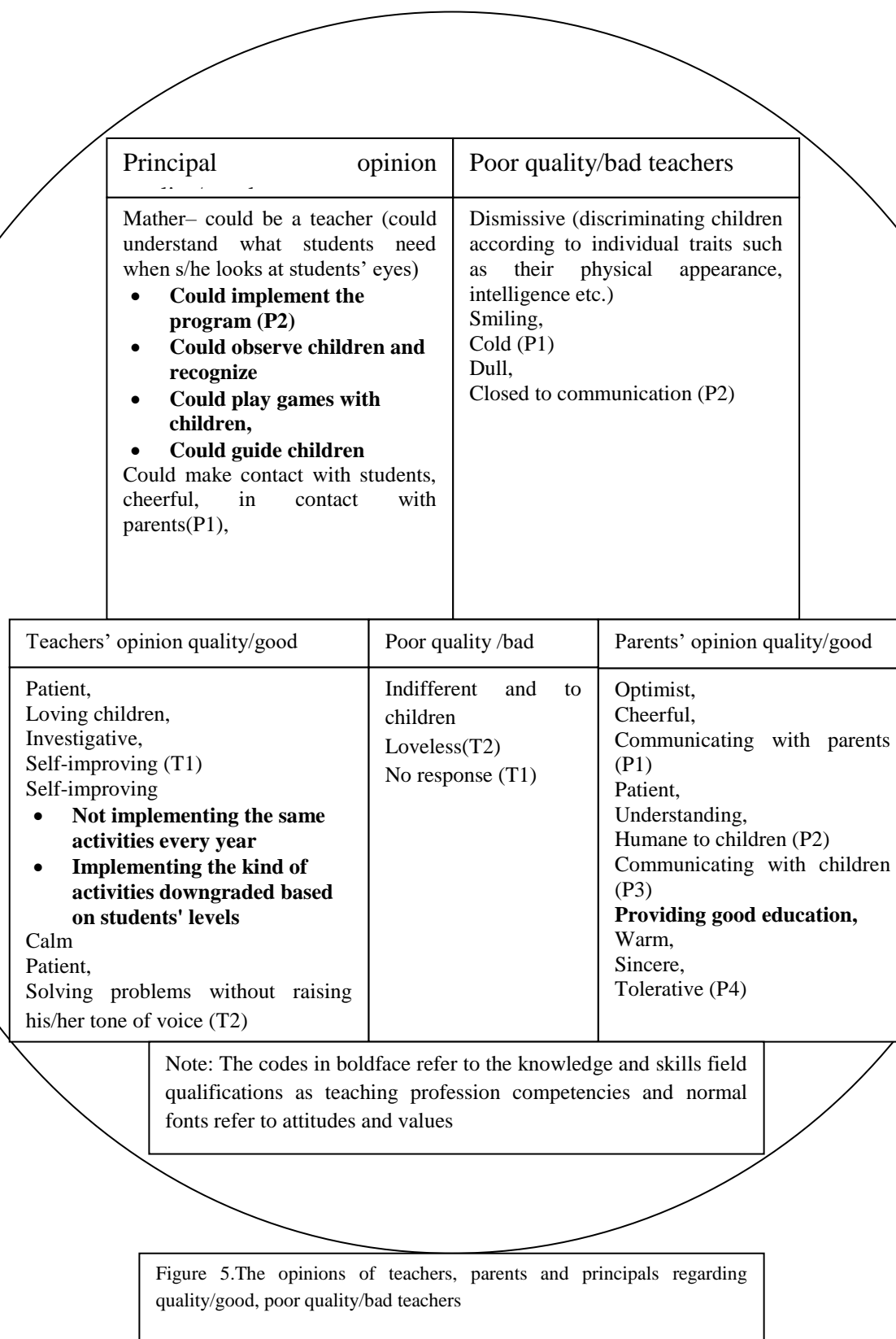
Observation of the Activities

Example 5: The teacher had taken the children to the school garden. The garden had standard park equipment consisting of a swing, a climbing track and a slide. The teacher had not taken any additional material, and while the children were playing, he was sitting on the bench looking at his mobile phone.

Example 6: While the children were playing in the classroom, the teacher was looking at the computer screen at the back of the desk, partly facing the children.

Example 7: Four weeks after the schools were opened, the children at the age of 4 were presented a rabbit figure consisting of 16 detailed pieces and cut glueing. 6 tiny circles (nail), two inner ears, two legs, two legs shaped like a water drop made of a silvery house to be glued on the legs, a circle made of eva paper, two hands and head cut from the paper were given and they were expected to form a rabbit. Despite the help offered by the two practice students in the classroom, most of the children did not yet have the ability to cut, so the time spared for the activity overran too long, so the children wanted to get off the table. When the activity was over, the teacher never talked to the children about the activity and went on to the next activity.

All these examples suggest that the characteristics of the observed teachers in this study are questionable in the field of professional knowledge and skills. The examples show that teachers had problems in considering the importance of the developmental characteristics of the activity selection, knowing the role of teacher-child interaction in the child's learning, considering the individual differences of children, observing children during the activity.

The findings obtained from the participants through interviews at stage II.

Principal opinion	Poor quality/bad teachers
Mather– could be a teacher (could understand what students need when s/he looks at students' eyes) • **Could implement the program (P2)** • **Could observe children and recognize** • **Could play games with children,** • **Could guide children** Could make contact with students, cheerful, in contact with parents(P1),	Dismissive (discriminating children according to individual traits such as their physical appearance, intelligence etc.) Smiling, Cold (P1) Dull, Closed to communication (P2)

Teachers' opinion quality/good	Poor quality /bad	Parents' opinion quality/good
Patient, Loving children, Investigative, Self-improving (T1) Self-improving • **Not implementing the same activities every year** • **Implementing the kind of activities downgraded based on students' levels** Calm Patient, Solving problems without raising his/her tone of voice (T2)	Indifferent and to children Loveless(T2) No response (T1)	Optimist, Cheerful, Communicating with parents (P1) Patient, Understanding, Humane to children (P2) Communicating with children (P3) **Providing good education,** Warm, Sincere, Tolerative (P4)

Note: The codes in boldface refer to the knowledge and skills field qualifications as teaching profession competencies and normal fonts refer to attitudes and values

Figure 5.The opinions of teachers, parents and principals regarding quality/good, poor quality/bad teachers

The responses given to the question "could you describe the teacher behaviours that will illustrate the quality /good teachers based on your experiences you have had so far" were analysed one by one (see figure 5). While defining the quality / good, poor quality / bad teacher, school principals were found to mostly refer to the values of the teaching profession as general qualifications (calm, patient, investigative, self-developing, exclusionary, cold, sincere, tolerably etc.) rather than Professional skills (playing with children, observing children, recognizing, guiding). While defining the quality / good, poor quality / bad teacher, whereas teachers were found to refer to the attitudes and values among the teaching profession general qualifications (patient, calm, self-developing, investigative, loveless), limited number of teachers were found to refer to the professional skills (not implementing the same activities every year, implementing the kind of activities appropriate to students' levels). When the parents define a quality / good teacher, it was seen that they mostly referred to attitudes and values competence among the teaching profession general qualifications (optimistic, cheerful, patient, understanding, warm, sincere, humane towards children).

There are some direct quotes from the participants' responses;

T11. Quality / good teacher: I had an opportunity to work with an experienced teacher in the first year of my profession. He could maintain the discipline in the classroom without raising his tone of voice. He could give a warning with his speaking tone and could solve problems.

T11. Poor quality / bad teacher: He behaves well to parents and always shows a smiling face. When he is with parents, he behaves as if he were extremely interested in the children. He speaks to children with words of wisdom, he also embraces and kisses them. However, he was actually a type of teacher who never had any plans for the classroom, and he would do his best to find a chance to speak to the school principal and go to the kitchen leaving the classroom to the practice teacher. Another teacher had so low voice tone that he failed in teaching even simple classroom rules to the children. Children in his classroom threw play dough out of the window and left the play dough boxes open. They always demanded new play dough.

Another teacher was too bossy in their communication with children. They were not primary school students. Children need to be embraced and kissed by their teachers to see their teachers' love. There should not be any distance between teachers and students at pre-school education opposed to the primary schools. There is a clear distance between teachers and students in this school.

P7. Poor quality / Bad teacher: During the years when I worked as a teacher, there was a teacher at the school and he used to come to school in the morning and hand over the students to the practice teachers. There was also sleeping room across the classroom and he used to sleep there. When it was about the time to leave the school in the afternoon, he used to come to the classroom and implement a short activity. He used to hand in each student to his/her parent by himself. He used to

tell good things to parents about their children and embrace the children with a smiling face. When I was working at a kindergarten, the family of a 7-year-old child who had a physical and mental disability and did not attend the school came to the school. She asked, "my son wishes for playing a lot, can he play a little please?" Meanwhile, another teacher teaching another classroom spoke to his students saying "keep away from him, he may bite"

Discussion and recommendations

This research, which aimed to reveal the qualities of pre-school teachers by using various data sources, was carried out at two stages. The first stage of the study was carried out with volunteers who worked as preschool teachers in kindergartens in different provinces and parents whose children attended these kindergartens. The second stage was conducted with a kindergarten principal, deputy directors and two volunteer teachers and four parents who volunteered to participate in the study. At the second stage, the end-of-year exhibition photographs, observation of activity sessions and observation of the physical order of the classroom were used as the data source in the study.

The data obtained from the first stage of the study reveal that the administrators referred to the attitudes and values among the general qualifications of the teaching profession (patient, friendly, self-sacrificing, voluntary, conscientious, sharing, showing empathy towards children, open to learning etc.) in defining a quality / good teacher. It was also understood that a limited number of principals referred to the qualifications of teachers in the field of professional skills (recognizing children, observing, guiding children, attracting children's attention, teaching by living) (General Directorate of Teacher Training and Development, 2017). When teachers defined a quality / good teacher, it was found out that they mostly referred to attitudes and values qualifications among the teaching profession general qualifications (patient, investigative, reading, loving the profession, good communication with parents, conscientious, honest, caring, respectful, energetic, pleasant etc.). In addition, a limited number of teachers were found to refer to the qualifications of teachers in the field of professional knowledge (good knowledge of the field) professional skills (using the game in all activities). When the parents defined quality / good teachers, it was found that they referred to the teaching profession general qualifications of attitudes and values (warm, friendly, cheerful, self-renewing, gentle and friendly towards parents, making the child feel they are loved, showing children with mather's affectionate etc.). In addition, a limited number of parents were found to refer to the field of professional skills of teachers (providing good education, making children responsible individuals). In the study conducted by Büyükşahin and Şahin (2017), in line with the findings of this study, it was found that teachers emphasized the characteristics of the quality teachers as patient, social, loving, tolerant, model, curious. On the other hand, they also stated that the parent-teacher-student relationship should be good in order to ensure the quality of a school. In another study, it was found that the presence of assistant teachers in pre-school education classes increased the quality at

schools (Karademir, Cingi, Dereli and Akman, 2017). In another study conducted by Ünüvar, (2011), teachers defined a good kindergarten teacher as "friendly, loving his/her job, having feelings for children, good communication skills, open to innovation, aware of the developments in the field. In the same study, parents stated that loving his/her job, having feelings for children, patient, having good communication with parents would increase the quality at schools. In the study conducted by Waluyo and Formen (2015), teachers emphasized the importance of employing teachers with an undergraduate degree and sensitive to children's feelings for a quality school. In parallel with this study, it has been revealed in many other studies (primary school children, university students, high school teachers) with similar findings of this study that the personality traits and professional attitudes and values of teachers are prioritized in different education levels (Sherman & Blackman, 1975; Kızıltepe, 2002; Gökçe, 2002; Karakelle, 2005). All these results can be related to the teaching human being and the fact that education has a face-to-face nature. However, when the general qualifications of the teaching profession are used by different institutions and teachers (career planning, recruitment, determining the need for in-service training, evaluating teacher performance, teacher self-evaluation, teaching practice, candidate teacher training), it is stated that minimum standards can be established for the teaching profession (General Directorate of Teacher Training and Development, 2017). In this study, it was found that teachers, principals, and parents emphasized the attitudes and values of teachers rather than their professional knowledge and skills. In defining poor quality / bad teachers, it was found that school principals were found to refer to the attitudes and values among general qualifications of the teaching profession (bad human relationship, having no emotional fluctuation, closed to communication, dull, not reading, no self-development, evading from parents etc.). It was also found out that a limited number of principals referred to the qualifications of having professional knowledge (not having enough field knowledge) and professional skills (children are constantly seated, there are always conflicts among children and classroom rules are not settled). In defining poor quality / bad teachers, it was found out that teachers referred to the teaching profession, general qualifications, competence of attitudes and values (unhappy, selfish, disrespectful, closed to innovation, no self-development, not showing affectionate to children etc.). In addition, a limited number of teachers were found to refer to the professional skills (the same class order, stereotypical methods, failing to downgrade to students' levels).

Parents did not suggest any definition regarding quality / bad teachers. This may be related to the fact that parents do not have the opportunity to observe different teachers. In this study, the data obtained at both stages consistently reveal that teachers, administrators and parents consistently define teachers' attitudes and values through the general qualifications of the teaching profession. The data obtained from activity observation, class observation and end-of-year photograph exhibitions reveal the limitations of teachers in meeting their proficiency in professional knowledge and skills. When these findings are considered together, it could be evaluated that pre-school teachers' attitudes and

values are prioritized more than their professional knowledge and skills. The reasons for school principals and teachers to refer to professional knowledge and skills limitedly in defining quality /good, poor quality / bad teachers could be subject to further studies whereas they are actually required to know and implement professional knowledge and skill in the field of education

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Effects of Parenting Style on Students' Achievement Goal Orientation: A Study on High School Students

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Abstract

This study intends to determine the effects of parenting styles, as perceived by parents, on high school students' achievement goal orientations. The study was conducted on 497 students and their parents selected via simple cluster sampling from public high schools of the Ministry of Education in Amasya, a city in Turkey. Data were collected by means of a personal information form prepared by the researcher, the Parents Attitude Scale (PAS) and the 2x2 Achievement Goal Orientation Scale. Data analysis includes multiple regression analysis, as well as descriptive statistics. Based on research findings, parenting styles perceived by parents can be listed as democratic, overprotective, permissive and authoritarian. Students' achievement goal orientation follows the order of learning-approach, learning-avoidance, performance-approach and performance-avoidance. Another finding obtained in the study shows a positive and medium level relationship between parenting style and learning approach orientation and a positive and low level relationship between parenting style and learning avoidance orientation. Democratic and overprotective parenting styles were found to have the strongest and the most significant impact on learning approach orientation whereas overprotective and permissive parenting styles had the most significant impact on learning avoidance orientation. Parenting style was found to have a low level positive relationship with performance approach and performance avoidance orientation. Analyses show that authoritarian and overprotective parenting styles had the most significant impact on both orientations.

Keywords: Parenting style, Achievement, Achievement goal orientation, High school students

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Introduction

Family is the setting in which children gain necessary skills, such as decision-making, responsibility, showing respect to others, showing affection and receiving love, fulfilling social roles and expressing creativity (Dil & Bulantekin, 2011) and start their first education. While raising their children, parents use different methods based on various attitudes and behaviours. Attitudes and behaviours that parents have may change according to their personal characteristics, their social and psychological situations, the characteristics of the child and the behaviour that the child displays. All these variables cause parents to display different behaviours which form their parenting style. Parenting style has a crucial role in a child's social and educational development. Parenting Style is a psychological structure that represents standard strategies parents use in child rearing and includes parental attitudes and behaviours (Kordi & Baharudin, 2010). Parenting style has an effect on self-efficacy, self-respect, self-development, and academic motivation, as well as the behaviours of the individual (Brown & Iyengar, 2008).

One of the issues affecting individual learning is the parent's attitude towards the child. Another concept related to student achievement is achievement goal orientation. Achievement goal orientation is a socio-cognitive theory that focuses on the reasons for involvement in learning tasks and their goals in terms of personal achievement (Middleton & Midgley, 1997). Achievement goal orientation can be expressed as individuals' personal beliefs established to arrange their skills or to reveal the goals set out to be successful (Ames, 1992) and also personal perceptions about the reasons for learning and focusing on goals to continue being successful (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). In this context, it can be said that achievement goal orientation makes a difference in students' behaviours (Buluş, 2011) at school and their use of different learning strategies (İzci & Koç, 2012). These differences can also be seen in students' academic success.

This study intends to examine the effects of parenting style, as perceived by parents, on high school students' achievement goal orientations. It is believed that the findings of this study regarding the relationship between parenting style and achievement goal orientation will be important in terms of generation of data for teachers and parents to provide students with healthier educational outcomes. While there are some studies in the literature which investigates the association between the two variables in question (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Mital, 2011; Gonzalez, Greenwood & WenHsu 2001; Lerdpornkulrat, Koul, Sujivorakul, 2012; Mahasneh, 2014), no study has so far focused on the relationship between parenting style and achievement goal orientation in Turkey. So it is believed that this study will contribute to the literature.

This study seeks for the answers to the questions provided below;

1. What are students' achievement goal orientations?

2. What are the parenting styles as perceived by parents?

3. Is there any relation between parenting styles and students' achievement goal orientation?

Literature Review

This section provides a theoretical framework on parenting styles and achievement goal orientation.

Parenting Style

Parental attitudes and behaviours that are performed while raising children have a significant impact on children's future behaviour as well as shaping behaviour at early ages. Children must have healthy relationships with their parents in order to display consistent behaviours in society, to be self-sufficient, to gain necessary social skills, and achieve his/her independence. This is closely related with parental attitudes and behaviours; i.e. the parenting styles that the parents adopt. The most common parental attitudes are classified as democratic, authoritarian, permissive, apathetic and overprotective (Akça, 2012).

With democratic parents, not only are children supervised, but there is a sensibility to their immediate needs as well. Parents are immensely sensitive, consistent, decisive, permissive, reassuring and supportive to children (Çağdaş ve Seçer, 2006). These parents encourage their children to be independent while they keep controlling the actions of their children. Despite the fact that the final responsibility lays with the parent, the children are also consulted in these families. Therefore, the children believe that their views are also important. It is probable that children with democratic parents are social, autonomous and highly responsible (Baumrind, 1991). Developmental psychologists attest that the most appropriate parenting style for raising children, especially adolescents, is the democratic style (Steinberg, 2001). This type of family environment provides young individuals with opportunities to trust themselves within certain limits and to develop a healthy autonomy (Kopko, 2007). Children raised in this type of family structure can maintain their lives as individuals who have self-confidence, are entrepreneurs, are creative, are able to express their thoughts and produce alternative solutions to problems.

Authoritarian parents display little warmth and a high degree of control. They are strict disciplinarians and use a punitive and restrictive style. Authoritarian parents expect their children to obey rules and instructions set by them without questioning. Authoritarian parents may use expressions such as "You will do that, because I say so". These behaviours may cause the adolescent to be dependent and rebellious. Rebellious adolescents display aggressive behaviours, whereas obedient/submissive adolescents can be dependent on their families (Baumrind, 1991). It is a parenting style which exists in patriarchal societies (Tuzcuoğlu & Tuzcuoğlu, 2007). These parents consider

themselves as representative of social authority (Aksaray, 1992), and they concentrate on children's mistakes and failures (Gander & Gardiner, 1995), exhibiting excessive authoritarian attitudes (Vural, 2004).

Permissive parents display a high degree of warmth, but they are undemanding and do not have high expectations. According to this permissive and passive parenting style, the only way to show love to adolescents is to indulge all their wishes. Expressions such as, "Of course you can stay out late if you want" may be used by these parents. Permissive parents do not want to cause disappointment by saying no. Therefore, adolescents may make many decisions independently from their parents. This situation may cause difficulties for the adolescents in controlling themselves and may result in tendencies to display egocentric behaviours (Baumrind, 1991). The permissive and loose attitudes of the parents cause children to be spoiled and expect that they will be given priority over the other individuals in the society. When they are not given priority, the individuals feel restless and uncomfortable and cannot adapt to social relationships outside the family (Ekşi, 1990).

With apathetic parents, since parents feel the excitement and enthusiasm of being a parent at low levels, this situation may affect their relationships with their children. They generally evaluate the events independently from their lives while meeting children's needs and may ignore some needs, even in the strangest situations. This may create a lack of self-control. Moreover, children's self-respect and proficiency levels may be affected negatively (Baumrind, Larzelere & Owens, 2010).

Overprotective parents control the environment more than required since they perceive it as hostile and dangerous. The factors that make this happen may be the death of the first child, having a difficult pregnancy period or unable to have children in long terms, or having grown up in an apathetic environment during their childhood (Çağdaş ve Seçer, 2006). Parents exhibiting these attitudes may cause their children to be unable to develop their own power since they show a control and sensitivity beyond expectation. Children raised in this kind of environment may show behaviours, such as being excessively independent from others, disappointed, insecure and rebellious (Tuzgöl, 1998). In addition, these individuals cannot develop good self-management of emotions and as a result, they may grow up to be individuals who are indecisive, unsatisfied and irresponsible (Yavuzer, 2000).

Achievement Goal Orientation

At the turn of the 20th century, achievement goal orientation theory was regarded as a pioneering approach to motivation. The main focus of this theory is identifying the reasons for school and in-class achievement, rather than identifying the degree of motivation to learn in numeric terms (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007; Elliot & McGregor, 2001). Achievement goal orientation can be expressed as individuals' personal beliefs established to arrange their skills or to reveal the goals set out to be

successful (Ames, 1992) and as personal perceptions about the reasons for learning and focusing on goals to continue being successful (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007; Pintrich, 2000).

Achievement goal orientation informs us about why and how individuals study to succeed. That is to say, achievement goal orientation is the main reason individuals are motivated to succeed. This theory is interested in why students follow a certain path in order to succeed in tasks by focusing on goals to continue their achievement (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007; Pintrich, 2000). This theory was created to reveal the reasons behind student performance while undertaking classroom activities, learning formations and academic tasks. At the same time, achievement goal orientation theory focuses on what the students think while identifying goals in the situations mentioned above. In fact, the desire to succeed and to avoid failure motivates individuals (Middleton & Midgley, 1997). In this context, it can be said that achievement goal orientation also has an effect on shaping students' school behaviours (Buluş, 2011).

