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Understanding Students of Color and Power Relations Through Social and Community Inquiry

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Abstract

This paper examines the systems of power in schools and communities and the impact it has on student of color. I explore how the misuse and abuse of power act to shape the consciousness and identity of poor, urban, students of color, and the ways the technology, as an expression of a panopticon technique, acts to shape the phenomenological experience of place for students. Michel Foucault's (1977, 1983) work on power relations along with my personal experiences with the system of power are used to understand students of color's experience in spaces where there is the potential for an imbalance of power. The paper addresses the moral obligations of educators to be aware of their power in relation to working with marginalized groups.

Keywords: Power Relations, Ideology, Systems of Power as Surveillance Technology, Youth Participatory Action Research, Moral Obligation

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Introduction

I would like to start this paper by asking: What is Power? Who possesses power? And what is the moral responsibility or obligation of those in power? One could argue that all students (yellow/brown/white/black; male/female/trans; wealthy and poor, etc.) have some experience with the system of power in the school and community. What is unique to students of color's experience regarding this phenomenon? What does it mean for a student of color to experience power relations? What is the nature of this experience?

One of the aims of this paper is to explore ways in which power manifests in the schools and communities that serve students of color. A second aim is to discuss the importance of future educators to understand the concept of power to better serve marginalized youth in education. When it comes to exploring youth and power relations it makes sense to examine it in the spaces that youth spend most of their time. For vast majority of youth those spaces are the school and the community. I argue that understanding the type of power (surveillance, standardized testing, discipline, etc.) that we impose upon youth of color can assist the professionals who work directly with this population. Furthermore, I share my experience with the system of power in both the social and educational settings. I explore Foucault's (1983) hermeneutic approach of conformity analysis to understand black experience with surveillance technology, and systems of power in urban schools and the community. Throughout the paper, I hope to provide a voice to young black males such as myself to articulate their experience living with system of power in schools and the community.

Experiencing Power

Many Scholars such as Michel Foucault (1977), Lewis Mumford (1989), Stephen Haynes (2003) would say that the purpose of the urban space is to control and survey the poor, to create shame, and also to create systems of power. Shame is a particularly important factor in producing systems of power. Shaming someone involves a loss of face and diminished self-esteem and induces a sense of rage. More importantly, it is unpredictable and irreversible. For some people, rage, anger, and shame are turned inward and may result in self-destructive behavior. Many believe that this explains the increasing number of young black males incarcerated in jail today (US Justice Department, 2001). According to this same report, "today, more African-American men are in jail than in college." For others, anger precipitates explosive action towards others. More often than not those with power are supposed to provide us with security but what about emotional and psychological safety? Even in prisons it is the degree to which inmates feel respected and treated fairly, to which they believe the authorities are in charge and care, that they are psychologically and physically safe. The same applies to schools and communities. People want to feel respected, treated fairly, psychologically and physically safe. Until those needs are met it is a challenge to address other areas of concern. To respond to concerns about safety by making schools and communities more like conventional prisons does little for our emotional safety.

As we discuss the topic of shame, I would like to briefly share with you incidents that I have experienced in which those with power, I felt, abused their power in acts of profiling and shaming. The first incident occurred when I was in high school. I had recently arrived in the United States from Haiti and was not familiar with the rules regarding the use of bus and train passes in the city for public school students. I had used my pass to take the train in the evening to participate in a program that was taking place at my school. I was stopped by a police officer because I was using the pass after school hours. Rather than simply issuing me a verbal reprimand I was questioned extensively and incurred a ticket and a fine by two officers on the train platform. This public shaming of a student who was obviously new to the country was one of my first negative encounters with individuals in positions of power.

The second incident occurred as a college student when I was employed as a tech support specialist. I was sent to a local high school affiliated with the college to fix some technology issues in the early morning hours before the start of the school day. A maintenance worker encountered me in

the building. Rather than asking who I was or what I was doing instead decided to call the police. The police arrived and asked to see my university identification and ask what I was doing in the building. After it was established that I was supposed to be in the building an apology was never issued.

The third incident actually happened on a State University of New York campus late one evening/early morning completing some work in my office. Around 1am, after a long evening of work, I decided it was time to head home for the night. After I had been driving for about a minute, I made a legal turn and the next thing I know an officer pulled up behind my car with lights flashing and sirens blaring. I pulled over and the officer approached the car and asked for my driver's license and registration. Apparently, when he looked up my information it appeared that my license was suspended. Now at this point I understood his need to investigate further, however, things took a turn for the worse when he decided to call the campus police officers for backup. This was all for a driver with a supposed suspended license. I provided the officer with proof from the county court that it was a mistake from the State Department of Motor Vehicles over an auto insurance scam. The court, knowing that it would take a few days for the erroneous suspension to be removed from my record, provided me with a document that I would need to show in the event I was ever pulled over by Police Patrol Officers. The officer disregarded the court document and subsequently handcuffed me and searched the vehicle. When I reflect on these incidents I wonder would this have occurred if I were a white male? Would this have occurred if the media did not portray young black males as dangerous? Would this have occurred if those in power realized their moral obligation to not abuse their power and to consider the ways in which power relations impact the people they are serving.

We have a moral obligation to understand how people deal with the concept of power and the impact it has on their everyday lives. When we examine Abraham Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs we can see that in order to achieve self-actualization or to realize one's potential there are several other needs that must be fulfilled. If students are in a space in which they do not feel safe (emotionally and intellectually), that they do not feel a sense of belonging, and that they do not feel good about themselves because they are being shamed. If we as educators are not aware of these needs not being met or worse if we are contributing to these needs not being met then the students of color that we serve will never achieve self-actualization. One way in which we can understand students of color is through listening to their stories dealing with system power. Whether the narratives are spoken, written, or expressed artistically, we need to understand students' experiences and also understand how we, those with the real and perceived power, contribute to those experiences.

Foucault and Power Relations

I became interested in this topic of power while I was reflecting on the idea of freedom in the United States. I was born and raised in the Island of Haiti in 1974 during the Duvalier dictatorship period. It was a period when personal freedom and privacy were severely limited, censorship was generally enforced, education was tightly controlled, and legal restraints on governmental authority were abolished. A dictatorship limits privacy and visibility because only the dictator's interests are recognized. The government uses military force to control its citizens. Haiti functions as a total monarchy where all power resides in the dictator, with other political representatives abolished or existing as a mere formality.

As a young teenager growing up in Haiti after the departure of Baby Doc (Jean-Claude Duvalier) in 1986, I found that for me and many other youths there was a rejection of Haitian culture. Many of us adopted the American culture because that was what we believed made one modern and free. The end to the Duvalier regime meant the return of many Haitian expatriates. They reinforced the view that Haitian people had envisioned about modernity and democracy. When I was preparing to come to the United States, I already had formed through television a certain vision of what my new life as a Haitian-American would be. I soon discovered that the United States was not at all what I had dreamt of or witnessed on TV.

In Port-au-Prince, unlike New York City, people communicated with each other and there were no iron bars on the doors and windows where people lived. Upon moving to the city of New York at age 15, I was scared of two things: First, being in an unfamiliar environment that I only knew through the media; second, I heard stories that crime and systems of power were a common practice in New York City.

The schools in Haiti were very strict and terrifying. Perfection and rote memorization were the key to everything that we learned in school. The better you knew or recited your lesson, the less your punishment would be. Attending schools in the United States I believed I would not have to worry about any form of punishment. While I was pleased to escape the strictness that characterized the schools in Haiti, I now had a new concern to contend with, which was violence and disciplinary power in and out of the school area. While many believe the lack of discipline from teachers is the cause of school violence, others disagree. They believe that the contemporary society we live in is to blame for school violence. When you walk around most urban schools, it may appear that many think the solution to the problem is to implement security technology. Teachers have been made to feel that they must also take an active stance in keeping the schools secure. Meanwhile, teachers' unions have discouraged teachers from enforcing discipline in the school. John Devine (1996) points to "the gradual withdrawal of teachers, over the past several decades, from the responsibility for school wide discipline, when the union contract removed this function from their job descriptions or reduced it" (p. 91). According to Devine (1996), teachers are now given the impression that "dealing with violence and aggressive students is a subspecialty that they had better not get involved with because they are neither trained in this area nor given that specific responsibility" (p. 94). This naturally leads administrators and legislators to assume that technology as a system of power is a suitable surrogate disciplinarian.

According to Foucault's (1995) account of power relations, "converting a Soul is a form of punishment" (Discipline and Punish, p. 17). In the context of the education system, the role of the teacher is to accomplish this conversion, to produce the soul's acceptance of the relation between dominant and resistant rules and knowledge (Dreyfus, p. 4-7). This relation is what Foucault identified as disciplinary power. Foucault (1995) notes that:

'Discipline' may be identified neither with an institution nor with an apparatus; it is a type of power, a modality for its exercise, comprising a whole set of instruments, techniques, procedures, levels of application, targets; it is a physics' or an 'anatomy' of power, a technology (*Discipline* 215).

In his 1983 essay in *Critical Inquiry*, Foucault notes that "the exercise of power is not simply a relationship between partners, individual or collective; it is a way in which certain actions modify others" (Dreyfus and Rabinow, p. 219). Power in general and specifically disciplinary power are strategic game. Foucault uses the pedagogical institution to express the strategic game of power as the game of truth (Foucault, 1988, p. 18). Foucault explains that "power is not a function of consent. In itself it is not a renunciation of freedom, a transference of rights, the power of each and all delegated to a few" (p.220). In other words, power does not need resistance to be manifest. According to Foucault, "It is a mode of action which does not act directly and immediately on others. Instead it acts upon [others'] actions: an action upon an action" (p. 220). Therefore, "a power relationship can only be articulated on the basis of two elements which are each indispensable if it is really to be a power relationship: that 'the other' (the one over whom power is exercised) be thoroughly recognized and maintained to the very end as a person who acts; and that, faced with a relationship of power, a whole field of responses, reactions, results, and possible inventions may open up" (p. 220). One consequence of what Foucault says here is that power does not require an operator to exert it. An internalized sense of power, rather than outside forces, can be the way in which our actions are modified.

As Foucault (1984) explains:

Change belongs to the domain of the spirits and the subconscious... it was an effort to adjust the mechanisms of power that frame the everyday lives of individuals; an adaptation and a refinement of the machinery that assumes responsibility for and places under surveillance their everyday behavior, their identity, their activity, their apparently unimportant gestures... following circular process the threshold of the passage of violent crimes rises, intolerance to economic offenses increases, control become more numerous (p. 77-78).

Surveillance singles out individuals and regulates behavior, identity, and activities. Foucault notes that individuals or students should “reconstruct and reflect upon the imaginary identity” and create an “illusion of conscious control” of the self through their history and the history of others (1984, p. 21). As for how teachers can avoid dominant asymmetrical power², Foucault (1984) suggests “the problem should be posed in term of rules of law, of relational techniques of government and of ethos, of practice of self and of freedom” (p. 18-19). In other words, teachers can free the self in either creating an identity through the care of the self³.

The Discourse of the Panopticon

The Panopticon, designed by Jeremy Bentham (1791), an English utilitarian philosopher, jurist, and social reformer, is the specific technology of power to which Foucault is referring. Schools have been forced in a sense to create a panoptic space in which students are monitored by security technologies. Foucault (1977) declared: "A relation of surveillance, defined and regulated, is inscribed at the heart of the practice of teaching, not as an additional or adjacent part, but as a mechanism that is inherent to it and which increases its efficiency" (p.176).

Bentham’s utilitarian philosophy was solely based on the premise of the “greatest happiness of the greatest number”. He believed that this philosophy should be the object of individual and government action (Oxford Reference Online, 2002). It is important to note that utilitarianism can no longer hold because of fetishizing of commodities. Foucault (1995) put his philosophy into practice in his book, *Discipline and Punishment*, where he illustrates how these practices are still relevant in the hands of the capitalist and political elites. Foucault called this process a “disciplinary power”. According to William Staples (1997), “The Panopticon remains both an important symbol of modern

² Asymmetrical power- Although power is fluid in symbolic interactions, patterns of domination do exist in society. This is prevalent in Nietzsche’s metaphor “Beasts of Prey” used in *The Genealogy of Morals*. It is clear that the lambs were born physically as a master, but instinctively as a slave. On the other hand, the birds of prey were born physically as a slave, but instinctively as a master. Like the birds of prey, human as subject observe and collect data on the object not for basic needs but rather to fulfill the need for will to power, recognition, greed, control, and domination. The paradox is that the object does the same to the subject. And that power is asymmetrical because both the subject and object are believed to have more power than another. In such situations, the less powerful subject may feel fear and respond aggressively to try to equalize the power, which is the case of black students in the school.

³ Care, narratives, technology of the self, according to Foucault, “permit individuals to effect by their own means or with the help of others a certain number of operations on their own bodies and souls, thoughts, conduct and way of being, so as to transform themselves in order to attain a certain state of happiness, purity, wisdom, perfection or immortality. (Foucault, 1988, p. 18). Modern science such as psychology gave rise to the new technology of the self where modern subjects are constantly engaged in the process of self-making and others. The process of this new identity can be done through the expression art such as grooming and dressing the self, private diary writing, video taping of the self, music making, etc. According to Foucault, we engage through these self-making process because we are constantly observing and collecting data about the self and others. In the classroom, although disciplinary power constantly manifests itself, but asymmetrical power is always in effect as well, where the teacher is the subject that collects data and gazes the students. However, the student cannot collect data neither on themselves or the teachers. To Foucault, this process of the care of the self is important for the self identification.

disciplinary technology and a basic principle on which many forms of contemporary surveillance operate, for example video cameras on school buses” (p. 29).

Bentham’s panopticon worked by replacing the 24-hour guards of public institutions (prisons, schools, and workhouses) with a more efficient surveillance arrangement that created docile individuals who would have to police themselves. Bentham’s panopticon had a central observation tower looking out on a circular ring of cells. Masking the guard, who might occupy the centralized tower, the prison’s design multiplied opportunities for surveillance even as it also freed guards from having to actually observe inmates all the time. As Staples puts it, the device indirectly forced the inmate to be “awe[d] to silence by an invisible eye” (p. 28); in *Discipline and Punish* (1995), Foucault called this process subjection to ‘Le Regard’ (the gaze). This type of disciplinary power would make an individual docile without force or violence. These implications of this kind of surveillance technology are spelled out by Orwell’s novel:

The *telescreen* received and transmitted simultaneously. Any sound that Winston made, above the level of a very low whisper, would be picked up by it; moreover, so long as he remained within the field of vision, which the metal plaque commanded, he could be seen as well as heard. There was of course no way of knowing whether you were being watched at any given moment. How often, or on what system, the ‘thought police’ plugged in on any individual wire was guesswork. It was even conceivable that they watched everybody all the time. But at any rate, they could plug in your wire whenever they wanted to. You had to live – did live, from habit that became instinct – in the assumption that every sound you made was overheard, and except in darkness, every movement scrutinized (pg. 1).

Therefore, whoever owned such technology became an all-seeing, all-knowing “god” who could control time and space. According to Bentham (1979), the technology would replace the use of a dungeon and dark cell to control the prisoner; in the United States, for instance, the Eastern State Penitentiary in Pennsylvania was built on the principle of the panopticon. Indeed, according to (William Staples, 1997), “The panopticon remains both an important symbol of modern disciplinary technology and a basic principle on which many forms of contemporary surveillance operate, for example video cameras on school buses” (p. 29).

In the schools, one of the means (process or technology) of control are the security devices and computer technologies that school administrators are placing inside and outside the school space to monitor students. In addition to simply monitoring, the role of this technology is:

to make the spread of power efficient; to make possible the exercise of power with limited manpower at the least cost; to discipline individuals with the least exertion of overt force by operating on their souls; to increase to a maximum the visibility of those subjected; to involve in its functioning all those who come in contact with the apparatus—the final connection component in Panopticism is the connection between bodies, space, power, and knowledge (Dreyfus and Rabinow, 1983, p. 192).

Surveillance has always been a part of human life. The word surveillance derives from the French word *surveille*, meaning “to watch from above”. Foucault notes in his essay *Resume des Cours* (1979) that governmentality developed when feudalism failed and absolute monarchies lost their power. Government to Foucault means “the way in which the conduct of individuals or of groups might be directed: the government of children, of souls, of communities, of families, of the sick...To govern, in this sense, is to structure the possible field of action of others” (as cited in Hubert Dreyfus & Paul Rabinow, 1983, p.221). In a modern democratic society, people do not have time to check on whether everyone is adhering to a moral contract or rules. The people give this power to the government in the form of individuals who act as “police”. These individuals provide surveillance and reinforce conformity to rules. Foucault refers to this power as disciplinary power, and the basic goal of which is to make people docile (Dreyfus and Rabinow, p.134-135).

According to Staples (1997), surveillance video is an “exercise of disciplinary power that is often continuous, automatic, and anonymous” (p. 25). By definition, Video Surveillance is a process of capturing video through the use of cameras for surveillance. The pictures are usually viewed or recorded, but not broadcast. In the midst of the popularity of surveillance cameras, much of the literature I have found on them focuses on their mechanics (e.g., how to set them up), or on their ethical and moral issues in regard to privacy. However, it is misguided for us to argue over the ethics of a technology whose ideological narratives, representations, and development is unclear. To understand the history of surveillance technology, we need to attend to these elements.

Surveillance is the process of closely monitoring behavior (Oxford Reference Online, 2002). In 1791, the English utilitarian philosopher, jurist, and social reformer Jeremy Bentham (1832) first used the term “Panopticon” to describe his idea of an “inspection house,” to be used for surveillance purposes in public institutions such as prisons, schools, and workhouses. Later, George Orwell’s (1984) famous science fiction novel *1984* introduced “totalitarian telescreen technologies,” which became known in popular culture as “Big Brother.” Orwell’s Big Brother was a form of governmental disciplinary power whose purpose was to restrict individual freedom and expression, not only when people ventured outside, but also inside their own homes. In the public-school system, Big Brother can be evoked by administrators, teachers, police officers, or anyone who watches over students. However, the intent and purpose of Big Brother in schools is said to be security.

Nietzsche and Guilt

American urban public schools such as the Boston Latin School in 1635 and the New York Free School Society in 1795 trained children to become members of a community (Diane Ravich, 1974). The children were forced to internalize discipline and to censor themselves via conscience or guilt. In his Second Essay in *Genealogy of Morals*, Nietzsche (1989) discusses the idea of the conscience in order to better understand the essence of morality. According to Nietzsche (1989), there is nothing that persecutes our morality more than our memory. It is our ability to forget or remember promises that creates guilt and bad conscience. This provides more power to the honorable man, the supermoral autonomous individual, the moral creator, the master, and elite. In *Genealogy of Morals*, Nietzsche (1989) notes:

If something is to stay in the memory it must be burned in: “only that which never ceases to hurt stays in the memory”—this is a main clause of the oldest (unhappily also the most enduring) psychology on earth. (Nietzsche 1989, p. 61)

According to Nietzsche (1989), the notion of guilt (German for debt) arises from a social contract with others. The will to power provides the need to be first. Being first creates guilt or debt on others, therefore converting masters into slaves and slaves into masters. Like Nietzsche, Foucault’s belief was that the most critical role that persons have or should aspire to is the realization of themselves. According to Thiele (1990, P. 915) Nietzsche (1989) believed that “humanity has no stable identity, no intrinsic nature waiting to be realized; Foucault rejected moralistic discourse focusing on norms and standards”. Foucault notes that “the individual, with his identity and characteristics, is the product of a relation of power exercised over bodies, multiplicities, movements, desires, forces” (*Power/Knowledge*, p. 74). Therefore, there is no “true” identity but a mere reflection of the self through others (Lacan, “The Mirror Stage”). And our will to power at every level is the driving force that shapes our identities.

How is power manifested in education?

Control and power relations permeate social institutions. One scholar in the field of education, Nicholas Burbules (1986), states that power falls under three arenas “ideology, authority, and organization” (1986, p. 105). He further explains that these three arenas can overlap in places or organizations, such as in schools and the judicial system. Due to rapid technological growth and

change, organizational reform has become a hot topic, and schools are one of the organizations that are being reformed.

Organizational reform influences everyone involved in education. As Burbules (1986) mentions, organizations are “characterized by hierarchy, specialization, and delegated responsibility” (p. 107). The school is a bureaucratic organization whose job it is to limit teachers’ time and work in the classroom (Hargraeves, 1994, 101), and in which “the administrators are very much the guardians of ‘objective’ time” (p. 101). The ideological framework is based on “meritocracy” (Burbules, 1986, p. 110), which promotes competition rather than cooperation. Research reveals that competition can help create inequity in the classroom and further contribute to feelings of guilt and shame. Moreover, for educators “the higher administrative levels require them to place a higher value on control and efficacy” (Burbules, p. 111). Hargraeves (1994) reminds us that “teachers feel pressure and anxiety because of excessive time demands, along with guilt and frustration because they are implementing new programs less quickly and efficiently than the administrative timelines require” (p. 101). While the intentions of reforms may be in the “best interest” of teachers and students, teachers are forced to make sacrifices in order to maintain the standards that have been put in place by federal legislators.

As for the students, to prepare them for this rapid technological growth and change, new curricula, methodologies, and learning standards have been designed (it is said) to help them succeed in the information age. Foucault (1980) has a great deal to say about the ways people in various settings are dominated and controlled by standard modes of thinking and doing. As Carter Woodson (2000) reminds us that:

No systematic effort toward change has been possible, for, taught the same economics, history, philosophy, literature and religion which have established the present code of morals, the Negro's mind has been brought under the control of his oppressor. The problem of holding the Negro down, therefore, is easily solved. When you control a man's thinking you do not have to worry about his actions. You do not have to tell him not to stand here or go yonder. He will find his "proper place" and will stay in it. You do not need to send him to the back door. He will go without being told. In fact, if there is no back door, he will cut one for his special benefit. (p. xix)

This is relevant to various aspects of organizational management, including management information and process improvement to control men’s thinking, which sometimes carry hidden political intentions that may subvert the official agenda of "efficiency" and "effectiveness." Resistance to change is often generated by assumptions (which may not always be true) about hidden political agendas (Giroux, 2001).

Critical theorists and educators believe that the “emphasis on standards and accountability reflect the worst aspects of competitive capitalism which have so much inspired current reform policy” (Ferneding 2003, p. 3). This emphasis creates a “political drive” to privatize the public schools, where both teachers and students become customers or “target audiences” for companies. Other critical theorists -- such as Chomsky (2002) -- believe that reform is not about learning or the betterment of education; rather, it is about discipline and obedience:

If you happen to be a little innovative or forget to come to school for one day because you were reading a book or something, that’s a tragedy, that’s a crime – because you are not supposed to think. You are supposed to obey, and just proceed through the material in whatever way they require. If you got a ‘C’ in a course, nobody cared, but if you come to school three minutes late, you were sent to the principal’s office. (p. 236)

As a result of this pressure to conform, working-class youth resist any type of reform (Hargraeves, 1994). At the same time, teachers resist the standards that states apply to them, which limit their creativity and time to teach in the classroom (Foucault, 1977).