Although there are different types of achievement goal orientation, they can be subsumed into two broad categories: performance goal orientation and learning goal orientation.

Performance Goal Orientation dwells on displaying skills by taking others as references and is based on proving ability or avoidance of seeming incompetent (Jagacinski & Duda, 2001). Performance goal orientation has outcomes such as unwillingness to ask for academic support (Ryan & Stiller, 1991), cheating (Anderman, Griesinger & Westerfield, 1998), withdrawal in the face of failure (Dweck & Leggett, 1988) and use of artificial browsing strategies (Greene & Miller, 1996). To be judged well by others is very important for students with performance goal orientation and these students avoid being evaluated negatively. These individuals are generally extrinsically motivated. When they make mistakes, they perceive them as failure and may easily quit what they are studying. These individuals have a hard time facing difficult situations, pay attention to look competent and try to make a good impression by putting effort into being successful or avoiding failure (Greene & Miller, 1996). Performance goal orientation points to a low degree of performance avoidance and intrinsic motivation whereas performance approach can be said to have a positive relationship with performance. According to Pintrich (2000), while students with performance approach orientation aim to be the best in class, to be the student with the best performance and the one with the highest grades compared to classmates and to focus on looking successful rather than learning, students with performance avoidance orientation avoid being unqualified, looking incompetent when compared with others, being the student with the lowest performance and receiving the worst grades in the classroom. According to Özgüngör (2014), in performance-approach orientation, individuals have the effort of proving superiority to others on the academic level, whereas those who are in performance-avodiance orientation are in the situation of trying not to show herself/himself as weak on academic level.

In classrooms where the majority of students have performance approach orientation, academic progress is slow, learning is based on rote learning rather than meaningful learning and all activities are undertaken for the sake of getting good grades (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). Also, students with this type of learning orientation may want to be successful to ensure parental satisfaction, to dominate the classroom, to feel important and to avoid looking stupid or avoid feelings of shame (Pajares, Britner & Valiante, 2000).

Learning goal orientation is related to student desire to have a complete command of the topic and to learn well in the learning process. Students with learning goal orientation consider skills to be equal to learning. Individuals with this type of orientation believe that effort increases the ability to gain skills and compare their past and current performances to determine their development (Schunk, 1996). Those who have learning goal orientation know how problems occur and how to cope with them. They never decrease their motivation when they come across difficult situations. They try to do their best on the basic tasks during this process. They use different cognitive strategies and methods during the learning process (İzci & Koç, 2012).

Research shows that individuals with learning goal orientation are successful in learning (Pajares & Cheong, 2003; Tanaka & Ysmauchi, 2001). Learning goal orientation is evaluated through approaching and avoidance dimensions, as in performance orientation. According to Pintrich (2000), while students with learning goal orientation aim to learn the topic in depth, develop themselves, show progress and exceed the standards they have determined, students with learning avoidance orientation avoid being misunderstood, not being able to learn the topic completely and making wrong connections with their previous learning.

When individuals decide what they want to learn based on their interests and expectations, they have intrinsic motivation to complete tasks (Amabile, 1996). However, when they learn only to get good grades without the expectation to improve themselves, they will develop extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation correspond to learning approach orientation and performance approach orientation, respectively. Compared to students with performance approach orientation, students with learning approach orientation are motivated to succeed for longer periods of time and are more successful at associating knowledge in cognitive processes (Potter, Christine & McCormick, 1994).

Material and Methods

This study is a descriptive one which was designed as a correlational research so as to determine the effects of parenting styles, as perceived by parents, on high school students' achievement goal orientation. Berends (2006) defines the researches aiming to determine certain

variables as correlational research type. In this type of studies, the beliefs, values and attitudes are described in a systematic way (Williamson, Karp & Dalphin, 1977).

Study Group

The sample of the study was selected from students (n=6387) attending state high schools of the Ministry of Education in Amasya. The sample of the study consisted of 497 students and their parents selected via simple cluster sampling method. Table 1 presents the distribution of students based on demographic characteristics.

Table 1: Distribution of students based on demographic characteristics

Variable		f	%
Gender	Female	232	46,7
	Male	265	53,3
Grade	9th Grade	123	24,7
	10th Grade	150	30,2
	11th Grade	110	22,1
	12th Grade	114	22,9
TOTAL		497	100

Table 1 shows that 46,7% of the participating students were females and 53,3% were males. In terms of grade variable, 24,7% of the students were in 9th grade, 30,2% in 10th grade, 22,1% in 11th grade and 22,9% in 12th grade.

Data Collection Tools

Data were collected by means of a personal information form prepared by the researcher to collect personal data, the Parents Attitude Scale (PAS) developed by Demir & Şendil (2008) to determine parenting styles, and the "2x2 Achievement Goal Orientation Scale" developed by Akın (2006).

Personal Information Form: The personal information form was prepared by the researcher to obtain the demographic characteristics (gender, grade level) of the participants.

Parents Attitude Scale (PAS): The Parents Attitude Scale, conducted on 497 students' parents, developed by Demir and Şendil (2008) is a Likert type scale composed of 46 items. It has four sub dimensions, which are: democratic, authoritarian, overprotective and permissive. Cronbach Alpha values of the scale for sub dimensions are as follows: .83, .76, .75, and .74. Factor analysis was undertaken to determine the factor structure of the scale; item factor loads were found to be between .30 and .73. The first factor was titled "democratic attitude", since it entails acceptance of the child as an independent individual and encouragement of development of personality and free expression of

ideas. The second factor was called "authoritarian attitude", since it does not involve the acceptance of the child as an independent individual, but rather supports the view that the parent owns the child and includes styles such as unconditional obedience to rules, one-way communication, oppression, and verbal and physical punishment. The third factor was termed "overprotective attitude", since it supports the view that the child is not self-sufficient and therefore should be constantly protected and it includes inappropriate interventions, excess control and avoidance of giving the child any responsibility. Finally, the fourth factor was called "permissive attitude", since it consists of behaviours such as welcoming everything that the child does, giving excessive freedom, and overindulging the child (Demir & Şendil, 2008). Cronbach Alpha values for the factors in the current study were found to be between .75 and .86.

2x2 Achievement Goal Orientation Scale: This scale was developed by Akın (2006) with four factors and 26 items. The factors are: performance-approach, performance-avoidance, learning-approach and learning-avoidance. Factor analysis points to factor loads in scale items to be between .41 and .98. Cronbach Alpha values of the factors related to reliability of the scale change between .92 and .98 (Akın, 2006). Cronbach Alpha values for the factors in the current study were found to be between .86 and .92.

Data Analysis

SPSS 20 package program was utilized in the data analysis. Multi-regression analysis along with descriptive statistics, weighted mean and standard deviation values were used in the study. In the study, descriptive statistics that evaluate standard deviation and arithmetic mean were calculated in order to determine the perceptions of the students' achievement goal orientation and parenting style. Multi regression analysis was used in order to determine the effect of parenting styles on students' achievement goal orientation. In order to evaluate the hypotheses of the analysis, linearity and normality tests were done before multi-regression analysis.

Results and Discussion

Findings related to the first sub problem:

Table 2 presents the findings related to students' achievement goal orientation.

Table 2: Findings related to students' achievement goal orientation

Variable	N	$\bar{x}$	Ss
Learning approach	497	3,78	0,66
Learning avoidance	497	3,25	0,80
Performance approach	497	3,06	0,95
Performance avoidance	497	2,81	0,80

Table 2 points to learning approach as the variable with the highest means in students' achievement goal orientation, with a mean of $\bar{x}$ =3,78. This is followed by learning avoidance with $\bar{x}$ =3,25, performance approach with $\bar{x}$ =3,06 and performance avoidance with $\bar{x}$ =2,81.

Findings related to the second sub problem:

Table 3 presents the findings related to parenting styles as perceived by the parents.

Table 3: Findings related to parenting styles

Variable	N	$\bar{x}$	Ss
Democratic	497	3,94	0,624
Authoritarian	497	2,30	0,610
Overprotective	497	3,80	0,678
Permissive	497	2,35	0,655

Table 3 points to democratic style as the most perceived parenting style with a mean of $\bar{x}$ =3,94, followed by overprotective ($\bar{x}$=3,80), permissive ($\bar{x}$=2,35) and authoritarian styles ($\bar{x}$=2,30).

Findings related to the third sub problem

Findings related to the effects of parenting styles on students' achievement goal orientation are provided in Table 4.

Table 4: Results of regression analysis related to the relationship between parenting styles and students' achievement goal orientation

	Variable	B	Standard Error	β	t	p	R	R^2	F
Learning Approach	Constant	20,361	2,146	-	9,490	,000			
	Democratic	,114	,026	,227	4,377	,000			
	Authoritarian	,010	,038	-,001	-,012	,991	,311*	,097*	13,111*
	Overprotective	,101	,043	,116	2,319	,021			
	Permissive	,054	,043	-,057	-1,249	,212			
Learning Avoidance	Constant	9,962	1,658	-	6,008	,000			
	Democratic	,010	,020	,027	,497	,619			
	Authoritarian	,069	,029	,115	2,329	,020	,217	,047	6,070
	Overprotective	,128	,034	,196	3,818	,000			
	Permissive	-,021	,034	-,030	-,639	,523			
Performance Approach	Constant	14,550	2,595	-	5,606*	,000			
	Democratic	-,031	,032	-,052	-,987*	,324			
	Authoritarian	,181	,046	,194	3,921*	,000	,221*	,049*	6,325*
	Overprotective	,158	,053	,154	3,005*	,003			
	Permissive	-,042	,053	-,037	-,791*	,429			

	Constant	11,187	1,981	-	5,647*	,000			
	Democratic	-,039	,024	-,087	1,632*	,103			
Performance Avoidance	Authoritarian	-,121	,035	,169	3,432*	,001	,235*	,055*	7,191*
	Overprotective	,140	,040	,178	3,500*	,001			
	Permissive	,021	,040	,024	,517*	,606			

p<.05

Table 4 shows a medium level significant relationship between parenting style and learning approach orientation (R=0,311, R^2=0,097. F= 13,111, p<.01). Examination of the standardized regression coefficient (β) shows the order of importance of parenting styles on learning approach orientation as: democratic, overprotective, permissive and authoritarian style. T-test results related to the significance of regression coefficients show that only the democratic and overprotective styles are significant predictors of learning approach orientation. Authoritarian and permissive parenting styles have no significant effect on learning approach orientation.

Table 4 points to a low level significant relationship between parenting style and learning avoidance orientation (R=0,217, R^2=0,047. F= 6,070, p<.01). Examination of the standardized regression coefficient (β) shows the relative order of importance of parenting styles on   learning avoidance orientation as overprotective, authoritarian, permissive and democratic styles. T-test results related to the significance of regression coefficients show that only overprotective and permissive styles are significant predictors of learning avoidance.

According to Table 4, there is a low level and significant relationship between parenting styles and performance approach orientation (R=0,221, R^2=0,049. F= 6,325, p<.01). Examination of the standardized regression coefficient (β) shows the relative order of importance of parental styles on performance approach orientation as authoritarian, overprotective, democratic and permissive styles. T-test results related to the significance of regression coefficients show that only authoritarian and overprotective styles are significant predictors of performance approach orientation.

Examination of Table 4 points to a low level and significant relationship between parenting styles and performance avoidance orientation (R=0,235, R^2=0,055. F= 7,191, p<.01). Examination of the standardized regression coefficient (β) shows the relative order of importance of parental styles on performance avoidance orientation as; overprotective, authoritarian, democratic and permissive styles. T-test results related to the significance of regression coefficients show that only authoritarian and overprotective styles are significant predictors of performance avoidance orientation.

According to the findings obtained in the study, parenting styles as perceived by parents are listed as democratic, overprotective, permissive and authoritarian styles. The fact that democratic parenting style comes first in the parenting styles perceived by the students can be regarded as a

positive situation when we consider the studies (Arnett, 2010, Brown & Iyengar, 2008) which express the positive relationship between democratic parenting style and academic success and intrinsic motivation. Since intrinsic motivation means enthusiasm and willingness to learn, it brings academic success. Furthermore, according to River (2006) who cites Baumrind (1973), children raised with the democratic parenting style have a strong belief in their self-capability when they face academic tasks and difficulties. From this perspective, it can be said that democratic parenting style contribute to one's self-efficacy. While there are some studies which express the positive effects of an authoritarian parenting style, there are more which express the positive effects of a democratic parenting style (Gonzalez, Greenwood & WhenHsu, 2001).

Parenting styles are generally assessed in cultural, racial and socio-economic contexts. Therefore, they can have a different impact on goal orientation and student achievement (Rivers, 2006). According to Rivers (2006) who cites Baumrind (1973), children of authoritarian parents have beliefs of self-competence when they face academic tasks and difficulties. Although the democratic parenting style has many positive outcomes in general, there are some studies that emphasize the positive effects of the authoritarian parenting style (Gonzalez, Greenwood & WhenHsu, 2001).

Another finding of the study points to the order of students' achievement goal orientation as: learning approach, learning avoidance, performance approach and performance avoidance. In addition to these results, it was also found that parenting styles have a medium level significant relationship with learning approach orientation and a low level positive relationship with learning avoidance orientation. In the research done by Odacı, Berber Çelik and Çıkrıkçı (2013), it can be seen that learning goal orientation comes first. In the research, the students have higher points in achievement goal orientation than learning goal orientation and this can be seen as a positive situation that contributes to academic success. Dupeyrat & Marine (2005) state that learning approach has a positive effect on learning activities and their outputs, whereas performance approach, which centres upon showing oneself as good to the others, has a negative effect on learning outcomes. In this context, it can be evaluated that students internalize learning.

According to the another result of the study, parenting styles have a medium level meaningful relation with learning approach, and a low level meaningful relation in a positive direction with learning-avoidance approach, while the parenting styles with the most powerful and significant impact on learning approach orientation were democratic and overprotective styles, overprotective and permissive attitudes had a significant impact on learning avoidance orientation. It was found that parenting styles had a low level and significant relationship with performance approach and performance avoidance orientation. Analyses show authoritarian and overprotective styles had a significant impact on both orientations.

Parenting styles are generally evaluated in the cultural, racial and socio-economic context. These contextual factors can cause different effects on goal orientation and student success (Rivers, 2006). The literature review provides some studies focusing on the relationship between parenting styles and achievement goal orientation. For example, Rivers, Mullis, Fortner and Mullis (2012) and Rivers (2006) express that there is no meaningful relation between parenting style and achievement goal orientation. For instance, Lamborn et al. (1991) found that authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles have positive relationships with achievement goal orientation. On the other hand, WenHsu (2001) found that the authoritative parenting style is related to students' performance orientation. Rivers' (2006) study reported no significant relationships between parenting style and goal orientation, whereas Mital's (2011) study on 160 students pointed to relationships between students' learning goal orientation and the authoritative parenting style. In their study, Gonzalez et al. (2001) identified positive relationships between maternal authoritative style and learning orientation, and also between maternal authoritarian style and performance orientation.

The study conducted by Lerdponkulrat et al. (2012) reported that students who perceived their parents as empathetic had higher learning orientations and students who perceived their parents as authoritarian had higher performance avoidance goals. The study by Gonzalez, Holbein and Quilter (2002) on 196 students found that authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were related to performance orientation, and that authoritative style was related to learning orientation. The study on 650 university students by Mahasneh (2014) reported positive relationships between learning and performance orientations and democratic, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles and that authoritative parenting style is the best predictor of achievement goal orientation. On the other hand, Gafoor & Kurukkan (2014) express that democratic parenting style is the most effective on achievement goal orientation.

Xu, Dai, Liu and Deng (2018) examined if and how adolescents' perceived parental psychological con-trol and autonomy support influence their maladaptive academic functioning through their achievement goal orientations and obtained that compared with girls, adolescent boys perceived higher parental psychological control. Moreover, we found distinct effects of parental psychological control and autonomy support on adolescents' maladaptive academic functioning through achievement goal orientations. Zong, Zhang and Yao (2018) investigated the relations between children's perception of different dimensions of parental involvement (i.e. home-based involvement, school-based involvement and academic socialisation) and their achievement goals, and the moderating role of parenting style (i.e. parental autonomy support vs. psychological control) and found that home-based involvement was positively associated with performance-approach goals, schoolbased involvement was positively associated with mastery goals, and academic socialisation was positively associated with both mastery and performance-approach goals. Alivernini, Manganelli

and Lucidi (2018) conducted a study on a sample of 10th-grade students and found that classroom performance-approach goal structures were related to performance avoidance personal orientations but not to performance-approach personal orientations. They also obtained the finding showing that the Personal Achievement Goal Orientation scales measure three related but separate factors: Mastery, Performance-Approach, and Performance-Avoidance. Gunderson, Donnellan, Robins and Trzesniewski (2018), on the other hand, found that learning goals show divergent relations to child age and to parents' praise and criticism in elementary and middle school. It was also concluded in the study that making parents aware of the potentially positive effects of process praise and the potentially debilitating effects of person criticism might provide parents with more specific ideas about how to help encourage their children to adopt goals and behaviors that sustain academic motivation. In another study by Leung and Shek (2018), an attempt was made to examine the moderating effect of family functioning on the influence of maternal expectations of children's education on adolescent achievement motivation in poor single-mother families and it was found that maternal expectations and family functioning positively predicted achievement motivation of Chinese adolescents in poor single-mother families. Miller and Neumeister (2017) investigated relationships among gender, perceived parenting style, the personality traits of conscientiousness and neuroticism, perfectionism, and achievement goal orientation in a high ability and high achieving young adult population and found that self-oriented and socially prescribed perfectionism had a positive relationship with performance goal orientation, suggesting that students with these perfectionistic tendencies are also more likely to have performance goals. Seginer and Mahajna (2018) postulated some hypotheses and found that in contrast to western data and in accordance with other non-western findings, the relation between perceived parenting and academic achievement is indirect. For Muslim adolescents in Israel it is linked via self-empowerment and higher education future orientation for girls and boys, and in the marriage and family domain for girls only.

When the studies in the literature are analyzed, it can be said that parenting styles have an effect on students' achievement goal orientation, even though there are some studies which don't express any relation between parenting style and students' achievement goal orientation (Rivers at all.; 2012 and Rivers, 2006). When we evaluate these studies, we can say that the democratic parenting style has an effect on learning orientation, while the authoritarian parenting style has an effect on performance orientation. This shows that the findings of this research are supported by literature.

Recommendations

Based on both the research findings and the theoretical framework, it can be argued that parenting styles have important impacts on students' achievement goal orientations. The authoritative style predicts learning orientation and the authoritarian attitude predicts performance orientation.

Based on these results, some suggestions are provided below:

1-Teachers may be provided with seminars about identifying students' achievement goal orientations and its importance to academic achievement

2-School meetings or family seminars can be organized to create awareness about the relationships between parenting styles, student achievement and achievement goal orientation.

Conclusion

According to the findings of the study, it was concluded that the participants perceive democratic, overprotective, permissive and authoritarian parenting styles. Learning-approach, learning-avoidance, performance-approach and performance-avoidance are followed by students' achievement goal orientation in a sequence. A positive and medium level relationship between parenting style and learning approach orientation was found in the study. It was also found that a positive low level relationship between parenting style and learning avoidance orientation. Learning approach orientation was significantly affected by democratic and overprotective parenting styles, while learning avoidance orientation was affected by overprotective and permissive parenting styles. There was a low level positive relationship with performance approach and performance avoidance orientation according to parenting style. It was found that authoritarian and overprotective parenting styles had the most significant impact on both orientations

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Self Regulated Learning Questionnaire: Reliability and Validity Study

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Abstract

The research was carried out to develop a measurement tool for measuring self-regulated learning skills of secondary school students. For this purpose, the validity and reliability study of the "Self-Regulation Learning Questionnaire" was conducted on 688 students who studied in different classes in the middle school (fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth grade) and selected by random sampling method. As a result of the exploratory factor analysis conducted to ensure the construct validity of the scale, a five-factor structure consisting of 39 items was obtained. These factors are "1. Studying Method, 2. Self Evaluation, 3. Receiving Support, 4. Time Management and Planning, 5. Seeking Information". The Cronbacheris Alpha value of the scale was .94. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which was conducted to test whether the five-factor structure of the scale was consistent with the previously defined factor structure, supports the structure obtained. These results show that the Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire is an appropriate tool for the measurement of self regulated learning skills of secondary school students.

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Introduction

Learning sense and perception differentiates as based on the necessities of the time. Information that is rapidly emerging and changing necessarily adds a new, dynamic dimension to learning. At the present time, learning emphasizes an understanding by which students structure and evaluate their own learning, instead of the one within the scope of which information prepared and available is provided them. In this regard, one of the concepts which have emerged recently as a result of the seeking for enhancing the quality of learning is the self-regulation, as well.

Pintrich (2000) defines self-regulation as a constructivist process in which students set their goals and/or objectives for learning at first, and then, regulate their cognition and behaviors and also control these. Self-regulation is not a mental ability or an academic performance skill; it is rather a self regulated process from which learners benefit in order to convert their mental abilities into academic skills. Therefore, learning is considered as an activity that students influentially do for themselves, not an inherent one that is realized as an outcome of teaching. Self-regulation refers to the opinions, feelings and behaviors emerging by themselves towards achieving the goals and/or objectives (Zimmerman, 2000). According to Schunk and Ertmer (2000), self-regulation means the one's generating ideas and feelings which he needs to learn and also for his motivation and putting his actions into practice in a systematic manner by planning them in line with these ideas and feelings.

When literature is reviewed, positive effects which self-regulation has on both academic achievement (Chung, 2000; Paris and Paris, 2001; Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 1990; Zimmerman and Bandura, 1994; Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons, 1988; Ruban and Reis, 2006) and self-efficacy (Pintrich and De Groot, 1990), and also on motivation (Pintrich, 2000; Schraw Crippen, K. J., and Hartley, K. , 2006; Zimmerman, 2000; Zimmerman and Schunk, 2004) are seen obviously. In this context, field specialists have established various strategies for raising individuals with self-regulation skills, as well. According to Zimmerman (1989; 1990), self-regulation strategies are actions and/or processes that students think these will all serve well for them and perform in an attempt to acquire knowledge or skills they have already aimed for. These actions are self-regulation which includes metacognitive strategies for the planning, following and alteration of cognition, the management of effort that students put forth in order to be able to carry out an academic duty in the class by themselves and cognitive strategies such as repetition, interpretation and organization of which they make use in order to learn, remember and comprehend (Pintrich and De Groot, 1990). Students with advanced self-regulation skill make a plan, set an objective, perform organizations, follow-up themselves and also evaluate themselves (Corno, 1989).

In Özbay (2008)'s thesis study, to determine the self regulation processes and strategies used in the field of informative writing in foreign language, to examine the relationships between the

elements of the structure, the motivation and the use of cognitive strategies specific to the field, to demonstrate the relationships between the level of use of these strategies and the success of writing. In this way, it is aimed to develop a more comprehensive understanding of strategic learning. Turan and Demirel (2010) used the Self Regulated Learning Skills Scale and the interview form in order to make a description of the self-regulating learning skills of medical school students and to examine their self-regulating learning skills according to their success level. Quantitative data were collected by using descriptive method in another study examining the relationship between self regulation strategies and motivation used by Yağlı (2014). Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) was developed by Pintrich, (1991) and adapted to Turkish by Büyüköztürk, Akgün, Karadeniz, Çakmak, Demirel, (2008). Self Regulated Learning Scale and ve Self Regulated Learning Support Scale were developed by Haşlaman ve Aşkar (2015), in order to evaluate self-regulatory learning behaviors of teachers. Eom and Reiser (2000) examined the effect of the use of self regulation strategies on success and motivation. In the study of Schraw et al., (2006), the effect of self-regulated learning on science teaching was investigated. Cheng (2011) examined the relationship between self-regulation skills and academic performances of students, working with 6524 students from 20 schools; it has addressed the issue with learning motivation, goal setting, action control and learning strategies.

Although there are many researches about self regulated learning in our country and in the world; scales for measuring self-regulated learning skills of secondary school students are limited. Within the scope of this research, it is thought that the studies on determining self regulation skill levels of individuals will have an important place in the literature.

Method

Research Model

In this research carried out in general survey model, to perform the study for the validity and reliability of Self Regulated Learning Questionnaire (SRLQ) developed for secondary school students was aimed. This research is intended to develop a scale for assessing self-regulated learning skills of secondary school students. In order to reach a judgment in the universe consisting of many elements in the screening model, it is studied on a whole group or from a group to be taken from it (Karasar, 2017).

Study Group

The study group consisted of students from three different secondary schools located in Kırıkkale city center. A total of 688 secondary school students studying in the fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grades were selected by simple random sampling method. In the simple random sampling method (neutral sampling method) each element has the same chance to enter the sample and take the task (Karasar, 2017). The responses of the 688 students to the questionnaire were examined. As a

result of the study, it was found that some of the students did not respond on the questionnaire and some other students put more than one mark on the same item. Thus, the survey of 156 students who were considered to be incomplete or invalid answers were considered invalid. With the elimination of the surveys which were not suitable for the analyzes, a total of 532 students were employed. The acceptable number for the sample size is expected to be 5 or 10 times the number of items on the scale (Kline, 1994; Pett, Lackey and Sullivan, 2003; Tavşancıl, 2005). Therefore, it can be accepted that the sample is sufficient for the study. Of the 532 students participating in the study, 171 were fifth grade, 189 sixth grade, 99 seventh grade, and 73 eighth grade students. In addition, 307 of the students are girls and 225 of them are male students. Also for confirmatory factor analysis, 400 students were studied at the middle school level with different sample groups.

Development of Assessment Instrument (Questionnaire)

In this research, which aimed to develop a self-regulated learning scale for secondary school students, a literature review was done. In the scans carried out within the scope of the subject, the qualifications required to be found in a student with self-regulation skills were tried to be determined. In particular, Zimmerman (2002)'s self regulated learning strategies were based on the scale. According to Zimmermman (2002); contemporary research tells us that self regulation of learning is not a single persona trait that individual students either possess or lack. Instead, it involves these lectiveuse of specific processes that must be personally adapted to each learning task. The component skills include: setting specific proximal goals for one self, adopting powerful strategies for attaining the goals, monitoring one's performance selectively for signs of progress, restructuring one's physical and social context to make it compatible with one's goals, managing one's time use efficiently, self-evaluating one's methods, attributing causation to results, and adapting future methods. A students' level of learning has been found to vary based on the presence or absence of the self-regulatory processes (Schunk&Zimmerman, 1994;1998). Self-regulated learning is the concept whereby learner stake an active role in improving their knowledge and ability while studying. As the concept of 'learner-centered learning' become sincreasingly accepted, self-regulated learning becomes a key topic in distance education (Hong,Im&Li, 2016). In the process of drafting scale, interviews were made with teachers (n = 5) in different branches (Turkish, Science, Mathematics, Social Studies and English). The data obtained as a result of the interviews contributed to the draft scale. For the draft articles, interviews were conducted with students (n = 10) who were studying in different classes (fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grade) in secondary school. As a result of the interviews with the students, four items that students have difficulty understanding are excluded from the scale. In line with the screening and opinions received, the draft scale, consisting of 84 items, was reshaped as 81 items. In order to ensure the content validity of the draft scale, five faculty members and three teachers were consulted. According to Karasar (2017), the content (content) validity refers to the suitability of the

items of the scale to the measurement tool and to the group they represent and this situation is determined according to the expert opinion. In this context, the necessary amendments have been made and the scope validity of the scale has been provided. The scale which was given its final form was then examined by two Turkish language experts and piloted. The pilot application was carried out on 50 students in the fifth and eighth grade secondary school. The opinions and suggestions of the students on the comprehensibility of the items were taken and the scale was finalized. As a result of the studies conducted in this context, 17 items from the 81-item pool were eliminated and some items were revised and a draft scale consisting of 64 items was obtained. Of the items in the scale, two items were negative. Items in the scale were graded according to 5-point Likert-type, as "never = 1", "seldom = 2", "sometimes = 3", "usually = 4" "always = 5". Likert's scale building technique is easier and understandable. Likert scales also contribute to the emergence of each proposition on the scale, on the one hand the determination / determination of the intrinsic property to be measured (contributing to the determination of the intrinsic property as the components of the intrinsic property to be measured) and on the other hand a total score related to the intrinsic property to be measured. It also allows to obtain. Therefore, Likert type scaling has a clear advantage in providing information to the researcher (Bayat, 2014).

Findings

With the object of determining the structural validity of data obtained from the draft form of Self Regulated Learning Questionnaire, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were carried out. The validity of the scale and SPSS 21.0 and LISREL 8.54 programs were used for reliability analysis.

Findings for Exploratory Factor Analysis

In order to prove the applicability of proceedings performed in factor analysis, KMO values are examined by Bartlett Test (Pallant, 2005). As based on the statistical process carried out, it was detected that the KMO value of the scale was .945. It is a fair condition that Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value is approximate to 1 (Tavşancıl, 2002). The result of the Bartlett Test was $X^2_{(532)} = 7320.964$; p <.01. These values indicate the suitability of the data set for factor analysis. Since Cronbachus Alpha value is .94, it can be said that the reliability of the data is quite high. The data are presented in Table 3.1.

Tablo 3.1. Values of applicabilities

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO)		.945
Bartlett Value	Chi Square	7320.964
	Sd	2016
	Sig	.000
Cronbach's Alpha		.94

Determination of Factor Pattern

The basic component analysis as a factorization method in order to reveal the factor design of the Self-Regulated Learning Scale; Direct Obliqim rotation method is used as the rotation method.

Determination of Factor Number

In order to determine the number of factors that can reveal the relationship between the items, slope deposition graph, eigenvalue and variance percentages were used (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu, Büyüköztürk, 2012). The table for the percentages of eigenvalues and variances and the slope deposition graph are given below .

Tablo 3.2. Values of Factor and Percentages of Variance for Self-Regulated Learning Scale

Factors	Values of the Factor	Revealed Variance (%)	Cumulative Variance (%)
F1. Studying Method	11.628	29.070	29.070
F2. Self-Evaluation	2.011	5.028	34.098
F3. Receiving Support	1.676	4.190	38.288
F4. Time Management and Planning	1.428	3.570	41.858
F5. Seeking Information	**1.238**	**3.096**	**44.954**

In the process of factor analysis, principle component analysis was carried out in order that the factors could be revealed and another conversion method was not used. As is seen in Table 3.2, it has been observed that the scale presents a structure with five factors, according to the analysis performed. Within this five-factor-structure, the screeplot for each factor is over 1.00. Considering the structure mentioned, it is realized that these five factors revealed out can explain the 44,95% of the variance in total. It is asserted that the overall value of variance at 40% to 60% is well enough in the field of social sciences (Çokluk et al., 2010; Tavşancıl, 2010). Therefore, the case that revealed total variance present in this study is 44,95% is regarded as an acceptable value.
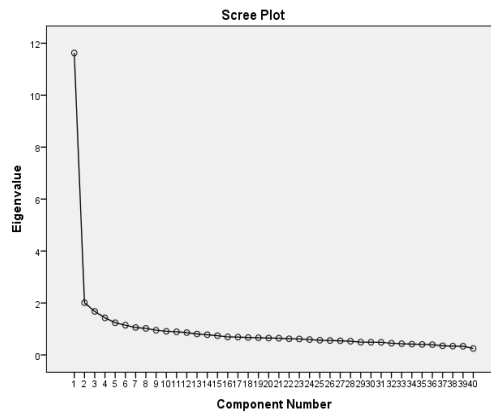

Figure 3.1. Screeplot Diagram

The screeplot graph as a result of the exploratory factor analysis indicates that the scale has a five-factor structure. When the breakpoints in the eigen value graph in Figure 3.1 are examined, it is seen that there are five factors with one and more eigen values in the scale, and the high acceleration decrease is seen after the fifth point. The downward trend seen from the first point is indicated by points of contribution to the variance and each interval between the two points means a factor (Çokluk et al., 2012). Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999) stated that factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 or 1 should be considered as important factors. Therefore, the eigenvalue criteria should be used to determine the number of factors that can reveal the relationships between the articles in a small number and most effectively (Büyüköztürk, 2007). The fact that the self-evaluative learning process, which the scale tries to determine, has different dimensions and explains the factors on the scale.

Determination of Factor Materials

After the factor number of the scale was determined as five, the distribution of the substances to the factors was examined. In order to determine which factor is strongly correlated with the factors, rotated component t matrix is formed to determine whether the substances meet the acceptance level of overlap and factor loadings (Table 3.3). In order for a substance to be overlapped, two conditions must occur. The first one is that the level of acceptance of a substance in more than one factor gives a high load value. Secondly, the difference between the load values of two or more factors is smaller than .1 (Çokluk et al., 2012). The factor load value of each item is .30 in the exploratory factor analysis to reveal the factor pattern of the Self Regulation Learning Questionnaire.

As a result of exploratory factor analysis, 19 items (items 3, 4, 13, 16, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 36, 47, 48, 50, 52, 54, 55, 56, 60, 64) and then 5 items (items 9, 22, 34, 44, 51) were excluded from the scale because they did not meet the reliability criteria because they received a load value under the factor and there was no difference between these factor loadings.

The factor load values of the items in the scale are presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3. Values of Factor Loadings of the Items

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Item-total Correlation Coefficients
14	.515					.516
15	.558					.460
42	.491					.507
43	.412					.539
45	.515					.539
46	.440					.416
49	.352					.407
53	.311					.440
1		.579				.389
2		.618				.418
5		.352				.392
6		.680				.455
7	.344	.455				.377
8		.539				.371
10		.480				.336
11		.625				.480
12		.385				.370
17		.518				.474
26		.317				.321
28		.426				.337
58		.517				.500
35			.541			.480
57			.797			.543
59			.468			.406
61	.395		.530			.450
62			.676			.468
63			.623			.512
18		.304		.560		.532
19				.586		.425
20				.559		.512
21	.377			.554		.542
23				.374		.335
24				.573		.555
25				.490		.479
27				.626		.388
37					-.617	.544
38					-.687	.541
39					-.628	.583
40					-.569	.362
41					-.479	.280

As is seen in Table 3.3, Factor loads of the items in the scale vary between -.687 and .797. Factor load values pertaining to the first factor are between .558 and .311 and the load values of the second factor consisting of thirteen items vary between .680 and .317; and in the third factor, it is between .797 and .468. The load values in the fourth factor vary between .626 and .374 and in the fifth factor between -.479 and -.687.

Findings for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is to test whether the data available to the researcher is compatible with the previously constructed factor structure (Meydan and Şeşen, 2011). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test whether the five-factor structure of the scale was compatible with the previously constructed factor. In confirmatory factor analysis, for the structural fit of the model, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI) values, which are of model fit measures, were taken into consideration. In the validated fluid factor analysis, the fit index of the five-factor model of the self regulated learning questionnaire was examined.

Also for confirmatory factor analysis, 400 students were studied at the middle school level with different sample groups. Data on first level confirmatory factor analysis are presented below.

In the first level confirmatory factor analysis, the t value of the 40th item was excluded from the scale because it was meaningless at .05 level (t_{40}=47.256). The scope of validity is maintained by removal of the substance has been identified and replaced by the second level confirmatory factor analysis. The results of second-order confirmatory factor analysis for the five-factor model are shown in Figure 3.2.
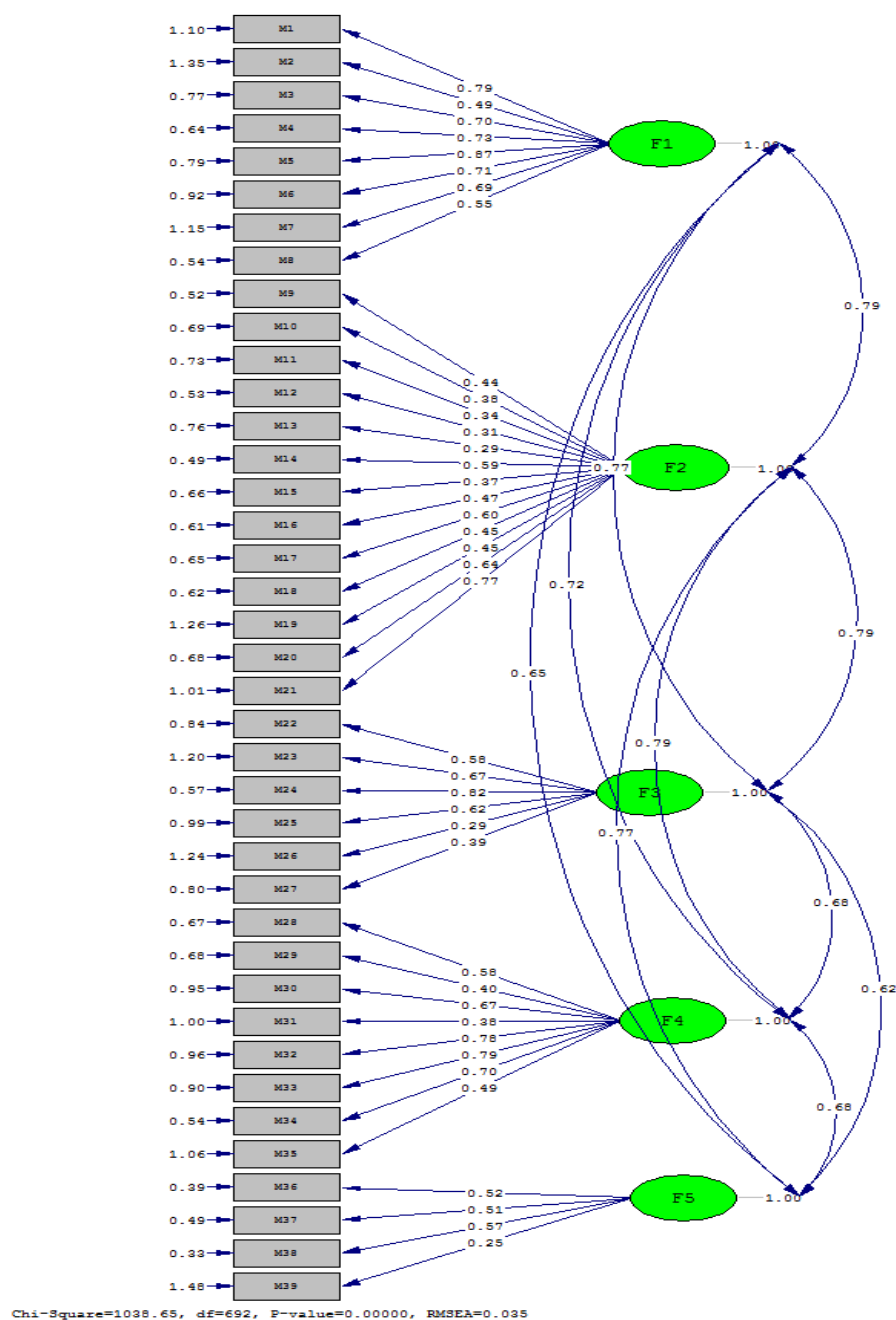
Figure 3.2. Second-order Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The subdimension studying method for factor loadings ranges from .49 to .87; the self-evaluation ranges from .29 to .77; the receiving support ranges from .29 to .82; time management and planning ranges from .38 to .78 and seeking information ranges from .25 to .57.

Jöreskog and Sörbom (1996) stated that the lack of red arrow in the analysis regarding t values indicated that all items were significant at .05 level. In this study, it was found that all items were significant at .05 level as no red arrow was found in terms of t values. The t values obtained as a result of confirmatory factor analysis are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. First-Level Confirmatory Factor Analysis t-Test Values

Items	t Values	Items	t Values	Items	t Values	Items	t Values	Items	t Values
1	55.28	**9**	106.56	**22**	76.11	**28**	88.85	**36**	111.80
2	58.24	**10**	97.19	**23**	60.72	**29**	96.10	**37**	103.46
3	71.29	**11**	91.572	**24**	75.33	**30**	67.50	**38**	113.16
4	77.87	**12**	114.48	**25**	68.56	**31**	77.66	**39**	60.28
5	65.21	**13**	94.70	**26**	66.35	**32**	64.54		
6	66.84	**14**	97.63	**27**	86.18	**33**	65.77		
7	61.45	**15**	99.07			**34**	85.89		
8	94.96	**16**	97.09			**35**	76.02		
		17	85.51						
		18	97.31						
		19	65.03						
		20	81.03						
		21	64.64						

According to the findings in Table 3.4, it was determined that the t value for the items in the Self Regulated Learning Questionnaire changed between 55.28 and 114.48. According to this, all t values obtained in the first level confirmatory factor analysis were found to be significant at .05 level. The excellent and acceptable compliance measures for the fit indices examined in the study and the fit indices obtained from the first and second confirmatory factor analyzes are presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5. Fit Indices and Fit Indices Values Obtained from First-level Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Fit indices	Excellent fit	Acceptable fit	First-level Confirmatory Factor Analysis Fit Indices	Second-level Confirmatory Factor Analysis Fit Indices
RMSEA	$.00 \leq RMSEA < .05$	$.05 \leq RMSEA \leq .08$	0.035	0.035
CFI	$.95 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq CFI < .95$	0.98	0.98
GFI	$.95 \leq GFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq GFI < .95$	0.88	0.88
AGFI	$.90 \leq AGFI < 1.00$	$.85 \leq AGFI < .90$	0.86	0.87
SRMR	$.00 \leq SRMR \leq .05$	$.05 < SRMR \leq .10$	0.048	0.047
NFI	$.95 \leq NFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq NFI < .95$	0.93	0.94
TLI/NNFI	$.97 \leq NNFI \leq 1.00$	$.95 \leq NNFI < .97$	0.98	0.98
χ^2/sd	$0 \leq \chi^2/sd \leq 2$	$\chi^2/sd \leq 8df$	1.50	1.50

According to the results attained, in second level confirmatory factor analysis, it was determined that RMSEA value was 0.035 and SRMR value was 0.047, which are required to be below 0,05 in case that the model fit is ensured. Additionally, it was observed that GFI value was 0,88; AGFI value was 0.87; CFI value was 0.98 and NFI value was 0.94. The acceptable fit value for these indexes is .90 (Seçer, 2013). According to the findings in Table 3.5, it can be seen that the values obtained as a

result of explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis are consistent. This indicates that the construct validity of the Self Regulated Learning Questionnaire is confirmed.

Conclusion and Suggestion

Self regulated learning is a skill that is necessary to be acquired as of early ages (Biemiller, Shany, Inglis, and Meichenbaum, 1998; Bronson, 2000; Perry et al., 2004; Perry, Vande Kamp, Mercer, and Nordby, 2002; Whitebread, 1999). However, when literature is reviewed, it is observed that the researches concerning this skill have been mostly carried out at the level of higher education. Within the scope of this research, in order that students' self-regulated learning skill can be investigated as from the ages of secondary school, developing a scale has been aimed. In this context, the validity and reliability study of Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire, which was developed with the aim of ensuring that relational and experimental studies could be carried out and the related shortage in the literature could be made up, has been performed. The number of items that were first formed as 84 items was reduced to 81 according to the opinions of experts and students. For the scope validity of the draft scale, the findings of the experts were taken and the scale items were revised accordingly. As a result of the pilot application, 17 items were eliminated and the scale was prepared as 64 items. As a result of the AFA, 19 items received load values under multiple factors and there was no difference between these factor loadings at .10 level; five items were excluded from the scale because they did not meet the reliability criteria. In the first level confirmatory factor analysis, the t value of the 40th item was excluded from the scale because it was meaningless at .05 level (t_{40}=47.256). Thus, this Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire is a 39-item, five-point Likert-type scale. The items were graded from 1 to 5 in terms of "totally disagree". As a result of exploratory factor analysis, the scale has 39 items and five factors. These factors are named as "studying method, self-evaluation, receiving support, time management and planning, seeking information". These mentioned five factors clarify the 44,95% of the variance in all scale scores. In terms of the reliability of the scale, Cronbach's Alpha value was estimated. The internal consistency reliability of the whole of Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire (the Cronbach's Alpha) was estimated as .94.