In school, power is manifested implicitly by the way in which knowledge is shared and kept secret. This relates to Freire's (1968) idea of "banking," in which, "education becomes the act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor. Instead of communicating, the teacher issues communiqués and makes deposits which the students patiently receive, memorize and repeat" (p. 72). Knowledge and reason are supposedly the paths to truth (Foucault, 1980). If you try to resist the teacher's truth, you will be disciplined, punished, or even denied of your own truth (Foucault, 1977). One of the primary tools teachers have to control knowledge is language. Eve Bearne (1999) reminds us that "language does not provide a means of referring to the constituent parts of practices but is the driving force which shapes and controls practices" (p. 20); it is thus the natural tool human beings use to control one another. According to Foucault (1980), in order for an ethical discourse of power to exist, there needs to be an equal balance in place according to which an action may modify another action. Language is a technique of power, and Foucault suggests that ethical discourses of power create equal opportunities for actions to influence each other, and therefore language is the site at which power that must be distributed in educational settings where those with limited access of the language knowledge can feel free to communicate and experience without precaution of violence

Friedrich Nietzsche (1900, 1989) offers an analysis of what happens when power is unevenly distributed. In Nietzsche's analysis of master and slave morality, people (students) who live under a slave morality do not live their lives instinctively, and they lack productivity and success. They live life on the defensive. To make up for their lack of power, they bear some *ressentiment* towards those with the master (teacher) morality (Nietzsche, 1989). And that *ressentiment* can lead to violence. More specifically in terms of education, rapid growth of violence in various educational spheres such as buses, hallways, cafeterias, and gymnasiums during the 1990's has led to the use of video surveillance to impose discipline in the school space and reduce violence. According to Foucault (1977), the function and purpose of surveillance is the power to watch and gaze. As such, security technologies aim to do more than just reduce violence in the educational setting. It functions as another means of facilitating power.

What is the connection between power and violence?

Future educators need to understand the concept of power to better serve marginalized youth in education. Taking courses that explore the theoretical framework of power and ideology in education through the lens of the work by Giroux and McLaren (1992), Darder and Shor (1991-1997), and Burbules and Peters (2004) and through the experience of marginalized group can be one step forward to understand teachers and students of color in the classroom. Teachers and students who are victims of disciplinary power and violence deserve the right to work and attend schools that are safe. The realization of a safe space may lay in the hands of those who understand their moral obligations to marginalized groups. According to Bennett-Johnson (2003), school violence is an issue in high schools, middle schools, and has even entered elementary schools. A quarter (23%) of public-school students have been a victim of a violent act at school (2003). Alain J. Richard (1999) describes violence as:

Situations and actions originating with humans or human structures coupled with foreseeable physical, moral or economic hardship, degradation, death or destruction...[It is] every action or inaction of persons or structures insensitive to and oppressive of the dignity, the values and rights of human persons or other creatures. It negates the fundamental humanness or sacredness of the person or the creature. Violence can be the result of psychological, moral, cultural, or even spiritual forces (p. 13-14).

Relying on this definition and on Foucault's discussion of power, I want to propose a broader definition of violence than a catalogue of physical attacks by students would imply. Foucault sees power as endless 'actions on others'; whereas violence is to act with force on others. Based on this distinction, I want to suggest that if actions do not have equilibrium, then they are by definition violent. If this is so, then I would argue that since teachers usually impose or force disciplinary power

on students and since there is no equilibrium in that imposition, then it would make sense to call the imposition “violence.” For example, when a teacher verbally abuses a student, the law usually implies that this abuse is a violent act. It is also important to note, according to Richard, that aggressiveness has to do with “strength, which has a power to initiate, is also a power to resist a force or attack aggressiveness is related to the need for self-affirmation and is a manifestation of vitality and strength” (p. 14). Therefore, it would be fair to say that violence is a forceful expression or act of aggressiveness.

According to Bennett-Johnson (1997), acts of violence such as assault, rape, and murder occur in schools. Such violence tends to occur in urban school areas with high rates of poverty. Concentrated poverty is correlated with increases in crime, drug abuse, teenage pregnancy, and violent crimes (Jargowsky, 1994). Poverty also leads to such social ills as unemployment, which creates a generational pattern of financial hardship. A study from the Bureau of Justice Statistics found that most students who were victims of violent crimes came from homes where the household income was \$7500 or less per year (2002). While it may appear that in the United States there has been a recent decline in violent crimes, there has not been a decline in overall crime. Violence among juveniles has become a more common occurrence (United States Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2001, 1997; Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1996).

According to the School Violence Resource Center (2001), there are certain “risk factor domains” that are unique to youth violence: (1) Individual risk factors that include delinquent friends, individual aggressiveness, substance abuse, lower intelligence, and birth complications; (2) Family risk factors that include any history of family crime and violence, lower or lack of expectations by parents, lack of monitoring by parents, parental involvement in drugs, and child abuse and neglect; (3) Community risk factors that include the availability of weapons and/or drugs, the prevalence of violence, large numbers of broken homes/families, high transient populations, and economic deprivation within the immediate area; (4) School risk factors that include such things as early delinquent behavior(s), academic failure, lack of commitment to school, and gang involvement (School Violence Resource Center, 2001).

Power and School Space

This section of the paper explores the influence power has in the school space. Furthermore, it explores the appropriateness of using schools as a place where children learn both to control their desires and to follow the rules of the communities in which they reside. I look at American cities through the lens of Lewis Mumford’s typology of *Necropolis*, *Megalopolis*, and *Container space*, while drawing also on Stephen Nathan Hayes’s (2003) view of the urban space as a “container space” separated from white communities. I also refer to Henry Giroux (2001) to address the media reproduction on the youth. Also, using a Marxist framework, I explore how the media embed their ideology on the daily life of the students of color within the school space.

To make sense of my knowledge and experience of alienation in urban spaces, I want to turn here to Mumford’s (1989) description of the modern city as *Necropolis*, *Megalopolis*, or *Container Space*. Before the city, which Mumford describes as *Megalopolis*, became a place of residence, it was a place where people gathered together to discuss and share social, cultural, political, religious, and economic ideas and news. The smaller version of such space is a container. A Container is gathering places were sacred groves and civic institutions such as the stadium, theater, convention center, and university. Mumford (1989) refers to urban sites that served this function metaphorically as “the magnet [that] comes before the container” (p. 9). The early city, like a magnet, has “this ability to attract non-residents to it for intercourse and spiritual stimulus no less than trade [, which] remains one of the essential criteria of the city, a witness to its inherent dynamism, as opposed to the more fixed and indrawn form of the village, hostile to the outsider” (p. 9-10).

Unlike early urban gathering spaces, the modern city is much more like what Mumford called a *Necropolis* space. Mumford (1989) describes a *Necropolis* as “the city of the dead,” or as urban

cemeteries (p. 7). The city of the dead is Mumford metaphorical way of explaining the relationship between *Necropolis*, *Megalopolis*, and *Container*. The Necropolis or cemetery like the surrounding area or the outer part of the Megalopolis's container has always had a powerful influence in the city development: from the Greeks to the Romans, graves and tombstones lined the entrance roads to cities. Playing on this point, Mumford (1989) suggests that:

The city of the dead antedates the city of the living... [it] is the forerunner, almost the core, of every living city. Urban lifestyle spans the historic space between the earliest burial ground for dawn man and the final cemetery, the Necropolis, in which one civilization after another has met its end (p. 7).

Mumford (1989) views the legacy of the Roman urban experience as an analogue to the negative conditions of today's urban spaces, like the Bronx, which are crowded, poorly maintained, and exploited. Mumford (1989) argues that:

Wherever crowds gather in suffocating numbers, wherever rents rise steeply, and housing conditions deteriorate, wherever a one-sided exploitation of distant territories removes the pressure to achieve balance and harmony nearer at hand, there the precedents of Roman building almost automatically revive...From the standpoint of both politics and urbanism, Rome remains a significant lesson of what to avoid (p.242).

The container is a fitting symbol for the city. They are usually the tallest and largest building in the city. It provides its citizens with protection from outside intrusion. To Mumford (1989), "the city was primarily a storehouse, a conservator and accumulator" and "by its command of these functions the city served its ultimate function, that of transformer" (p. 97).

Toward a Pedagogy of Place

Is it the goal of schools to exist/function as a site where children learn about themselves and their community? If the answer to this question is yes, then educators have a very difficult task providing education to city children (Tyack, 1974, p. 14).

Unlike Mumford (1989), Stephen Nathan Haynes (2003) is optimistic about the ghetto. Haynes argues that from the beginnings of the rural flight of blacks from the south to northern cities, the black community has lived in difficult and poor urban sections. Most of the resulting ghettos and slums have been produced not only historically but also systematically. Their purpose has been to contain black communities away from white society. Haynes argues that this demonstrates the need for "pedagogy of place".

However, Haynes (2003) also argues that such pedagogy of place is lost in mainstream white and middle-class black responses to ghettoization. Mainstream white society has responded to the tough and poor conditions of ghettos by taking up the concepts of redevelopment and restoration. Such tactics have been used in other countries, such as South Africa, Brazil, and Guatemala, in an effort to manipulate space and to relocate the "undesirables."

Haynes (2003) also points out that urban space has become synonymous with being Black space or Other. White supremacy is at work here also defining and categorizing space and geographical regions. In the case of American cities, urban planners target slums in order to make neighborhoods more pleasant and attractive places, while politicians seek to develop policies geared toward helping inhabitants of such areas get proper housing. However, Haynes asserts that these efforts collide with the fact that even though ghettos are in bad shape, they have their own subcultures. These subcultures function well for many of the people living in them, working to remind them of the struggles and achievements of the group they belong to. Redevelopment or gentrification of urban communities is often an effort to make barrios and ghettos more pleasing and economically valuable to whites, and this process detracts from the sense of common struggle that communities have

survived and overcome even as it destroys a black public sphere. Haynes (2003) describes this process as the re-contextualization of the black struggles around a particular territory and space. As such steps take place in the ghettos, middle-class blacks see efforts at restoration as welcome efforts to clean up space that has been neglected because it has been thought of as Black or Other. Thus, mainstream white and middle-class black interests collude to drown out pedagogy of place in the name of middle-class consumerism. The middle-class consumerism that comes with the regeneration of a slum does not acknowledge the blackness or the struggles of the community that has inhabited it. The racial identity and history of slum inhabitants are disrupted, and the self-determination of blacks is foreclosed

As an alternative to this narrative, Haynes (2003) argues that ghettos can instead serve their inhabitants as a space of self-actualization as well as radical black subjectivity. Such pedagogy of space serves as a critical narrative, telling the story of what blacks in a community have encountered. The problem with gentrification is that it reduces the struggles of these communities to myths, and rewrites or waters down the struggles and historic movements that have come out of these conditions. It makes the ghettos into a romanticized space with no value.

Space/Class Reproduction

In this section of the paper, I want to explore how surveillance technology shapes the social space of the school. Karl Marx's (1986) concept of production is helpful here. Production is the form of ideology embedded in the daily life of a school. Because the educational system reproduces the "logic" and the "values" of the dominant class, race, gender, language and knowledge, it is an inadequate place to create a fair or critical cultural site. According to Giroux, theories of reproduction "reject the assumption that schools are democratic institutions that promote cultural excellence, value-free knowledge. Instead, reproduction theories focus on how power is used to mediate between schools and the interests of capital" (p. 76). When you ask students why they attend school, their responses are likely to center around becoming a professional in a prestigious field so as to make a lot of money. The idea is that students are taught to believe that the only way to get ahead in life is to obtain an education for the purpose of profit. They are not taught to be critical of the system that embedded those ideas into their heads. Education might be not about making money, but about learning to think rationally and critically—and I would argue that that's what it should be about.

According to Maxine Greene's (1988) book, *The Dialectic of Freedom*, the media has a tremendous effect on the way children and adolescents think about the world. Greene argues that students have become unfulfilled and empty as they have increasingly sought value and meaning in material objects. According to Green (1988), this trend is encouraged by media that market sex and violence to adolescents, demonstrating that advertisers are more concerned with profitability than with social good. Green (1988) states that, "Little is done to counter media manipulation of the young into credulous and ardent consumers of sensation, violence, criminality, things. They are instructed that human worth depends on the possession of commodities" (p.12). In a context in which both media representations and security markets are motivated by profit, it has become difficult to assess the effectiveness of security technology in dealing with violence in the public-school system. From a research perspective, there can be no controlled experiments, but only anecdotal evidence. Most school administrators and educational bureaucrats are reactive to violence rather than proactive (Toby Jackson, 1985), and their knee-jerk reactions prefer quick and immediately profitable fixes. Such reactions are facilitated by the marketing of security technology, so that school security guards and metal detectors are put in place as soon as an incident has occurred. As the report of the Safe School Study put it: "Security personnel do not cause crime, but crime causes schools to hire security personnel, [to purchase security equipment], and our multivariate analysis cannot distinguish between these two explanations" (Toby, 128).

Giroux (2001) believes that the concept of social reproduction originates from a Marxist discourse of economics that downplays politics, ideology, and the culture of modern conditions. Giroux notes that "schooling represents a major social site for the construction of subjectivities and

dispositions, a place where students from different social classes learn the necessary skills to occupy their class-specific locations” (p. 78). Giroux uses Louis Althusser (1971) and Samuel Bowles/Herbert Gintis (1976) to construct a framework of analysis that critiques the theoretical conceptualization of social reproduction of schooling. Althusser argues that Marx’s base-superstructure or cause-and-effect determination of economic theory is not sufficient to explain the social reproduction of schooling. Instead, Althusser (1971) suggests that we should look at *repressive state apparatus* such as police/teachers, and *ideological state apparatus* such as schools, both of which operate with a more stringent authoritarian form of discipline and control. For example, at several of the inner-city schools in the Bronx, three to five police cars are stationed by the school’s entrance, which makes the space appear dangerous. At each corner of the school building, video surveillance cameras are installed to gaze on anyone onsite. Instead of Althusser’s *ideological state apparatus*, Bowles and Gintis (1976) use the notion of the *correspondence principle* which states that students learn to be obedient, compliant, dependable, and motivated by external rewards in the workforce (wage) and in school (grades). Overall, “the educational system helps integrate youth into the economic system” (p. 84).

Giroux (2001) believes that theories of cultural reproduction agree with theories of social reproduction in their sense of power. Theories of cultural reproduction deal with the process by which different cultures reproduce both themselves (socialization) and relationships of dominance / subordination within them. Giroux uses work from Bourdieu to explain this phenomenon, particularly Bourdieu’s notion of the *habitus*. It is usually thought that the choices that we make are based on free will, but the notion of *habitus* says otherwise. Bourdieu argues that choices for action are in theory limitless, but in practice are influenced and limited by the dominant culture. Therefore, creativity, innovation, and concept development do not belong to individuals, but rather to a structure of power in the culture.

Giroux goes on to use Basil Bernstein (1977) to analyze cultural reproduction as a major force that structures student experiences in schools. Bernstein uses *collection code* and *integrated code* to make his argument. Collection code and integrated code are dominant codes that educational systems use to shape the subject’s identity and experience. Collection codes “underlie the division of labor at the heart of the educational experience” (p. 96). In schools, the students are, according to Freire (1968), “depositories” while the teachers are the “depositors”. The integrated code is present in the curriculum, in which subjects and categories become more integrated. However, it leaves more space for negotiation between students and teachers.

Since the traditional Marxist discourse is not sufficient to explain the relations between schooling and the dominant culture, a modified Marxist or neo-Marxist approach has to be employed to better understand and analyze the cultural condition and curricula of schools. The neo-Marxist approach provides us with a more practical instrument for conducting research in the school setting, using a *semiotic apparatus* and its approach to analyze participatory ethnographic data. Giroux notes that the new notion of interpreting the data can be found in the work of David Hargreaves (1982), Willis Paul (1977), Michael Apple (1982), and Michelle Fine (2008).

Conclusion

Since each school has its own culture, I suggest that a longitudinal, humanitarian or libertarian approach be used to explore the power relations that exists in the schools and communities that serve students of color. Moreover, I suggest that schools create a critical pedagogical curriculum in which power can be more democratically shared (Antonia Darder, 2003; Paulo Freire, 1968; Henry Giroux, 2001; Ira Shor, 1996) and that students are provided the space to share their experiences and narratives of their encounters with systems of power. These suggestions propose an alternative approach to understanding the issue of power relations school, how power shapes identity, and how we as educators may (knowingly or unknowingly) contribute to feelings of shame, guilt, and powerlessness and how this manifest itself in many forms for students of color. This approach requires that we ask teachers whether they are contributing to or re-enforcing the power discipline curriculum that is commonplace in most schools..

The technology of the oppressed is a system of power and control. It is not instrumental rather a substantive process that we created to extend our desire to control. We have learned from the western world that the self can be recognized or manifested through the process of controlling others. Like any other technology, security surveillance technology in urban schools oppresses and alienates students from themselves.

In the past decade, we have learned from historians and philosophers the impact technology has on us. So, why are we still using it? Based on what we have learned about the essence of man from Bentham (1832, 1995) and Nietzsche (1900, 1989), it makes perfect sense why man cannot detach himself from technology. Producing technology is like producing children. Man knows how much work is required in order to support his children and the woman knows how much pain she will have to go through in order to have their children. But, as selfish as man can be, they still decide to have children no matter how painful it is or will be in the years to come. Therefore, this tells you that pain does not matter as long their creation brings forth the basic need of completeness, self-identification, and happiness to their lives.

Technology brings all basic needs that man wants and that is why we cannot detach from it. Asking a human being to surrender their need for control of others is as painful as being shot with a gun. However, the least we can do is to ask those who fulfill these technologies in our society to share part of themselves, open their heart, bring and understand the pain.

We are living at a time when they have to deal with a technology that dehumanizes, monitors and scrutinizes their body and soul in the school. Jacques Ellul (1964) stated that "Education no longer has a humanist end or any value in itself; it has only one goal, to create technicians" (p. 248). The aim is to sell or force "good" knowledge on students that will benefit an elite power structure. From my own experience to the narrative in the invisible man, we are all victims of the oppression system. In the invisible man, the modern institutional and social system has gone far from its master to the point that it has become a challenge to accommodate it to their and others lifestyle. The technology has alienated black people for so long that it has made them feel that the alienation experienced by Shakespeare's Caliban is normal. Black people did not choose or were born as a Caliban. However, the new modern science and technological mode of production, which Marx refers to as capitalist mode of production, has transformed both its master and its master's oppressees. Marx notes that "production does not simply produce man as a commodity, the human commodity, man in the role of commodity; it produces him in keeping with this role as a mentally and physically dehumanized being" (Marx, 1964, p. 121). If young black man is to help himself, he needs to realize the alienation that has been placed upon him. He needs to realize that this alienation is the root of his anger towards himself and society. Martin Heidegger (1977) believes through fine art or poetic revealing that the true self can be found. He notes that "the poetical brings the true into the splendor of what Plato in the Phaedrus calls to ekphanestaton, that which shines forth most purely. The poetical thoroughly pervades every art, every revealing of coming to presence into the beautiful" (p. 34). That is exactly what Foucault refers to as the "techniques of the self". You do not make the self happy or safe by treating it like a system by observing, collecting data, and giving treatment based on feedback per se rather you respect and love the body the same way you would love and respect the mind. You do not attempt to change or control the body rather you give the body the fundamentals to make it happy. You let the body and mind communicate with the oppressor (security surveillance technology aka technology of control). As Foucault notes, this form of communication can be diary writing, video-taping, oral expression, etc. As Freire (1968) notes in *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*,

Love is at the same time the foundation of dialogue and dialogue itself. It is thus necessarily the task of responsible Subjects and cannot exist in a relation of domination. Domination reveals the pathology of love: sadism is the dominator and masochism in the dominated. Because love is an act of courage, not of fear, love is commitment to others. No matter where the oppressed are found, the act of love is commitment to their cause—the cause of liberation. And this commitment, because it is loving, is dialogical. As an act of bravery, love cannot be sentimental; as an act of freedom it must not serve as a pretext for manipulation. It must

generate other acts of freedom; otherwise it is not love. Only by abolishing the situation of oppression is it possible to restore the love which that situation made impossible. If I do not love the world—if I do not love life—if I do not love people—I cannot enter into dialogue (p. 89-90).

Therefore, there is a need for those with power, whether the power is real or perceived, to understand the impact the power relation has on their understanding of student of color.

Surveillance has always been a part of human life. The word surveillance derives from the French word *surveille*, meaning, “to watch from above”. As a child, I was taught that God was always above me. If I did something “bad” or sinned, I knew that God would know and punish me. As an adult, one would not think that the same philosophy or belief would be imposed upon us a form of governmentality.

In a modern democratic society, people do not have the time to monitor whether everyone is adhering to a moral contract or rules. The people give this power to the government in the form of individuals who act as “police.” These individuals provide surveillance and reinforce conformity to rules. Foucault refers to this power as disciplinary power, and the basic goal of which is to make people docile or obedient.

Surveillance technology is traditionally defined as close observation, especially of a suspected spy or criminal. Others define surveillance as “any collection and processing of personal data, whether identifiable or not, for the purposes of influencing or managing those whose data have been garnered...scrutiny through the use of technical means to extract or create personal or group data, whether from individuals or contexts” (p. 2). Examples include video surveillance cameras; computer matching, profiling, and data mining; computer and electronic location monitoring; weapons detection devices. Various self-administered tests and thermal and other forms of imaging to reveal what is behind walls and enclosures. In the case of schools, any surveillance activities involving the collection, retention, use, disclosure, and disposal of personal information in the form of security surveillance must comply with the guidelines of the National Institute of Justice of the U.S. Department of Justice.

When we can no longer cover up the pain and violence that abuses of power is causing to our society, especially our youth, we (those with power) extend ourselves to various technical apparatus, such as surveillance technology (technology of control), to do the job for us. And when that technology fails or causes more pain, we invent an extended version of technology not only to protect us, but also to protect the technology from itself. The question remains: when do realize enough is enough? We need to think through, have a space to express, and have access to educational technologies, knowledge, and ideas to confess and testify and further create mutual promise and forgiveness and it is only then that we will be liberated and put a closure to violence in the self and the community. It is my hope that the readers of this paper, many of whom may be school leaders, future educators, or professors of pre-service educators who are entrusted with the protection and safety of students take some time to ask, “what is my moral obligation as an educator” but more importantly, “What is my moral obligation as a human being interacting with another human being” particularly those who are different from me?

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A Comparison of Human Rights Education in Social Studies Textbooks in Turkey and the United State ¹

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to compare the level of allocation of human rights education issues in social studies textbooks in Turkey and the United States. For this aim, six social studies textbooks from both countries were examined. Textbooks were analyzed in terms of their level of “human rights education issues,” in accordance with Karaman - Kepenekci’s (1999) subcategories. A content analysis method was used to analyze the textbooks. As a result, it was observed that human rights education issues were included more in Turkish social studies textbooks. The study showed that Turkish and United States textbooks contained the “rights” subcategory the most. While the intensity scores of the “democracy,” “freedom,” and “judgment” subcategories were listed the highest in both countries’ textbooks, on the other hand, the intensity scores of the “tolerance” and “peace” subcategories were placed last in the textbooks of both countries.

Keywords: Human rights education; textbooks; social studies, Turkey, the United States

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Introduction

“Rights that are so basic that they belong to all human beings are called human rights” (Donnelly & Howard, 1994). In other words, human rights are rights inherent to all human beings, whatever our nationality, sex, national or ethnic origin, color, religion, place of residence, language, or any other status is.

Human rights has been increasing since the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 (Donnelly, 1989; Donnelly & Howard, 1994; Eide, 1983; Gemalmaz, 2001; UNESCO, 2007). It raises the notion of universality at a time particularly when it is increasingly demanded and asserted by people on all continents. In 1948, the international community overwhelmingly endorsed the concept of a global rights regime through the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This treaty is followed by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960), the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (1966) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1981).

Human rights have been a major issue in international politics since World War II (Cladue, 1996; Diaz, 2005; Freeman, 2011; UNESCO, 2007). There were significant changes in human rights in the later nineteenth century, such as wide-ranging natural and social sciences, globalization of the economy and communications, political change, and so on. These changes have been added to new rights in the human rights corpus; these rights led to the protection of other rights (Babbio, 1996; Carey, 1970; Evans, 2005; Falk, 2004; Ishay, 2004; Vincent, 2010). The need for legislation to prevent the violation of human rights is not enough; therefore, human rights must be part of an educational program. The effectiveness of standards alone without enforcement measures can be enhanced through educational steps like human rights education courses (Carey, 1970; Cladue, 1996).