In order that the accuracy of the established structure could be tested, confirmatory factor analysis was performed for the questionnaire obtained. The results obtained from the confirmatory factor analysis also confirm that the questionnaire has a five-dimensional structure (RMSEA=.035; SRMR=.047; CFI=.98; NFI=.94).

In the light of all these explanations, it can be stated that Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire is appropriate to secondary school students. Pursuant to the findings obtained from the validity and reliability study for Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire, it is possible to make some

suggestions. The validity and reliability study of the scale developed within the scope of this research can be tested on different sample groups. Longitudinal and cross-sectional researches can be carried out in order to determine the students' self-regulated learning levels in a more comprehensive manner. Moreover, action researches for enhancing students' self-regulated learning skills can also be designed.

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The Impact of the Perception of Organizational Virtue on the Perception of Organizational Happiness in Educational Organizations

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the impact of organizational virtue perceived by of the employees of educational organizations on the perceived organizational happiness at schools which is their work places. Data collection was conducted through the ”Organizational Virute" (OVS) and "School Organizational Happiness" (SOHS) scales from a group of teachers (N = 242) working at elementary schools. The OVS, used to collect data at the study, has three sub-dimensions as "Optimism, Trust and grace, Integrity and forgiveness" while the SOHS has five sub-dimensions as "Management processes, Professional attitude,   Workplace communication, Devotion and Economic conditions". Results of the correlation tests showed that there is positive associations that are mostly at medium and high levels between all sub dimensions of the OV scale and all sub-dimensions of the SOH scale. Results of the multiple regression analysis demonstrated that some of the sub-dimensions of the SOH scale estimate certain sub-dimensions of the OVS except for the "economic conditions" sub-dimension: The "Optimism" sub-dimension of the OVS estimates the "Trust and Grace" sub-dimension, "Professional attitude" estimates "Communication" whereas the "Honesty and forgiveness" sub-dimension estimates the "Management processes, Professional attitude and Devotion" sub-dimensions. The constant values calculated by the multiple regression analysis for all sub-dimensions are significant indicates that other factors than organizational virtue, that are not covered by this study, also have certain impacts on school organizational happiness.

Keywords: Organizational Virtue, Organizational Happiness, Educational Organizations

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Introduction

The definition of organization at the Business Dictionary is as follows: Organization "is a social unit structured and managed for achieving collective goals or for meeting needs." All organizations have "management structures that determine the relations between its activities and members". Organization management, "subdivides the roles, responsibilities and authorities to fulfill the tasks belonging to the organization and charges its to its employees.". (Business Dictionary). As a matter of fact, the English word *organization* which used as equivalent for the Turkish word *örgüt* etymologically grounds on the Greek word "organon" which means body "organ". Then, the employees of an organization are the organization's organs and they are in mutually vital relationships. Organizations are institutions created by humans and they play a big role in the lives of people (Uysal, 2014). The sustainability of an organization can only be achieved as long as the employees act in line with their duties and responsibilities   (Ertekin, 2017). In that case, in the organic link established between the organization and the employee, namely the human, happiness and virtue that pertain to humans should be discussed and brought forward at organizational level.

Organizational Virtue

Virtue is, "character excellence, moral goodness, unconditional social improvement" (Bright, Cameron & Caza, 2006). These are the features pertaining to the universal ethical dimension of human practice that support the collective welfare and are free from culture and time (Lambek, 2008). These features are considered a matter of principle and are welcomed. In other words, while value reflects what is acceptable in terms of culture and "our subjective interpretation that we attribute to phenomena", virtue refers to universal truth that are individual, yet, reason-made and are belong to humans (Holinger, 1994, Trans. 2005, pp. 91-92). In Organizational life, value generally refers to norms that belong to the organizational culture and accepted (or appreciated) by the organization (Schein, 1985). Although values are often considered "moral compass" for the organization, help for the identification of job outputs, job behaviors, workplace values, limits and rules as a part of organizational culture and are a part of organizational goals (Hoy ve Miskel, 1998, Trans. 2010, p. 167), all that is considered a value for the organization may not necessarily be virtuous. Although the concepts of virtue and value are generally used as synonyms, there is a difference between the two: While virtues are experienced, put into practice and applied in every situation, values are generally the goals that are yearned and hoped to be achieved (Manz, Cameron, Manz & Marx, 2006). Thus, if value is the goal, virtue can be considered the legitimate way leading there.

Virtue provides a satisfactory and beautiful life, a meaningful life goal (Becker, 1992), reason for living (Eisenberg, 1990), emancipation from uncertainty and anxiety (Weiner, 1993, p.127); and all these bring about having a meaningful life and resilience in coping with sufferings while gaining *happiness* and health to the individual   (Myers, 2000; Ryff & Singer, 1998). In terms of organizations,

virtue is their desire to maximize what their employees can achieve. Organizational virtue, on the other hand, is the adoption of virtuousness by all members of an organization, and the members' behaving virtuously in their individual or common behaviors (Eşkin Bacaksız, 2016). Organizational virtue entails all members of the organization to be interested in all sorts of events in the organization, take responsibility and attend all concerted activities (Çınar, 2000; Cited by Kaynak, 2007). This makes a positive effect on the job performance of an individual (Cameron, Bright & Caza, 2004), prevents the formation of any negativity in the organization (Erkmen & Esen, 2012). It provides profit, recognition and reputation to the organization (Fernando & Almeida, 2012). It has been observed that performance and organizational citizenship behaviors of the employees are enhanced in parallel with the virtuous behavior they are subject to (manager virtue) (Eşkin Bacaksız, 2016; Graham & Van Dyne, 2006). Hence, it can be thought that organizational virtue contributes/will contribute to the formation of several positive qualities in organizations.

Virtue is related to what individuals and organizations desire to be when they become the best (Cameron, Bright and Caza, 2004). An organization with a higher level of virtue is more successful. It can better cope with the problems (Durmuş & Ünal, 2017). Organizational virtue is all about the qualities such as organizational wellness, social development, tolerance, honesty and moral well-being and it contributes to the improvement of organizational culture and communication (Çelik & Telman, 2013, pp.225-226). Caza, Barker and Cameron (2004) underline the fact that virtue, together with ethical behaviors, makes buffering and amplifying effects in organizations. Employees of an organization adopting virtuousness work in an honest, understanding and tolerant environment. This makes them feel more respectable (Tsachouridi & Nikandrou, 2016; Akbolat, Durmuş & Ünal, 2017). Organization managers' virtuous behaviors against employees enhances their performance and stimulate them to generate new ideas, and contributes them to better use their skills to fulfill organizational goals (Bertland, 2009; cited by Akbolat, Durmuş & Ünal, 2017). Therefore, it can be argued that both virtuous behaviors of employees and their being subject to virtuous behaviors make positive contributions to the organizational environment as well as performance of the organization.

Organizational Happiness

All individuals within the community want to be happy and happiness is seen as a crucial goal in the community (Diener, 2000; cited by Arslan & Polat, 2017). People have tried to understand, define and acquire happiness since their existence. Indeed, philosophers, theologians, psychologists and even economists have long been working to define happiness. Positive psychology, a branch of psychology since the 1990s, is a science field that tries to render happiness both permanent and prevalent (Peterson & Seligman, 2004, p. 4). Beyond being a mere mood, happiness is a state of well-being, which incorporates a good life (i.e a sense of meaning and deep satisfaction) (Kangal, 2013). Diener (1984) explains happiness as experiencing more positive than negative mood and as having

satisfaction (cited by Sapmaz & Doğan, 2012). In general, happiness is a biological and psychological state that varies from person to person and leads them to be pleased with their lives depending on the material and spiritual satisfaction that they ask for and strive for achieving throughout their lives (Aluş & Selçukkaya, 2015). Happiness is a product of a life indicating good life. The happiness that currently is the basis (core) of social science research, on the other hand, is the subjective indicator of well-being and wellness in all sorts of relationships established with others (spouse, *business*, citizenship...). Myers and Diener (1995) state that one's "relationships, *work experience*, culture and religiousness manifest hints" of his/her wellness. Hence, work place relations contain factors affecting one's happiness.

The hedonic take on happiness views it as a product/sum of pleasant emotions and positive judgements. Happiness is related to the presence of life satisfaction and positive mood. "it is the sum of past, present and future pleasures" (Türkeri, 2017, p.30). Eudaimonic approach, on the other hand, operationalizes happiness with *virtue* and views it as doing what is morally right and is meaningful and right for oneself (Ryan & Deci 2001; Ryff & Singer 2008). According to Maenapothi (2007), organizational happiness refers to positive situations at the work place where the employees are *happy* while working, their productivity is enhanced and both employees and the organization reach the planned targets (Cited by Güner & Çetinkaya Bozkurt, 2017). While the Hedonic view relates *organizational happiness* (workplace happiness) with the sense or judgement of being happy or unhappy with the job, according to the eudaimonic perspective, workplace happiness is associated with self-validation and self-actualization (Fisher, 2010). Since integrity, mutual respect, compassion and forgiveness culture come forward in organizations where organizational virtue is stimulated, employees of such organizations will more easily realize self-validation and self-actualization and reach their targets, and thus, their happiness will be ensured. As a matter of fact, a job is not all about earning money, but at the same time, doing a job brings about pride, satisfaction, success, being beneficial to the society through the job performed, namely opportunities to be happy (Türkay, 2015).

Workplace happiness and its extent is a subject matter that management science has been working on since the 1930s. The impact of organizational happiness, which is defined as the well-being of the employee from an organizational standpoint, on productivity, loyalty, job satisfaction, emotional commitment, job performance and employee welfare and has been studied since the 1930s and its positive effects have been found (Atkinson & Hall, 2011; Cameron, Bright & Caza, 2006; Chun, 2009; Işık, Çetinkaya & Işık, 2015; İşcan & Sayın, 2010; Sonmezer & Eryaman, 2008; Terzi, 2017; Zelenski, Murphy & Jenkins, 2008…). By the same token, organizational happiness have crucially positive impacts on other job-related indicators such as customer satisfaction, profitability, employee turnover and absenteeism (Güner & Bozkurt, 2017; Robertson & Cooper, 2011; Sisley, 2010…). Organizational happiness makes employees cope with all problems that will negatively affect

the functional activities that will take the employees to the goals of the organization and render them successful (Arslan & Polat, 2017; Bulut, 2015; İşcan & Sayın, 2010).

Given competition among organizations, it is inevitable for organizations to mobilize all elements that will enhance their employees' performance in order to establish superiority (Cankül, Kılıç & Doğantekin, 2018). If organizational happiness positively affects job performance and work place relations, and if one of the main sources of organizational happiness is the virtuous behaviors of its employees; it is thought that the impact of organizational virtue on organizational happiness should be studied in educational organizations, that are expected to exhibit ethical, in other words, virtuous behaviors to the greatest extent.

Method

In this study, quantitative research method was administered in order to verify the impact of organizational virtue on organizational happiness and a survey was conducted for this purpose. The survey method, which is used more in social sciences, is a broadly-participated type of research in which opinions or attitudes of people on a certain phenomenon or event are collected through a scale or questionnaire (Karakaya, 2014).

Study Group

The population of the study consists of teachers working at the basic education (preschool, primary school, elementary school) schools of Giresun province as of the 2017-2018 academic year (N = 3377). Since it was not possible to reach all teachers in the study, sampling was applied and stratified sampling method was adopted to represent the population. Cochran's (1962, cited by Balcı, 2004, p. 95) formula for calculating stratified sample size was used in the calculation of the size of sample representing the population and the tolerance level was taken as.05, the confidence level was taken as 1.96. In this context, it was calculated that the population selected within the scope of the study can be represented with 357 people. A total of 450 questionnaire forms were sent to the field to ensure a sufficient response rate. However, since 242 volunteers filled in the survey, the study was completed with the data collected from this study group of 242 people.

Data Collection Tools

In the study, a survey questionnaire that consists of three parts was prepared to identify the impact of teachers' perceived level of organizational virtue on their perceived organizational happiness. In the first part of the survey, a personal information form created by the authors including questions related to participants' gender, seniority, duration of service at the current institution, type of current school and tenure state was used to collect demographic information; in the second and third

parts the Organizational Virtue Scale and Organizational Happiness Scale were used respectively. Details related to the scales both of which are of Likert-type are presented below.

Organizational Virtue Scale (OVS): The scale, which was developed by Cameron, Bright and Caza (2004) and was adapted to Turkish by Erkmen and Esen (2012), has 15 items. The original form of the scale involves five sub-dimensions as: optimism trust, compassion, integrity and forgiveness. *The Optimism dimension* indicates the faith of the members of an organization in doing good things and being successful even if they encounter challenges; *The Trust dimension* indicates the respect, reliance held for and grace exhibited to the organization and its members; *The Compassion dimension* indicates individuals' taking care of and behaving merciful to one another; *The Integrity dimension* indicates dignity and truthfulness; *The Forgiveness dimension*, indicates the perception that mistakes can be forgiven and be viewed as opportunities (Cameron Bright & Caza, 2004). Optimism, trust, compassion, integrity and forgiveness are considered *positive deviation* situations in organizations (Çelik and Telman, 2013, p. 225). However, Erkmen and Esen (2012) who adapted the survey questionnaire to Turkish culture found that the survey demonstrates a three-dimensional structure in Turkish culture. These sub-dimensions are: *Integrity and forgiveness, Trust and grace, and Optimism*. Erkmen and Esen (2012) completed the adaptation of the OVS with a group of participants from education, banking and health sectors. These scholars found that the internal consistency value for the entire scale was .944; and when it comes to the sub-dimensions, the values were .927 for integrity and forgiveness; .869 for trust and grace and .819 for optimism. The internal consistency values for this study are .966, .887, .879 and .955 respectively. Reliability coefficients between .70 and.90 are considered "high reliability" for scales (Özdamar, 2013, p. 555).

The School Organizational Happiness Scale (SOHS): was developed by Bulut (2015). The SOHS has five sub-dimensions as: Management processes, Professional attitude, Workplace communication, Devotion and Economic conditions and the scale involves 38 phrases on these sub-dimensions. The internal consistency values of the scale, which was developed for educational organizations, were calculated by Bulut (2015) as .92 for the overall scale and .930 (Management processes), .853 (Professional attitude), .770 (Workplace communication), .720 (Devotion), and .700 (Economic conditions) for the sub-dimensions. For this study, these values were found as .960, .976, .907,.911, .849, and .662 respectively. Reliability coefficients between .70 and .90 are considered "high", .69 and .40 are considered "medium" level for scales (Özdamar, 2013, p. 555).

Data Analyses

SPSS v23 and STATA statistical programs were used for the data analyses in the study. The normality assumption was checked for the data to investigate the impact of organizational virtue perceived by educational organization employees at schools which is their workplaces, on their level

of perceived organizational happiness, however, the first round of analyses (the screening of closeness of the mean, median and mode values to each other, and of whether the division of the curtosis and skewness values by their standard errors falls within the range of ± 1.96) run on the dataset showed that the normality requirement was not met in this dataset. The dataset was re-screened and it was found that the responses of 11 participants involved outliers. These outliers were depicted from the dataset. Thus, the analyses were run with the responses of 231 participants.

Findings

When the demographic characteristics of the participants were examined, the teachers in the sample were mostly male (52.5%), teaching for 21 years and over (35.5%), at elementary schools (50.8%) working with 41 to 60 people (52.9%) and working at the same school for 2 to 5 years (33.1%).

The results of Pearson Correlation Coefficient analyses run between the sub-dimensions of the OVS and the SOHS are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The relationship between organizational virtue and organizational happiness

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Optimism	r	1									
	p										
2. Trs.andGrc.	r	.695**	1								
	p	.000									
3.Int.andFgn.	r	.771**	.803**	1							
	p	.000	.000								
4. Management	r	.677**	.678**	.843**	1						
	p	.000	.000	.000							
5. Prof. Attitude	r	.586**	.565**	.650**	.723**	1					
	p	.000	.000	.000	.000						
6. Communication	r	.567**	.624**	.643**	.649**	.709**	1				
	p	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000					
7. Devotion	r	.410**	.400**	.510**	.552**	.532**	.498**	1			
	p	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000				
8. Eco.Cond.	r	.174**	.173**	.218**	.252**	.194**	.293**	.083	1		
	p	.008	.008	.001	.000	.003	.000	.208			
9.V. TOT.	r	.862**	.875**	.978**	.831**	.664**	.667**	.501**	.215**	1	
	p	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001		
10.H.TOT	r	.684**	.685**	.828**	.951**	.832**	.774**	.651**	.417**	.824**	1
	p	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

**.p <0.01; n = 231

When Table 1 is examined, it was seen that there are all positive correlations that are statistically significant at .01 alpha level between all sub-dimensions of the OVS (Optimism, Trust and Grace, Integrity and Forgiveness) and the sub-dimensions ofthe SOHS (Management processes, Professional attitude, Workplace communication, Devotion, Economic conditions).

The sub-dimensions of the OVS exhibit the highest correlations between each other and the scale total. The "optimism" sub-dimension of organizational virtue has high correlations with the "Virtue Total" (r =.862, p<. 01) and "Integrity and Forgiveness", another sub dimension of organizational virtue, (r =. 771, p < .01); and medium level correlation with the "Trust and grace" sub-dimension (r = .695, p< .01), the "Optimism" sub-dimension has medium level correlations with the "Management" (r=.677, p<.01), "Professional Attitude" (r=.586, p<.01), "Communication" (r=.567, p<.01), "Devotion" (r=.410, p<.01) sub-dimensions of the SOHS while it has a weak correlation with the "Economic conditions" sub-dimension (r= .174, p< .01).

the "Trust and grace" sub-dimension of the OVS has high correlations with the "Virtue Total" (r =.875, p<. 01) and "Integrity and Forgiveness" (r =. 803, p < .01); medium level correlations with "Happiness Total"(r = .685, p< .01), the "Management" (r = .678, p< .01), "Communication" (r=.624, p<.01), "Professional Attitude" (r=.565, p<.01), "Devotion" (r=.400, p<.01)sub-dimensions and a weak correlation with the "Economic conditions" sub-dimension (r= .173, p< .01).

The "Integrity and Forgiveness" sub-dimension of the OVS has high correlations with the "Virtue Total" (r =.978, p<. 01), "Management" (r = .843, p< .01) and "Happiness Total"(r = .828, p< .01); medium level correlations with , the , "Professional Attitude" (r=.650, p<.01), "Communication" (r=.643, p<.01), "Devotion" (r=.510, p<.01) sub-dimensions and a weak correlation with the "Economic conditions" sub-dimension (r= .218, p< .01).

The "Management" sub-dimension of the SOHS has high correlations with the "Happiness Total" (r =.951, p<. 01), "Virtue Total" (r = .831, p< .01) and "Professional Attitude"(r = .723, p< .01); medium level correlations with "Communication" (r=.649, p<.01), "Devotion" (r=.552, p<.01) and a weak correlation with the "Economic conditions" sub-dimension (r= .252, p< .01).

The "Professional Attitude" sub-dimension of the SOHS has high correlations with the "Happiness Total" (r =.832, p<. 01) and "Communication" (r = .709, p< .01); medium level correlations with "Virtue Total" (r=.664, p<.01) and "Devotion" (r=.532, p<.01) and a weak correlation with the "Economic conditions" sub-dimension (r= .194, p< .01).

The "Communication" sub-dimension of the SOHS has a high correlation with the "Happiness Total" (r =.774, p<. 01); medium level correlations with "Virtue Total" (r=.667, p<.01) and

"Devotion" (r=.798, p<.01) and a weak correlation with the "Economic, conditions" sub-dimension (r= .293, p< .01).

The "Devotion" sub-dimension of the SOHS has medium level correlations with the "Happiness Total" (r =.651, p<. 01) and "Virtue Total" (r=.501, p<.01) while it has no correlation with the "Economic conditions" sub-dimension (r= .083, p> .01).

The "Economic conditions" sub-dimension of the SOHS has weak correlations with the "Happiness Total" (r =.417, p<. 01) and "Virtue Total" (r=.215, p<.01). There is a high correlation between "Happiness Total" and "Virtue Total" (r=.824, p<.01).

Whether the participants' opinions on organizational virtue significantly estimate their opinions on organizational happiness was also analyzed in the study. The following formulas were tested in a single analysis with multivariate regression.

$$Y_{Management} = b_0 + b_{Optimism}X_{Optimism} + b_{Trust\ and\ Grace}X_{Trust\ and\ Grace} + b_{Integrity\ and\ Forgiveness}X_{Integrity\ and\ Forgiveness} + \varepsilon$$

$$Y_{Prof.Attitude} = b_0 + b_{Optimism}X_{Optimism} + b_{Trust\ and\ Grace}X_{Trust\ and\ Grace} + b_{Integrity\ and\ Forgiveness}X_{Integrity\ and\ Forgiveness} + \varepsilon$$

$$Y_{Communication} = b_0 + b_{Optimism}X_{Optimism} + b_{Trust\ and\ Grace}X_{Trust\ and\ Grace} + b_{Integrity\ and\ Forgiveness}X_{Integrity\ and\ Forgiveness} + \varepsilon$$

$$Y_{Devotion} = b_0 + b_{Optimism}X_{Optimism} + b_{Trust\ and\ Grace}X_{Trust\ and\ Grace} + b_{Integrity\ and\ Forgiveness}X_{Integrity\ and\ Forgiveness} + \varepsilon$$

$$Y_{Eko.Conditions} = b_0 + b_{Optimism}X_{Optimism} + b_{Trust\ and\ Grace}X_{Trust\ and\ Grace} + b_{Integrity\ and\ Forgiveness}X_{Integrity\ and\ Forgiveness} + \varepsilon$$

The result of the analysis is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. The impact of organizational virtue on organizational happiness

Model		B	Std. Error	t	p	R^2	F	p
Management	Constant	15.45	2.66	5.81	0.000			
	Optimism	0.35	0.29	1.20	0.231	0.71	185.15	0.000
	Trust and Grace	-0.07	0.34	-0.20	0.838			
	Integrity and Forgiveness	1.45	0.12	11.58	0.000			
Professional Attitude	Constant	26.02	1.23	21.18	0.000			
	Optimism	0.33	0.13	2.43	0.016	0.44	59.16	0.000
	Trust and Grace	0.15	0.16	0.93	0.352			
	Integrity and Forgiveness	0.26	0.06	4.54	0.000			
Communication	Constant	8.67	0.69	12.46	0.000			
	Optimism	0.12	0.08	1.59	0.114	0.45	62.17	0.000
	Trust and Grace	0.29	0.09	3.29	0.001			
	Integrity and Forgiveness	0.11	0.03	3.42	0.001			
Devotion	Constant	9.34	0.94	9.97	0.000			
	Optimism	0.05	0.10	0.52	0.604	0.26	26.33	0.000
	Trust and Grace	-0.04	0.12	-0.37	0.714			
	Integrity and Forgiveness	0.19	0.04	4.53	0.000			
Economic conditions	Constant	10.14	1.42	7.16	0.000			
	Optimism	0.02	0.15	0.14	0.889	0.05	3.69	0.013
	Trust and Grace	-0.02	0.18	-0.09	0.927			
	Integrity and Forgiveness	0.11	0.07	1.70	0.091			

Given the "F" statistics of the ANOVA and their p values in Table 2, the regression models established for the five sub-dimensions of the organizational happiness scale were found to be significant (p< .05). Therefore, it was concluded that the regression models were appropriate and the impacts of estimators could be analyzed.