Human rights education is rapidly spreading, meeting important and widely felt social needs (Cladue, 1996; Mohanty, 2000).

“The United Nations’ Decade of Human Rights Education (1995-2004) became the first explicit effort to bring human rights education to the center of attention, although human rights education had been explored through other United Nations documents, specifically the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation Concerning Human Rights Education, the 1993 UNESCO World Plan of Action on Education for Human Rights and Democracy, and specific articles in the Vienna Declaration (1993), the Draft Plan of Action for the United Nations’ Decade of Human Rights Education (1978) animated efforts to building a universal culture of human rights through education” (Lapayese, 2002).

The United Nations General Assembly, for the United Nations’ Decade for Human Rights Education, defined human rights education in the following way:

“Human rights education contributes to a concept of development consistent with the dignity of women and men of all ages that takes into account the diverse segments of society such as children, indigenous peoples, minorities and disabled persons.... Each woman, man and child, to realize their full human potential, must be made aware of all their human rights” (United Nations General Assembly Res. 49/184, establishing United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education, 1994).

Lapayese (2002) states, human rights education is a life-long process by which people in all strata of society learn respect for the dignity of others and the means and methods of ensuring that respect in all societies. Human rights education is the only guarantee of demonstrating our commitment to human dignity, the promotion of an adequate standard of rights to everyone, and the promotion of world peace and prosperity for all. It also guarantees fundamental human rights and

freedom to all people, regardless of race, gender, region, religion, and economic and political statuses (Chaurasia, 2000; Cladue, 1996; Preece, 2005).

Textbooks and human rights education

Textbooks are basic instructional materials. In other words, textbooks are the most basic learning resources. The first reason why textbooks are assigned in the process of teaching and learning is because they are prepared in accordance with the program. The second reason why textbooks are assigned in the process of teaching and learning is because they are used as a teaching tool. This is a very important printed material that students should have. (Bayrakçı, 2005; Kılıç, 2005; Tan, 2007; Turner, 2004; Yanpar Şahin & Yıldırım, 2001).

Although textbooks are not the sole available instructional tools, as a result of the influence of technological developments, they are still major teaching tools playing an important role in education (Aslan & Karaman-Kepenekçi, 2008; Coşkun, 1996). Textbooks provide many advantages to educators, for example, to animate the curriculum and give life to topics taught in the class (Aslan & Karaman-Kepenekçi, 2008; UNESCO, 2007). Even though teaching and learning cultures differ from country to country and sometimes even within the same country, teachers still use textbooks. Even though teaching and learning cultures differ from country to country and sometimes even within the same country, teachers still use textbooks almost all over the world for preparing and structuring their lessons.

“Human rights are not only essential to have and understand but also these results suggest that many students in school may have a very inadequate understanding of connections between political ideas, institutions, and political life. Therefore, human rights education must be directed to providing an education which will enable children to use their human rights. Such education, in turn, depends on knowledge and instrumental tools” (Rendel, 1991). “The possession of human rights is not enough to dispense with teaching and education in the spirit of respect for human rights; it should also be taught as a subject integrated into the appropriate disciplines and, in particular, in fields such as philosophy, political science, law, and theology, also they should be taught as an independent course” (United Nations Decade of Human Rights Education UNESCO, 1987). Human rights must be taught at all levels of the educational system, as well as out-of-school settings, including literacy. Also, states must strive to improve and broaden human rights education and teaching and cooperate to this end (Cladue, 1996).

There has been a steady increase in the literature (Bajaj, 2004; 2011; Balton, 1992; Bottery, 1999; Branson & Purta, 1982; Claude, 1996; Çayir & Bağli 2011; Davies, 2010; Gülmez, 2001; Guyette, 2009; Holland, 2011; Hornberg, 2002; Karaman-Kepenekci, 1998; 1999a; 2000; Karaman-Kepenekçi & Gokce, 2000; Kerr and Keating, 2011; Lenhart & Savolainen, 2002; Leung, at el., 2011; Nazzari, at el., 2005; Patrick, 1999; Power & Allison, 2000; Tibbitts, 2002; UNESCO, 1969; 1987; 2007; Waldman, 2007) on human rights education in recent years.

There is also literature both in Turkey and in the world (Aslan & Karaman – Kepenekçi, 2008; 2010; Çayir, 2003; Drubay, 1986; Karaman-Kepenekçi, 1999b; 2003; 2005; 2009; 2010a; 2010b; 2011; Karaman-Kepenekçi & Aslan, 2011; Leung; 2008; Lucas, 2009; MEB, 2005; Meyer, at el., 2010; Merey, 2012a; 2012b; Nayir & Karaman – Kepenekçi, 2011; Parpuçi & Merey, 2012; Savaş, 2004) related to contributions from other courses taught at school and the importance of textbooks in human rights education. In Turkey, there have been a number of studies conducted by Karaman-Kepenekçi about citizenship and human rights issues. Karaman - Kepenekçi (1999b)'s study aimed to determine the level of allocation of human rights issues in 17 Turkish high school textbooks and found that the intensity scores of human rights issues in religion, sociology, and philosophy textbooks were higher than the other analyzed high school textbooks. In Karaman - Kepenekçi (2003)'s study on human rights and responsibility education in elementary school, it was found that intensity scores on human rights issues were higher than responsibility issues. Karaman – Kepenekçi (2005)'s comparison

study, titled “citizenship and human rights education: A comparison of government and civics textbooks in Turkey and the United States,” found that the Intensity score of the category of “Rights” was at the highest level in almost all of the books studied. In Aslan & Karaman-Kepenekçi (2008)’s “Human rights Education: A comparison of mother tongue textbooks in Turkey and France,” it was observed that human rights issues are included in Turkish textbooks more frequently than in French textbooks. In History Foundation (2003)’s “Promoting Human Rights in Primary and Secondary School Textbooks,” this study recommended re-writing the primary and secondary textbooks so that future democratic citizens would be more aware of the underlying issues. In Savaş (2004)’s “Human rights in Turkish textbooks in primary schools,” it was found that citizenship and human rights issues were less common in Turkish textbooks than discovered by Karaman- Kepenekçi in Turkish primary school textbooks.

Social Studies Textbooks and Human Rights Education

In many countries, efforts to promote human rights education have proceeded at various rates depending on political, social, cultural, and educational factors. Today, especially in school contexts, human rights education is invariably integrated into core subject areas such as social studies courses (Eide, 1983; Starkey, 1991; Tarrow, 1987).

Social studies is the integrated study of the social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence... The primary purpose of social studies is to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of culturally diverse, democratic society in the interdependent world (NCSS, 1994).

Social studies is the study of human beings. The aim of social studies in the elementary schools in Turkey is to introduce children to the world of people. The main aim of the social studies courses that have been practiced in Turkey is expressed as to provide an environment and opportunity for an individual to understand and to make contributions to himself/ herself, to the society in which he/ she lives, and to the world with his/ her own wishes and skills. In other words, the main purpose for teaching social studies is citizenship education (Ministry of National Education, 2005; Safran, 2004; Tezgel, 2006). United States textbooks in United States schools have similar objectives and they are considered part of citizenship education as the basic purpose of social studies (Chapin & Messick, 2002; Ellis, 2002).

Social studies classes are of great importance in elementary school programs because the overall objective of these programs is to educate individuals about being beneficial to themselves, their community, and global humanity. Every individual has different characteristics from another. Social studies combine different individuals and raises happy individuals who respect themselves and others in the light of basic rights and freedoms (Sezer, 2005). In Turkey, in social studies lessons, citizenship, democracy and human rights issues are presented as interdisciplinary and in this course, children are raised as individuals who know their rights and use them to fulfill their responsibilities (Karaman – Kepenekçi, 2010). A good book that will introduce students to the management of society, its economic characteristics, rights and duties of its citizens, and educates them about their country and the world will help to raise the future of the modern individual (Aycan, at el., 2001).

As it can be seen, there is only research about human rights education issues in social studies textbooks in Turkey. For example, Karaman – Kepenekçi (2003) examined the level of human rights and responsibility education in primary school. On the other hand, the level of allocation to human rights issues in United States social studies textbooks has yet to be examined. Therefore, it is thought important to examine the human rights issues in these textbooks and is thought to be useful to examine the content of both the texts. The comparison of social studies textbooks of the two countries will help change, develop and explain not only the textbooks, but also the global dimension of textbooks, as well as local, regional and national dimensions.

Firstly, the reason for choosing textbooks used in the United States for comparison is the fact that extensive and successful studies are being carried out in the United States about human rights education by various centers and organizations (e.g., Human Rights Centers, Children Protection Center, Center for Civic Education, Center for the Study of Human Rights, National Center for Human Rights Education, Center for Civic Education and Service, Citizenship Central, and the Center for Civic Education Through Law,) (Karaman-Kepenekçi, 2005). Today is an important time for human rights education in the United States because many big states, such as New York and California, have mandated human rights education programs for their schools, while others such as New Jersey and Connecticut recommend its inclusion in the school curriculum. Also, human rights enter the public school curriculum as a dimension of global education elsewhere. The government of the United States was founded on the belief that the primary purpose of government is to secure and protect the rights of the people (Starkey, 1991).

Objective of the study

The main objective of this study is to make a comparison between social studies textbooks in Turkey and United States in term of human rights issues.

Method

Selection of textbooks

In Turkey, primary level education is compulsory, encompassing twelve years between the ages of 6-18, Since the 2012-13 academic year compulsory education in Turkey increased to 12 years is divided into three stages. The first level consists of 4 years of primary school (1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th grade), second stage is 4 years of middle school (5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grade) The third level is organized as a 4-year high school (9th, 10th, 11th and 12th grade). In Turkey, social studies lessons begin in 4th grade and continue up to 7th grade. That is to say, in primary schools, social studies lessons are compulsory in 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th grades.

In the United States, the duration of compulsory education generally changes from state to state. Compulsory education covers the education of children between the ages of 6-16; the first six years are called the primary education level and the next four years are generally referred to as middle school or junior high school. Additionally, in the United States, social studies lessons begin at various levels in primary schools and vary from state to state. However, in the Midwest, social studies lessons usually begin in pre-school and continue until the sixth grade.

In this study, conducted in Turkey, social studies textbooks, recommended by the Turkish Ministries of Education, were selected.

Procedures

The textbooks were analyzed through “content analysis”, a qualitative research method frequently used in this type of studies. The main purpose in content analysis is to attain concepts and connections, which can serve to explain the collected data (Miller, 1997; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005). Content analysis is one of the fastest-growing technique in quantitative research. It may be briefly defined as the systematic, objective, quantitative analysis of message characteristics (Neuendorf, 2002, Cited in, Aslan, 2011). In the study, “Human Rights Education ” was taken as the analysis category, and this main category was divided into six subcategories as “Rights”, “Freedom”, “Democracy” , “Justice”, Tolerance” and “Peace” in accordance with Karaman – Kepenekçi ’s (1999b) classification. These subcategories were defined in the present analysis as follows (Karaman – Kepenekçi, 1999b):

- **Rights:** Benefits protected by law. Rights are divided into rights like civil, political, social.
- **Freedom:** Restriction and non-coercion, independent movement, having the power to do anything that is allowed by independence, sovereignty, and law.
- **Democracy:** People are self-directed. In other words, power is governed by elected representatives through a free and fair electoral system by the people.
- **Justice:** To be fair, to comply with the right, to punish the offender and to ensure that the managers act in accordance with the blood, honesty and dispute resolution.
- **Tolerance:** To show tolerance, to be respectful of differences, not to apply force or pressure, to have compromise and forgiveness
- **Peace:** co-existence, regular and peaceful living, safe environment, conflict resolution, anarchy, aggression, fraternity, social unity, irregularity or lack of tension".

In generating the inter-rater reliability of the content areas of interest, two subcategories and a textbook were arbitrarily selected and coded by the co-authors of the paper (namely the 'Rights' and 'Tolerance' subcategories and 'Turkish Textbook 5'). A consistency with an average of 85.5% was generated, implying good inter-rater reliability (Hall & Houten, 1983). All of the material, inclusive of poems, readings, and comprehension passages in the textbooks were assessed. However, the table of contents, chronology, bibliography, glossary, pictures, photos, maps, and graphics were not excluded in the coding process.

When examining the textbooks, a 'sentence' was chosen as the unit of analysis. Then, the frequency of subcategories was recorded for each sentences. To determine the total number of words in the texts, each word was counted individually and, accordingly, the values of the subcategories within the textbooks are expressed as percentage, frequency, and intensity values in the tables.

In order to find out the approximate total word number in each textbook, the remaining number of pages has been calculated and then multiplied by an average number of words on a page. The average number of words on a page was determined by calculating the average number of words from the three pages chosen randomly from the beginning, middle, and end of each textbook. The values of categories in the textbooks have been indicated in the tables as frequency, percentage, and intensity values. Coding was done by the researcher. For each textbook, the subcategory percentages and the subcategory intensity scores were obtained using the formulas given below (Aslan & Karaman- Kepenekçi, 2008; Karaman – Kepenekçi, 1999b, 2005):

Subcategory frequency

$$\text{Subcategory percentage} = \frac{\text{Subcategory frequency}}{\text{Total frequency of all subcategories}} \times 100$$

Subcategory frequency

$$\text{Subcategory intensity score} = \frac{\text{Subcategory frequency}}{\text{Total word number of the texts}} \times 1000$$

Due to small values in the original calculation, the intensity scores of all subcategories were multiplied by 1000 in order to avoid complications while interpreting. This modified operation on intensity scores was merely a matter of convenience.

Findings

Analysis of the Turkish Social Studies Textbooks

The TT-4 Textbooks

There are eight units that are found in the TT-4 Textbook; these include: “I Know Myself”, “I Am Learning My Past”, “We Live in a Place”, “From Production to Consumption”, “Lucky to Have”, “All Together”, “People and Government”, and “Friends Away From Home”. At the beginning of each unit under the “Preparatory Work” heading are a few “Prep Questions” that are specific to the unit content, while toward the end of each unit are “Assessment Questions”. In addition, the last pages of the textbooks typically include a Chronology, Bibliography, Glossary, Turkey Map, and Turkish World Map.

Table 1. Dissemination of all of the subcategories in Turkish social studies textbooks according to frequency (f), percentage (%), and intensity score (IS)

SUBCATEGORIES		THE TURKISH SOCIAL STUDENTS TEXTBOOKS			
		TT4 (21.750)*	TT5 (24.100)*	TT6 (27.245)*	TOTAL
Rights	f	170	280	320	770
	%	40.6	47.7	44.9	44.8
	IS	7.8	11.7	11.7	31.1
Freedom	f	45	48	95	188
	%	10.7	8.2	13.3	10.9
	IS	2.1	2.0	3.5	7.6
Democracy	f	130	125	144	399
	%	31.0	21.3	20.2	23.3
	IS	6.0	5.2	5.3	16.5
Justice	f	32	72	82	186
	%	7.6	12.3	11.5	10.8
	IS	1.5	3.0	3.0	7.5
Tolerance	f	24	34	36	94
	%	5.7	5.7	5.1	5.5
	IS	1.1	1.4	1.3	3.8
Peace	f	18	28	35	81
	%	4.3	4.8	4.9	4.7
	IS	0.8	1.2	1.3	3.3
TOTAL	f	419	587	712	1718
	%	100	100	100	100
	IS	19.3	24.4	26.1	69.8

*Total number of words in textbook

As can be seen in Table 1, the subcategories of “Rights” (7.8) and “Democracy” (6.0) have the highest intensity scores in this TT-4 textbook. These are the highest, followed by the subcategory of “Freedom” (2.0); the lowest intensity scores respectively include the “Justice” (1.5), “Tolerance” (1.1) and “Peace” (0.8) subcategories, with all three possessing fairly similar intensity ratios.

The lists below are some examples of statements for some categories in the textbooks:

- *Mrs. Gulden did a survey about consumer rights. She learned that the official and voluntary organizations have protected the rights of the consumer. She applied to one of these associations (TT4, p92).*
- *Our people gain the right to participate in management thanks to the elections. After the votes for the election are counted, the candidate with the most votes is selected as mayor (TT4, p151).*
- *Children's council elections are made by taking into account the principles of democracy. Each child who applies for the children's council candidacy is admitted as "the candidate child". To select the children's council, the names of four children are written into the voting records. Votes are counted in front of everyone at the end of the election. Candidates who get the most votes are selected to the children's council. (TT4, p157).*
- *Today, the Parliament (Grand National Assembly of Turkey) has 550 deputies. Members of the Parliament who are elected with the public's votes express their views and opinions in the Parliament related to our country. Everyone expresses their opinions in a democratic atmosphere (TT4, p161).*

The TT-5 Textbooks

There are eight units that are found in the TT-5 textbook; these include: "I Am Learning My Rights", "Turkey Step by Step", "We Know Our Region", "Our Products", "To Realize Dreams", "The Employees for Society", "A Country, A Flag", "We Are One World" Similarly, as in TT-4 textbooks, there are "Prep Questions" and "Assessment Questions" at the beginning and end of each unit, respectively. Again, there was a Chronology, Bibliography, Glossary, Turkey Map, and Turkish World Map located near the end of the textbook.

As can be seen in Table 1, the subcategories of "Rights" (11.7) and "Democracy" (5.2) have the highest intensity scores in this TT-5 textbook. These are the highest, followed by the subcategory of "Justice" (3.0), while "Freedom" (2.0), "Tolerance" (1.4), and "Peace" (1.2), respectively had the lowest intensity scores, again with close intensity ratio magnitudes.

In the list below are some examples of statements for some categories in the textbooks:

- *The state works for the nation and the nation's peace... the populism principle is based on national sovereignty for the nation, that is, democracy is based on the principle of populism. Atatürk, on this subject, says: "Our view is that the dominance of populism in the administration is to give directly to the public (TT5, p46).*
- *The republic of Turkey is a democratic, secular, and social state governed by the rule of law, bearing in mind the concepts of public peace, national solidarity, and justice; respecting human rights; ... (TT5, p149).*
- *The 1961 Constitution has expanded the scope of fundamental rights and freedoms (TT5, p149).*
- *The citizens started to use their democratic rights and to select rulers of the country (TT5, p150).*

The TT-6 Textbooks

There are seven units that are found in the TT-6 Textbook. They are: “I Am Learning Social Studies”, “Life on Earth”, “Turks on the Ipek Road”, “Resources of Our Country”, “Our Country and World”, “Adventure of Democracy”, and “Electronic Century “. At the beginning of each topic or issue and under the heading of Preparatory Work, according to the unit, there are a few “Prep Questions” and, at the end of each unit are “Assessment Questions”. In addition, at the end of the textbook, there is a Chronology, Bibliography, Glossary, Turkey Map, and Turkish World Map.

As can be seen in Table 1, the subcategories of “Rights” (11.7) and “Democracy” (5.3) display the highest intensity scores. These two subcategories are highest, followed by the subcategories of ‘freedom’ (3.5), ‘Justice’ (3.0), and ‘tolerance’ and ‘peace’ (1.3).

The list below includes some examples of statements for some categories in the textbooks:

- *Our King, to develop our country’s trade and to protect our rights, further solidified the laws of the Babylonian ruler Hammurabi. (TT6, p52).*
- *“I’m the king of Babylon, Hammurabi, and did not find the legal rules of the Sumerians sufficient. I developed them, increased penalties, and prepared the first constitution” (TT6, p51).*
- *The Great Seljuk Sultan says, “everyone should search for the laws and judgments of all orders in the past, of the Seljuk sultans, and others (TT6, p88).*
- *I know that I have the right to vote and be elected. (TT6, p161)*

Analysis of the United States Social Studies Textbooks

The UST-4 Textbooks

There are eight units that are found in the TT-4 Textbook, namely: “A View of the United States”, “The Northeast”, “The South”, “The Middle West”, “The West”, and “The United States Today.” Just as in the TT textbooks, at the beginning of each unit is a Preparatory Work section with a few “Prep Questions” pertaining to the content within the unit and, at the end of each unit, are “Assessment Questions”. *In addition, at the end of the textbook, there is an Almanac (Facts About the United States, Facts About the States, Facts About the President), a Biographical Dictionary, Gazetteer, Glossary, and Index.*

Table 2. Dissemination of all the subcategories In the United States social studies textbooks according to frequency (f), percentage (%) and intensity score (IS)

SUBCATEGORIES		THE UNITED STATES TEXTBOOKS			
		UST4 (111.050)*	UST5 (150.450)*	UST6 (144.100)*	TOTAL
Rights	f	120	480	300	900
	%	29.7	37.7	42.7	37.8
	IS	1.1	3.2	2,1	6.4
Freedom	f	68	300	150	518
	%	16.8	23.5	21.3	21.8
	IS	0.6	2.0	1.1	3.7
Democracy	f	82	220	110	412
	%	20.3	17.3	15.6	17.3
	IS	0.7	1.2	0.8	2.7
Justice	f	69	200	100	369
	%	17.1	15.7	14.2	15.5

	IS	0.6	1.3	0.7	2.6
	f	22	32	15	69
Tolerance	%	5.5	2.5	2.2	2.9
	IS	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.5
	f	43	42	28	113
Peace	%	10.6	3.3	4.0	4.7
	IS	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.9
	f	404	1274	703	2381
TOTAL	%	100	100	100	100
	IS	3.6	8.4	4.8	16.8

*Total number of words in textbook

As can be seen in Table 2, the category of “Rights” (1.1) has the highest intensity score in this UST-4 textbook. This subcategory is highest, followed by the subcategory of “Democracy” (0.7); the lowest intensity scores respectively were found in “Freedom” and “Justice” (0.6), “Peace” (0.4), and “Tolerance” (0.2), with these subcategories having quite close intensity ratios.

The list below includes some examples of statements for some categories in the textbooks:

- *Like all Quakers, Penn believed that problems should be solved peacefully. He signed a treaty with the Native Americans to buy land..(UST4, p128).*
- *Some colonists used newspaper and printed pamphlets to protest, or speak out against, the taxes. Others refused to buy British good. Some colonists even began to talk about independence, or the freedom to themselves. ..(UST4, p130).*
- *The Constitution makes the United States a republic, a form of government in which the people elect representatives to govern the country. The Constitution also describes the rights that people in the United States have. Everyone must obey the Constitution – leaders and citizens alike.... ..(UST4, p467).*
- *The law gave women the right to vote. This was one the first victories in the fight for women’s suffrage or the right to vote, in the United States. ..(UST4, p138)*

The UST-5 Textbooks

There are eight units found in the UST-5 textbook; they include: “The Land and Early People”, “Time of Encounters”, “The English Colonies”, “The American Revolution”, ‘A New Nation”, “Civil War Times”, “The Twentieth Century”, and “The United States and the World”. As before, at the beginning of each unit are “Prep Questions” pertaining to the content within the unit and at the end unit of each are “Assessment Questions”. *In addition, at the end of the textbook, there is an Almanac (Facts About the States, Facts About the Western Hemisphere, Facts About the President), American Documents (The Declaration of Independence, The Constitution of the United States of America, The National Anthem, The Pledge of Allegiance), a Biographical Dictionary, Gazetteer, Glossary, and Index..*

As can be seen in Table 2, the subcategories of “Right” (3.2) and “Freedom” (2.0) have the highest intensity scores in this TTSS-5 textbook. These subcategories are the highest, followed by the subcategories of “Justice” (1.3) and “Democracy” (1.2). The lowest intensity scores, respectively, are “Peace” (0.3) and “Tolerance” (0.2).