It is seen that the constant term was significant for the "Management, Professional attitude, Communication and Devotion" sub-dimensions of the Organizational Happiness Scale; moreover, only the constant term is significant for the "Economical conditions" sub-dimension (p < .05). This situation can be interpreted as, other variables that are not included in the model have impacts on the "Management, Professional attitude, Communication and Devotion" sub-dimensions of the Organizational Happiness Scale.

The "Integrity and forgiveness" sub-dimension of Organizational Virtue is the significant estimator of the "Management and Devotion" sub-dimensions of Organizational Happiness; the "Optimism" and "Integrity and forgiveness" sub-dimensions are the significant estimators of the "Professional attitude" sub-dimension of Organizational Happiness; and the "Trust and grace" and

"Integrity and forgiveness" sub-dimensions are the significant estimators of the "communication" sub-dimension of Organizational Happiness (p < .05).

Conclusion and Discussion

According to Atatürk, teachers are the architects of the new generation and they guide the society (Orakçı & Toraman, 2018). According to Claparede, "The most important virtue of the teacher is not to be very knowledgeable but to be enthusiastic." (cited by Akyüz, 1983, p.16). Avicenna stresses that teachers should be people who do not conform to the wishes of their egos, avoid excessive anger, greed and ambition and are fearless (Cited by Özkan, 2005). In the profession of teaching where virtue is accepted as an ethical principle, Sockett (1993) states that being "fair, honest, bold, wise and caring" are the core virtues of teaching practices. Teachers working at virtuous organizations, i.e, in an honest, tolerant and understanding environments, are expected to bear more positive feelings for their organizations. As a result of this, members of virtuous organizations were seen to be happier. Indeed, the results of this study show that there are positive associations between organizational virtue and organizational happiness in educational organizations. Given these associations, which are mostly medium or high level, while there is a medium level relationship between the economic conditions sub-dimension of organizational happiness and the aggregate organizational happiness variable, it has a weak association with the aggregate organizational virtue variable. Bulut (2015) found negative association between economic conditions and organizational happiness in the study exploring the factors related to organizational happiness among teachers in Turkey. Obviously, the "wage and fringe benefits" factor that takes place in the list of elements that provide job satisfaction prepared by Spector (1997; cited by Adıgüzel & Keklik, 2011) is merely weakly associated with organizational happiness of teachers in Turkey. In Turkey, teachers working at schools affiliated to the Ministry of National Education are employed as either tenured civil servants or contracted employees, or hired temporarily on course fee; the teachers who are tenured civil servants earn a permanent salary and have certain employee personal rights (health insurance, social benefits, retirement etc...) Teacher salaries are determined and paid pursuant to the criteria proposed by the civil servants Act (1965) in the country. Income from teaching in Turkey, is lower than the income from work the same work in many other countries in the world (Malta Union of Teachers, 2008, Cited by Göker & Gündüz, 2017). Results of this study show that economic conditions which is a sub-dimension of organizational happiness has a weak association with perceived organizational virtue in educational organizations and that none of the sub-dimensions of organizational virtue is an estimator of economic conditions as a sub-dimension of organizational happiness.

According to the results of the study: the "optimism sub-dimension of organizational virtue which indicates the faith of the members of an organization in doing good things and being successful despite they confront with challenges, has a medium level association with all sub-dimensions of

organizational happiness except for economic conditions. "Optimism" "is also an estimator of the "Professional attitude" sub-dimension of organizational happiness. Results of Sapmaz and Dogan's (2012) study also show that optimism is an estimator of happiness and life satisfaction among a group of university students. Chun (2009) found strong associations between the perceived empathy, warmness and conscientiousness and job commitment, perceived job security, satisfaction and emotional commitment among employees. The scholar especially recommends strengthening the virtues of empathy and warmness that are the key elements of emotional commitment to the organization.

The "Trust and grace" sub-dimension of organizational virtue that indicates the respect, trust and caring shown to the organization and its members, has medium-level associations with the "Management, Professional attitude, Communication and Devotion" sub-dimensions and a low-level association with the "economic conditions" sub-division; and it is an estimator of the "Communication" sub-division. This result of the study shows that the virtuous behaviors that are based on trust and grace enhance the communication in the organization and this, then, affects organizational happiness in educational organizations. Study results of Kırık and Sönmez (2017) show that the concepts of communication and happiness have a mutual relationship. Trust is positively associated with perceived justice and job satisfaction in an organization (İşcan & Sayın, 2010). In educational organizations, trust bolsters sensitivity, communication and openness to innovation amongst teachers (Memduhoğlu & Zengin, 2011).

The "Integrity and forgiveness" sub-dimension of organizational virtue that refers to dignity, righteousness, toleration of mistakes and the perception that mistakes can be utilized as opportunities is an estimator of the "Management processes, Professional attitude and Devotion" sub-dimensions of organizational happiness. Akbolat, Durmuş and Önal's (2017) study results analyzing the "impact of authentic leadership in the impact of organizational virtue on employee empowerment" show that organizational virtue makes positive contributions to employees in "employee empowerment, which refers to designating authority, power and responsibility to the employees and allowing them to freely express their opinions". These results are supported by the study results of Işık, Çetinkaya and Işık (2017) on a group of female employees who work in accommodation facilities. The results of Janssen's (2004) study on teachers, on the other hand, show that disputes between teachers and their managers spread to their relationships with other teachers and such an interaction affects the organizational commitment of the teacher.

Comeron (2003) states that in a continuum indicating the differences between social science phenomena, the negative deviations of health, effectiveness, helpfulness, and ethics manifest themselves as illness, ineffectiveness, harmfulness and unethical behaviors whereas the positive deviations of these phenomena are wellness, excellence, honoring and *virtuousness* respectively (p.

53, cited by Bright, Cameron & Caza, 2006). In sum, virtuous behaviors are positive deviations of ethical behaviors. Van Nuland (2009) categorizes the principles of professional ethics in terms of the teaching profession into two as regulatory, i.e,. deontological, and aspirational principles. While the regulatory principles involve situations the borders of which are determined by professional ethics and that entail penalty or professional exclusion unless abided by (Banks, 2003), the aspirational principles give inspiration to the employees so that they can fulfill their professional ideals (i.e., fairness, justice, righteousness) (Foster, 2012). In that case, virtue, in terms of educational organizations, is the source of inspiration for the realization of the ideals of the teaching profession. The results of this study show that management of the perceived integrity, forgiving, assuring, kind and optimistic attitudes in educational organizations affect professional attitudes, commitment to the profession and communication, and renders teachers happy at their work. The fact that the constant values calculated by the multiple regression analysis for all sub-dimensions are significant indicates that other factors than organizational virtue, that are not covered by this study, also have certain impact on school organizational happiness and that these should be explored as well.

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Investigation of Communication Levels of the Coaches in Some Branches of Individual and Team Sports through the Perceptions of the Athletes in Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is measuring the communication skills of the coaches coaching in individual and team sports through perceptions of athletes and the effect of success through perception of the athletes. The focus of the research is the communication between the two main groups of the study, the athletes who are competing in individual and team sports and their coaches. The study includes determination of the effects of demographic specifications of these groups in the communication between them, training times of athletes and his/her coach on the skills of communication of the coach over the athlete and the communication skills of the coach on the athletes' success by the perception of athlete. At the end of the study, the communication skills of coaches will be more effective in the individual sports, a lower education level of the athletes provides better communication development between them and their coaches, and women coaches developing better communication has been observed.

Keywords: Coach Communication skills, Coach Athlete communication, Communication skills, Sport

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Introduction

In this fast and developing social world, a human's communication skills importance are boosted in daily life and work environments by increasing communication possibilities and expanding their environment to describe him/herself with the skill of transferring their own feelings, wishes, thoughts. With this connection, the people who are improved themselves, may find more success by defining themselves with the communication skills they developed in their social formation and professional life. Communication is transferring of information clearly to the receiver. If one the elements of these are missing: sender, receiver and message, this breaks the communication (Sullivan, Philip, 2004. Communication Differences between Male and Female Team Sport Athletes).

In their research, Esfahani, M. and M. Bayat, (2011), indicate a lack of skills in communication leads to cost increases and definitely will reduce the effectiveness. Communication skills of a leader or manager in professional life using effective techniques with the personnel under their supervision, shows the support in corporate or professional success in many researches. In Poczwardowski (2002)'s work, "successful managers in the organizational goals in trouble shooting pre projected thoughts, conduct, control and change employee behaviour process and are considering individual differences and develop human communication in today's world and cultural differences in different societies requires extensive research.". "Through effective leadership communication to build bridges with words and performance, past and present to inspire a vision about the future are connected" (Mathis, Rick, 2007. Building bridges through effective communication).

Through many researches, the importance of interpersonal communication in sports as a social occupation emphasized (Graham, Jennifer Lyn, 1998. An Analysis of Sport Managers interpersonal communication skill in selected Ontario amateur sport organizations; Sullivan, Philip, 2004. Communication Differences between Male and Female Team Sport Athletes; İdris Yılmaz, 2008. Sporcu Algılarına göre, Farklı Spor Branşlarındaki Antrenörlerin Liderlik Davranışlarının Analizi ve İletisim Beceri Düzeyleri).

Considering athlete performance, there are many factors effective such as relations in the club, motivation, right direction, and enhancing excitement. In accordance, the special case of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, the sport community of the country and their intercommunication should be investigated too. As well as the factors listed above, embargoes applied by foreign countries, political debates and applied politics, necessary and enough developments have not been established in the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus. Hence, in many individual and team sport branches, achievements and improvements stays at the amateur level and cannot reach the professional level. The factors discussed above led to the underdevelopment of sport and sport activities in Turkish

Republic of Northern Cyprus. Hence, the athletes and coaches conditions worsened and athletes learning techniques of their specific sport branch were underdeveloped.

At the same time, professional athlete and coach training stagnated with limited possibilities with the borders of Turkish Republic of North Cyprus. Also, there is underdevelopment of in-saloon sports in the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus because of inequities in the budget distribution between sport federations. 60% of the sport budget goes to football, 20% goes to the remaining 32 sport federations and 20% goes to school sports and other payments. However, the development of the skill level of athletes interested in in-saloon sports is underdeveloped, and has no doubt become an obstacle to training of potential athletes.

Unfortunately due to the small amount of research on the topic of improving athletes and their performance in Turkish Republic of North Cyprus, I believe this research would be a significant source for the future research and studies on this topic. The purpose of this research is to investigate communication between first division athletes and their coaches in individual and team sports in the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus and measuring it by their own revelations. This research was conducted with 303 licensed athletes who are in their sport branches' first divisions in Turkish Republic of North Cyprus.

Method

Sampling

In order to determine coaching communication skills and its effect on athlete success by athletes' perceptions, descriptive scanning methodology has been adopted. Research is on first division athletes in individual sports as table tennis, badminton, athletics, kickboxing, fencing and team sports as football, basketball, volleyball, handball in the 2012-2013 academic year in the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus. Accordingly, the licensed athletes within boundaries of the four districts of Northern Cyprus (Nicosia, Kyrenia District, Guzelyurt and Famagusta) are covered in the study. Due to costs, time constraints and control difficulty, no licensed athletes of the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus are covered and thus a group sampling method chosen. Hence it is not possible to adopt probability sampling method, simple random sampling method through interviews with 303 athletes.

Data Collecting methodology

This research, the tool for collecting data is a survey form which consists of two parts. In the first part, there are questions aimed to defining the athletes' and their coaches' demographic specifications. In the second part, there is "Coach Communication Skills Measure" developed by Yılmaz (2008) to measure the coaches communication skills by athletes' perceptions.

The survey form developed by the researcher consists of the following questions to be answered by the athletes: The sport they play, gender, age, marital status, training time with current coach, success rate of individual or teams in the last five years, coach's age group, education level, experience in years.

In the second part of the survey form, the questions ask the athletes to measure the communication skills of their coaches according to the athlete's perception. The measure developed by Yılmaz (2008) consists of 48 items likert typed and used five types for pointing: "Never", "Rarely", "Sometimes", "Often" and "Always". When assigning points; "Never", choice gets 1 point, "Rarely" choice gets 2 points, "Sometimes" choice gets 3 points, "Often" choice gets 4 points and "Always" choice gets 5 points.

After conducting factor analysis, the framework validity will be accepted due to the correlation variability between 0,44 and 0,86 of the measure used. The measure accepted confident by finding croanbach alfa value to measure the trustworthiness of the survey as 0,92 with preliminary study and application to 40 athletes.

Analysis of Data

The data obtained from the survey form, error cleaning (editing) process has been applied on the data collected after being transferred to a computer. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 15.0 for Windows Evaluation edition has been used for data analysis.

From the results of confidence analysis, the croanbach alfa coefficient determined as 0, 96 and the measurement accepted as confident. To determine the hypothesis tests to use in statistical analysis, the Kolmogrov-Smirnov test has been applied to see if the data set shows normal distribution. At the end of test, the data set shows the normal distribution and parametric hypothesis tests was used. The frequency tables have been used to determine the demographics of athletes and coaches who were interviewed.

To determine the athletes' answers for the Coach Communication skills scale, defining statistics are given such as frequency tables, averages and standard deviation values.

To compare the answers of athletes for the Coach Communication skills scale by demographic specifications, parametric hypothesis tests such as the t test(student t test) and Variance analysis (ANOVA) have been used. The Sheffe Test has been applied to determine the source of variables which caused differences between averages according to Variance analysis results. Finally, Chi square test has been used to determine the success situation with their own perception by athletes' demographic specifications.

Findings

Table 1. Distribution of athletes by their demographic specifications.

	Number	Percentage
Gender		
Female	127	41,91
Male	176	58,09
Age Group		
18 yrs old and below	117	38,61
Between 19-24	124	40,92
25 yrs old and above	62	20,46
EducationLevel		
Secondary School	49	16,17
High School	99	32,67
University	155	51,16
Marital status		
Married	28	9,24
Single	275	90,76
Total	303	100,00

Table 1 shows the distribution of the athletes by their demographic specifications.

When Table 1has been analysed, the age groups has been observed as: The athletes who join the research are %41,91 female and %58,09 male,the age group of 18 years old and below percentage is 38,61 %, between 19-24 years old is 40,92 % and25 years old and above is 20,46 %.The athletes who join the research has education levels as :16,17%graduate of secondary school, 32,67 % graduate of high school and 51,16%graduate of university and athletes marital status shows that only 9,24 % are married.

Table 2. Distribution of athletes by their sport activity

	Number	Percentage
Sport		
Team	203	67,00
Individual	100	33,00
Sport Branch		
Football	72	23,76
Volleyball	45	14,85
Handball	40	13,20
Basketball	46	15,18
Athletics	24	7,92
Table Tennis	24	7,92
Kick box	24	7,92
Badminton	28	9,24

When Table 2 checked, it shows that 67% in team sports and33 % are in individual sports. According to research, when their sport branches analyses %23,76 of them are playing football, %14.85 of them are playing volleyball, %13.20 of them are playing handball, %15,18 of them are playing basketball, %7,92 of them are interested in athletics, %7,92 of them are playing table tennis and interested in kick box and %9,24 of them are playing badminton.

Table 3. Distribution of athletes' Coaches specificationand Coaches' training hours with athletes

	Number	Percentage
Gender		
Female	50	16,50
Male	253	83,50
Age Group		
30 yrs old and below	30	9,90
Between 31-40	166	54,79
41 yrs old or above	107	35,31
Experience		
5 years and below	81	26,73
Between 6-10 years	130	42,90
11 years and above	92	30,36
Sport Education		
Educated	144	47,52
No Education	159	52,48
Training time with athlete		
Less than 1 year	40	13,20
Between 1-2 years	138	45,54
Between 3-4 years	71	23,43
5 years and above	54	17,82
Total	303	100,00

When Table 3analysed, it has been seen that 16,50 % of athletes training with female coaches and 83,50 % training with male coaches. When looking to age groups of coaches it is seen that; 9,90 % is 30 years old or below , %54,79 between 31-40 years old and %35,31is 41 years old and above. 26,73 % of the coaches of athletes has 5 years and less thantraining as coach, 42,90 % of between 6-10 yearshas experience and30,36 %of them has experience 11 yearsand above. The Coaches of athletes education situation is as: 47,52 % of them are graduated from sport academy and took professional education to be a coach,52,48 % did not take any education to perform as a coach. When we look to the data to see training times together as coach and athlete; 13,20 % is training with their current coach less than 1 year, 45,54 % is training with current coach between 1-2 years, %23,43is training between 3-4 years togetherand 17,82 %is training together 5 yearsand above.

Table 4. Distribution ofAthletes success situation by their own definition.

	Number	Percentage
Success Situation		
Successful	241	79,54
Average	33	10,89
Unsuccessful	29	9,57

In Table 4.it is observed that %79,54of athletes defines themselves as successful in their sport branch, %10,89 of them defines his/herself as average and %9,57 sees him/herself as unsuccessful.

Table 5. Comparison of the points for Coach Communication skills measure by Athletes Demographic specifications

	n	X	Ss	t/F	p	Tukey
Gender						
Female	127	190,50	36,50	0,74	0,46	
Male	176	187,67	29,88			
Age Group						
18 years old and below	117	194,98	29,58	3,58	0,03*	1-3
Between 19-24	124	186,06	33,51			
25 years old and above	62	182,90	35,65			
Education Level						
Secondary School	49	187,61	25,83	7,57	0,00*	2-3
High School	99	198,88	28,27			
University	155	182,85	35,93			
Marital Status						
Married	28	184,04	38,24	-0,82	0,41	
Single	275	189,35	32,22			

When Table 5 analysed, according to the surveyed athletes, gender of them on difference between the mean scores of Coach Communication Skills Scale total were not statistically significant (p> 0.05).

When the results of the variance analysis that used for comparison of Coach communication skills scale total score means according to athletes age groups was analysed;its observed that between the athletes' and coach communication skills scale score means by athletes age groups, there is statistically significantly different(p<0,05). By the results of the conducted Tukey test, according to age groups, Coach Communication skills scale score differences are caused by the athletes of age group 18 years old and below and age group 25 years old and above. The athletes of the age group 18 years old and below are scored better on Coach Communication skills scale than the age group 25 years old and above.

By the conducted variance analysis, it's observed that there is statistically significant difference on Coach Communication skills scale total score means by education level of athletes. (p<0,05). As a result of latter conducted advanced analysis, it is found that this difference originated between the groups High school graduates and university graduates.High school graduates scored higher results than university graduates on Coach Communication skills scale.

Table 6. Comparison of the Coach Communication skills scale scores according to athletes sport branches

	N	X	Ss	t/F	P	Tukey
Sport						
Team	203	184,23	32,88	-3,57	0,00*	
Individual	100	198,25	30,68			
Sport Branch						
Football	72	176,60	28,21	5,37	0,00*	1-4,1-5,
Volleyball	45	178,16	35,65			1-8, 2-5,
Handball	40	192,58	35,82			2-8
Basketball	46	194,87	30,57			
Athletics	24	206,67	21,57			
Table Tennis	24	191,00	29,22			
Kickbox	24	185,46	31,67			
Badminton	28	208,21	33,38			

In Table 6 The result shows that Coach Communication skills scale total score averages for individual sports athletes is higher than team sport athletes.

Investigation of the averages of the Coach Communication skills scale total score by sport branches shows that: with variation analysis outcomes, there is statistically significant difference in the means of the Coach communication skills scale scores by sports branches (p<0,05). Conducted Tukey test was determined which sports athletes are the reason for this difference, results shows that; the average scores of the coach communication skills scale for football branch athletes is lower than basketball, athletics and badminton sport branch players` score averages.Also, volleyball sport branch players` score averages for coach communication skills scale is less than athletics and badminton sports athletes.

Table 7. Athletes` Comparison of Coach Communication skills scale scores according tocoaches specifications

	N	X	Ss	t/F	P	Tukey
CoachGender						
Female	50	198,66	32,56	2,33	0,02*	
Male	253	187,00	32,59			
Age Group						
30 years old and below	30	200,33	34,08	6,22	0,00*	1-3,2-3
Between 31-40	166	192,09	30,94			
41 years old and above	107	180,63	33,67			
Professional Experience						
5 years and below	81	187,48	32,70	0,38	0,68	
Between 6-10 years	130	190,75	31,33			
11 years and above	92	187,39	35,04			
Sport Education						
Educated	144	193,14	32,51	2,18	0,03*	
No Education	159	184,98	32,66			
Training time with coach						
Less than 1 year	40	192,70	30,13	0,44	0,72	
Between 1-2 years	138	186,96	32,41			
Between 3-4 years	71	190,96	33,46			
5 years and above	54	188,11	35,19			

Table 7 shows that there is statistically significant difference in the score averages of coach communication skills scale for gender of athletes coaches (p<0,05). Also the score means of athletes who are training with female coaches is higher than athletes' training with male coach.

It is found there is a statistically difference for athletes total score means of Coach Communication skills scale by age group of Athletes' coaches. (p<0,05). This difference originated from the athletes who are working with coaches aged 30 years old and below. In this group of 30 years old and below, they have achieved higher scores than other athletes' coaches age groups in Coach Communication skills scale.

By the results of the research, here are some few findings:

• Duration for training with same coach is 1-2 years generally (%45,54).

• Most of the athletes between 31-40 years old (%54,79).

• Most of the athletes assume themselves successful (%79,54).

- Athletes in individual sports gave higher scores to their coach communication skills scale than team sports athletes by the means of statistically significance. Football players scored less in Coach Communication skills scale than other sport branches in statistically significant way and volleyball players took second worst scoring in coach communication skills scale.

- There is statistically significant difference in scores of Sport academy graduated coaches' communication skills scale which is higher than coaches with no education in sport.

- For success perception; by his perception, male athletes assume themselves successful in statistically significant difference than female athletes who assumes herself successful by her perception. The athletes who assume his/herself as successful generally training with same coach who has 6 years or more coaching experience. These types of athletes' coaches are mostly sport academy graduates.

Result and Evaluations

In this result and evaluation section, the results of the research and suggestions are offered in accordance with the results. The contribution of coaches' communication skills to athlete motivation and focusing on success are supported with much research. In the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus, the role of athletes' coach is not only the tactical and technical preparation of athlete, his/her communication with the athlete also affected the athletes' success. Increasing motivation of the athlete, focusing on the target, digesting the tactics, with strategy depending on personal communication skills. These skills may be innate and may be improved by education. In the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus, about half of the coaches are educated in sport and other half did not have any training to conduct this profession. The educated sport academy graduated coaches communication skills scale results show that through education there is better chance to train good athletes for competition in international sport activities. Concerning gender differences, it is found that female coaches scored better than their male counterparts in the Coach Communication skills scale test by their athletes but the study did not find any relation in assuming their success from their perception or gender of the athletes' coach. In the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus, communication findings between athletes and their coaches led to following suggestions.

It would be suggested that sport academy graduates coaching skills through communication skills are better than coaches with no education background for sports hence, supporting this type of education in schools with coaches aspiring to a coaching position would give better results. Coaches with no education in sport can be encouraged to undertake relative education and/or improving professional knowledge by attending some short term courses in sports or communication. Specially, the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus's is a special case from being under heavy embargoes with no

access nearly to any international sport organization. Therefore focusing education in sport and training good athletes with a competitive edges would help to recognize North Cyprus whenever there is chance given to compete at the international level. Also supporting female coach training and encouraging sport clubs to employ more female coaches may lead to openings for coaching and athlete training. This approach may be tested to determine if there is an advantage of being a female coach in producing better results in the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus.

Athletes in individual sports are happier in terms of communication with their coaches than team sports athletes as shown in research and in particular, football, the most popular sport in the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus, shows significant dissatisfactions in communication with their coaches. The score means of their coach communication skills scale of football players is at the bottom of the mean scores in both individual and team sports. This leads to the suggestion about new research possibilities in this topic or offering football coaches a new training methodology for better communication with their players. The sport branch as football has heavily invested in both the community and government of the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus and hence its expectations are high which shows an important problem. This should be investigated more by their coaches along with their communication skills to highlight communication problems and develop practical solutions.

Training with same coach for longer periods should be supported by sport clubs. The ability to transfer ideas and expectations to athletes by their coaches is increasing. In the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus, the training period with same coach is generally between 1-2 years and this amount of time is insufficient to transfer ideas and improve results of athletes. There may be more research on this topic to analyse the effects of training time and success for athletes in the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus.

The importance of sports education to perform the coaching profession is investigated and supported by this research in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. It is shown that sport education and education of athletes are an important factor to develop better communication skills to improve results in sport achievements. There may be communication classes in Northern Cyprus universities especially for sportsmen and women to develop their interpersonal communication skills. The sport academies contribution to sport community by means of professional education helps to bring results and sport achievements relatively faster through coaches with more understanding of sport and better communication skills. In branch education of sports, focusing on the education of coaches and their communication skills will help bring new perspective for training methods and psychological preparation of athletes through better communication. Regulating to employ coaches with a sport education background would bring professionalism in coaching too.

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Project Funds As a Management Model and Alignment of EU Funded Special Education Projects with National Policies in Turkey

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Abstract

This study seeks to assess the extent to which EU-funded projects administered by schools and other institutions are aligned with the strategic priorities adopted by Turkey's Ministry of National Education (MoNE). With this objective in mind, the thematic distributions of projects in the field of special needs education were examined and the policy priorities stated in documents composed by MoNE were comparatively evaluated. The study followed a qualitative research model by conducting document analysis to inspect a total of 158 Erasmus+ projects funded by the EU between 2012 and 2017. The projects were analyzed according to their numerical and financial distributions by year, geographical region, institution type, and disabled groups within the target population. Furthermore, content analysis was applied to examine projects' thematic distributions. The study concluded that project funds are disproportionately distributed to institution types, target groups, and geographical regions and that projects' strategic alignment with Ministry policies needs to be strengthened, especially in terms of how project funds are used. Finally, it is recommended that the distribution and use of international funds be structured in line with the policy priorities adopted by the Turkish National Education System and that cooperation between policy makers and executers not only in the allocation of funds but also in their administrative, financial, and legal management processes be strengthened.

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Introduction

Traditional public financing in Turkey is based on the principal of appropriating central funds to administrative bodies in order to execute specific standard duties defined by the central administration. In recent years, national and international project funds have emerged as a management strategy encouraged by original ideas and supported by innovative practices. Defined by general principles and strategic priorities, this new project-based financing model not only constitutes an alternative to overly centralized administrative approaches by supporting recommendations for solutions to local problems and needs but also   engenders decentralization and increased administrative capacity. Beginning with membership negotiations with the European Union (EU) in general and at the dawn of the 2000s in particular, a wide variety of integration projects in harmony with the objective to 'expedite the alignment process' and financed by shared EU funds became widespread. Projects supported as part of the Erasmus+ Program may be grouped under the following three main types of activities, namely (i) *individuals' learning mobility*, (ii) *cooperation for innovation and the exchange of good practices*, and (iii) *supporting policy reform* (Turkish National Agency [TNA], 2018). An examination of the total number and financial magnitude of such projects reveals that 21 thousand projects with a total budget of 2.2 billion Euros falling under the umbrella of Erasmus+ in which roughly 750 thousand students and 79 thousand institutions and organizations were either directly or indirectly supported throughout Europe in 2016. The predicted budget for the 2014-2020 implementation period of said program is 16.3 billion Euros (European Commission [EC], 2017).

Endeavors including specific goals and activities directed toward disadvantaged groups are given priority in projects receiving EU funds. As such, projects designed specifically for individuals in need of special education frequently receive support. Because the EU gives them strategic priority in funding, this study focuses on projects within the field of special education. The education of individuals in need of special education is coordinated by the General Directorate for Special Education and Guidance Services affiliated to MoNE. This study is restricted to EU-supported projects administered by the general directorate responsible for the coordination of special education services and its subsidiary organizations. Baring the exceptional situations, inclusive education in the same physical location as their peers exhibiting typical development is prioritized in education for individuals requiring special needs education. As such, statistics published by MoNE indicate that nearly 350 thousand students are identified as requiring special needs education (MoNE, 2018). Of these students, approximately 260 thousand, or roughly 75%, take part in inclusive education. Considering that approximately 18 million students receive compulsory education, including pre-school students, roughly 2% of students in Turkey are recipients of special needs education. As such, EU-supported projects address an important body of students and have wide sphere of influence.

An investigation of the priority problems within the field of special needs education reveals there to be a myriad of deep-seated problems ranging from teaching programs and materials to teacher education in a variety of areas. Upon the examination of MoNE's 2015-2019 strategic plan (MoNE, 2015) found that MoNE's strategic priorities in the field of special needs education fall under seven main areas: (i) *disadvantaged groups' access to education*, (ii) *strengthening pedagogical diagnosis*, (iii) *increasing the quality of human resources*, (iv) *strengthening gifted students' education*, (v) *updating teacher programs*, (vi) *increasing the employment capacity in special needs education*, and (vii) *improving the physical conditions of institutions providing special needs education*. The same plan emphasizes the urgency for project to be increased so that students in need of special services in education may attain greater access to high-quality education. MoNE-initiated projects funded by various financial sources, be they projects that MoNE administers within its own institutional body or projects administered by subordinate institutions, are expected to focus on the priority problems emphasized in MoNE's strategic plans. It is for this reason that a discussion on the degree of alignment between EU-supported projects in the field of special needs education and MoNE's strategic priorities is deemed important.

Supporting official and civil initiatives focusing on a wide target population ranging from pre-school to higher education and even including non-formal education, EU funds provide important opportunities to schools and institutions subordinate to MoNE. Constituting an important financial resource in and of themselves, these projects, more than being simply budgets allotted for standard expenses, offer novel opportunities to schools seeking to improve human resources and encourage innovative applications. Kesik and Balcı (2015) emphasize the benefits of EU projects for schools in the following areas: (i) institutional development, (ii) personal/vocational development, (iii) social development, and (iv) foreign language learning and cultural development. In a separate study, Küçük (2007) discusses how EU grant projects work to promote regional development in light of the NUTS-2 example. In addition to studies examining the effects of internationally funded projects on different aspects of the education system (Akyüz, 2012; Anıl, 2006; Demir, 2011; Topsakal, 2003), several researchers (Güler, 2011; Küçükler & Gürbüz, 2012) have conducted paradigmatic inquiries examining the effects of social transformation and political relationships.

Among the more distinct benefits that EU-funded projects in the field of education entail are (i) promoting civil society initiatives in education processes, (ii) helping different stakeholders in education (e.g., students, parents, teachers, and school administrators) take on active roles in solving education-related problems, and (iii) supporting diversity in education. There exists a limited number of impact analyses on EU projects and those that do exist have limited themselves to assessing the effects of these projects on staff members and institutions (TNA, 2017; EC, 2014). In addition, studies examining the development processes and priority problem areas of projects supported by EU funds

and evaluating strategic alignment from the perspective of efficient resource management are limited. With this in mind, we assert the importance of performing a macro-level assessments measuring the extent to which MoNE's short-, medium-, and long-term strategies align with the use EU funds. Considering that these funds are essentially not grants, but constitute shared funds provided by countries' own budgets, it is important to focus on whether they are used in line with MoNE's general policies and strategies. The current study, therefore, seeks to assess whether the use of funds by schools subordinate to MoNE is in line with MoNE's general policies and strategies, considering that these funds are themselves subject to the independent auditing of EU-dependent institutions. The conformity to regulations and cost audits of projects proposed to and accepted by TNA are undertaken by the European Commission under the jurisdiction of TNA without input by MoNE (MoNE, 2016). The fact that MoNE's hand is bound during the administration and auditing processes of these projects increases the importance of these projects' being assessed from a policy and strategic standpoint. Our review of the literature reveals the academic studies conducted thus far in these areas and the policy analyses done from a management sciences perspective to be insufficient. Considering the financial magnitude of the projects under examination in this study, we expect our study to make vital and original contributions to the relevant literature.

In the conceptual framework adopted, the fundamental objective of this study is to evaluate to what extent EU-funded projects carried out by schools and institutions are aligned with MoNE's strategic priorities. Bearing this objective in mind, we examined number of projects' and distributions by geographical region, institution type, and disabled groups within the greater target population. We furthermore examined the thematic distributions of projects and then comparatively evaluated them with the priorities delineated in MoNE's strategic plans.

Method

Research Model

The current study employs a qualitative case study design. Case studies allow researchers the opportunity to perform in-depth investigations of a previously untreated phenomenon or event by asking how and why. One of the main methods used in case studies is document analysis, which is based on the examination of written and visual resources related to the research topic (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005). The current study used document analysis to examine a total of 158 Erasmus+ projects funded by the EU between 2012 and 2017. Based on data collected by both TNA and the General Directorate of Special Education Guidance Services, those projects administered by schools and institutions receiving support from TNA were subject to document analysis in the current study.

Data Collection Process

During the data collection process, we first listed projects that were part of Erasmus+ program qualifying for financial support and announced to the public by TNA during every project period between 2012-2017. In the second stage, we selected those projects prepared by schools and institutions that pertained to the field of special needs education among all of the projects earning funding. A total of 158 projects presented by the General Directorate of Special Education and Guidance Services and subordinate institutions to and accepted by TNA were examined in the current study. The websites run by the General Directorate of Special Education and Guidance Services and the schools and institutions that administered these projects provided us with detailed information on them. In the event that we were unable to access the necessary information from their relevant sources, we obtained the project's details by scanning through EU databases. We did not obtain specific permission from institutions when collecting the data used for the analyses because they were openly available to the public.

Data Analysis

The data were subjected to a qualitative content analysis. Following this analysis, the researchers coded the projects by theme after attaining their details from TNA publications and relevant institutions' websites. Because the projects generally included activities aiming to fulfill more than one goal, such as vocational development, cultural interaction, and sharing both information and experience, they were coded according to their most prominent goals after assessing their priorities and the frequency of their activities. Main themes were developed based on the codes described in the first phase and the percentages and frequencies of themes were analyzed. Furthermore, the projects and themes developed for this study were examined and assessed by year, region, institution type, disabled groups within the target population, and project budget. To ensure the study's validity and reliability, the researchers first coded the data separately and then compared their own codes. The researchers were also careful to include a wide variety of subject matters in the data. As a result, the researchers reached a consistency level of over 80% in the themes. To increase external consistency during the thematic coding phase, the researchers strove to ensure that themes formed a meaningful whole and included every data set (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005). By presenting the data in the form of crosstabs during categorization, we were able to bolster the study's reliability even further. Experts on thematic grouping were also consulted to strengthen the study's validity further. In order to allow future researchers the ability to reassess the study's validity and reliability results, we defined in intricate detail the data sources, the data collection and analysis processes, and the other stages of the study.

Findings

The research data were first categorized based on year, region, institution type, and type of special education needs. The number of projects and their budgets were examined following this categorization. Table 1 shows projects' distributions by geographic region and year.

Table 1. Distribution of Project Funds by Geographic Region and Year

Region	Year						Total Projects		Total Budget	
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	N	%	N	%
Mediterranean	2	2	4	2	4	5	19	12.03	460,699	8.83
Aegean	-	-	-	1	2	6	9	5.70	261,676	5.02
Marmara	1	4	3	4	2	9	23	14.56	600,349	11.51
Black Sea	2	4	3	8	4	8	29	18.35	1,006,369	19.30
East Anatolia	2	-	-	3	-	3	8	5.06	135,307	2.59
Southeast Anatolia	1	-	-	4	1	-	6	3.80	175,280	0.34
Central Anatolia	3	7	1	8	6	3	28	17.72	1,401,000	26.86
Ankara	4	1	1	4	1	2	13	8.23	486,729	9.33
Istanbul	1	3	2	3	3	4	16	10.13	495,976	9.51
Izmir	1	-	1	2	2	1	7	4.43	191,753	3.68
Total	17	21	15	39	25	41	158	100.00	5,215,038	100.00

* Due to their being the largest industrial cities with the highest immigration rates and population density in Turkey, the three cities of Ankara, Istanbul, and Izmir were evaluated separately from the geographic regions of which they are a part.

The examination of Table 1 shows that, the Black Sea Region has the highest number of actual projects having received funds whereas Central Anatolia received the highest amount of money though funding. The number of supported projects and their budgets reveals that the population distribution of regions and counties is uneven. For example, despite the fact that Istanbul is nearly three times more populated than Ankara, the budgets and number of projects of these two cities are very close to each other. It would therefore be erroneous to state that project funds were equitably distributed throughout the various regions and provinces of Turkey.

Table 2 depicts project distributions by the type of institution providing special needs education and year.

Table 2. Distribution of Project Funds by Institution Type and Year

Institution Type	Total Number of Institutions	Years						Total Projects		Total Budget	
		2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	N	%	N	%
Applied Special Education School (I-II-III)	867	3	6	5	14	8	5	41	25.95	1,139,049	21.84
Science and Arts Center	135	3	4	4	9	8	12	40	25.32	974,756	18.69
Guidance and Research Center	238	4	6	2	5	-	1	18	11.39	686,847	13.17
Special Education Vocational School	149	3	3	1	7	7	20	41	25.95	1,477,561	28.33
School of the Hearing Impaired	35	2	1	3	3	2	2	13	8.23	775,640	14.87
School for the Visually Impaired	17	1	-	-	1	-	-	2	1.27	61,703	1.18
Vocational High School for the Hearing Impaired	20	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.63	50,031	0.96
Schools for the Orthopedically Impaired	3	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	0.63	23,000	0.44
General Directorate	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	0.63	26,424	0.51
Total	1,465	17	21	15	39	25	41	158	100.00	5,215,038	100.00

Table 2 illustrates that of all types of institutions, vocational schools receive the greatest portion of funds and that projects' numerical and budgetary distributions are not proportional. The number of projects funded in (i) Applied Special Education Schools, (ii) Special Education Vocational Schools, and (iii) Science and Arts Centers are nearly the same, with the first two receiving the highest number (n=41) of projects funded. Though not specifically reflected in Table 2, a close inspection of projects' distributions by institution type reveals that certain types of institutions benefited from an exceptionally high number of supported projects.

To reach a more lucid understanding of EU-funded project distributions by institution type, distributions for the type of needs addressed in special needs education were also examined. Table 3 presents the related findings.

Table 3. Distribution of Project Funds by Special Education Need and Year

Institution Type	Years						Total Projects		Total Budget	
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	N	%	N	%
Visually Impaired	1	-	-	1	-	-	2	1.27	61,703	1.18
Physically Impaired	-	1	-	1	-	-	2	1.27	56,150	1.08
Hearing Impaired	3	2	3	4	2	2	16	10.13	878,491	16.85
Intellectual Giftedness	3	4	4	10	8	13	42	26.58	1,074,481	20.60
Mentally Impaired	10	9	7	20	26	15	87	55.06	2,853,007	54.71

Other		-	5	1	3	-	-	9	5.70	291,206	5.58
						Total		158	100.00	5,215,038	100.00

According to 2018 statistics (MoNE, 2018), 33,720 students studying in Science and Art Centers received supportive education in 2018. With this in mind, the data in Table 3 reveal that this particular group receives a relatively higher proportion of supportive education services than all other groups.

In order to examine projects' themes, the researchers coded the subject matter of each project and defined both themes and subthemes. Both the main and subthemes pertaining to projects are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Analysis of Project Themes

Main Themes	Sub-Themes	f	%	Budget (€)	%
Education Processes	Teaching Methods and Techniques	39	24.68	1,005,327	19.28
	Vocational Education	34	21.52	1,256,686	24.10
	Knowledge and Experience Sharing	11	6.96	219,308	4.21
	Teacher Qualifications	15	9.49	519,957	9.97
	Family Education and School-Parent Cooperation	4	2.53	189,023	3.62
	Pedagogical Diagnosis	3	1.90	142,350	2.73
	Inclusive Education	1	0.63	12,492	0.24
	Total	107	67.72	3,345,143	64.14
Social Integration	Communication	10	6.33	569,542	10.92
	Art Education	9	5.70	218,688	4.19
	Social Skills Education	4	2.53	207,437	3.98
	Social Awareness	8	5.06	342,271	6.56
	Total	31	19.62	1,337,938	25.66
Intercultural Interaction	Nature Education	7	4.43	167,620	3.21
	EU Awareness	3	1.90	69,000	1.32
	Communication	8	5.06	239,638	4.60
	Democracy Education	1	0.63	24,234	0.46
	Foreign Language Education	1	0.63	31,465	0.60
	Total	20	12.66	531,957	10.20
	Grand Total	158	100.00	5,215,038	100.00

Table 4 reveals that funds were allotted to three main themes, namely (i) *education processes*, (ii), *social integration* and (iii) *intercultural interaction*. When the proportional distributions of the number of EU-funded projects are examined by theme, we observe that a significant proportion (i.e., 67.7%) is related to education processes. An examination of subthemes reveals that the greatest share of EU projects focus on (i) vocational education and (ii) teaching methods and techniques.

Discussion

A major imbalance is witnessed in the projects' distributions both at the regional level and in terms of population ratios. A similar imbalance is witnessed in how project funds are distributed to the various types of institutions and special needs types. For example, despite their large difference in population, the number of EU-funded projects in Istanbul and Ankara are roughly the same. In absolute terms, the Black Sea region had the highest number of projects whereas Central Anatolia alone received roughly 25% of the entire budget allotted to Turkey. An assessment of institution types shows that although there are a total of 135 Science and Arts Centers and 867 Applied Special Education Schools throughout Turkey, the same number of projects realized in both types of institutions was nearly identical (40 and 41, respectively). Furthermore, attention should be brought both to the high amount of support for projects received by certain institutions and to the disproportionate distribution of projects in terms of how project funds are used in favor of institutions with in-depth experience preparing and administering projects. Consequently, measures should be taken to ensure the balanced distribution of project resources. One such measure might be to increase publicity and awareness programs directed to education stakeholders in regions where both financial support and the number of applications are low. Türkoğlu and Türkoğlu (2006) state that programs publicizing EU projects are both insufficient in terms of quantity and quality. Furthermore, we recommend imposing quotas and that those institutions that have already received funding for more than one project be subjected to different assessment criteria.