The list below includes some examples of statements for some categories in the textbooks:

- *Africans had long used prisoners of war as slaves. Traders from Portugal saw that they could make Money by buying slaves in Africa and taking them to Europe to sell as servants. (UST5, p138).*
- *Slaves were treated ill or cruelly depending on their owners. There was little protection...also slave owners were free to beat, whip, or insult any slave as often as they chose to do so..(UST5, p246).*
- *Many people consider Crispus Attucks the first person to be killed in the struggle for American Liberty. (UST5, p285)*
- *In 1827 two free African Americans, Samuel Cornish and John Russwurm, started a newspaper that called for equality, or equal rights, for all Americans.(UST5, p448).*

The UST-6 Textbooks

The eight units found in the UST-6 Textbook are titled as the following: “The World and Early People”, “Early Centers of Civilization”, “Eastern Civilizations”, “Western Civilizations” “The Rise of Later Civilizations”, “The Spread of Civilizations”, “The Early Modern World,” and “Toward the Present Day”. At the beginning of each topic or issue and under the heading of Preparatory Work, according to the unit, there are a few “Prep Questions”, and at the end of each unit are “Assessment Questions”. In addition, at the end of the textbook, there is an Almanac (Facts About the World), a Biographical Dictionary, Gazetteer, Glossary, and Index..

As can be seen in Table 2, the subcategories of “Rights” (2.1) and “Freedom” (2.1) have the highest intensity scores in this TT-6 textbook. These are followed by the subcategory of “Freedom” (2.0); the lowest intensity scores, respectively, are “Justice” (1.5), “Tolerance” (1.1), and “Peace” (0.8). These subcategories have quite close intensity ratios.

The list below includes some examples of statements for some categories in the textbooks:

- *In a democracy people are free to make choices about their lives and their government. They often make their choices by voting. ..(UST6, p140)*
- *More reforms in 508 B.C. made the Athenian city-state into the world’s first democracy. (UST6, p253).*
- *To make sure that peaceful relations are maintained around the world, the United Satetes sometimes makes treaties or forms alliances with other countries. (UST6, p435).*
- *The United States can sometimes help countries around the world find peaceful solutions to their conflicts. If negotiations fail, however, the United States must sometimes use its military strength to help restore peace... (UST6, p545)*

Discussion and Conclusion

Social studies textbooks play an important role in human rights education. As I mentioned in the introduction recently, a number of studies were conducted that showed the level of allocation of human rights education in elementary and high school textbooks. However, the level of allocation of human rights education in social studies textbooks has not been examined directly yet. As it can be seen, there is only research about human rights education issues in social studies textbooks in Turkey. For example, Karaman – Kepenekçi (2003) examined the level of human rights and responsibility education in primary school. On the other hand, the level of allocation to human rights issues in United States social studies textbooks has yet to be examined.

In this comparison study, Turkish and United States textbooks are analyzed in terms of their level of “human rights education issues,” in accordance with Karaman-Kepenekci’s subcategories. Accordingly, the first remarkable finding is that the number of human rights education references in Turkish textbooks is much more frequent than in United States textbooks. This finding is not surprising, since similar results were previously found, for example a study conducted by Karaman – Kepenekçi (2005), in which she examined Turkish and United States textbooks and a study by Aslan & Karaman – Kepenekçi (2008), in which they examined Turkish and French textbooks about human rights education reached similar conclusions. In Merey (2012)’s study on “Inclusion Level of Children Rights Issues in Social Studies Textbooks: (Case of Turkey and USA)”, it was observed that children rights issues were included more in Turkish textbooks. Also, Parpuci & Merey (2012)’s comparison study, titled “children rights in social studies curricula in elementary education: A comparative study” Turkish social studies curriculum was found to include children’s rights more than USA curriculum does. This situation results most likely from primary education curricula. Primary curricula have been implemented in Turkey since the 2004- 2005 scholastic year, when it was implemented in primary school. Inclusion of the human rights issue in each textbook as an intermediary discipline was accepted as a principle; in other words, human rights education issues are interspersed in primary education curricula (Aslan & Karaman-Kepenekçi, 2008; Ceyhan & Yiğit 2004; Primary National Education Program, 2005). This situation about human rights topics is explained in the introduction to the primary educational curricula.

The primary educational curriculum stated that:

‘Curricula attach importance to the improved awareness regarding human rights. Personal inviolability, which is accepted as the essential human right within the philosophical and practical context, takes free-thinking rights, rights for the security of rights, social and economic rights and political rights into consideration. Besides, the curricula do not allow for discrimination against differences such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, nation, origins, political views, social class and physical/mental health states of persons.’ (Ministry of National Education, 2005, Cited in, Aslan & Karaman- Kepenekçi, 2008).

We find a notable increase in human rights emphases in textbooks in the period since 1995. The change is associated with the rise of more internationalized perspectives and with the relative increase of human rights issues in the curriculum (compared with former textbooks). In the most recent period, it seems to be associated with the rising student-centrism of textbooks and curricula.

As mentioned before, the intensity scores for the human rights issue in Turkish social studies textbooks are higher than in the United States social studies textbooks. Reasons for the lesser inclusion of human rights education in United States textbooks may be summarized as follows: First, the most important reason results from The United States Constitution’s positive influence. All people’s fundamental rights and freedoms are guaranteed in Amendments to the Constitution. In other words, the rights of freedom of speech, freedom of the press, peaceful assembly, and petitioning the government are guaranteed by the First Amendment of the U.S. Constitution. Provisions are stipulated for legal redress of grievance for untruthful information and malicious intent. This situation gives a person the power to influence others, make better decisions, and exert control in his or her life (Sunal & Haas, 2005).

Students are introduced to the Constitution of the United States as a part of the fifth-grade social studies curriculum in United States elementary schools. Many teachers incorporate the Constitution into their teaching and curriculum long before the fifth grade, but it is generally in this grade that children are helped to read and interpret the Constitution. This is an important moment in the political socialization of the next generation (Parker, 2005). In primary schools, a paraphrased version of the Constitution is usually included in fifth-grade textbooks. It contains all of the parts, for example, the preamble, the 7 articles containing the rules by which citizens agree to live, and 27 changes or additions (amendments).

The United States Constitutions said that:

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessing of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this constitution for United States of America (Parker, 2005).

The second reason why human rights issues are not taught directly in social studies textbooks in elementary schools is because the human rights issue is taught in Civics and Government courses. In the United States, citizenship education goals are that students become committed to the democratic form of government and rights and responsibilities (Chapin & Messick, 2002). This subject about the fundamentals of representative democracy is planned chiefly for civics and American government courses taught at the high-school. The lessons associated with core topics which are regarded as the basis for center of American government and its politics. Initially, the learners get the basic of freedoms and rights in the schools of the United States today. Then, these individuals try to get an insight as to how political and personal rights established by the Constitution, which may either strengthen or conflict with economic rights and freedoms. Lastly, the learners scrutinize the Bill of Rights. Accordingly, they familiarize themselves to state standards for civics and government. General standards on civics/government education said that:

Students understand the ideal, rights, and responsibility of citizenship, and content, sources, and history of the founding documents of the United States, with particular emphasis on the constitution and how the government punctuations at the local, state, national' and international level (Chapin & Messick, 2002) .

It was observed that in the textbooks of both countries, the 'Rights' subcategory was included in the most textbooks. The result was consistent with previous research findings (Karaman-Kapenekçi, 1999). In the study by Karaman-Kepenekçi (1999)'s on high school textbooks and in Aslan & Karaman-Kepenekçi (2008)'s "Human Rights Education: A Comparison of Mother Tongue Textbooks in Turkey and France," the intensity score of the 'Rights' subcategories in high school textbooks was found to be much higher than other subcategories, but, when we examined the intensity scores, the subcategory "Rights" in Turkish textbooks in Turkey was determined to be higher than in the United States textbooks.

An interesting unexpected finding is that the intensity scores for the subcategories of "Democracy", "Freedom", and "Justice" in Turkish social studies textbooks are higher than in United States textbooks. This result is not consistent with Karaman – Kepenekçi (2005)'s citizenship textbook study involving intensity scores for "Democracy," which was concluded to be higher in Turkish textbooks. Also, it is not consistent with these textbooks' context and chapters, because the United States textbooks focus on the United States' history of democracy and freedom, and there are numerous examples that examine human rights and democracy in context. When studying texts, for instance: "Bill of Rights" (UST 5, P. 351), "Slavery and Freedom" (UST 5, P. 444), "Working for Equal Rights" (UST 5, P.585), and "Our Country's Government" (UST 4, P.465), in this situation, the United States social studies textbooks need to explain the human rights issue so that students will read about issues and events. They know those issues and events may affect various people, including themselves. Students should be enabled to understand the debate and arguments' conflicting perspectives if they are to know how issues and events are connected with certain rights or multiple categories of rights.

Another important finding is that the intensity scores for the subcategories of “Tolerance “and “Peace” in Turkish textbooks were concluded to be higher than in the United States textbooks. Furthermore, in both Turkish and United States textbooks, “Tolerance” and “Peace” comes at the very end of the textbooks. Although these subcategories do not hold a prominent place in the textbooks of both countries, they are found more often in Turkish social studies textbooks. For instance, when studying texts related to peace and tolerance, “Peace and Tranquility” (TT 5, P.180), “Tourism and Peace” (TT 5, P.180), and “World Children” (TT 5, P.168) were found in Turkish textbooks. This case may also be associated with the positive opinion about Ataturk and Mevlana. In fact, Turkish social studies textbooks frequently refer to Ataturk’s “Peace at home, peace in the world” statement and Mevlana’s tolerance approach; both often emphasize that peace and tolerance is very important for people, society, and the world we live in. This result was consistent with previous research findings (Aslan & Karaman-Kepenekçi, 2008).

As a result, in this comparative study when the sum of the dissemination of all of the subcategories according to intensity score, it was observed that human rights issues were included more frequently mentioned in Turkish textbooks (69.8) than in United States textbooks (16.8). The study showed that Turkish textbooks and United States textbooks contained the “rights” subcategory the most. While the intensity scores of the “democracy,” “freedom,” and “judgment” subcategories were listed the highest in both countries’ textbooks, on the other hand, the intensity scores of the “tolerance” and “peace” subcategories were placed last in the textbooks of both countries.

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APPENDIX A

The Textbooks used in this study

Turkish Textbooks

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The United States Textbooks

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Is It Possible to Teach Values Without Social Psychology?

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Abstract

Although values are closely related to moral psychology, morality is a developmental problem in psychology. However, what the problem is, is to confine to reduce development and maturation to individual psychology. The fact that social-psychological characteristics of the values have not been emphasized, indicates concerns of the integrity of the development. All of the values in teaching approaches solely employ moral reasoning in schools. This paper articulates why theories of the social psychology, which explain social influence and process as determinants of the behaviour are not used in the context of value education.

Key words: Value teaching, social influence, social psychology, morality, behaviour

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of value has been described in various ways according to subjective and objective perspectives. However, subjective perspective definition is widely accepted. According to a subjective perspective values are basic standards, which are agreed as necessary and appropriate by all members of the society, and represent common beliefs, thoughts, and aims in order to sustain integrity of the society (Rokeach, 1973). As a result, values are essential principles and beliefs, which indicate a set of appropriate behaviours (Lewis, Mansfield, & Boudains, 2008).

Even though the values are closely related to moral psychology, they have been dealt with by neglecting their relationship with learning psychology. However, the fact that human beings are social entities is not solely constrained to learning. This kind of learning is such a developmental problem that moral considerations have largely a developmental nature. However, the problem is that the development and maturation have been confined to individual psychology. The fact that social psychological characteristics of the values have been neglected indicates negligence of its holistic perspective. On the other hand, moral development cannot be ~~thought~~ considered without cognitive development. Human morality is combined with emotional, informational, and behavioural factors (Gungor, 1998). As Haidt emphasized, precedence of intuition before moral reasoning is one of the basics of moral psychology. However, moral reasoning has been mainly employed in the instruction of the values. Moreover, moral intuitions rise immediately and automatically before moral reasoning. Initial intuitions tend to influence successive reasoning skills (Haidt, 2012). The way of explanation of traditional values including Turiel and Kohlberg are completely constructed upon cognitive moral reasoning. Morality is seen solely as cerebral and its emotional characteristics are disregarded. According to Haidt (2012), morality is beyond justice, should not damage, and is obligatory and binding. Human beings therefore, convert themselves into political agency, which shares their moral stories. After they accept certain rules, they become blind to alternative moral worlds. In other words, external influence is dominant on external processes. Therefore, morality must be handled ~~with~~ in terms of individual-group interaction and obedience. Social psychology offers very exploratory and controlling perspectives in explanation of the values because of the fact that it investigates individual-group interaction and obedience.

Of the great names in social psychology's pantheon Allport, Asch, Campbell, Festinger (1954), Hovland, McGuire, Moscovici, Jones, Kelley, and Sherif—all have devoted at least a portion of their considerable efforts to developing a better comprehension of social influence (Crano, 2000). Social psychologists claim that two psychological processes as norm influence and informational influence, lead to obedience. Informational influence refers to acceptance of external information as proof of reality. Human beings need to confirm their perceptions, beliefs, and emotions. When the possibility of ambiguous environmental stimulus, social conflict, and indecisive situation is present, informational influence come into play. Under those conditions people attempt to confirm their beliefs, perceptions and emotions. They make social comparisons when it is not possible to confirm. Perceived information influence causes cognitive change (Hogg & Vaughan, 2002). The type of social influence is determined through the way of perception which an individual uses. If the individual conceives social influence as an information provider, this kind of social influence is informational. Similarly, in the case of an individual's perception of social influence as obligatory and normative, social influence has a normative feature. Normative social influence and compliance based on obedience were observed in both Asch's experiment on prediction of line length and Milgram's obedience experiment. The experiment participants were given an electrical shock and increased its intensity because of the fact that they obeyed the command from the researcher rather ~~than they found~~ believing that giving an electric shock and increasing its intensity secured appropriate behaviour. Milgram (1974) stated that strong compassionate emotions of the experiment participants conflicted with authority, observing that they obeyed the authority even though they witnessed the grief-stricken screams of the victims in the experiment. Milgram (1974) defined the over eagerness of adults for straight obedience as opposed to the grief of the victims as the most crucial finding to be dealt with. This finding indicates that ordinary people who do not display any devastating and hostile behaviours can be part of a destroying and damaging activity. Furthermore, it was observed that a great number of

the experiment participants continued to conduct devastating and damaging behaviour although they knew exactly that their behaviours conflicted with moral rules, while very few of them refused to obey the authority. In Asch's experiment, participants complied with group expectancy, not appropriate to objective reality, in order to avoid derision. This kind of behavioural change is defined as temporary behaviour change because of the fact that the behaviour is not conducted in case of absence of group pressure. In other words, behaviour on group expectancy is not internalized (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Sherif (1936) revealed that the experiment participants found group judgement so true that they accepted informational social influence because they carried out group judgement when they were alone. As a result, this kind of behavioural change is permanent behaviour change owing to the fact that the behaviour, which is appropriate to the group judgement, harmonizes with the participants' existing values. Moreover, harmonization between the group judgement and the participants' existing values enables internalization of the group judgement. Internalization in turn makes the group judgement as a response to the same stimulus permanent. As a result, auto kinetic influence experiment by Sherif indicates harmonization between existing values and the group judgement (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2007). Based on the experiments by Milgram, Asch, and Sherif, it can be concluded that behavioural change through normative social influence and obedience as a reaction to normative social influence does not contain any change in attitude and cognitive construct of individual. 'Identification' caused by normative social influence, can be either attitude change or not. As long as the individual finds the identified person precious, identification leads to change in attitude. Identification is described as a desire in sustaining relationship with others and behavioural change according to social roles expectancy (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Stanford Prisoners Experiment by Haney, Banks, & Zimbardo (1973) explains this description in depth. "Adoption through Compliance" occurring as a result of informational social influence enables change in attitudes. Therefore, value education or moral education aims to develop behavioural change through adoption and compliance. In other words, observed behaviour of an individual emerged as a result of obedience does not reflect attitude change. However, adoption makes change in behaviour, attitudes and cognitive structures of the individual possible. Because the adoption allows the individual find the social rules precious and worth obeying rather not to be feared the social group or assimilate the social group members. Nonconformity behaviour is divided into two actions as "*independent nonconformity*" and "*dependent opposite reaction behaviour*". In independent conformity the individual receives external social influence as information and he does not behave based on the social influence because of the fact that he finds it inappropriate. On the other hand, in the dependent opposite reaction behaviour, the individual resists to social norms and this resistance is not related to whether the individual finds the social norms right to act. Resistance to the social norms is crucial. For instance, if the parents of Peter tell him to wear a dress, yet Peter does not wear a dress because he does not think that the dress is not suitable for the weather. This kind of nonconformity behaviour is independent nonconformity. However, if Peter does not wear a dress as a reaction of obstinacy to his parents' demand, this resistance is dependent opposite reaction. This kind of behaviour is dependent because it depends on social influence (social norm). However, independent opposite reaction is defined as negative reference points. The social norm influences the individual to behave in opposite direction of the social norm (Kagitcibasi, 2010).

All educators must be aware of the fact that obedience through normative social influence, compliance through identification, nonconformity behaviour through dependent opposite reaction do not lead to genuine behavioural change. Under the classroom settings, Instructional curriculums must instil approaches, designs, and strategies, which teach moral values through compliance through adoption and nonconformity behaviour based on independent agency. Schools, which prioritize academic achievement, deal with the teaching of moral values with socio-emotional skills at the end of their to-do checklist as a result of the capitalist achievement ethos and understanding, evolutionary paradigm. This must be converted into the educational institutions in which moral values and socio-emotional skills are taught through compliance adoption with nonconformity behaviour based on independent agency. Aforementioned theoretical backgrounds explain conformity behaviour in the context of individual perspective. Hogg & Turner (1985) claimed in his theoretical experiments that people comply according to social comparison informational influence, and demonstrate the conformity behaviour because they see themselves as a member of the social group in which they

interact with other people. Social comparison informational influence operates on categorization principle. Categorization is constructed upon meta-contrast rule. Social norm is built by minimizing intra-group differences, making differences between external peoples and group members (Hogg & Vaughan, 2002). When the people identify themselves with a group, they attribute social group's norms and their characteristics to their personality constructs, because people perceive their personalities as a part of group. There is a large body of research revealing how kind and respectful persons can become a cruel and rude agent through obedience.

Obedience, Values and Decision Making

Milgram (1974) sought to explain the process by referencing Eichman in Jerusalem: A Report on Banality of Evil by Arendt (1963) who told the process how Eichman, high ranking officer in the Nazi Party, was convicted of war and mankind crimes. Milgram (1974) questioned whether chiefs and officers deliberately committed war and mankind crimes or they did because they were ordered to act. Milgram (1963) reached dramatic and crucial conclusions that war criminals had not seemed to be murderer, on the contrary they had been very kind, polite, and courteous during the trials. They stated that they had murdered Jewish People because they had obeyed the commands, not because they hated Jewish People (Milgram, 1974; Hogg & Vaughan, 2002).

Humanist philosophers and psychologists claim that there is a relationship between obedience and freedom; obedience is an obstacle, which prevents freedom. Fromm (2010) emphasized that kings, lords, bosses, and parents have seen and imposed obedience as virtues while they have considered disobedience as immorality, and disgrace throughout the history. This imposition in turn has led to unconditional obedience and destroyed independent agency. After nuclear bombs fired on Japan, Fromm (2010) found the obedience so dangerous and claimed that the obedience can put an end to the history of mankind, because the human beings have potential to destroy the life in the world. Fromm (2010) also stated that if human beings kill themselves, they do this by obeying those who order them to press the death button. This kind of situation in fact is a result of the way of modern organisation, which makes evil ordinary by isolating an individual from his moral beliefs and judgement. Therefore, under group context members of the modern organisation commit crime, which they find it fearsome when they are alone (Bauman & May, 2014).

Educating generations, where individuals make logical decisions, is inevitable for a free, fair world. Bauman (1995) emphasized that the more group leaders are charismatic; it is more difficult to suspect and dispute their decisions. When group members encounter a severe ambiguous context, it is very calming to obey the orders from the group leaders. However, it was tragically witnessed that infallible leaders in Germany, Italy, or Russia endangered both their nations and the world by killing innocent people and applying systematic racial extermination on them. Leitenberg (2006) said that 148 million people were killed and about 250 million people were disabled owing to the wars in the previous century. The infallible national leaders played crucial roles in mass death but they were not alone in fighting wars, committing blatant crimes, building concentration camps, millions of the people obeyed the national leaders accompanied with them. The danger has not completely passed and it is possible to experience such an appalling crimes against humanity. Educators, whose aim is to bring up individuals who decide and behave without obeying group leaders' orders, or being influenced by group identity, must teach logical decision-making skills. Even though the concept of the logic is relative and can change over time (Fay, 2005), decision-making skill does not solely focus on benefit. The decision-making skill is closely related to character forming education and values. Therefore, schools intend to develop students' decision-making skills based on democratic and moral values. However, the relationship between value and decision is neglected in education. Levine (2007) states that decision-makers make technocratic decision and do not have any interest in what is going on in the schools. Although education is a value-laden process, the policy-makers deal with education deterministically. This understanding leads education to be restricted with achievement in standardized testing and development of students' cognitive capacity. It is too difficult to develop better assessment of moral values, improve students' dispositions, habits in democracy, and civic virtues under this educational context.

Values and Attitudes as Action and Emotion:

Value can be described as such standards which are accepted by the majority of the society members and that functions as a reference point as to how to behave. Therefore, values are part of the societies and social reality (Dogan, 2011). Moral is a concept about human relations, morality does not have meaning for the individual who lives alone (Genc & Eryaman, 2008; Gungor, 2008). Value is an understanding emerging from human relations with nature, history, and society. However, values that are reflected in human behaviours remain verbal statements, such as literature or philosophical texts. Values cannot be isolated from humans as well as knowledge cannot be separated from humans. If the statements from the Bible are separated from Jesus, they lose their virtue (Ellul, 1985). Existentialist thinker Martin Buber stated that the knowledge about the distinction between good and bad, cannot solely be transmitted by teaching morality, but a teachers' behaviour strategies and decisions compose a tangible sample set and enable the transmission of values (Yaron, 1993). Education is defined as the process in which individuals learn to behave in a desired way. Permanency and internalization of learning are an inseparable part of education. As for value education, permanency and internalization of the values are requisite. If behaviour pattern about a specific value vary from one environment to another environment, it means that the education process does not generate the desired outcome. If education is encompassing behaviour change, it is necessary to change attitude, belief, thought for permanency and internalization. Attitudes, beliefs, and thought are not changed; otherwise it is very possible to pretend rather than to act. As a result, educational processes which fail to change attitudes, beliefs, and produces individuals who mask their intentions and pretend in order to get benefit. Complete and coherent change in behaviour, attitude, and belief and thought especially are salient in teaching civic values and virtues. The Turkish Thinker Hilmi Ziya Ulken emphasized that a sociologist conducts a research as if there was no individual while a psychologist assumes there was no society, but educators cannot behave where there is no reality of society or the individual. Education entails ~~to~~ handling both society and the individual. Society and the individual are not investigated by isolating each other. Because the individual is in a society, group norms, values and virtues are embedded in the individual. Society shapes the individual but on the other hand the individual influences society. The scope of social psychology also establishes mutual interaction between society and the individual, which psychology and sociology, taken as specific areas, neglect. The association between attitude and behaviour must be understood to reveal the impact of character and democracy education on social perception and behaviour. Attitude is a tendency to behave in a certain way not behaviour. Attitude is a tendency, which is attributed to the individual. Attitude is not solely a tendency; it is also integration in thought, emotion, and behaviour. Attitude makes emotion, thought, and behaviour coherent. Cognitive, emotional and behavioural elements are embedded in a strong attitude (Kagitcibasi, 2010). Humans are not born with attitudes; they are learnt after birth. Desired democratic attitudes can be learnt in ~~the~~ society. However, stereotyped judgement must be overcome; environmental influences from media, parents, school, and peers must be taken into consideration in order to teach democratic attitudes. Behaviour emerges based on the complex interactions among attitudes, environment, habit, and expectancy (Kagitcibasi, 2010). There are two factors influencing process of social influence and conformity. These are the "size of the group" and "agreement among the social group members" (Hogg & Vaughan, 2002). Also there are other elements such as the impact of respectability and social status, face to face interaction, depersonalization, preference to merge a personality in a social group, loyalty (dependency) to the social group, the impact of minority, information influence and normative influence.

As Kagitcibasi (2010) emphasized, science of psychology is a product of western culture and reflects an individualistic world view of the western countries, hence cognitively addressing attitudes in individualistic perspective which neglects those elements. Findings from empiric researches and the impact of theoretical background on different cultures must be used in the development of civic values, attitudes, appropriate behaviours on the students.

Responses to certain behaviours and possession of certain emotions such as excitement, happiness, sadness can be defined as either moral or immoral rather than discovering peoples' basic behaviour rules. On the other hand, morality refers to possession of better conscience not possession

of information. Degree of possession of better conscience depends on self-awareness. In other words, if we have better self-awareness, we can discriminate accurately real reason of our behaviours from fallacious causes of our self (Gungor, 1999).

Abstract values and notions cannot be taught by memorizing their descriptions. Those values can be taught to the students through education, one of the ways of socialization, by bringing up virtuous individuals who have sense of value and sense of self (Gungor, 2003). Values, dealt with under affective learning, are expected to be taught in several stages by Kratwohl, Bloom, & Masia (1964). Affective learning stages consist of receiving, responding, valuing, organizing, and characterizing. Receiving and responding have cognitive nature. The last three stages are about the concept of the value. People at the stage of valuing behave, through orientation, to an internal value system rather than obedience as a result of external pressure or inculcation. Internal values are employed in orientation and judgement of behaviours at the stage of valuing. Valuing enables people to behave based on their internal values.

How are values taught? After the Second World War moral education and value education were performed through a traditional instruction strategy until the 1960's. Several instructional strategies in value education and moral education emerged such as *Value Clarification* developed by Simon, Howe, & Kirschenbaum (1972), *Just community School* developed by Kohlberg (1975), and *Value Instruction through Instilment* 1960's onwards. After the 1980's there was a return to traditional values such as patriotism, family loyalty, responsibility, and trust began to rise with a *Character Education* movement standing out. Moral education sought to teach moral decency throughout history, while character education has related students' moral competency and their virtuosity to teacher authority. Values such as public goodness, patriotism, personal rights, justice are taught in the context of Citizenship Education, incorporating self-respect, determining suitable personal aims, while social skills are addressed through *Value Clarification*. However, the Value Clarification approach has not gone beyond personal beliefs, priorities, and feelings. The Character Education has become too basic because of the fact that morally true and right behaviours are discussed in the Character Education. Lickona (1992) repeated previously known suggestions such as cooperation of family-school-program and becoming a model. Character Culture, which highlights right attitudes and behaviours, has not replaced success culture (Gauld & Gauld, 2002). In the Citizenship Education approach, skills, values, and learning elements developed by National Council for Social Studies Teachers (NCSS) have remained as a wish list requiring cognitive learning rules. Although Moral Education has remarkable experience and efforts, it has not achieved the desired outcomes.

Classic Value Teaching Under Cognitive Hegemony

Value teaching through value persuasion seems to have lost its domination owing to globalisation and information revolution, even though it has been employed to infuse values in institutions such as in the army or scouting. Moral stories, swearing ceremonies and several emotional ceremonies have appeared to fail the infusion of values in a desired degree. In *the Value Clarification Approach*, it is aimed that students should be cognitively aware of their values. Teachers make remarkable efforts to help their students become aware of their own values in the *Value Clarification Approach*. Even if it is considered to be one of the contemporary instructional strategies, this approach solely entails selecting and adopting their own values, and remains as an academic object like mathematics or science. Curriculum developers have realized that teachers and parents have begun to lose control of the students, as they have been influenced by propaganda and their peers, hence *Value Clarification Method* through infusion has lost its dominance in the instructional curriculums. In fact, decreasing weigh of *Value Clarification Method* through infusion clearly indicates necessity of social psychology principles in value teaching. In instructional curriculums of many countries, it is envisaged that youth and children encounter the necessity of selection and there are ample alternatives about how to behave. Those ample alternatives lead the students to value conflict. Therefore, awareness of self-values is an inevitable part of instructional strategies to help them cope with the value conflicts. Value teaching must be carried out without imposing and forcing the students. Stories including moral

dilemmas and moral reasoning can be used in order to avoid imposing and forcing value judgements. Besides, stories with moral dilemmas may encourage them to resolve their value conflicts.

Moral reasoning and moral dilemma, developed by Kohlberg (1975) try to develop moral principles through moral arguments based on equality and democracy values. Moral dilemma arguments first create imbalance and then they help the students to construct moral reasoning (Berkowitz, 1985). Even if this way of instruction of values may contribute to process value-laden information through moral reasoning, the impact of thoughts on human behaviours have been contemplated since antiquity. However, moral reasoning and moral dilemma stories with speculative and fictitious nature have no use in substantially improving the students' value-laden behaviours. On the other hand, social psychology offers practical and theoretical findings on how attitudes are constituted and influence human behaviours concerning how inter-agency has an impact on human thoughts for educators and researchers. The students are challenged by real or fictitious problems in the *Value Analysis Approach* inspired from way of problem-solving and thoughts of John Dewey. However, this challenge includes cognitive characteristics. The challenge has resemblance factors with cognitive the dilemma theory of Kohlberg. Both of the approaches aim to teach the values through discussion and reasoning. However, challenges in the Value Analysis approach include social issues rather than moral dilemmas. Therefore, it is appropriate for the pragmatism principle of John Dewey and can be considered as relevant to more close real life situations.

Community service practices, one application of *Effective Character Education*, is another instructional strategy in value teaching. The students explore moral and civic values, virtues and habits through experience (Berkowitz & Bier, 2005). Moreover, it is known that the community service practices, as response to real social problem, have positive impact on academic achievement and character development (Billig, 2002). Besides, guidance and counselling services, student care services in the schools help the students adopt the values and offer opportunity for value teaching (Baumrind, 2008). Those services have made remarkable contributions to the students from kindergarten to high school (Howes & Ritchie, 2002; Watson, 2006). Relations in the schools, teachers' attitudes and expectancies, learning environment, way of problem-solving, physical settings, relationships with families and local societies, communication patterns, nature of student involvement, discipline procedures, anti-racist policies, philosophic assumptions and aims in the school, bursaries for the students, accommodation, health services play key role in developing moral and civic values on the students. The above factors are named as *the School Culture* (Halstead, 2000).

Values in Terms of Interaction between Achievement and Socioeconomic Status (SES)

Environmental factors such as media, press and the internet, negatively influence the impact of value teaching given in schools. In addition to that, value teaching is perceived as much more tough responsibilities for the students in the schools (Balci & Yelken, 2013). Teachers view cooperation with families as more important factors in value teaching. However, in lower SES schools, teachers' complain about the reluctance of lower SES families in involving in the educational process (Yazar & Yelken, 2013). There is a close relationship between SES and attitudes towards the values. For instance, Gomleksiz & Curo (2011) found that students from high SES schools adopt a patriotism value better than the students from lower SES schools. Similar correlation was found between the level of parent income and understanding of patriotism value. The students are influenced by their SES levels and are also impacted by the schools' SES characteristics (Buckingham, Wheldall, & Beaman-Wheldall, 2013). On the other hand, not only does SES influence the impact of value teaching in the schools, but also has an impact on academic domains. For instance, lack of better literacy instruction has a more negative impact on socioeconomically disadvantaged children. Phonics improves better literacy skills of the disadvantaged children than it does on high SES children. Furthermore, socioeconomically disadvantaged children are more likely to have lower vocabulary and linguistic skills (NICHHD, 2000). Achievement in both value teaching and academic achievement are closely associated with students' SES. However, very little emphasis on mutual relationships between socioeconomic characteristics and achievement in affective learning has been underlined. However, findings of several researches reported that better literacy teaching mitigates the negative impact of

lower SES on academic achievement (Chatterji, 2006; Magnuson, Ruhm, Waldfogel 2007; D'anquilli, Siegel, Herzman 2004; D'anquilli, Siegel & Maggi, 2004; Johnston & Watson 2005). Disruptive behaviours can predict poor reading skills but vice versa is possible. A longitudinal study conducted by Smart, Prior, Sanson, & Oberklaid (2005) indicated that efficient instruction decreases behaviour problems. Iverson and Walberg (1982) summarised the evidence as finding that socio psychological or "process" characteristics of the home have a stronger association with academic ability and achievement than socioeconomic or "status" characteristics. This suggests that values and parenting practices are stronger factors than income or parent education levels. Among Australian students, the number of books at the home was the second strongest unique predictor of literacy scores after IQ (Evans, Kelley, Sihara, Treiman, 2010). Furthermore, there was one interactive effect-having books in the home had a greater impact on children whose parents had the lowest levels of education than on children with university educated parents. (Buckingham et al, 2013).

Instructional approaches and strategies on value teaching depends on such cognitive elements that they have achieved to generate desired educational outcomes. It can be concluded that cognitive elements in instructional process remain isolated from the reality of the life. As a result of this instructional way in value teaching, young people have got bored with the politics, suspect state authority, and do not believe that polices work in favour of society. This fact cannot be restricted to the developing countries, for instance the schools seem to fail to teach citizenship virtues and democratic practices in England, known as the cradle of the democracy (Halstead, 2000). The fact that schools fail to create positive change among the students, is not considered as the futility of the schools (Guimond, 1999). Schools have a function in reinforcing attitudes and this function may establish the basis on the students' conscience (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969). Moreover, very little knowledge about neuronal mechanism of the social influence has been discovered. After all, it is known that the construct of the child and adolescent brain has flexible characteristics (Crone & Dahl, 2012). On the other hand, value education has not established theoretical formulations as well as education sciences. Therefore, instructional strategies lack the provision of an understanding in depth for the students and the instructional process repeats the circle in order as discussion, dramatization, and asking the questions such as "If you were her, how you would behave?" Therefore, this kind of instructional way entails prediction. Prediction in turn is one of the cognitive skills of the mind and makes the instructional process cognitive. However, it is not possible to acquire the values without changing and adapting wrong attitudes. Changing attitudes through education is a stringent task thus it is necessary to know theories about attitude composition and change attitude. Stereotyping, devastating social solidarity, group hostility, emotional based bias, segregation, reflected through behaviours, must be realized, controlled, and changed through theoretical and systematic instruction during the education process.

Conclusion

Even though there is no consensus among the social psychologist, the attitude is generally defined as the inclination organizes emotions, thought and behaviours about a specific object. What attitude discloses is not just behavioural tend, it is an integration of thought, emotion and behaviour. Thurstone (1928) describe the attitude as emotions about object in positive or opposite direction. He measured attitudes based on the views that individuals accept or rejects. Cognitive social psychologists view as assumed construct in the mind, but still fail to explain the gap between measured attitudes and observed behaviours. Certainly, it is not possible to find a basic linear relation between attitudes and observed behaviours, but attitudes make prediction of nature and way of behaviours easy. However, accessibility of the attitude, direct experience, methodological procedures influence prediction of the behaviours so they should be taken into consideration (Arkonanc, 1998). Social psychology is a very important psychology branch for the value education due to the fact that it offers detailed analysis, theoretical explanations, and experiments about how attitude is created and change, group hostility, stereotyping, bias, discrimination and group dynamics. The Social psychology cannot claim that it has the capacity to solve social, political, and economic life because there are a great number of the variables that can have impact on the problems. Value education process is influenced by a large body of variables such as instructional curriculums, school management and psychological climate of the

schools, teacher qualities and characteristics, societal gender, socioeconomic and cultural conditions, impact of the media and social media. This complexity brings forward a question: *Are values really valuable in life?* This question entails group characteristics and social process to be taken into consideration when the values are taught to the students from kindergarten to high schools.

Social influence may slow down neural and psychological mechanisms. Besides, peers and strangers have an impact on decision-making among adults. Although it is completely known that how the social influence process is oriented by different factors from individual factors to societal and cultural factors, it was revealed what factors children and adolescents are influenced by. These factors are family members and peers. Peer impact reaches the peak between the ages of 11 and 14, while family members' impact is dominant during early and middle childhood. After the age of 14, family influence begins to be dominant over the peer influence. Knoll, Magis-Weinberg, Speekenbrink & Blakemore (2015) reported that there is a negative relationship between age and peer influence. In other words, the more age increase, the more the peer influence decreases. New relationships and new social influence factors are cumulated without replacing old ones with new ones. It is seminal to discover that social influence sources affect the neural mechanisms either together or separately. For example, families may influence their children's friendship selection directly or indirectly. Families and peers function in certain parts of adolescents' brains. Even though families and peers have a different kind of social influence, it is known that individuals are influenced by their family members about moral issues, while peers influence the individual in decisions about social activities and school relationships. On the other hand, peer pressure as social influence becomes more evident among adolescents. Peer pressure is different for female adolescents and male adolescents (Wellborn, Lieberman, Goldenberg, Fuligni, Galván & Telzer, 2016). Social influence and conformity has different nature under collectivist culture and individualistic culture. Members of collectivist society have more inclinations to conform group norms than individualistic society members do (Bond & Smith, 1996). Conformity behaviour is observed in western countries but it is not as condensed as it is in the collectivist societies, because humans do not venture to attempt to not conform to group norms (Hogg & Vaughan, 2002).

Much attention has been given to the impact of social information and decision-making under the social context in neuron science literature. When an individual gives less attention to external social information, decreasing activity is found in the location of the parietal temporal cortex. On the contrary, change in subjective information and existing beliefs trigger increasing activity in infer frontal gynus. Neuronal research findings revealed that subjective information is necessary to be integrated with others decisions and information in decision-making (Huber, Klucharev, & Rieskamp, 2015). Decision-making requires an individual to synthesise. Brannon & Brock (2001) similarly argued that individuals should combine their self-knowledge with others information and understandings to behave.

Social influence mechanism is widely used in advertising, politics, and economy although it is not appropriately employed with its theoretical findings in education. For instance, a merchandiser, who is aware of the impact of a social influence mechanism on consumers, creates a demand on consumers by developing a factitious scarcity. The human feels a unique need for scarce objects, so desires to buy (Brannon & Brock, 2001). According to *Scarcity Principle* if other people buy something, then an individual tends to conclude that the object is of good quality. The Scarcity Principle explains human behaviours about buying through social influence because an individual observes what others do and does the same thing to conform to others.

At present psychological and sociological theories explained in depth are replaced with facile and impractical explanations excluding description of selling, politic deceit and brutal and lethal wars. This may stem from the fact that knowledge has become more important than tangible objectivity referred by knowledge. Knowledge has substantially increased so there has been less time to concern theoretical implications and operations of the discovered knowledge. Databases have been converted into a platform that contains virtual knowledge. The databases, constructed to help rational decision-

making, make accessibility knowledge easy, in turn have led to “*uninformed information society*” in turn (Parton, 2008; Samuel, 2005).

Ellul (1985) criticized efforts, reducing everything to a technical world. At present, the time and the environment have become much too condensed, so very little time has been allocated to theories to be used practically. Knowledge has been turned into an object that can be collected, compared, stored in the databases, but never put into practice (Parton, 2008). The shrinking environment leads to a congestion in the flow of time, and ~~modern-time~~ contemporary, modern people live in the present. Therefore, modern people have a lack of time and do not have the opportunity to put something into practice. This in turn makes modern people passive. In other words, virtual reality and reality have been welded each other and it is too difficult to make a discrimination between them (Baudrillard, 2004; Parton, 2008). As a result, it can be concluded that there is not time enough to put findings of social psychology theories and their findings into practice in a value education process which aims to create a desired change in attitudes, thoughts, behaviours. Behaviour acquisition and behaviour change cannot be created without attitude change. It is a natural process to include changes in attitude, thoughts and behaviour. However over-cognitive instructional strategies become insufficient, making human nature instrumentalist (Schewrin & Newell, 1981).

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Foreign Language Teacher Education: School Placements as a Source of Knowledge about Parents as Partners in the Educational Process

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Abstract

As stated by Joyce L. Epstein (2011: 4) school and family partnerships framework is “a better approach” to the involvement of all subjects of the pedagogical process, i.e. pupils, parents and teachers than its two extreme options, i.e. “waiting for involvement or dictating it.” The fact that school-family partnerships play a crucial role in children’s wellbeing is well documented. Despite the unquestionable fact, though, there is a field of study centered around the dichotomy between the beliefs about the importance of building parent-teacher collaboration declared by teacher educators and novice teachers’ unwillingness to collaborate with parents. In the paper the author refers to her previous study devoted to *Preservice teachers’ attitudes related to family involvement in light of their school placement experience* (2017). In the small scale (pilot) study it was proved that direct contact with parents during school placements of Type 2 – Communication of Epstein’s six types of parental involvement, correlates with ex-trainee teachers’ high opinions about the importance of parental involvement in supervising learning activities at home (i.e. Type 4 of Epstein’s six types of parental involvement). The current paper further elaborates on the topic and presents results of a study conducted on a larger group of preservice elementary teachers of English and Polish with an attempt to ascertain that above findings. It appears that direct contact with parents during school placements of Type 2 – Communication and Type 3 – Volunteering correlates with trainees’ high opinions about four types of parental involvements, i.e. Type 2 – Communicating, Type 6 – Collaborating with the Community, Type 7 – Parents observing lessons, and Type 8 – Home visits by teachers.

Keywords: Preservice foreign language teachers, school placements, school-family partnership

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Introduction

The aim of the paper is twofold. In the theoretical part it briefly reviews literature on parents as partners in the educational process. The point of departure is here Joyce L. Epstein's integrated theory of family-school relationships and a model of overlapping family and school spheres. The review of literature shows how the concept of parents as partners in the educational process evolves in light of recent studies. The practical part presents results of a study conducted on a group of language preservice teachers from a medium-sized university in the south-east of Poland. The objective of the study was to find out whether the subjects had any types of direct contact with parents during their teaching practice and, if yes, whether their field experience in the matter correlated with their opinions about the importance of eight types of family involvement¹. It appears that direct contact with parents during school placements of Type 2 – *Communicating* or/and Type 3 – *Volunteering* correlates with trainees' high opinions about four types of parental involvements, i.e. Type 2 – *Communicating*, Type 6 – *Collaborating with the Community*, Type 7 – *Parents observing lessons*, and Type 8 – *Home visits by teachers*. The (pilot) study (Bąk-Średnicka 2017) revealed that ex-trainee teachers' direct contact with parents during school placements only of Type 2 – *Communicating* correlated with their high opinion about Type 4 – *Learning at Home*. The findings are discussed in the paper in a wider context of recent research which can suggest that direct contact of Type 2 – *Communicating*, involving informing parents about school programs and a child's progress, can result in future teachers' unwillingness to view parents as partners but rather as 'distant supporters'. Therefore, in the paper we support a thesis that foreign language trainees can become more effective by gaining *direct* experience in *various* educational contexts and situations that can become crucial in dealing with challenges in the language classroom (Baum & Swick, 2008: 581, Siek-Piskozub and Jankowska, 2015: 219). The "preservice course work that focuses [entirely] on what occurs in the classroom leads student teachers to think of teaching as a task accomplished in isolation" (de Acosta, 1996: 12 qtd in Morris & Taylor, 1998: 222). A case in point here is direct contact with parents during school placements.

Theoretical background

The fact that family-school collaboration can enhance pupils' academic success and well-being is well-documented. However, there is a "dramatic gap" between the beliefs of the importance of building parent-teacher collaboration held by teacher educators and future teachers' unwillingness to collaborate with parents (Epstein, 1987/2011: xviii). Research on placement partnerships has shown that the chance of different types of direct contact with parents during field placements can challenge prospective teachers to reject their stereotypes of parents as 'distant supporters' (McBride 199; Graue & Brown 2003; Baum and McMurray-Schwarz 2004; Uludag (2008). The rationale behind this placement partnerships framework is also the fact that Polish education reform of 1999 prioritised building a wider and deeper range of family-school-community relationships (e.g. Miłkowska-Olejniczak 2002). Moreover, Polish education reform of 1999 integrated education of pupils with special educational needs (SEN) with the education of other pupils in mainstream schools either in integration or mainstream classes². As reported by some foreign language teachers (e.g. Bąk-Średnicka 2011), close collaboration with parents of pupils with SEN in mainstream schools is an absolute necessity. At the same time, as shown in recent literature, family centred activities, courses and projects are offered mainly for prospective early childhood education teachers and special education teachers rather than for foreign language primary teachers whose development in this area is neglected (Bingham & Abernathy 2007; Ellis 2012; Błaszczyk 2014; Nowosad and Pietrań 2015).

¹ i.e. Type 1 - Parenting, Type 2 - Communicating, Type 3 - Volunteering, Type 4 - Learning at home, Type 5 - Decision making and Type 6 - Collaborating with the Community, Type 7 - Parents observing lessons, and Type 8 – Home visits by teachers.

² SEN pupils account for ca. 3% of all pupils in mainstream primary schools (Eurydice 2014: 78).

School placements at departments of teaching modern languages at Polish universities: a closer look

Foreign language teachers in Poland are educated in accordance with regulations of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (Journal of Laws of 2012 No. 131) and the Ministry of National Education (Journal of Laws of 2017 No. 1575). In line with this, in the Polish academic context there is a general criticism of “the disregard for the specifics of the profession of the FL teacher in curriculum standards and administrative regulations” (Zawadzka-Bartnik, 2014: 7; 2015: 141). University departments of modern languages offer prospective primary teachers academic qualifications to teach a foreign language starting from grade 4 onwards. Those candidates who want to teach a foreign language in pre-primary education and in grades 1-3 have to graduate from those departments of early childhood education at Institutes of Pedagogy which offer such courses. The general framework of teacher education assumes three modules with minimal number of hours of subject courses (Module 1), pedagogical courses (Module 2) and didactic courses (Module 3). Modules 2 and 3 offer at least 150 hours of practicum, i.e. 30 hours of pedagogical practicum and 120 hours of didactic practicum. Polish higher schools are given considerable autonomy as regards teacher training programs in general and programs of teaching practice in particular. Consequently, programs of teacher training at departments of teaching foreign languages are tailored individually by each department to meet the abovementioned ministerial requirements (Journal of Laws of 2012) as well as specific teaching contexts.

Parents as partners in the educational process: literature review

Epstein, (1987/2011) forwarded an integrated theory of family-school relationships and introduced a model of overlapping family and school spheres. The foundations for the theory are three possible approaches to family school relations which assume either separate, shared or sequential responsibilities of families and schools as well as two theoretical perspectives grounded in sociology and social psychology (Epstein 1987/2011: 27). It appears that family-school connections are dependent upon teachers’ and parents’ philosophies and practices which they have adopted as a result of complex relations within communities both on the level of individuals (*symbolic interactionism*) as well as reference groups that they represent (*reference group theory*) (Epstein 1987/2011: 27). In order to account for the nature of all possible family-school relations, Epstein developed a model of overlapping family and school spheres. It reveals that true partnership is possible when there is a maximum family-school overlap by means of “frequent cooperative efforts and clear, close communication between parents and teachers in a comprehensive program of many important types of parent involvement” (Epstein, 1986/2011: 150). Epstein (2006/2011: 46-47) states that there are six important types of involvement: Type 1 – *Parenting* supporting parents to create home environments enhancing a child’s development; Type 2 – *Communicating* informing parents about school programs and a child’s progress; Type 3 – *Volunteering* encouraging parents to help in school events; Type 4 – *Learning at Home* instructing parents how to help a child with homework and develop their talents; Type 5 – *Decision Making* encouraging parents to participate in school committee, and Type 6 – *Collaborating with the Community* involving local community in school life for the benefit of the community, children and school. Interestingly enough, Epstein ascertains that despite the fact that the maximum overlap of family and school spheres is typical of (very) early education, in some cases it continues throughout the whole education influencing positively pupils “attitudes and achievements” (Epstein, 1987/2011: 33, 37, 39).