Upon examination of EU-funded projects, the current study found that the three main themes of *social integration*, *education processes*, and *intercultural interaction* were given priority in funding. Those projects related to education processes received the highest proportion of funds and were followed by projects related to social integration and intercultural interactions, respectively. These results are partially consistent with the classification done by Yıldırım-Doğru, Özlü, Kançeşme, and Doğru (2014). In their study, Yıldırım et al. (2014) examined the distributions of subject matters in national and international special needs education projects, stating that the two most frequently emerging themes were *education* and *social life*. There appeared to be several inconsistencies between the priorities that emerged as a result of the thematic analysis for projects and those stated in official documents by MoNE. The strategic priorities within the field of special needs education embraced by MoNE fall under seven main areas, namely: (i) *disadvantaged groups' access to education*, (ii) *strengthening pedagogical diagnosis*, (iii) *increasing the quality of human resources*, (iv) *strengthening gifted students' education*, (v) *updating teacher programs*, (vi) *increasing the employment capacity in special needs education*, and (vii) *improving the physical conditions of institutions providing special needs education* (MoNE, 2015). More specifically, MoNE's strategic priorities of updating teaching programs, increasing disadvantaged groups' access to education, and

strengthening pedagogical diagnosis have received little or no financial support from EU projects. However, EU projects do support some of MoNE's policies, like improving teacher qualifications and facilitating disabled individuals' active participation in social and professional life. Projects' strategic alignment with MoNE's policies needs to be strengthened, especially in terms of how project funds are used. The distribution and use of international funds needs to be structured according to the policy priorities of the Turkish National Education System. As such, considering the constraints on mechanisms coordinating and auditing the alignment between EU funds and general policies, we recommend that coordination between policy makers and practitioners in fund distribution processes be strengthened. We also recommend that the phenomenon of strategic dissonance discussed within the bounds of special needs education in this study be investigated more in-depth through research on different project areas. In the literature, one encounters studies investigating, among other effects, the academic, institutional, personal, professional, and social effects of EU projects in different areas (Aydoğan & Şahin, 2006; Demir, 2011; Güler, 2011; Kesik ve Balcı, 2015; Küçüker ve Gürbüz, 2012; Topsakal, 2003),

Because there is no easily accessible central database containing information related to EU-funded projects, we experienced difficulty during the data collection process. We therefore recommend that in order to increase projects' sustainability and area of effect, the objectives, results, and basic information for all EU-funded projects be brought into a central database that allows policy makers and practitioners the functional access necessary to conduct more robust analyses and policy-related programs.

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The Relationship between Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Vocabulary of Learners of Turkish as a Foreign or Second Language

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to find out which vocabulary learning strategies learners of Turkish in Turkey and abroad use, to compare and contrast vocabulary learning strategies used by these two group of learners, to determine whether learners' use of vocabulary learning strategies are influenced by a set of variables including age, gender, language level, and another foreign language learnt, and to identify the relationship, if any, between vocabulary and the use of vocabulary learning strategies. This study used a relational screening model that allows drawing comparisons and correlations. The data were collected in 2017-2018 using the Foreign Language Vocabulary Learning Strategies Scale developed by Kocaman and Kızılkaya-Cumaoğlu (2014) and vocabulary tests designed by the researcher considering different language levels. The sample consisted of 182 learners of Turkish in Turkey and abroad. In the analysis of the data, parametric and nonparametric tests were used together on the basis of the normality distribution of the data. The data were analyzed using the t-test, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), the Tukey's test, the Mann-Whitney U test, and correlation analysis. The analysis results showed that the mean frequency of strategy use was *medium*, the type and frequency of strategies used by the learners varied according to language levels, gender and the place of learning Turkish (in Turkey or abroad) had a limited and statistically insignificant effect on the use of strategies, previous learning of another foreign or second language has an effect on the use of vocabulary learning strategy, the place of learning led to a significant variation in vocabulary achievement, and there was a strong, positive and significant correlation between the use of vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary.

Keywords: Vocabulary learning strategies, vocabulary, teaching Turkish as a foreign or second language.

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Introduction

Foreign language education today aims to help learners to equally develop the four basic language skills of the target language and effectively use these skills. For this to be achieved, there are two factors that learners need in order to master all the skills and become competent users of the target language. These are the grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language. The effective use of language skills, which is the main objective of language learning, cannot be achieved unless learners of a foreign or second language learn the set of vocabulary and grammar rules required for each level and acquire a certain level of proficiency in these two aspects of language. Comparing these two factors that play a decisive role in improving language skills, vocabulary far outweighs grammar rules and forms the base of all learning. In fact, comprehensible inputs need to be received first in order to activate the mind and start the learning activity. Words are the conveyer of inputs that the brain can understand. If one wants to learn grammar and effectively use language skills through these grammar rules in order to communicate in the target language, he or she first needs to prepare the basic groundwork, that is, necessary vocabulary. Thus, words are key to understanding, explaining and communicating and of high priority in for foreign language learning.

There is a general consensus among every stakeholder of the foreign language learning process about the necessity of enriching vocabulary in the target language. The enrichment of vocabulary is, directly and indirectly, a part of developing language skills in that it fundamentally forms the basis for language learning. Vocabulary thereby facilitates the effective use of language skills and serves a bridge between these skills. Therefore, vocabulary teaching is an essential requirement for foreign or second language learning. The literature involves a variety of views and approaches regarding how to teach vocabulary. These can be gathered into three groups including those who favour direct vocabulary instruction (Coady, 1993; Ellis, 1994; Graves; 2006; Harmer, 1991), those who support indirect vocabulary instruction (Hermann, 2003; Hulstijn, 2003; Nagy, 1997; Wode, 1999), and those who urge a mixed model of direct and indirect vocabulary instruction (Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2007). Although foreign language learning and teaching span a long period of time, the diversity, multiplicity and complexity of vocabulary, subject, rules and learning outcomes to be achieved can be burdensome. Additionally, considering that the period of study and resources available are limited, it seems that a balanced combination of direct and indirect methods of vocabulary instruction will provide the optimum learning success. In fact, a mixed model of direct and indirect vocabulary instruction ensures the elimination of any possible failure that may arise from the nature of the separate methods.

The limited time allocated for the language teaching process, the number of words that can fit into this time period, the capacity of the brain to learn words in a certain period of time, and most importantly learning being entirely an internal process, regardless of whether direct or indirect

vocabulary instruction is used, make it necessary for learners to use strategies that help to organize their in-class and out-of-class vocabulary learning. Strategies that can be employed while learning vocabulary are actually a sub-dimension of language learning strategies. The literature argues that vocabulary learning strategies have an important place in vocabulary learning and should be considered a part of the entire process (Nation, 1990; Hedge, 2000). Vocabulary learning strategies have been variously classified by scholars taking into account the dimensions of cognitive and social psychology (Gu & Johnson, 1996; Schmitt, 1997; Oxford, 1990). However, these classifications are very similar to each other. Oxford (1990), for example, proposed direct and indirect learning strategies which are further divided into six subcategories: cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social. Schmitt (1997) distinguished between discovery and consolidation vocabulary learning strategies which include five subcategories: determination, social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive. All these strategies cover the types of activities learners can use during and after vocabulary learning. Memory strategies are strategies whereby learners commit words to memory by linking their learning of new words to their existing vocabulary. Cognitive strategies are strategies which are based on the refreshment of memory and involve taking notes and keeping vocabulary notebooks and words lists by frequently repeating them. Compensatory strategies involve substituting a word when it is not remembered, predicting the meaning of words using context clues, and making use of mother tongue and body language to avoid communication breakdowns. Metacognitive strategies are strategies whereby learners plan, organize and evaluate their own learning by collecting materials and identifying learning needs, studying method and studying speed. Affective strategies involve listening to music, relaxation, self-reward, self-encouragement, and controlling emotions, which all help learners to relieve learning anxiety and make learning attitudes more positive. Social strategies involve asking questions, asking for correction of mistakes, studying with classmates, and learning while helping classmates, which all help learners to communicate and cooperate in the target language (Oxford, 1990; Schmitt, 1997).

A review of literature has shown that most national and international research on the use of vocabulary learning strategies considered to be a major part of teaching and learning vocabulary in foreign languages address learners of English, while there is a lack of research on vocabulary learning strategies used by learners of, for example, Turkish, German, French, Spanish, and Arabic. Considering this lack of research on learners of Turkish, the literature includes, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, five pieces of research on vocabulary learning strategies used by learners of Turkish. Among them, four were carried out with learners of Turkish as a second language (TSL) in Turkey, while one was carried out with learners of Turkish as a foreign language (TFL) in India. These pieces of research had a limited number of participants and did not compare the use of vocabulary learning strategies among learners of TSL and TFL. Only two analyzed the difference between language levels but did not cover all language levels. That being so, there is a substantial gap in the

existing literature. Additionally, there has been no research that investigates whether there is an association between the vocabulary of learners of Turkish and their use of vocabulary learning strategies. Thus, this study makes an important contribution to the relevant literature by addressing both learners of TSL and of TFL in a larger sample of learners of different language levels, investigating which vocabulary learning strategies they use and how often they use these strategies, determining whether the use of strategies is influenced by a set of variables (age, gender, language level, previous learning of another foreign language, the place of learning, and vocabulary achievement), and identifying whether there is a relationship between the use of vocabulary learning strategies and the vocabulary of learners.

Against this background, this study set out to investigate which vocabulary learning strategies learners of Turkish in Turkey and abroad use, to compare and contrast vocabulary learning strategies used by these two group of learners, to determine whether vocabulary learning strategies used by the learners are affected by a set of variables including age, gender, language level, and previous learning of another foreign language, and to identify the relationship, if any, the use of vocabulary learning strategies and the vocabulary of learners. To this end, the study sought answers to the following questions:

1. Which vocabulary learning strategies do the learners of Turkish in Turkey use?

1.1. What effect does gender have on the use of vocabulary learning strategies?

1.2. What effect does previous learning of another foreign language have on the use of vocabulary learning strategies?

2. Which vocabulary learning strategies do the overseas learners of Turkish use?

2.1. What effect does gender have on the use of vocabulary learning strategies?

2.2. What effect does previous learning of another foreign language have on the use of vocabulary learning strategies?

3. What effect does language level have on the use of vocabulary learning strategies?

4. Is there a significant difference between the learners of Turkish in Turkey and the overseas learners of Turkish in terms of the use of vocabulary learning strategies?

5. Is there a significant difference between the learners of Turkish in Turkey and the overseas learners of Turkish in terms of their vocabulary?

6. Is there a relationship between vocabulary and the use of vocabulary learning strategies?

Methods

Research Model

This study used a relational screening model that allows drawing comparisons and correlations. This model aims to identify the presence and/or degree of correlation between two or more variables (Creswell, 2012) and to describe a past or present situation as it is (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, K., Akgün, Ö. E., Karadeniz, Ş. & Demirel, F., 2011; Karasar, 2016).

Population and Sample

The population of the study consisted of learners of TFL and TSL. The study recruited a convenience sample of 182 foreign students of different levels. Among them, 100 were learning Turkish in Turkey and 82 learn Turkish abroad. 95 (52.2%) were female and 85 (47.8%) were male. Considering language levels, 54 learners are at A1 level, 51 at A2 level, 50 at B1 level, and 27 at B2 level.

Data Collection Instruments

Vocabulary learning strategies used by learners of TSL and TFL were identified using the Foreign Language Vocabulary Learning Strategies Scale (FLVLSS) developed by Kocaman and Kızılkaya-Cumaoğlu (2014) drawing on Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (1990). The FLVLSS is a 32-item, 5-point Likert scale consisting of 6 sub-scales: "Memory Strategies", "Cognitive Strategies", "Compensatory Strategies", "Metacognitive Strategies", "Affective Strategies", and "Social Strategies". The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the scale is 0.89. The highest score that can be obtained on the FLVLSS is 160 and the lowest score is 32. To assess the frequency of strategy use, the mean score of each sub-scale is computed by dividing the sum of each sub-scale by the number of items in the relevant sub-scale. This procedure gives three levels of frequency: the range of 1.0 to 2.4 indicates a *low*-frequency strategy use, 2.5 to 3.4 indicates a *medium* frequency, and 3.5 to 5.0 indicates a *high* frequency.

Vocabulary knowledge of learners of TSL and TFL was identified using vocabulary achievement tests designed by the researcher. These tests aimed to determine whether the learners had learned the words they should have at their respective level rather than measuring their entire vocabulary. To this end, a pool of words was first generated using words in A1-, A2-, B1- and B2-level textbooks. A 25-question vocabulary test was prepared for each level and the tests were sent to experts for review. The final forms of tests established in line with expert recommendations were piloted with a group of 5 students for each level. On the basis of the results of the pilot study, 22 items in the tests were revised and the tests were administered to students of relevant levels to conduct an

item analysis. According to the results of the item analysis, the test items were valid and reliable. Table 1 below presents the item difficulty, item discrimination and reliability of the tests.

Table 1. Statistics on Vocabulary Tests

Language Level	N	Arithmetic Mean	Mean Item Difficulty	Mean Item Discrimination	Kr-20
A1	49	14.825	0.46	0.641	0.897
A2	46	16.304	0.55	0.612	0.865
B1	37	17.710	0.59	0.588	0.849
B2	34	18.902	0.67	0.481	0.826

As seen in the table, the test items have a medium difficulty, an adequate discrimination, and a high reliability. Although the tests test whether learners know 25 words in each test, learners need to have other words in their vocabulary in order to give correct answers. In this regard, the A1-level test consists of 318 words, the A2-level test 379 words, the B1-level test 441 words, and the B2-level test 465 words. The word count includes repeated words, prepositions, and conjunctions.

Data Analysis

The collected data were coded, digitalized and then analysed using SPSS statistics software. First, the normality of the data distribution was checked to determine the statistical tests to be used in the analysis of the data. To this end, the coefficients of skewness and kurtosis were calculated and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used on the basis of the sample size. In the skewness and kurtosis normality test, if values obtained by dividing the skewness and kurtosis coefficients by their standard errors fall within the range of -1.96 and +1.96, it is considered to be indicative of a normal distribution (Can, 2017, p. 85). In the Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test, if the p-value is greater than $\alpha=.05$, it is indicative of a normal distribution at this level of significance (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). In this study, the results of the normality tests showed that scores on the FLVLSS were normally distributed in terms of the place of learning Turkish, previous learning of another foreign language, and gender, while scores on the vocabulary tests were not normally distributed in terms of the place of learning Turkish. Thus, parametric tests were used to test the normally distributed data and non-parametric tests to test the non-normally distributed data.

The frequency of the use of vocabulary learning strategies was analyzed using descriptive statistics and the arithmetic mean. The independent samples t-test was used to find out whether gender, previous learning of another foreign language, the place of learning Turkish had an effect on the use of strategies. The t-test assesses whether the mean value of a group differs from the predetermined value in terms of a variable, whether there is a difference between two independent groups, and whether reactions of a group vary under different conditions (Yazıcıoğlu & Erdoğan, 2014, p. 254).

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine whether learning Turkish in Turkey or abroad has an effect on vocabulary. The Mann-Whitney U test tests whether two sample means significantly differ, that is, whether two independent samples that come from the same population have the same distribution in terms of a variable (Büyüköztürk, 2017, p. 165). This test is a non-parametric alternative to the independent samples t-test and compares medians rather than means, as opposed to parametric tests (Pallant, 2016, p. 249).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test whether learners' language levels had an effect on the use of vocabulary learning strategies. The Tukey's post-hoc test was used to detect significant differences between language levels. One-way ANOVA tests whether the difference between the means of two or more independent samples is significantly different from zero (Büyüköztürk, 2017, p. 48). Analysis of variance compares the variability within each of the groups (believed to result from chance) with the variance between the different groups (believed to be caused by the independent variable) (Pallant, 2016, p. 277).

Finally, correlation analysis was used to find the relationship between the use of vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary achievement. Correlation analysis determines whether there is a relatedness between two variables measured at the interval or ratio level and to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship (Yazıcıoğlu & Erdoğan, 2017, p. 335; Pallant, 2016, p. 144).

Data Collection

The data were collected from the learners of Turkish in Turkey and abroad in 2017 and 2018. Before the learners were given the FLVLSS and vocabulary tests, teachers administering the scale and tests were met to agree on what to do during the application. In this regard, the learners were informed about the purpose of the research before the application. The learners were then given the scale in both Turkish and English versions. The scale items were read aloud and explained by teachers. The learners later chose the most appropriate option for each item. By doing so, it was ensured that all learners of different levels completely understood the items.

The vocabulary tests were administered one day after the FLVLSS was administered. The learners were informed that this test was not meant to be an exam but carried out only for a scientific purpose. The learners were given 40 minutes for 25 questions. The test was completed within a course hour. The learners were given the answers next class.

Results

The results of analysis were discussed considering the questions of this study aiming to investigate which vocabulary learning strategies the learners of Turkish in Turkey and abroad use, to compare and contrast vocabulary learning strategies used by these two group of learners, to determine

whether vocabulary learning strategies used by the learners are affected by a set of variables including age, gender, language level, and previous learning of another foreign language, and to identify the relationship, if any, the use of vocabulary learning strategies and the vocabulary of learners.

Table 2 presents the results of the descriptive analysis run to identify which vocabulary learning strategies the learners of Turkish in Turkey use in line with the question *"Which vocabulary learning strategies the learners of Turkish in Turkey use?"*.

Table 2. Results on Vocabulary Learning Strategies Used by the Learners of Turkish in Turkey

| Language Level	N	Memory $\overline{X}$	Cognitive $\overline{X}$	Compensator $\overline{X}$	Metacognitive $\overline{X}$	Affective $\overline{X}$	Social $\overline{X}$	All Strategies $\overline{\overline{X}}$
A1	30	3.94	3.85	3.52	3.72	3.59	3.75	3.75
A2	28	3.72	3.54	3.43	3.56	3.46	3.52	3.55
B1	27	3.41	3.21	3.11	3.34	3.16	3.25	3.26
B2	15	3.02	2.95	2.65	3.18	2.59	2.98	2.89
Total	100	3.52	3.39	3.18	3.45	3.20	3.37	3.36

Considering the data in Table 2, among the learners of Turkish in Turkey, A1-level learners had a *high* frequency of strategy use. Ranked from the most to the least frequently used, the strategies used by A1-level learners were *memory, cognitive, social, metacognitive*, *affective,* and *compensatory*. Like A1-level learners, A2-level learners had a *high* frequency of strategy use. Ranked from the most to the least frequently used, the strategies used by A2-level learners were *memory, cognitive, metacognitive, social, affective,* and *compensatory*. For A1- and A2-level learners, the most frequently used memory strategy was *"I constantly repeat the Turkish words I learned so that I can remember them"*, while the least frequently used compensatory strategy was *"I learn how to pronounce a Turkish word by listening to it a few times through technology"*.

B1-level learners had a *medium* frequency of strategy use. They used, in order of frequency, *memory, metacognitive, social, cognitive, affective,* and *compensatory*. For B1-level learners, the most frequently used strategy was *"I relate new Turkish words with those I already know"*, while the least frequently used strategy was *"I prefer to learn words required for my course through videos"*.

B2-level learners also had a *medium* frequency of strategy use. They used, in order of frequency, *metacognitive, memory, social, cognitive, compensatory,* and *affective*. They most frequently used the strategy *"While learning Turkish words, I try to learn their pronunciation along with their meaning"*. They least frequently used the strategy *"Listening to music in the background while learning Turkish words soothes me"*.

Considering the learners of Turkish in Turkey as a group regardless of their language level, they had a *medium* frequency of strategy use. They preferred to use, in order of frequency, *memory,*

metacognitive, cognitive, social, affective, and *compensatory*. The graph below shows the frequency of strategy use on the basis of language levels of the learners.
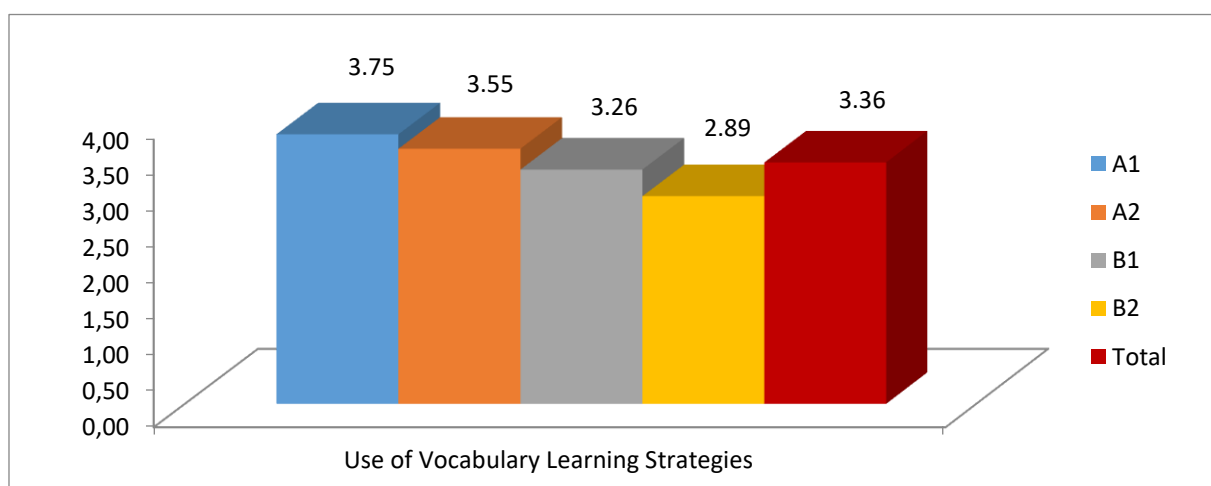
Graph 1. The Frequency of Strategy Use among the Learners of Turkish in Turkey according to Their Levels

Considering the data in Table 2 and Graph 1, A1-level learners had the highest frequency of strategy use, while B2-level had the lowest frequency of strategy use. Accordingly, it seems that the frequency of strategy use steadily declined, moving from A1 to B2 level.

The independent samples t-test was run to find out whether gender had an effect on vocabulary learning strategies preferred by the learners of Turkish in Turkey in line with the question *"What effect does gender have on the use of vocabulary learning strategies?"*. Table 3 below shows the results of the t-test.

Table 3. The T-test Results on the Effect of Gender on the Use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Language Level	Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}f$	df	t	p*
All levels	Female	46	112.89	29.94	5.71	98	.974	.333
	Male	54	107.18	28.58				

* Significant at p<.05

As seen in Table 3, there was a difference of 5.71 between the mean total scores of female and male learners in favour of female learners in terms of the frequency of strategy use; however, this difference was not statistically significant ($t_{(98)}$=0.974, p= 0.33).

Table 4 shows the results of the t-test run to find out whether previous learning of another language had an effect on vocabulary learning strategies preferred by the learners of Turkish in Turkey in line with the question *"What effect does previous learning of another foreign language have on the use of vocabulary learning strategies?"*.

Table 4. The T-test Results on the Effect of Previous Learning of another Language on the Use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Language Level	Learning another language	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$f	df	t	p*
All levels	Yes	61	126.36	20.85	42.44	98	10.049	.000
	No	39	83.92	20.19				

* Significant at p<.05

As seen in Table 4, among the learners of Turkish in Turkey, those who had previously learned another language used vocabulary learning strategies more frequently compared to those who had not learned. There was a difference of 42.44 between the mean total scores of the two groups. According to the results of the t-test, this difference was statistically significant ($t_{(98)}$=10.049, p= 0.00).