Recent research confirms that quality relationships depend on various factors within the abovementioned reference groups of teachers and parents. In other words, “Epstein’s tenets of communication, advocacy, volunteerism, homework, parenting, and collaboration are not portrayed as neutral constructs but contain ideologies of dominant power relations paralleling that of the larger society” (Brantlinger, 2003; Delgado-Gaitan, 1991; Doucet, 2008; Lareau, 2000, 2003; Lareau & Shumar, 1996; Kroeger, 2005 qtd in Kroeger & Lash 2011: 269-270). For example, in “schools with diverse populations” the dominating cultural capital of school community makes parents who act as

volunteers and advocates within Type 3 and Type 5 actually advantage the dominating groups of “higher-income individuals” over the groups of minorities (Kroeger & Lash, 2011: 270).

In line with this, Addi-Raccah & Grinshtain (2016) conducted a research on a group of 959 Jewish and Arab elementary and secondary teachers with a view to finding out to what extent teachers’ feminine, social and cultural capital influenced their relationships with parents regarding three parental roles, i.e. parents as partners, parents as a threat and parents as disengaged in school (Addi-Raccah & Grinshtain, 2016: 48). Again, it appears that teachers’ relations with parents are correlated with their capital. Particularly, when teachers dominate over parents’ socio-cultural background, as in the case of Arab teachers, they avoid relations with parents as “equal partners” (Addi-Raccah & Grinshtain, 2016: 50). As a result of the above, there are fewer interactions with parents and the relations are based on “the social relations developed between teachers at school” (Addi-Raccah & Grinshtain, 2016: 51). Contrary, Jewish teachers whose social position is not higher when compared with the position of parents, have relationships with parents based on collaboration and threat (Addi-Raccah & Grinshtain, 2016: 50).

Kroeger & Lash (2011) put forward a model of family involvement which goes “beyond a model of parent involvement or a family needs-based approach toward an inquiry-driven method to support teachers working with families of young children” (Kroeger & Lash 2011: 271). The study was conducted on a group of 11 preservice teachers who participated in a 8-week parent-child-teacher inquiry based assignment as well as field placements. The parent-child-teacher study project was based on “working with parents in the form of an individually developed interview” (Kroeger & Lash, 2011: 272). Preservice teachers examined critically the (biased) language they used in the interviews with parents from all walks of life (Kroeger & Lash, 2011: 272). Their written and spoken “reflective excerpts” about their “initial thinking about families” were systematically analyzed with a view to singling out “transformational examples at each stage of the assignment to highlight situations and behaviors which demonstrate preservice teacher thinking” (Stremmel, 2002; Wells, 2002 in Kroeger & Lash, 2011: 271). The authors conclude that parent-child-teacher study project goes beyond “simply reading a text book and understanding family life” (Kroeger & Lash, 2011: 275). As a result of participating in the project preservice teachers “seemed more willing to evaluate their prior preconceptions about families. They seemed to see that not just parental presence in schools but a variety of individual styles of parenting and family engagement can meet learning and school goals” (Kroeger & Lash, 2011: 275).

Peck, Maude and Brotherson (2015), in turn, conducted a qualitative study on the role and place of empathy among those elements which are most important for partnership. In particular, the academics aimed to answer the following question: “How do teachers express empathy in their relationships with young children and families?” (2015: 170). The subject were 18 (pre) school teachers who were interviewed by means of an initial interview; they were asked questions like: “What does a successful partnership with parents look like to you?”; and “What specifically do you do that helps to foster partnerships with parents?” (2015: 171). Then five teachers “who were identified through initial analysis as primarily empathic toward children and families” (Peck, Maude and Brotherson 2015: 173) were chosen and further interviewed by means of follow-up interviews. It appears that “teachers who made empathic statements reported more successful partnerships with parents” (Peck, Maude and Brotherson 2015: 176). Generally, the empathic teachers’ approach to partnership was based on acceptance of diverse families and their cultural practices (Peck, Maude and Brotherson 2015: 175). There was a wide range of direct and indirect contacts with families established by the emphatic teachers via emails, newsletters, phone calls, handwritten notes, and face-to-face meetings. As stated in the paper, “one of the most powerful methods of meaningful communication that informed teachers’ empathy was going on a home visit” (Peck, Maude and Brotherson 2015: 176). It is concluded that teacher educators should provide preservice teachers with “support regarding empathy” by means of “training on empathy” (Peck, Maude and Brotherson 2015: 177).

The abovementioned examples of recent research point to two dominant factors behind family-school partnership, i.e. a variety of parents-teachers contact and emphatic personality on the part of teachers as well as their conscious effort to challenge stereotypes and accept ethnic, socio-cultural and economic diversities within families.

Preservice language teachers' attitudes related to family involvement

– a report from the study

The aim of the study

The aim of the study was:

- 1) to find out preservice language teachers' opinions about the importance of eight types of parental involvement (Epstein 1987/2011; Śliwerski 2001),
- 2) to find out whether the preservice language teachers had any *direct* contact with parents during their teaching practice,
- 3) to find out what types of *direct* contact with parents the preservice language teachers had during their teaching practice,
- 4) to find out whether the field experience as regards *direct* contact with parents correlates with the preservice language teachers' opinions about the importance of the eight types of family involvement.

The point of departure for the research is a pilot study (Bąk-Średnicka 2017) where it was revealed that there is a correlation between ex-trainees' *direct* contact with parents during school placements of Type 2 – *Communicating* of Epstein's six types of parental involvement and their high opinion about the importance of parental involvement in supervising learning activities at home, i.e. Type 4 – *Learning at home*.

Research questions

- 1) what are preservice language teachers' opinions about the most and the least important types of family-school involvement?
- 2) are there any statistically relevant associations between the preservice language teachers' opinions about the most important type of parent-teacher partnership and their direct contacts with parents during practicum?

Participants

The study took a sample of 61 preservice language teachers: 40 preservice teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) and 11 preservice teachers of Polish from a medium-sized university in the south-east of Poland. The respondents completed their teaching practice between autumn 2017 and spring 2018. The subjects were 47 women and 14 men aged 21-37. The mean age was 23.8.

Procedures

Subjects completed a questionnaire which consisted of two parts. Part one referred to the subjects' opinions and part two referred to their field experiences. Part one was a slightly modified version of Epstein's Framework of six types of family involvement (Epstein 2011) and two additional types, i.e. Type 7 – Parents observing lessons and Type 8 – Home visits by teachers (Śliwerski 2001).

Part two consisted of two open-ended questions which referred to their field experiences as regards direct contacts with parents. The questionnaires were distributed personally by university practicum supervisors as soon as the subjects had completed their practicum.

Measures

Part one of the questionnaire comprised eight types of school-family collaboration: Type 1 – *Parenting* (“helping all families understand child and adolescent development and establishing home environments that support children as students”), Type 2 – *Communicating* (“designing and concluding effective forms of two-way communication about school programs and children’s progress”), Type 3 – *Volunteering* (“recruiting and organizing help and support at school, home, or in other locations to support the school and student’s activities”), Type 4 – *Learning at Home* (“providing information and ideas for families about how to help students with homework, and curriculum-related activities and decisions”), Type 5 – *Decision Making* (“having parents from all backgrounds serve as representatives and leaders on school committees and obtaining input from all parents on school decisions”), Type 6 – *Collaborating with the Community* (“identifying and integrating resources and services from the community to strengthen and support schools, students, and their families, and organising activities to benefit the community and increase students’ learning opportunities”) (Epstein, 1987/2011: 46); Type 7 – *Parents observing lessons*, and Type 8 – *Home visits by teachers* (Śliwerski 2001: 174). The subjects expressed their opinions about the importance of the eight types of collaboration using the five-point Likert scale with responses ranging from: not important at all, of little importance, undecided, important, very important.

In part two of the questionnaire the subjects were asked to respond to two open-ended questions:

- 1) did you have any direct contact with parents during your pedagogic and didactic practice?
- 2) if you had direct contact with parents during your pedagogic and didactic practice, briefly describe what kind of contact you had.

Results

Part 1: which types of family-school collaboration are important?

Type 1 – *Parenting*: 25 (41.0%) respondents find this type of family-school collaboration important and 17 (27.9%) find it very important; in total 42 (**68.8%**) respondents are of the opinion that this type of relationship is (very) important.

Type 2 – *Communicating*: 16 (26.3%) respondents find this type of family-school collaboration important and 43 (70.5%) find it very important; in total 59 (**96.7%**) respondents are of the opinion that that this type of relationship is (very) important.

Type 3 – *Volunteering*: 27 (44.2%) respondents find this type of family-school collaboration important and 14 (23.0%) find it very important; in total 41 (**67.2%**) respondents are of the opinion that that this type of relationship is (very) important.

Type 4 – *Learning at Home*: 21 (34.4%) respondents find this type of family-school collaboration important and 37 (60.7%) find it very important; in total 58 (**95.0%**) respondents are of the opinion that that this type of relationship is (very) important.

Type 5 – *Decision Making*: 35 (57.4%) respondents find this type of family-school collaboration important and 8 (13.1%) find it very important; in total 43 (**70.4%**) respondents are of the opinion that that this type of relationship is (very) important.

Type 6 – *Collaborating with the Community*: 29 (47.5%) respondents find this type of family-school collaboration important and 2 (3.3%) find it very important; in total 31 (**50.8%**) respondents are of the opinion that that this type of relationship is (very) important.

Type 7 – *Parents observing lessons*: 5 (8.1%) respondents find this type of family-school collaboration important and 2 (3.3%) find it very important; in total 7 (**11.4%**) are of the opinion that that this type of relationship is (very) important.

Type 8 – *Home visits by teachers*: 6 (**9.8%**) respondents find this type of family-school collaboration important.

The above analysis of the responses suggests that majority of subjects were of the opinion that Types 1-6 of parent involvement are (very) important. They were of the highest opinion about Type 2 – *Communicating* and Type 4 – *Learning at Home*. They had the lowest opinion about Type 7 – *Parents observing lessons*, and Type 8 – *Home visits by teachers*. The above findings correspond with the findings in the pilot study (Bąk-Średnicka 2017).

Part 2: did you have direct contact with parents during your pedagogic and didactic practice? If yes, briefly describe what kind of contact you had.

Only 14 (22.9%) subjects admitted they had direct contact with parents during their practicum of Type 2 – *Communicating* (16.3%) and/or Type 3 – *Volunteering* (9.8%)¹. It was experienced mostly by EFL preservice teachers (13 subjects). Only one preservice Polish teacher experienced a direct contact with parents of Type 2 – *Communicating*. One subject described contact with a parent of a pupil with SEN in an integration class. Four subjects participated in face-to-face contact with parents which was caused by pupils' problems at school. Three subjects took part in parent-teacher conferences whereas six subjects described contact with parents during class trips and school events. Some subjects who did not report any direct contact with parents commented on the fact as follows:

- 1) Unfortunately, I have not had contact of this type yet.
- 2) No, I just observed parent-teacher conference from a distance.
- 3) During my practicum I observed that parents communicate with teachers mainly when their child has problems at school caused by some disorders such as, e.g. autism or dyslexia. In such cases teachers inform parents about their child's behaviour in the classroom, academic progress or problems such as, e.g. not doing homework. Parents, in turn, tell teachers about their problems with parenting. Due to the exchange of such pieces of information, both parents and teachers improve their ways of supporting the child.

Descriptive statistics

As mentioned a group of 14 subjects had direct contact with parents during their teaching practice whereas a group of 47 subjects did not have such contact. Student *t*-test was used to test whether the two group means are different. In the cases of a violation of the assumption of variance homogeneity, the Cochran-Cox adjustment was carried out. The effect size was calculated by Cohen's *d*.

The analyses revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between the group of subjects who had direct contact with parents during their teaching practice of Type 2– *Communicating* and/or Type 3 – *Volunteering* and the group of subjects who did not have such contact. The

¹ In the pilot study “nine subjects (32.1%) had direct contact with parents which was Type 2 – *Communicating*” (Bąk-Średnicka 2017: 42).

statistically significant difference refers to their higher opinions as regards the importance of following types of parental involvement (see Table 1 for details):

Type 2 – *Communicating*: $t_{c-c(52.87)} = -2.98$; $p = 0.004$ M = 4.93; SD = 0.27

Type 6 – *Collaborating with the Community*: $t_{c-c(40.08)} = -3.63$; $p = 0.001$ M = 3.86; SD = 0.53

Type 7 – *Parents observing lessons*: $t_{(59)} = -2.09$; $p = 0.041$ M = 2.71; SD = 0.83

Type 8 – *Home visits by teachers*: $t_{(59)} = -3.55$; $p = 0.001$ M = 2.86; SD = 0.86

Discussion

As shown in the pilot study, those EFL trainees who experienced direct contact with parents of Type 2 – *Communicating*, i.e., mainly limited to face-to-face parent-teacher conferences, strongly agree that parents should have an important role to play by means of Type 4 – *Learning at Home*, i.e., supporting their children at home (Bąk-Średnicka 2017: 17). As shown in research, however, this “most educationally significant” parental involvement of Type 4 is most effective when nurtured by other types of close parent-teacher partnerships (Chavkin & Williams, 1993 qtd. in Uludag 2006: 18). In light of the fact it can be stated that when preservice teachers’ field experiences are of direct contact of Type 2 – *Communicating*, they are of the opinion that parents should be ‘distant supporters’ involved with their children’s education at home rather than engaged in school activities. In the current study preservice language teachers experienced direct contact of Type 2 – *Communicating* and of Type 3 – *Volunteering*. Almost half (42.8%) of the subjects experienced direct contact with parents by means of participating in school events and school trips. This type of experience correlates with their high opinion about four types of parent-teachers collaboration such as Type 2 – *Communicating*, Type 6 – *Collaborating with the Community*, Type 7 – *Parents observing lessons*, and Type 8 – *Home visits by teachers*. The results can indicate that a more various direct contact of preservice teachers with parents during school placements can result in a better understanding of the theory of overlapping spheres of influence and/or empathy¹. Further study should focus on how direct contact during school placements that goes beyond Type 2 and Type 3 correlates with future language teachers’ opinions about the importance of the eight types of parental involvement.

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¹ cf. Peck, Maude and Brotherson claim that “one of the most powerful methods of meaningful communication that informed teachers’ empathy was going on a home visit” (2015: 176).

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The Relationship between Critical Thinking Skills and Democratic Attitudes of 4th Class Primary School Students

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Abstract

This research aims to explore the relationship between critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes of 4th class primary school students. The research used a relational screening model, which is one of the screening models. The sample consisted of 221 4th class students who were selected by the simple random sampling method. The study has employed the 'Critical Thinking Scale' and the 'Democratic Attitude Scale'. Descriptive statistics, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), Pearson product-moment correlation analysis and simple linear regression analysis were used to analyse the data. The results have revealed that 4th class primary school students have a high level of critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes. No significant difference has been determined between students' critical thinking skills in terms of gender, while a significant difference has been identified for democratic attitudes in favour of female students. The results also have suggested a medium-level relationship between students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes, and that critical thinking skills significantly predict democratic attitudes.

Keywords: Attitude, critical thinking, democratic attitude, primary school, thinking

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Introduction

The need for qualified individuals has increased recently. Qualified individuals can be trained with qualified training. In fact, the major aim of education is to raise qualified individuals who can keep up with the times. To achieve this goal, many developed and developing countries alter their teaching programmes and try to provide individuals with high-level thinking skills and democratic values.

Critical thinking is a matter of analysing the facts by taking all of the circumstances into account, producing ideas about them, organizing them on the basis of an objective, defending the results and comparing them with opposite opinions, achieving some conclusions from the judgments and solving the problems through evaluation (Lau, 2011). Kurnaz (2013) defines critical thinking as ‘the tendency or skill to engage in an activity with skeptical and in-depth thinking while giving rational decisions about what the individual has done or believed’. Tittle (2011) also describes critical thinking as ‘making reasonable deduction about what to do with what is believed’. Even though there are different definitions, it may be wise to mention that critical thinking is the ability and tendency to acquire, compare, evaluate, refine, use and apply knowledge. At that point, critical thinking differs from ordinary thinking.

Critical thinking is a multifaceted mental process. Having learned to think critically, an individual can find solutions to the problems he or she encounters, be open minded to new ideas, develop different perspectives towards events when required, respect other people's ideas, behave without prejudice, adapt to change and development, recognize his or her own deficiencies and eliminate them, and discover new knowledge by producing knowledge (Eryaman, 2008, 2009). The ability of individuals to possess such skills will help them to produce healthy and accurate solutions to the challenges they face in their respective lives. Those who cannot think critically are in tendencies of behaviour such as an inability to produce solutions to the events, general prejudice towards the knowledge or events presented to them, and accepting a situation as is without questioning or completely resisting it (Aybek, 2010; Paul & Elder, 2007; Sogukpinar, 2017). Aybek (2010) states that one of the most significant reasons for critical thinking is the ability to sustain and develop democratic culture. The researcher also presupposes that critical thinking skills are among the distinctive ones that a democratic citizen should possess. Ruggiero (1988) has noted that prejudice may be eliminated through critical thinking. In this respect, critical thinking is of great importance to a democratic society.

To create a democratic society, it is important to raise individuals who possess a democratic attitude. Demirsoz (2010) points out that a democratic attitude is based on ‘the ability to adopt and exhibit principles such as respect for rights, respect for person, justice, responsibility, equality, openness, honesty, tolerance, cooperation, appreciation, guidance’. Individuals with democratic attitude are considered equalitarian, respectful of rights and freedom, responsible, unprejudiced, and having different perspectives and critical thinking skills.

Upon examining the relevant literature in Turkey, few studies have been conducted on the students' critical thinking skills (Akar & Kara, 2017; Demir, 2006, Gorucu, 2014; Kalkan, 2008) and their democratic attitudes (Erbil & Kocabas, 2017; Kardas, 2013). No research has been found that examines the relation between critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes of 4th class primary school students. The researcher views this dearth as a shortcoming. It is essential that critical thinking, which is one of the basic skills that educational programmes must offer, be effectively acquired in primary school. Aybek (2010) has emphasized that individuals' critical thinking skills need to be improved, starting from early childhood.

For a large group of people to live together, such people should respect one another in the first place. The need for people to be receptive to the differences of others and to respect their rights and freedom—that is, to have the necessary democratic attitudes—requires a certain moral maturity. Therefore, it is important to develop democratic attitudes from primary school years. Kardas (2013)

states that the democratic attitude must be acquired from childhood. In this regard, it would be useful to examine the critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes of primary school students. This study is thought to contribute to science and provide a feedback to the classroom teachers. The research is expected to contribute to the related field.

This research aims to explore the relationship between critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes of 4th class primary school students. To meet this goal, answers to the following questions have been sought:

- 1) What are the students' critical thinking skills and democratic attitude levels?
- 2) Is there a significant difference between students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes in terms of gender?
- 3) Is there a significant relationship between students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes?
- 4) Is there a predictive relationship between students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes?

Method

Research Design

The research used a relational screening model, which is one of the screening models. Screening models are research models that are conducted to describe the relationship between two or more variables and to analyse the relationships in-depth (Karakaya, 2012). This model seeks prediction and exploration among variables (Sonmez & Alacapinar, 2011). As the relation between critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes of 4th class students in primary school has been examined, this research used relational screening model.

Population and Sample

The research population consists of 4th class primary school students who study in Elazig province during the 2016–2017 academic year. The sample has 221 4th class students who were selected by the simple random sampling method. This sampling selection method requires that each participant have an equal chance to participate in the study (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2014). Among the participants, 125 were female and 92 were male.

Data Collection Tools

This research has deployed two data collection tools: critical thinking scale and democratic attitude scale, as described below.

Critical Thinking Scale: This study used the 'Critical Thinking Scale', developed by Gorucu (2014). The scale was conducted on 200 students studying in the 2012–2013 academic year. The researcher performed the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to demonstrate the validity of the scale.

The analysis results revealed that the scale comprises four factors and explains 51.43% of the total variance (Gorucu, 2014). The first factor, 'communication', has four items; the second factor, 'searching for truth', has six items; the third factor, 'self-confidence', has three items; and the fourth factor, 'prejudice', has four items. The researcher determined that the factor loadings of the measured items vary across .34 and .78 (Gorucu, 2014). Such items regarding the factors can be presented as: searching for truth: *'I have analyzed the problem from different perspectives, not the one way'*;

prejudice: 'I find it more right for others to give important decisions'; communication: 'I listen to the conversations of people who think differently from me until the very end'; and self-confidence: 'I constantly worry that I cannot make the right decisions' (Gorucu, 2014).

The internal consistency coefficient was examined to determine the reliability of the scale. Using a 5-point Likert-type scale, the internal consistency coefficients of the scale were found to be .45 for the first factor, .58 for the second factor, .66 for the third factor, .63 for the fourth factor and .69 for the overall scale (Gorucu, 2014).

Democratic Attitude Scale: The 'Democratic Attitude Scale' developed by Erbil and Kocabas (2017) was used as the second data collection tool. The scale was conducted on a total of 350 primary school students in two schools in Izmir. Researchers applied the EFA to determine the validity of the scale, and then the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to check whether the factors related to the scale were verified.

EFA has suggested that the scale is composed of one factor, 10 items and explains 32.63% of the total variance (Erbil & Kocabas, 2017). The factor loadings of the measured items vary between .41 and .66 (Erbil & Kocabas, 2017). Some examples of the scale include 'Nobody should be friends with poor children' and 'Everyone has basic rights' (Erbil & Kocabas, 2017). Being a 3-point Likert-type scale, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was determined to be .76 for the overall scale (Erbil & Kocabas, 2017).

Within the scope of the study, permission was obtained for both scales, and they were used in this research. The critical thinking scale was developed by including secondary school students in the sample, while the democratic attitude scale was developed by selecting 3rd class primary school students as a sample. These measurement instruments were presented to three specialist faculty members, and their opinions were asked about whether the scales could be used for the 4th class primary school students. In consideration of the experts' feedback, the scales were used in the research.

EFA related to scales was carried out once more. The results were in line with those of the actual scales. Moreover, internal consistency coefficients of the scales were also examined. Hence, Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the democratic attitude scale was found to be .74, and the critical thinking skills scale was .63. Ozdamar (2013) stated that Cronbach's alpha coefficient is acceptable at .60 and over. Based on this reference, the scales may be said to be reliable.

Data Collection

The researcher collected the data between 8 May 2017 and 12 May 2017 in the spring semester of the 2016–2017 academic year. The researcher went to primary schools, distributed the scales to students and told them how to fill the scales. Students filled the scales within the framework of the voluntary principle. It took students 20 minutes to respond to the scales.

Data Analysis

The research data were analysed using a SPSS 21 statistical package program. First, the research confirmed whether the data provided the general requirements of the parametric tests. The presence or absence of extreme values was checked through the z -test and no extreme values were found. Afterwards, the Kolmogorov–Smirnov (K–S) test was used to evaluate whether the data were distributed normally. As a result of the analyses, the critical thinking scale demonstrated normal distribution (K–S = .05, $p > .5$); whereas that is not the case for democratic attitude scale (K–S = .14, $p < .5$).

It is suggested that the coefficients of skewness and kurtosis be examined to determine whether the data demonstrates normal distribution (Ho, 2006; Secer, 2015). The skewness of the democratic attitude scale is -.553 and the standard error is .164, while the kurtosis value is -.377 and the standard error is .326. Based on these results, the data showed normal distribution.