Table 5 presents the results of the descriptive analysis run to identify which vocabulary learning strategies the overseas learners of Turkish use in line with the question *"Which vocabulary learning strategies do the overseas learners of Turkish use?"*.

Table 5. Results on Vocabulary Learning Strategies Used by the Overseas Learners of Turkish

| Language Level	N	Memory $\bar{X}$	Cognitive $\bar{X}$	Compensatory $\bar{X}$	Metacognitive $\bar{X}$	Affective $\bar{X}$	Social $\bar{X}$	All Strategies $\bar{X}$
A1	24	3.58	3.52	3.41	3.52	3.44	3.62	3.52
A2	23	3.50	3.35	3.16	3.44	3.30	3.39	3.37
B1	23	3.12	3.02	2.77	3.09	2.95	3.08	3.02
B2	12	2.86	2.75	2.89	2.98	2.78	2.62	2.80
Total	82	3.26	3.16	3.06	3.26	3.12	3.18	3.18

Considering the data in Table 5, among the overseas learners of Turkish, A1-level learners had a *high* frequency of strategy use with a mean score of 3.52. Ranked from the most to the least frequently used, the strategies used by A1-level learners were *social, memory, cognitive, metacognitive, affective,* and *compensatory*. For A1-level learners, the most frequently used strategy was *"I need my teacher's help while learning Turkish words"*, while the least frequently used strategy was *"I prefer to learn words required for my course through videos"*.

A2-level learners had a *medium* frequency of strategy use with a mean score of 3.37. Ranked from the most to the least frequently used, the strategies used by A2-level learners were *memory, metacognitive, social, cognitive, affective,* and *compensatory*. They most frequently used the strategy *"I constantly repeat the Turkish words I learned so that I can remember them"*, while they least frequently used the strategy *"I learn how to pronounce a Turkish word by listening to it a few times through technology"*.

B1-level learners also had a *medium* frequency of strategy use with a mean score of 3.02. They used, in order of frequency, *memory, metacognitive, social, cognitive, affective*, and *compensatory*. They most frequently used the strategy *I relate new Turkish words with those I already know"*, while they least frequently used the strategy *"I learn how to pronounce a Turkish word by listening to it a few times through technology"*.

B2-level learners also had a *medium* frequency of strategy use with a mean score of 2.80. They used, in order of frequency, *metacognitive, compensatory, memory, affective, cognitive*, and *social*. For B2-level learners, the most frequently used strategy was *"I try to find the most appropriate method when learning Turkish words"*, while the least frequently used strategy was *"I ask my friends to correct me when I mispronounce Turkish words I learned"*.

Considering the overseas learners of Turkish as a group regardless of their language level, they had a *medium* frequency of strategy use with a mean score of 3.18. They preferred to use, in order of frequency, *memory, metacognitive, social, cognitive, affective,* and *compensatory*. The graph below shows the frequency of strategy use on the basis of language levels of the learners.
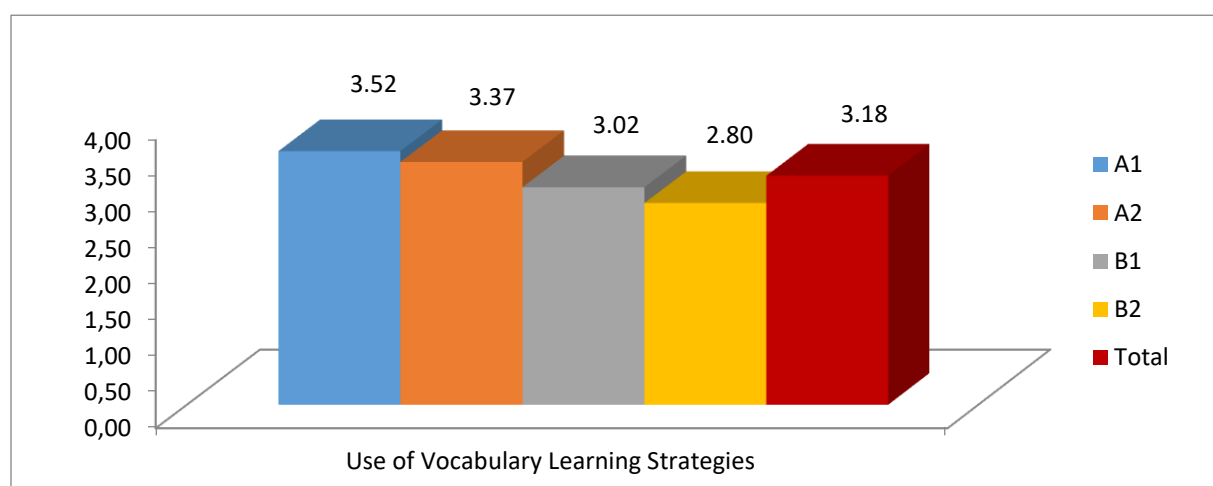
Graph 2. The Frequency of Strategy Use among the Overseas Learners of Turkish according to Their Levels

Considering the data in Table 5 and Graph 2, A1-level learners had the highest frequency of strategy use, while B2-level had the lowest frequency of strategy use. Accordingly, it seems that the frequency of strategy use steadily declined, moving from A1 to B2 level.

The independent samples t-test was run to determine whether gender had an effect on vocabulary learning strategies preferred by the overseas learners of Turkish in line with the question *"What effect does gender have on the use of vocabulary learning strategies?"*. Table 6 below shows the results of the t-test.

Table 6. The T-test Results on the Effect of Gender on the Use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Language Level	Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$f	df	t	p*
All levels	Female	49	103.41	30.687	-0.13	80	-.021	.983
	Male	33	103.54	27.203				

* Significant at p<.05

As seen in Table 6, there was a slight difference of 0.13 between the mean total scores of female and male learners in favour of male learners in terms of the frequency of strategy use; however, according to the results of the t-test, this difference was not statistically significant ($t_{(80)}$=-0.21, p= 0.983).

Table 7 shows the results of the t-test run to find out whether previous learning of another language had an effect on vocabulary learning strategies preferred by the overseas learners of Turkish in line with the question *"What effect does previous learning of another foreign language have on the use of vocabulary learning strategies?"*.

Table 7. The T-test Results on the Effect of Previous Learning of Another Language on the Use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Language Level	Learning another language	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$f	df	t	p*
All levels	Yes	48	119.17	22.371	37.88	80	7.524	.000
	No	34	81.29	22.573				

* Significant at p<.05

Considering the analysis results given in Table 7, among the overseas learners of Turkish, those who had previously learned another foreign or second language used vocabulary learning strategies more frequently compared to those who had not learned. There was a difference of 37.88 between the mean total scores of the two groups. According to the results of the t-test, this difference was statistically significant ($t_{(80)}$=7.524, p= 0.00).

Table 8 below shows the results of one-way ANOVA run to find out whether the current language levels of learners of Turkish in Turkey and abroad had an effect on their use of vocabulary learning strategies in line with the *question "What effect does language level have on the use of vocabulary learning strategies?"*.

Table 8. The Results of One-way ANOVA on the Effect of Language Level on the Use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Language Level	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	p*
A1	54	116.70	24.634	Between-groups	14538.606	3	4846.202	
A2	51	111.02	30.536					
B1	50	100.72	30.081	Within-groups	140583.949	178	789.797	.001
B2	27	91.29	25.912					
Total	182	106.95	29.275	Total	155122.555	181		

* Significant at p<.05

As seen in Table 8, A1-level learners had the highest frequency of strategy use with a mean score of 116.70, while B2-level learners had the lowest frequency of strategy use with a mean score of 91.29. Considering the frequency of strategy use, A2-level learners ranked second with a mean score of 111.02, while B1-level learners ranked third with a mean score of 100.72. According to the results of one-way ANOVA run to determine whether this difference between language levels was statistically significant, the current language level of the learners led to a significant variation in the frequency of strategy use. Table 9 presents the results of the Tukey's post-hoc test run to determine between which language levels significant differences occurred.

Table 9. The Results of the Tukey's Test on the Significance of Difference between Language Levels

Language Level	Language Level	Difference of Means	p*
A1	A2	5.68	.729
	B1	15.98*	.022
	B2	25.41*	.001
A2	B1	10.29	.257
	B2	19.72*	.019
B1	B2	9.42	.498

* Significant at p<.05

As seen in Table 9, the results of the Tukey's test showed a significant difference between the mean frequency of strategy use in A1 level and the mean frequency in B1 and B2 levels. They also showed a significant difference between the mean frequency of strategy use in A2 level and the mean frequency in B2 level. Accordingly, it seems that the current language levels of the learners had an effect on their use of vocabulary learning strategies. This effect means a decline in the frequency of strategy use as language level increases.

Whether the place of learning Turkish led to a significant variation in the use of vocabulary learning strategies was another variable analyzed in this study. Table 10 below presents the results of the independent samples t-test run to answer the question *"Is there a significant difference between the*

learners of Turkish in Turkey and the overseas learners of Turkish in terms of the use of vocabulary learning strategies?".

Table 10. The T-test Results on the Effect of the Place of Learning on the Use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Language Levels	Variable	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$f	df	t	p*
All levels	Turkey	100	109.81	29.202	6.35	180	1.460	.146
	Overseas	82	103.46	29.162				

* Significant at p<.05

As seen in Table 10, the mean score of the learners of Turkish in Turkey was 109.81 and that of the overseas learners of Turkish was 103.46. Accordingly, there was a difference of 6.35; however, this difference was not statistically significant. Thus, it is possible to state that learning Turkish in Turkey or abroad does not have a significant effect on the use of strategies.

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine whether the place of learning Turkish had an effect on vocabulary achievement, in line with the question *"Is there a significant difference between the learners of Turkish in Turkey and the overseas learners of Turkish in terms of their vocabulary?".* The analysis results are given in the table below.

Table 11. The Results of the Mann-Whitney U Test on the Effect of the Place of Learning on Vocabulary Achievement

Language Level	Variable	N	$\bar{X}$	MR	SR	U	z	p*
All levels	Turkey	100	17.46	100.01	10001.0	3249.00	-2.411	.016
	Overseas	82	15.65	81.12	6652.0			

* Significant at p<.05

Considering the mean achievement scores that the learners of all language levels had on the 25-question vocabulary test, the mean score was 17.46 for the learners in Turkey and 15.65 for the overseas learners. There was a difference of 1.81 between the mean scores of the two groups in favour of the learners in Turkey. The t-test results showed that this difference was statistically significant. This result indicates that learning Turkish in Turkey has a positive effect on vocabulary achievement.

The study lastly examined whether there was a relationship between the use of vocabulary learning strategies and the vocabulary achievement of the learners. Correlation analysis was run to identify the presence and direction of this linear relationship in line with the question *"Is there a relationship between vocabulary and the use of vocabulary learning strategies?".* The analysis results are given in the table below.

Table 12. The Results of the Correlation Analysis on the Strategy and Vocabulary Scores

Language Level	Variables	N	r	p*
A1		54	.951	.00
A2		51	.972	.00
B1	Vocabulary Learning Strategies - Vocabulary	50	.976	.00
B2		27	.932	.00
All levels		182	.759	.00

* Significant at p<.05

According to the results of correlation analysis in Table 12, considering A1, A2, B1, and B2 separately and all levels together, there was a significant strong positive correlation between the use of vocabulary learning strategies and the vocabulary of the learners. This correlation indicates that there is a positive interaction between vocabulary and the use of vocabulary learning strategies, and the two variables are not independent. Accordingly, it is now possible to state that learners who highly frequently use vocabulary learning strategies are more successful in vocabulary. Thus, it seems that the more frequently strategies are used, the greater vocabulary achievement will be.

Discussion, Conclusion and Suggestions

This study using a relational screening model attempted to identify vocabulary learning strategies used by the learners of Turkish in Turkey and abroad and to reveal whether there was a relationship between strategy use and vocabulary. The results of the study are discussed below.

Among the learners of Turkish in Turkey, the most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies were *memory strategies* for A1-, A2- and B1-level learners, and *metacognitive strategies* for B2-level learners. The least frequently used strategies were *compensatory strategies* for A1-, A2-, and B1-level learners, and *affective strategies* for B2-level learners. Considering all the learners of Turkish in Turkey as a group regardless of their language level, they most frequently used *memory strategies*, while they least frequently used *compensatory strategies*. The results of this study are both consistent and inconsistent with previous four studies that examined the vocabulary learning strategies used by A1-, A2, B1-, and B2-level learners of Turkish in Turkey. Accordingly, in contrast to the present study, A1-level learners most frequently used *affective strategies* (Kocaman et al., 2018) and least frequently used *social strategies* (Kocaman et al., 2018) and *cognitive strategies* (Baskın et al., 2017). In the study of Kocaman et al. (2018), A2-level learners, unlike those in the present study, most frequently used *affective strategies* and least frequently used *social strategies*. In parallel to the present study, Biçer and Polatcan (2015) reported that B1-level learners most frequently used *memory strategies* and least frequently used *compensatory strategies*. In these previous studies, B2-level learners most frequently used *affective strategies* (Kocaman et al., 2018) and *social strategies* (Biçer & Polatcan 2015; Tok & Yığın, 2014), while they least frequently used *social strategies* (Kocaman et

al., 2018), *cognitive strategies* (Biçer & Polatcan 2015), and *memory strategies* (Tok & Yığın, 2014). Thus, the results on B2-level learners in the previous studies are not consistent with the present study.

The present study found that among the overseas learners of TFL, the most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies were *social strategies* for A1-level learners, *memory strategies* for A2- and B1-level learners, and *metacognitive strategies* for B2-level learners. The least frequently used strategies were *compensatory strategies* for A1-, A2-, and B1-level learners and *social strategies* for B2-level learners. Considering all the overseas learners of Turkish as a group regardless of their language level, they most frequently used *memory strategies* and least frequently used *compensatory strategies*, while they had a *medium* frequency of strategy use. Syed (2014) investigated vocabulary learning strategies used by overseas learners of Turkish in a sample of Indian students of different language levels and reported *memory strategies* as the most frequently used strategies, like the present study, and *metacognitive strategies* as the least frequently used strategies, unlike the present study. In agreement with the present study, the author also reported a *medium* frequency of strategy use.

Considering the results of the present study together, for all the participants, *memory strategies* were the most frequently used strategies, while *compensatory strategies* were the least frequently used. Considering the content of *memory* strategies, users of these strategies often tend to learn words mechanically and much prefer practices of memorisation. Considering the content of *compensatory* strategies, learners prefer learning words through technological applications, videos or games. This result can be triggered by two possible factors. First, learners do not consider such tools to be helpful or do not need them. Second, the number and quality of such tools that learners of Turkish can use are insufficient. Considering the younger generation who are willing and inclined to learn through technological tools, the latter seems to be more reasonable. Therefore, technological applications should be developed and be increased in number to satisfy the vocabulary learning needs of learners of Turkish.

Considering all vocabulary learning strategies together, A1- and A2-level learners had a *high* frequency of strategy use, while B1- and B2-level learners had a *medium* frequency. Considering the learners of all levels as a group, the mean frequency of strategy use was *medium*. The frequency of strategy was found in previous studies to be *high* (Kocaman et al., 2018) and *medium* (Baskın et al., 2017) among A1-level learners, *high* among A2-level learners (Kocaman et al., 2018), *medium* among B1-level learners (Biçer & Polatcan, 2015), and *high* (Biçer & Polatcan, 2015) and *medium* (Kocaman et al., 2018) among B2-level learners. Accordingly, the results of the present study are consistent with the previous study. Considering all these results together, it seems to be helpful to carry out strategy teaching and strategy awareness training practices to promote strategy use, which was found to be of *medium* frequency. As noted by Oxford (1990), the medium frequency of strategy use indicates that learners are aware of strategies but need to be encouraged to use them more frequently.

The present study also found that the use of vocabulary learning strategies did not differ by gender among the learners of Turkish both in Turkey and abroad. This result applies to all language levels. Accordingly, gender did not affect the frequency of strategy use among the learners of Turkish. This result runs in parallel to two previous studies. However, Kocaman et al. (2018) and Baskın et al. (2017) reported no statistically significant difference according to gender; however, the frequency of strategy use was slightly higher among male learners. Contrary to previous studies, the present study found that the frequency of strategy use was higher among female learners. However, as explained above, the difference did not affect the use of vocabulary learning strategies. Thus, it is now possible to state that gender does not predict the frequency of strategy use in foreign language learning.

The study identified a statistically significant difference between the learners who had previously learned another foreign language and those who had not learned in terms of the frequency of strategy use. Accordingly, among the learners of Turkish in Turkey and abroad, those had previously learned another language used vocabulary learning strategies more frequently. This is an expectable result since individuals with previous language learning experience are more likely to use their experiences while learning a new language. Additionally, this experience offers a clear advantage by helping learners to wisely decide what, where, and how to learn. Indeed, these learners know from experience which strategies are more appropriate and helpful for them and act accordingly.

The results of this study showed that the current language level of the learners of TSL and TFL had an effect on their use of strategies and the frequency of strategy use. Accordingly, the highest frequency of strategy used was found in A1 level and the lowest frequency was in B2 level. Thus, the frequency of strategy use was likely to decline in order of A1>A2>B1>B2. This difference between language levels was found to be statistically significant. A1-level learners had a significantly different frequency of strategy use compared to B1- and B2-level learners and it applies to A2-level learners compared to B2-level learners. These results indicate a steady decline in the frequency of strategy use as language level advanced. This situation can arise from the fact that learners feel more competent in Turkish and thus have a low-level motivation for learning vocabulary.

The results of this study showed that learning Turkish in Turkey or in a country where Turkish is not spoken as a first language had an effect on the use of vocabulary learning strategies; however, this effect was statistically insignificant. This is a reasonable result because the use of vocabulary learning strategies is quite related to interest in learning. Thus, the willingness to learn vocabulary in the target language and the tendency to use vocabulary learning strategies are independent of location.

Contrary to its insignificant effect on the frequency of strategy used, the place of learning led to a significant variation in vocabulary achievement. Accordingly, the learners of Turkish in Turkey were more advanced in terms of vocabulary compared to the overseas learners. Thus, the results on

vocabulary achievement were in favour of the learners in Turkey. This result can be explained by the fact that the learners in Turkey are more interested and motivated to learn Turkish because they have to communicate, they have the opportunity to have access to more resources of quality, they receive more meaningful and understandable linguistic inputs by using Turkish in their everyday life, and they more frequently communicate in Turkish by living in an atmosphere surrounded by Turkish.

The last result of this study is the significant strong positive relationship found between the use of vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary achievement of the learners of TSL and TFL. Accordingly, as the frequency of strategy use and the number of strategies used increase, so does vocabulary achievement. This situation indicates an important positive interaction between strategy use and vocabulary. No previous study has investigated the relationship between strategy use and vocabulary in TSL or TFL teaching. However, the result of the present study is in agreement with previous studies investigating the relationship between strategy use and vocabulary in a sample of learners of English and Spanish (Gu, 1994; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Barcroft, 2009; Şener, 2003; Hamzah, Kafipour, & Abdullah, 2009; Waldvogel, 2013; Schmitt, 1997; Lee, 2007). Waldvogel (2013) found a positive correlation between vocabulary size and vocabulary learning strategies in a sample of 475 different-level learners of Spanish as a foreign language. The author reported that less experienced learners of Spanish as a foreign language may be less effective at managing their own vocabulary learning and are not always aware of the benefit of using vocabulary learning strategies. Previous studies on Korean (Lee, 2007), Indonesian (Munandar, Nurweni, & Mahpul, 2015), Thai (Nirattisai & Chiramanee, 2014; Komol & Sripetpun, 2011), Taiwanese (Chang, 2014), Algerian (Nacera, 2010), Iranian (Hamzah, Kafipour, Abdullah, 2009), Chinese (Gu, 1994), and Turkish (Şener, 2015; Bozgeyik, 2011; Tanyer & Öztürk, 2014, Alemdari, 2010) learners of English have reported that learners who are more proficient in vocabulary use vocabulary learning strategies more effectively and there is a significant positive relationship between strategy use and vocabulary.

Taken together, the results of studies on learners of English, Spanish and Turkish are in accord with the nature of language learning because learners who more frequently use vocabulary learning strategies will naturally learn more words than those who less frequently use strategies. Indeed, the use of vocabulary learning strategies and the frequency of strategy use, even alone, have the potential to point to interest, need and effort to learn vocabulary. However, the frequent use of vocabulary learning strategies does not necessarily guarantee that learners learn more words and have a larger vocabulary. For example, learners who need their teacher's help while learning vocabulary and continuously use this strategy may become dependent on their teachers. Likewise, learners who often ask friends how to pronounce words or to correct them when they mispronounce words may become dependent on friends. Using flashcards, posting flashcards somewhere visible, carrying flashcards in pockets, and keeping vocabulary books alone are not enough to ensure a rich vocabulary. These strategies should be

considered as supportive steps for vocabulary learning and as effective aids that learners can use while improving their vocabulary. Indeed, vocabulary learning is seen as a process that learners should carry out internally. Having said that, the choice of strategies based on skills-based gains and on the level, frequency and theme of words, the determination and implementation of teaching method(s) (direct or indirect) to be preferred in the teaching process, and the planning of activities to ensure the retention and skilful use of vocabulary are not something that learners can overcome by using vocabulary learning strategies. However, the use of vocabulary learning strategies should not be neglected on the basis of this rationale. On the contrary, while learning vocabulary in foreign languages, learners should be encouraged to use vocabulary learning strategies to support vocabulary teaching and they should be given awareness training. As a matter of fact, the time allocated to teaching vocabulary is limited because foreign language teaching involves developing many language skills learning along with teaching grammar. Thus, vocabulary learning strategies are important as solution tools that learners can use to minimize the negativity that may be caused by this limitation. However, vocabulary learning in a foreign language should not rely on only vocabulary learning strategies on the basis of the excuse of limited teaching time. The vocabulary learning process, by its very nature, requires a multidimensional and multicomponent approach. Among these components, vocabulary learning strategies should also be considered to be among factors effective in vocabulary learning in a foreign language.

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