Descriptive statistics, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), Pearson product-moment correlation analysis and simple linear regression analysis were used during data analysis. To apply MANOVA, the assumptions, such as sample size, extreme value analysis, linearity, homogeneity of regression, multicollinearity and homogeneity of variance and covariance matrices, have to be met (Pallant, 2016). These assumptions were determined to have been met during the analysis. Green and Salkind (2013) have stated that normal distribution should be achieved; that the data pairs should be randomly selected and that the variables forming the data pairs should be independent of each other for the correlation analysis. Pearson product-moments correlation analysis was conducted because the data showed normal distribution and continuous variables independent from each other were used. To use simple linear regression analysis, it is necessary to have a linear relationship between the predicted and predicting variables and normally distributed data (Field, 2009).

Results

Table 1 depicts the participation levels of students regarding their critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes.

Table 1. Students' critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes participation levels

Variables	<i>N</i>	\bar{X}	Sd	Max	Min	Level
Critical Thinking Skills	221	3.57	.55	4.76	2.10	Agree
Democratic Attitudes	221	2.67	.22	3.00	1.35	Yes

Upon examining Table 1, students expressed their opinions as 'agree' on the critical thinking skills scale ($\bar{X} = 3.57$) and 'Yes' on the democratic attitude scale ($\bar{X} = 2.67$).

Table 2 displays one-factor MANOVA results for the students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes in terms of gender.

Table 2. One-factor MANOVA results of students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitude levels in terms of gender

Dependent Variable	Gender	<i>n</i>	\bar{X}	Sd	df	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
Critical Thinking Skills	F	125	3.61	.54	1-219	2.093	.14	.00
	M	96	3.50	.56				
Democratic Attitudes	F	125	2.72	.22	1-219	10.270	.00*	.04
	M	96	2.61	.25				

* $p < .05$

A one-factor MANOVA was conducted to determine the effect of gender on students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes. When the premises of the MANOVA analysis were checked, the homogeneity premise of diffusion matrix according to Box M statistic was ensured ($F_{3, 6832201, 878} = 1.029, p = .378$). The results of the Wilks' lambda test revealed a significant difference in the linear combinations of the dimensions of students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes in terms of gender (Wilks' $\Lambda = .953, F_{(1, 219)} = 5.401, p = .00$).

One-factor ANOVA results for students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes are shown in Table 2. No significant difference has been determined between students' critical thinking skills in terms of gender ($F_{1-219} = 2.093, p > .05$), while a significant difference has been identified for democratic attitudes in favour of female students ($F_{1-219} = 10.270, p < .05$). In addition,

the interaction between gender and critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes is low (Green & Salkind, 2013).

The relationship between the students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes has been presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Distribution of the relation between students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes

Variables	Critical Thinking Skills	Democratic Attitudes
Critical Thinking Skills	1	-
Democratic Attitudes	.334*	1

$N = 221$, $*p < .01$

A positive, medium level (Tuna, 2016) and significant ($r = .334$, $p < .01$) relation have been determined as a result of the Pearson correlation analysis to determine whether there is a significant relation between students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes. Thus, it is likely that students' democratic attitude scores will increase when their critical thinking scores increase.

Table 4 presents the results about whether students' critical thinking skills predict their democratic attitudes.

Table 4. Results of simple linear regression analysis related to the prediction of democratic attitude by critical thinking skills

Predicted Variable	Predicting Variable	B	Standard Error	β	t	p
	Constant	2.138	.404		5.28	.00
Democratic Attitude	Critical thinking skills	.535	.150	.334	3.55	.00
		$R = .334$	$R^2 = .11$	$F_{(1,219)} = 12.662$	$p = .00$	

Simple linear regression analysis results have revealed a medium level and significant relation between democratic attitude and critical thinking skill ($R = .334$, $R^2 = .11$, $p = .00$). Therefore, critical thinking skills' contribution to the democratic attitudes' total variance is 11%. When the standardized β coefficient and t values were examined, critical thinking is likely to be a significant predictor of democratic attitude.

Discussion, Results and Recommendations

This research aims to examine the relation between critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes of 4th class primary school students. Research results have revealed that the 4th class primary school students have a high level of critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes. The researcher has positively assessed this.

One of the major aims of education in the 21st century is to provide students with democratic values and critical thinking skills, a higher-level thinking skill. Thus, students' high level of critical thinking and democratic attitudes suggest that individuals who can keep up with the times are being trained. In addition, primary school programmes have been organized in Turkey based on the constructivist approach since the 2005–2006 academic year. Primary school programmes were finally revised in 2017.

When the renewed primary school programmes are examined, students are expected to gain critical thinking skills and democratic values (MNE, 2017a, 2017b, 2017c). Teachers may be said to urge students for developing critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes through making activities depending on the new curriculum. Demir (2006), Kalkan (2008), Karabacak (2011) and Yildiz (2011) have concluded that students' critical thinking levels are higher. These are in parallel to the results of

the current study. In studies conducted by Araz (2013) and Akar and Kara (2016), students have been identified to have a medium level of critical thinking skills. This difference may result from the use of a different measuring instrument and the conduction of the researches in different regions. Kardas (2013) has noted that students' democratic attitude levels are high, which is parallel to the result of this research.

The present study has also examined whether the critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes of 4th class primary school students vary across gender. As a result of the analyses, no significant difference has been determined among students' critical thinking skills in terms of their gender; on the other hand, students' democratic attitudes have shown a significant difference in favour of female students. Thusly, it may be emphasized that critical thinking skills do not differ in terms of gender, yet it is a variable that makes a significant difference with regard to democratic attitude.

Upon analysing the literature, various studies have been conducted on the fact that critical thinking skills vary across gender. In fact, similar results emerged in studies carried out by Akar and Kara (2016), Chin (2005), Belhan and Lacin-Simsek (2012). This result is in line with the relevant literature. Likewise, in his study, Kardas (2013) has found a significant difference between students' democratic attitudes in terms of gender. This is in agreement with the result of this research.

This study has also analysed whether there exists a significant relation between students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes. Accordingly, a positive medium level and significant relation has been found between students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes. Students' democratic attitude scores will increase if students' critical thinking scores increase. An individual with critical thinking skills has different perspectives and democratic values; moreover, s/he is unprejudiced and tolerant (Aybek, 2010; Facione & Facione, 1996). Democratic individuals are those who are unprejudiced, tolerant, respectful of differences and able to express their thoughts (Cavkaytar, 2013; Demirsoz, 2010). There are numerous common characteristics between individuals with critical thinking skills and those that are democratic. In this respect, there may be a relation between critical thinking and democracy, which is a situation supported by this research.

The present study has explored whether students' critical thinking skills predict their democratic attitudes. The analysis results have displayed a medium level and significant relation between democratic attitude and critical thinking skill. Critical thinking skills' contribution to the democratic attitudes' total variance is 11%. When the standardized β coefficient and t values have been analysed, critical thinking may be a significant predictor of democratic attitude. Based upon this result, the following can be said to have predicted democratic attitudes: distinguishing between necessary and unnecessary information; determining the accuracy of the statements; making analysis, evaluation and inferences; evaluating prejudices, consistency and inferences; distinguishing first and second sources; using various criteria while analysing; trying to find new solutions to problems; judging after examining and analysing all the data; being modest and curious; asking questions constantly; and giving people feedback after listening them carefully (Beyer, 1988; Facione, 2004; Facione & Facione, 1996; Ferret, 1997; Norris, 1985; Nosich, 2012; Ozden, 2003; Paul & Elder, 2007).

Based upon the research results, the following recommendations have been provided:

- 1) The research results have revealed a medium-level relationship between students' critical thinking skills and their democratic attitudes, and that critical thinking skills significantly predict democratic attitudes. In this regard, it will be useful for teachers to organize student-centred activities to develop critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes while planning the teaching-learning process. In this way, students' critical thinking skills and democratic attitudes may be improved, and individuals who are able to keep up with the times may be trained.
- 2) Research conducted on larger groups will contribute to the related field.

- 3) Using research models such as experimental, qualitative and mixed will contribute to the field.

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The Prominent Student Competences of the 21st Century Education and the Transformation of Classroom Assessment

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Abstract

The term of 21st century skills has become a key concept in the field of education. It has attracted researchers' attentions and included in some of the cognitive taxonomies used in the fields of curriculum development and educational assessment. In the 21st century, the teaching curriculum and instruction have started to transform in a way consistent with the change of the targeted competences that an educated person should have. This requires classroom assessment applications to change so that they can be in line with the nature of these competences and support their development. This study discusses the skills that have gained importance in the 21st century education (21st century skills), the interaction between these skills and the classroom assessment, and the transformation of assessment activities to cover these skills. The study also includes one sample assessment activity and rubrics that are developed by the researchers in order to guide teachers how to include these skills in their daily teaching plan and how to assess them.

Keywords: Student achievement, classroom assessment, higher order thinking skills, assessing the 21st century skills, metacognition, conative skills

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Introduction

Recently, many countries believing that education is a propelling power for the development of countries have been questioning the success of the schooling in raising the standards of learning. They have started to find the achievement criteria defined as “the level of accomplishing learning outcomes” as very result-oriented. They accept that individuals’ not being able to apply their knowledge to the real-life situations is an important failure of schooling. Schools are still not qualified and equipped enough to develop students’ higher order thinking skills. This has become the propelling power behind the national education ministries’ movement of transforming the information-oriented curriculum to the skill-oriented curriculum. Applying fundamental knowledge acquired at schools to real life requires students not only to have cognitive skills, such as comprehending, problem solving, critical and creative thinking, but also to have various conative, social, and meta-cognitive skills (Haladyna, 1997; Kutlu, Doğan, Karakaya, 2014).

Especially since the 1980s, using findings of the cognitive psychology for developing the curriculum, teaching methods and techniques, and educational assessment applications at schools has gained wide currency. The behaviorism that has maintained its impact on education for long years has been replaced by the constructivism. Thanks to this, developing higher order thinking skills that require students to use various cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills simultaneously has recently stood out.

Many researchers argue that the development of higher order thinking skills is dependent on enabling students to use cognitive, meta-cognitive, conative and social skills simultaneously. Related studies provide results supporting the appropriateness of this idea of the researchers. Studies reveal that it is necessary to enable students to produce an output by using his/her cognitive, meta-cognitive and social skills so as to develop their higher order thinking skills (Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Haladyna, 1997; Marzano, 1992; Strayhorn, 2013; Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor & Schellinger, 2011; Kutlu, Kula-Kartal & Şimşek, 2017; Kula-Kartal & Kutlu, 2017). Recently, this understanding based on students’ simultaneous use of three-domain skills while creating a product or an output has affected the definitions of the 21st century skills and ongoing discussions on this issue.

The 21st Century Skills

The term of 21st century skills has become a key concept in the field of education. Cognitive skills, such as problem solving, reasoning, critical and creative thinking; meta-cognitive and conative skills, such as persistence, self-efficacy, motivation, openness to problem solving; social skills, such as collaboration, communication, taking responsibility all fall under this key concept. These competences are not discovered within this century. Yet, the importance given to the rote and superficial learning has decreased. On the other hand, the importance given to the cognitive processing of the information based on the background knowledge and the personal experiences have increased within this century. The rapid changes and problems happening in the inter-cultural relations, in the social relations and in the natural environment inevitably have increased the importance given to these competences. Today, in the field of education, it is frequently stated that students should accomplish the 21st century skills. They should graduate from their schools as skilled individuals in utilizing these competences to solve their real-life problems (Pellegrino, 1999; Greiff & Kyllonen, 2016).

Recently, the 21st century skills have increasingly attracted researchers’ attentions. They are even included in some of the cognitive taxonomies used in the fields of curriculum development and educational assessment. For example, the skills affecting learning are divided into two dimensions by Marzano and Heflebower (2012). One of them includes cognitive skills, the other one comprises of skills of understanding and controlling the self and the others. Marzano, Pickering and McTighe (1993) argue that students’ attitudes and meta-cognitive skills are the two fundamental dimensions of learning. Marzano (1992) states that these dimensions have important effects on learning, and provide basis for learning. Marzano and Kendall (2007) divide individuals’ cognitive activities into three categories; the self-system, the meta-cognitive system and the cognitive system. Individual’s self-

system decides whether the individual is going to engage with a new task. In addition, it determines the amount of time and effort that the individual will separate to accomplish the task, if the individual prefers to engage with the new task. Ruiz-Primo (2009) divides competences that should be taught and assessed in the field of science education into three dimensions; intra-personal skills, cognitive skills, and scientific skills. International large-scale assessments also focus on some intrapersonal skills. For example, students' instrumental motivation, self-efficacy, persistence, openness to problem solving, school engagement, internal locus of control were assessed in the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) conducted in 2012 and 2015 (OECD, 2013; 2016).

Although there is not only one scheme on which all researchers comprise, various frames have been developed in order to summarize these skills within a well-organized content (Kyllonen, 2015). The frame developed by Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) includes the five main competency dimensions; self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills and responsible decision making (Weissberg & Cascarino, 2013). National Research Council (NRC) has also carried out studies aiming to define the 21st century skills. In the related report (NRC, 2010), the 21st century skills were divided into five dimensions; adaptability, communication-social skills, non-routine problem solving, self-management and systems thinking. However, in the report published after 3rd workshop held on these skills (NRC, 2011), the 21st century skills were divided into three dimensions. The dimensions of self-management and adaptability were brought together under the dimension of intra-personal skills, the dimensions of systems thinking and non-routine problem solving were brought together under the dimension of cognitive skills, and the dimension of interpersonal skills included communication-social skills.

Klein, DeRouin and Salas (2006 as cited in NRC, 2011) define interpersonal skills as goal-oriented behaviors that are used for the interpersonal communication determined by complex perceptual and cognitive processes, and include communication-relationship skills, various verbal or nonverbal messages, roles, motivations and expectations. The researchers also divide interpersonal skills into the two sub-dimensions that are called as communication skills and relationship skills. These sub-dimensions include skills, such as sending verbal messages constructively, writing clearly, expressing one's feelings, preferences, and opinions in a way that is not threatening or punishing to another person, appreciating differences among people, influencing others' ideas and reactions, managing others' impressions to create a positive influence on them.

Furthermore, in the frame developed by NRC, adaptability and self-management skills are brought together under the dimension of intrapersonal skills. This dimension includes skills, such as adapting actions effectively to cope with rapidly changing situations, being willing to learn new tasks, techniques or technologies, rapidly orienting to new processes or applications, accomplishing tasks without needing any external control and by following idiosyncratic ways to accomplish the tasks, setting personal goals and pursuing for these goals, managing time (NRC, 2011).

The 21st Century Skills and The Classroom Assessment

In the 21st century, curriculum, instruction and classroom atmosphere have all started to transform in a way consistent with the change of the targeted competences that an educated person should have. This requires classroom assessment applications to change so that they can be in line with the nature of these competences and support their development (Stiggins, 2002; 2005). Stiggins (2002) argues that a new point of view for classroom assessment should be developed, if it is aimed to connect assessment applications and the improvement of schooling. Researcher thinks that educational measurement specialists have firstly focused on exploring and improving new methods and techniques to obtain more reliable and valid scores. Meanwhile, the important question of "how do our assessment tools contribute to students' self-efficacy and willing to learn?" has been left unanswered.

Search for the answer to the question of how to enable consistency between the targeted competences in the curriculum and the classroom assessment approach has increased interest in the formative assessment. It is possible to mention two different approaches for formative assessment.

First of these testing approaches is *assessment of learning* that is based on testing students more frequently by increasing the frequency of summative assessments and getting more information regarding students' development. That kind of assessment approach provides more evidences and information regarding the efficacy of curriculum and instruction. However, it cannot be effective in increasing students' motivation to learn and achievement because assessment is mostly applied after completion of the learning process. In addition, these frequent assessment applications still cannot provide the necessary information needed by teachers for day-to-day, or even hour-to-hour instructional decisions. The second approach to the formative assessment is called as *assessment for learning*. It includes more than testing students frequently. In this approach, instruction and assessment are indivisible. They progress in an interactive way and inform each other. Students are also informed about their own learning and engaged in their own learning processes thorough self-assessment (Black & William, 1998; Stiggins, 2002; 2005).

A teacher who embraces the assessment for learning approach a) specifies the achievement targets to be mastered for every class clearly and in a student-friendly way, b) shares these targets with students from the right beginning of the class and helps them understand what are expected from them, c) teaches students these targets by using models of strong or weak work to help students understand expectations more clearly, d) assesses students' level of accomplishing targets of the class by applying an assessment activity that is consistent with the learning targets, e) guides students to help them assess their own learning based on specific learning targets, f) helps students identify the learning gaps that need improvement by providing students with descriptive feedback, g) creates second chances during the class to enable students to make the necessary changes on their works (Moss & Brookhart, 2009; 2015).

The assessment for learning approach affects students' intrapersonal skills since it provides students with necessary tools that are needed by them during their learning processes (Brookhart & DeVoge, 1999; Black & William, 1998; Brookhart & Durkin, 2003; Greenstein, 2010; Gordon & Rajagopalan, 2016; Popham, 2017). In a classroom in which this assessment approach is applied, clear and student-friendly version of the learning targets are shared with students because students can assess themselves only when they have a clear picture of the targets. In addition, assessment activities are planned specific to these targets for every class. Teachers use sample works to make sure that students already understood all expectations before applying the assessment activity. Therefore, the criteria that students can take into consideration to monitor their own progress become clear for them. So, students can assess their own learning processes based on these clearly defined and shared learning targets. They can also specify what to do next to improve the quality of their work thanks to teacher's and their own feedbacks. Students have a chance to identify their inadequacies not after completion of the class, but while they are still in the learning process. They are continuously informed about their next steps. That kind of assessment approach provides students with the support, information and atmosphere that they need to overcome their inadequacies and develop their skills (Black & William, 1998; Moss & Brookhart, 2009; 2015).

When one aims to develop students' 21st century skills, it gains importance to embrace an assessment approach that is consistent with the nature of these skills and that can support the development of these skills. It is very important to have consistency between the targeted skills and the indirect messages sent students via the assessment approach. This consistency can be accomplished when teachers embrace the assessment for learning approach and apply this understanding effectively in their classrooms. In this approach, students do not try to learn within a classroom atmosphere in which they are punished or awarded for their wrong or correct answers. On the contrary, student is inside of a learning process during which his or her inadequacies are revealed thanks to continuous and personalized feedbacks. The student is allowed to reach deeper and sophisticated learning by using these feedbacks. Within this classroom atmosphere, student can only focus on mastering targeted skills without feeling any anxiety for performing better than the others or being punished because of mistakes.

As mentioned before, the change of competences needed by individuals in the work life and the findings of the cognitive psychology regarding the skills affecting individuals' learning processes have made important changes on the definitions of education and educated person. Accordingly, these changes have caused to transform schools, the curriculum and instruction methods. While necessary transformation happened more rapidly in these areas, the effect of behavioristic approach on the classroom measurement and assessment applications lasted a long time. Educational assessment failed in fitting those changes happening in the fields of cognitive psychology and education until the 1980s (Gordon & Rajagopalan, 2016).

According to Pellegrino (1999) these developments have recently started to change educational assessment applications so that they can be more related to the learning processes and the learning environment of students. According to the researcher, tests that are weakly linked to the learning experiences of students and results of the assessment applications including tasks disconnected from the learning process and context are not valid any more. Similarly, Bennett (2014) argues that it will be necessary to change the educational assessment applications and its content as long as the definition and qualities of educated person changes.

Teachers' understanding of the assessment and their ways of using assessment in their classrooms need to be changed (Shepard, 2000). Behind that change, there are two important points that should be taken into consideration. The first of them is to embrace the assessment for learning approach. The second one is to assess students' intrapersonal and interpersonal skills in addition to their cognitive skills. These changes indicate the necessity of forming and applying new instruction and assessment models based on the assessment for learning approach. Furthermore, it is necessary to use items or tasks that can enable to assess students' cognitive, intrapersonal and interpersonal skills. Therefore, focusing on the 21st century skills in the classroom assessment applications, continuously monitoring students' development in terms of these skills, and using items or tasks that enable them to monitor these skills have recently gained importance.

The two questions are important for reconstructing the curriculum and the classroom assessment: "What purposes do cognitive skills acquired by students at schools serve in their lives?", "Where and how do students utilize these skills in their daily lives?" When answers to these questions are considered, the importance of teaching and assessing students' intrapersonal and interpersonal skills in addition to their cognitive skills, become clear because almost all real life situations require students to simultaneously use various skills. Therefore, it is necessary to define intrapersonal and interpersonal skills that students need in their daily lives. In addition, the classroom teaching activities and the assessment applications should both be reconstructed based on these definitions.

In the following of the report, a sample task showing how to take the related cognitive, intrapersonal and interpersonal learning targets within a related and inclusive context. Scoring rubrics and evaluation forms showing how to evaluate students' works and give feedback to their products are also given in the following of the report. The sample task, the rubric and evaluation forms were developed by the researchers.

The Information Regarding the Sample Assessment Task

This sample task is prepared for eight graders to be used to assess students in terms of some learning targets of Math course. Within a class, it is aimed to teach students information and skills related to "budgeting" and "using money for shopping." Firstly, related skills are defined under three main dimensions; cognitive, intrapersonal and interpersonal skills. These skills form basis both for the classroom instruction activities and the assessment applications.

"Budgeting" and "using money for shopping" are skills that can be transferred and applied to individuals' daily lives. One area in which those skills can be used might be organizing dinner for friends. The task is related to organizing cost-effective dinner for friends. An individual organizing dinner should also use cognitive skills, such as defining criteria, making decisions, and justifying.

Student is going to use some intrapersonal and interpersonal skills while organizing dinner, so skills such as time scheduling, coping with the possible problems and openness to problem solving are defined as intrapersonal skills within the frame of this task. Furthermore, this task also requires students to use some interpersonal skills like communication, working with the group, attracting interest and being hospitable.

Firstly, cognitive, intrapersonal and interpersonal skills that students need to accomplish the task are given in the following. Right after that, a performance task requiring students to use these skills, scoring rubrics that can be used to evaluate students' work are given. Students can be given feedbacks based on the results obtained from all of these evaluation forms.

The Sample Task: Organizing Dinner

8th Grade Math

Learning target 1: Budgeting

Learning target 2: Using money for shopping

Performance Task: Student organizes a cost-effective dinner for friends.

The Necessary Skills to Accomplish the Related Learning Targets		
Cognitive Skills	Intrapersonal Skills	Interpersonal Skills
<p>Using money for shopping <u>Using four operations</u> Using addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division to solve problems. <u>Budgeting:</u> Planning how to use resources so as to satisfy the expectations and accomplish specific aims.</p> <p>Decision making based on the data <u>Identifying the criteria:</u> Specifying the standards that will lead to the most appropriate judgment. <u>Decision making:</u> Making a judgment by comparing available data with the defined criteria.</p> <p>Justifying decisions <u>Justifying:</u> Making casual and rational explanations for the results or the ideas.</p>	<p>Time scheduling Preparing a time schedule by taking into consideration personal capacity, priorities and base time.</p> <p>Coping with the problems Effectively adapting plans, targets, actions or priorities so as to cope with uncertain, unpredictable and rapidly changing situations.</p> <p>Openness to problem solving Thinking on alternative solutions by searching, criticizing and without being overwhelmed by prejudices.</p>	<p>Communication Expressing information, feelings, experiences and opinions in groups, understanding each other</p> <p>Working with groups All actions done by several students (group of 3 to 5 students) together so as to accomplish a study/task.</p> <p>Attracting attention Gathering others' attentions on his/her actions.</p> <p>Being hospitable Being nice to the guests and entertaining them.</p>

The Classroom Assessment Activity

As a group of three including you and your two friends, you are responsible for organizing a dinner for a group of eight including your classmates. You are given 10 days to get ready for this organization. It is your group's responsibility to make decisions regarding a dinner menu, make a budget, buy foods, select venue, cook, set an attractive dinner table, welcome and entertain guests.

As a group, you are expected to prepare a detailed plan for the dinner organization including following dimensions.

- 1) Preparing a creative dinner menu.
- 2) Spending at most 50 liras for one guest.
- 3) Showing the consistency between the dinner menu and the shopping expenses.
- 4) Selecting an appropriate place for dinner.
- 5) Preparing a time schedule.
- 6) Specifying the possible problems you might have during the organization and offering solutions to these problems
- 7) Planning the event night in detail.

Points to Consider

- 1) You should prepare at most five-page plan.
- 2) Your plan should include all your preparations you have done under 7 dimensions given above.
- 3) You should make the ideas behind all your preparations clear in your plan.

Your plan is going to be evaluated in terms of the following criteria,

- 1) The use of four operations and budgeting knowledge
- 2) The ability of building creative and attractive opinions
- 3) Expressing all plans in detail
- 4) Aligning the menu to the budget
- 5) The veridicality of time schedule
- 6) The ability of detecting problems and offering solutions.
- 7) The ability of communication and cooperation in group

The Analytic Scoring Rubric

Student's Name:

Criteria	Levels of Achievement				Score	Opinions and suggestions
	Beginning(1)	Developing(2)	Accomplished(3)	Exemplary(4)		
Preparing Budget	The budget is hardly planned to accomplish the task.	The budget is partially planned to accomplish the task.	The budget is planned well enough to accomplish the task.	The budget is completely planned to accomplish the task.		
Scheduling time	The task is applied in a way hardly consistent with the time schedule.	The task is applied in a way partially consistent with the time schedule.	The task is applied in a way mostly consistent with the time schedule.	The task is applied in a way completely consistent with the time schedule.		
Attractive ness	The task is hardly attractive in terms of the menu and the table setting.	The task is slightly attractive in terms of the menu and the table setting.	The task is mostly attractive in terms of the menu and the table setting.	The task is completely attractive in terms of the menu and the table setting.		
Detecting Problems	Possible problems that might be experienced are hardly detected.	Few possible problems that might be experienced are detected.	Most of the possible problems that might be experienced are detected.	All of the possible problems that might be experienced are detected.		
Offering Solutions to the Problems	Hardly any solutions to the possible problems are offered.	Solutions to few possible problems are offered.	Solutions to most of the possible problems are offered.	Solutions to all of the possible problems are offered.		
Planning the Event Night	The activities, the playlist or the conversation topics are hardly planned for the event night.	The activities, the playlist or the conversation topics are slightly planned for the event night.	The activities, the playlist or the conversation topics are planned in a creative way for the event night.	The activities, the playlist or the conversation topics are planned in a very creative way for the event night.		

Teacher's Comment:

The Self- Evaluation Form

Student's Name:

Student's Class:

Student's School ID Number:

Dear Students,

The following expressions are designed to learn your opinions and feelings regarding the dinner invitation you planned as a group. Please respond to each of the expressions using the 3-point scale (Slightly true of me, Moderately true of me, Very true of me) to describe to what extent this expression reflects you. Please respond to all of the expressions.

Expressions	Slightly true of me (1)	Moderately true of me (2)	Very true of me (3)
I made a preliminary study for the task when I first got the task.			
I am glad that I got this task and worked on it.			
I realized that good planning is a key to the accomplishment on this task.			
I participated in the task with great interest.			
I obtained new and important information from this task.			
I carried out the task in collaboration with my group.			
I accomplished all my duties and responsibilities for the task.			

Note: Please respond to the following questions based on your own opinions.

1. What did this task enable you to notice about “planned study”?

.....

2. Which part of the task caused you to have the most difficulty in accomplishing? Why?

.....

3. What are the positive and negative sides of working in a group on this task? Why?

.....

The Group Evaluation Form

The aim of this evaluation is to specify strengths and weaknesses of your group work and provide feedback to you. Please evaluate yourself and your teammates using the following scale.

- 1: Developing (The work meets few criteria.)
- 2: Accomplished (The work meets most criteria.)
- 3: Exemplary (The work meets all criteria.)

The Criteria	Name of the Group Member		
	You
Group Work He/she accomplished his/her responsibility to the task, and supported the group to complete the task successfully.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>
	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>
	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>
Willingness and Effort He/she participated in group meetings on time and preparedly, volunteered for various tasks, and provided recommendations for the works that are not his or her responsibility.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>
	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>
	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>
Team Behavior He/she respected teammates, contributed to the new opinions and ideas, avoided behaviors that might humiliate teammates.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>
	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>
	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>
Communication He/she gave importance to group decisions, communicated well with the group, promptly brought up his/her concerns regarding the group problems, exchanged and shared information, emotion and experience with his/her teammates.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>
	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>
	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>
Problem Solving He/she predicted the possible problems, found appropriate ways to solve the problems, acted an effective part in solving problems, had positive approach to new and original solutions.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>
	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>
	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>

Comments:

.....

.....

The Feedback Form

Teacher's Opinion			Levels of Competence	Student's Opinion		
Weak	Progressing	Mastery		Weak	Progressing	Mastery
			Cognitive Skills			
			Student takes into consideration all the information/points needed in the task.			
			Student writes the criteria that he/she takes into consideration while preparing the budget.			
			Student justifies his decisions based on the related criteria.			
			Student creates a detailed and appropriate budget.			
			Student shows the consistency between the decisions (regarding the menu, shopping and selection of venue) and the budget.			
			Student detects the possible person or group level problems.			
			Student offers creative and appropriate solutions to the possible problems. ,			
<i>Opinions and suggestions:</i>				<i>Opinions and suggestions:</i>		
Weak	Progressing	Mastery	Interpersonal Skills	Weak	Progressing	Mastery
			Students works in collaboration with each other and reflect this in their task report through their work-sharing.			
			Students share works by taking into consideration group members' characteristics.			
			Students take group members' opinions related to the problems and make a group decision.			
<i>Opinions and suggestions:</i>				<i>Opinions and suggestions:</i>		
Weak	Progressing	Mastery	Intrapersonal Skills	Weak	Progressing	Mastery
			Student effectively plans the time given for preparation and reflects this in the time schedule.			
			Student adapts plans, actions and priorities based on the possible problems so as to cope with the changing situations.			
<i>Opinions and suggestions:</i>				<i>Opinions and suggestions:</i>		

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Evaluation of Teachers within the Scope of Leadership Roles (Demirci Sample)

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Abstract

The leadership in the field of education is seen as a concept associated with activities, which are carried out, beyond the status. It is an expected situation that the education managers fulfill the leadership roles. However, teachers, one of the most important stakeholders of educational organizations, need to carry out their leadership roles when necessary and to continue their professional development to realize these roles. With the research, the teachers in educational organizations have been evaluated within the scope of leadership roles. In this sense, through the "Teacher Leadership Scale", it was tried to determine the expectation levels and perception levels regarding the concept of leadership in the existing organizations of teachers. The research was carried out in Manisa Demirci District with primary education teachers and branch teachers working in primary schools. By means of printed forms, the data were collected by reaching 239 teachers among the 315 teachers who worked in the related schools in the academic year of 2017 - 2018. In the analysis of the data, SPSS 23 package program was used. Teachers' expectations and perception levels were analyzed using minimum, maximum, arithmetic mean and standard deviation for each sub – dimension and total data set. Mann Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis Analysis were used to determine whether there was a meaningful difference between the expectation and perception levels according to the gender of the teachers, the teaching branch and professional seniority in the data set without normal distribution. In the analysis of the relationship between expectation and perception, Spearman's Rank – Order Correlation Analysis was used. According to the findings obtained, significant difference was found in favor of the expectation level of the teachers. However, there was no significant difference between expectations and perception levels in terms of gender, teaching branch and professional seniority. There is a "weak" relationship between expectations and perception levels. As a result, there is an expectation among the teachers about the concept of teacher leadership. However, the perception of teacher leadership in the institutions they work is relatively low.

Keywords: Leadership, Teacher Leadership, Professional Development

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Introduction

One of the factors that provide human being prevails in his struggle for life can be seen his accession to power source as required by the era. Being in information age makes information today an important power source. Appreciate the value of knowledge and using knowledge effectively in production period becomes necessity (Özgözgü and Atılğan, 2017). In this scope the interest towards education services providing knowledge acquisition in all societies has increasingly continued especially since the Second World War Being successful in received education is an expected situation. It can be said qualifications and efficiencies of teachers has a seperate place in reaching this expected success.

In 2006 the Ministry of National Education conducted a study on “General Efficiencies of Teaching Profession” and right after updated this study interrelatedly with 3 main efficiencies as “professional knowledge”, “professional skill” and “attitudes and values”, 11 sub efficiencies and 65 demonstrations (MEB, 2017). With this updated study efficiency fields that the teachers have to acquire, were emphasized according to the requirements of today.

Organizations are formed with gathering of individuals to achieve their common purposes. In organizations there can be not only individuals in management position that present vision, direct course of events or leave an impression on partners but also members that provide this situation with their “leadership” characteristics (Uğur and Uğur, 2014). It is possible for teachers to support their efficiencies with their influencing skills. This influence should not be limited just for students in class but also widen with leadership behaviours involving other partners (Öztürk and Şahin, 2017). Can (2006) emphasizes informal leadership roles of teachers beside their formal leadership roles in form of head of department and attracts attention to four strategies in development of this situation. These can be ordered as continuing leadership roles out of class, sharing of experiences with colleagues, considering skills of colleagues and participating to school activities. In literature scanning that Wenner and Campbell (2017) conducted within the scope of teacher leadership, they emphasized that researches about this subject has been increased over the past decade and these researches directed to the questions such as how teacher leadership can be legalized, if a theory regarding teacher leadership can be developed or not and how the backbreaking effect of teacher leadership on teacher can be reduced. Smylie and Eckert (2018) about leadership in the future, emphasized foresights aiming to achive some basic functions in the organization such as;

- Determining mission, vision and basic values,
- Developing profession, coordination, control, communication, questioning, learning and improvement systems,
- Developing and managing supportive organizational circumstances,
- Developing, achieving and assigning sources (human, social, economic etc.),
- Observing and managing the relation of school with the environment.

Beycioğlu and Aslan (2010) considered leadership today as displaying common leadership behaviours with team and with their study revealed three dimensions in teacher leadership as “Institutional development”, “Professional development” and “Cooperation with colleagues”. In related dimensions leadership roles that the teachers display will have positive contributions to organization and stated dimensions can be explained as follows;

Institutional development

Influence of organization around as a whole can be accepted as an indicator of institutional development. As institutional development associates with the whole of organization, desire and the effort of each member of organization displaying in this direction carry a meaning. In educational organizations it is clear that school managers have important effects on development and changing however it should be stated that teacher leadership has a different importance in achievement and sustainment of the targeted development and changing. It can be said that volunteer and active roles will be achieved with teacher leadership in school centered activities. It is possible that teacher leadership affects school culture and contributes to organizational development (Can, 2007). Although researches about teacher training see qualifications that teachers have to have, they show that their effect should be beyond class in form of involving school (Can, 2009). This effect can be ordered as taking part in professional working groups, affecting parent participation, trying to provide source, being volunteer in coordinated activities, preparing reports and information about school, achieving official duties effectively, applying and taking part in strategic plan period, helping acquisition and choosing of required materials, increasing success by organizing extrascholastic activities.

Professional Development

When reason for being of whole education system is associated with raising up future generations the best way, the importance of qualification required in education services comes forefront. It is a known reality that teacher qualifications affect the quality of education directly (Şişman, 2006). In this respect in pre – service trainings provided in teacher training and in – service training taken in profession there should be opportunities providing contribution to teacher development (Demir and Köse, 2016). Besides these opportunities the behaviours that teachers will display in profession in this way and the effect of these behaviours on organization are also important. It can be said that behaviours such as consulting with colleagues, learning from colleagues, showing devoted effort for success, being constructive, giving value to colleagues, providing participation of others in taking decision, developing teaching period according to level of a student, feeling trust and giving trust, being participant and sharing will contribute to professional development.

Cooperation with Colleagues

In achieving the aim of organizations, it is a necessary situation that the partners of organizations work together accordantly and behave together. In information society cooperation and communication are considered as an important subtitle on behalf of learning and renewing skills of individuals (Anagün and Atalay, 2017). Yılmaz, Oğuz and Altınkurt (2017) pointed the importance of teachers guiding and supporting their colleagues in terms of contribution to organization culture. As teacher leadership necessitates collaborative work among teachers, it carries this situation beyond classical leadership (Eryaman, 2007; Bozkuş, Taştan and Turhan, 2015). The leadership behaviours of teachers regarding this dimension can be as; helping new participant teachers, supporting and showing effort to increase professional development in organization, sharing experiences and actual developments, participating studies and projects.

It can be said that increasing power of knowledge and gradual complexification of education system necessitate teachers that are the most important factors of this system, to be more dynamic and autonomy in the system. At this point supporting teacher leadership by strengthening teacher autonomy seems to be an important situation (Strong and Yoshida, 2014). Within the scope of leadership roles teachers are expected to be creative, affect his surrounding and contribute organizational changing and development via this way (Dağ and Göktürk, 2014). Demir (2015) emphasized that teacher leadership is considered as a key factor in terms of reorganizing of schools and expertizing of teachers. So, it can be said that teachers achieving leadership roles by contributing organizational development, continuing professional development and being in cooperation with colleagues will be effective in reaching targets determined by education organizations.

The requirement of identifying expectations of teachers with their own points of view regarding teacher leadership as well as their evaluations for actual situation formed the problem of this research and the problem sentence of research was identified like this:

“What is the teachers’ own expectation and perception level for teacher leadership?”

Within the scope of problem sentence how the leadership roles should be in schools that the teachers are working and how this situation actualizes, was tried to be identified.

The answer for these sub problems was searched in the direction of problem sentence obtained in research.

- 1) Is there a significant difference in expectations and perceptions of teachers towards teacher leadership?
- 2) Is there a significant difference in expectations and perceptions of teachers towards teacher leadership according to gender?
- 3) Is there a significant difference in expectations and perceptions of teachers towards teacher leadership according to teaching branches?
- 4) Is there a significant difference in expectations and perceptions of teachers towards teacher leadership according to professional working year?
- 5) Is there a relation between expectations and perceptions of teachers towards teacher leadership?

The aim of research is to reveal beliefs of teachers towards teacher leadership and actual situation regarding teacher leadership in working conditions. With this aim teacher leadership was handled within the scope of institutional development, professional development and cooperation with colleagues. The research seemed to be important in terms of showing teacher approaches towards leadership roles thought to have effect in reaching targets of education organizations and how this situation actualizes at what rate in organizations. Also, it is expected to provide contribution for function of education organizations with findings and results of research. The research is limited with the evaluations of teachers working in primary schools in Manisa – Demirci District.

Methodology

This research in which expectations and perceptions towards teacher leadership in schools were searched, was conducted according to quantitative research methods. With quantitative research methods that are known as positive opinion, researched subject can be observed and analysed objectively and independently from researcher (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel, 2013). Generally quantitative research methods are based on descriptive and experimental models. According to Şimşek (2012) as descriptive models reveal reality as it is, research subject is conducted over the whole of population or sampling representing population (Karasar, 2012). In this research descriptive model from quantitative research models, was used.

Population and Sampling

All teachers working in primary schools in Manisa province Demirci district were identified as population. It was tried to reach to sampling of research within the scope of 95% reliability level and 5% error margin as Şahin (2012) pointed at. In this means 239 teachers among 315 teachers that are working in schools forming the population, were reached. Sampling reflecting population is an important situation. In sampling choice identification of some properties of participants as scale and choosing participants randomly are known as simple contingent (random) sampling (Karasar, 2012).

In identification of participants, the schools where teachers are working, were obtained as stratified sampling criterion after that sampling for each school was taken by using random sampling method. Research datas were collected in 2017 – 2018 academic year. Population and sampling are as given in Table 1.

Table 1. According to Schools Number of Teachers Forming Population and Sampling

School name	Teacher in charge (N)	Teachers forming sampling (n)
75.Yıl	38	22
Atatürk	18	18
Cengiz Topel – Enver Armağan	19	14
Cumhuriyet	17	12
Fatih	19	15
Makine Kimya – H. Çamtepe	27	20
Mustafa – Zehra – Saliha Kul	10	10
Ziya Gökalp – Nurettin	29	23
Durhasan	16	13
İcikler	21	15
Mahmutlar	24	15
Esenyurt	21	18
Kargınışıklar	13	13
Kılavuzlar	22	18
Minnetler	21	13
Total	315	239

Distribution of teachers forming sampling according to gender, teaching branch, professional working year variables, is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Distribution of Teachers Forming Sampling According to Some Variables

Variable	Property	<i>f</i>	%
Gender	Female	119	49.8
	Male	120	50.2
Teaching Branch	Basic Education Teachers	87	36.4
	Branch teachers	152	63.6
	0 – 5 years	71	29.7
	6 – 10 years	77	32.2
Professional working year	11 – 15 years	32	13.4
	16 – 20 years	16	6.7
	21 – 25 years	20	8.4
	26 years and over	23	9.6

Data Collection Tool

In research “Teacher Leadership Scale” developed by Beycioğlu and Aslan (2010) was used to collect data. In development period of measurement tool totally 29 items were formed based on literature, expert opinions for items were taken, necessary regulations were done later items were evaluated by different experts, with adding 5 Likert type rating scale to items measurement tool was made ready for pre – application. In measurement tool there are two main parts that participants can mark expectation and perception levels of behaviours towards teacher leadership. After pre – application done with the participation of 296 teachers and 21 managers, obtained datas were identified to be ready for factor analysis and by making exploratory factor analysis total correlation of items were calculated. According to analysis results 4 items were taken out in pre – application. In measuring tool item total correlation values in perception part were found as “.47 – .92” whereas in

expectation part they were found as “.51 – .77”. Regarding reliability studies internal consistency and retest coefficients were calculated. Within the scope of reliability level Cronbach – alpha internal consistency coefficient in expectation part was found as “.93” whereas in perception part it was found as “.95”. Within fortnight period the scale was repeated with total of 40 teachers and managers. Pearson correlation coefficient between paired points for expectation part was found as “ $r=.80$ ” whereas for perception part it was found as “ $r=.87$ ” and accordingly the reliability of measuring tool against time was provided. With its last form, measuring tool was consisted of two parts in form of expectation and perception, three sub dimensions and totally 25 items.

Data Collection Period

Permission applications regarding data collection were done to related units and after taking permission data collection period was started. Datas were collected from participants via printed form. Before data collection the participants were informed about the aim of research, according to confidentiality policy the results would only be used within the scope of research and requested to fill in the scale sincerely. With filling of given scales by participants data collection period for each education institution was completed.

Analysis of Datas

The datas were analysed by SPSS 23 programme. In analysis period significancy level was taken as 0.05.

As analysing expectation and perception levels of participants towards teacher leadership which is the main problem of research, for each sub dimension and data set minimum, maksimum, arithmetic mean (\bar{x}) and standart deviation (sd) values were examined.

In analysis of quantitative datas, in order to identify which test groups known as parametric and nonparametric would be used, some parameters were examined such as if data set shows normal distribution or not (Kul, 2014), some group sizes are under or over 30 (Yılmaz ve Yılmaz, 2005). Normality tests were applied to obtained datas and since number of total participants is over 50 (Bütüner, 2008) Kolmogorov Smirnov Test was based on. By this means in the scope of both expectation and perception parts significancy level for institutional development, professional development, cooperation with colleagues' dimensions and for all, was found as ($p=.00$) and it was decided that datas do not show normal distribution.

As analysing if there is significant difference in expectation and perception levels towards teacher leadership which is the first sub problem of research, Mann Whitney U Analysis was used. Gender and teaching branch variables were collected under two groups whereas professional working year was collected under six groups. By this means as analysing expectation and perception levels towards gender and teaching branch variables which are the second and third sub problems of research, Mann Whitney U Analysis was used. As analysing expectation and perception levels towards Professional working year variable which is the fourth sub problem of research, Krusskal Wallis Analysis was used. As analysing the relationship between the expectation and the perception levels towards teacher leadership which is the last sub problem of research, Spearman Rank Correlation Analysis was done.

Findings and Comments

In this part findings obtained by analysing of datas within the scope of problem sentence and sub problem sentences of research and comments towards these findings were given place.

Findings and Comments towards Research Problem Situation

As problem sentence of research is “What is the teachers’ own expectation and perception level for teacher leadership?”, by this means obtained findings and comments are given in Table 3 for expectation part and in Table 4 for perception part.

Table 3. Expectation Levels of Teachers towards Teacher Leadership

Dimension	n	Minimum	Maximum	\bar{x}	sd
Institutional Development	239	21.00	45.00	39.0335	5.32780
Professional Development	239	34.00	55.00	52.6569	3.47975
Colleague Cooperation	239	15.00	25.00	22.9498	2.18031
Total	239	78.00	125.00	114.6402	9.69299

Table 4. Perception Levels of Teachers towards Teacher Leadership

Dimension	n	Minimum	Maximum	\bar{x}	sd
Institutional Development	239	13.00	45.00	31.0628	6.72761
Professional Development	239	27.00	55.00	47.2762	6.33908
Colleague Cooperation	239	11.00	25.00	19.3682	3.55485
Total	239	52.00	125.00	97.7071	15.02120

Total point arithmetic mean of expectation level was found as 114,64 (always) whereas total point arithmetic mean of perception level was found as 97,70 (frequently). Generally arithmetic mean points towards teacher leadership were found high both for expectation and perception level. It can be said this situation could be generated from experienced developments in teacher efficiencies and increased technical skills of teachers. Obtained findings point that teachers find themselves more efficient in both expectation and perception levels. Also, expectation level points were found higher than perception level points. It can be said that this is an expected situation.

Arithmetic averages for institutional development dimension were found as 39,03 (always) for expectation level whereas for perception level they were found as 31,06 (frequently). In institutional development dimension in item 9 “*Being volunteer in participating studies towards development of school*” got the highest arithmetic average for both expectation level ($\bar{x}=4,67$ – always) and perception level ($\bar{x}=3,98$ – frequently). According to these findings it can be said that teachers are in tendency of contributing their institutions at the highest rate and directly by taking place in intramural activities. In institutional development dimension in item 6 “*Taking in charge in Professional working groups in province, region or country level*” got the lowest arithmetic average for both expectation level ($\bar{x}=3,93$ – frequently) and perception level ($\bar{x}=2,76$ – sometimes). According to evaluations of teachers it can be said that taking in charge in extrascholastic working groups affects institutional development indirectly and it is a situation that is less preferred and observed associated with various reasons.

Arithmetic averages for professional development dimension were found as 52,65 (always) for expectation level whereas for perception level they were found as 47,27 (always). In professional development dimension in item 19 “*Behaving colleagues as a valuable member of school*” expectation level as ($\bar{x}=4,91$ – always / $sd=0,33$) got the highest arithmetic mean and in item 24 “*Reassuring to the students*” expectation levels as ($\bar{x}=4,91$ – always / $sd=0,29$) got the highest arithmetic mean. For expectation level item 22 “*Being example in giving an opportunity for participating and sharing learning activities*” got the lowest arithmetic mean as ($\bar{x}=4,64$ – always). Similarly in professional development dimension item 24 got the highest arithmetic mean as ($\bar{x}=4,64$ – always) for perception

level. For perception level item 20 “*Making an effort for effective participation of colleagues in taking decisions about school*” got the lowest arithmetic mean as ($\bar{x}=4,11$ – frequently). According to these findings it can be said that reliability level of students towards teachers is considered as an important indicator on behalf of professional development. According to item 24 that got the highest point in both levels it can be said that teachers care about approaches of students at evaluation point of their professional development. When the items got the lowest points are considered, it can be said that teachers primarily continue their professional developments for themselves and on the behalf of their students. Also, as it was mentioned in item 19 giving value to their colleagues can be interpret as being open to different ideas in terms of their professional development.

Arithmetic averages for colleague cooperation dimension were found as 22,94 (always) for expectation level whereas for perception level they were found as 19,36 (frequently). In colleague cooperation dimension in item 1 “*Helping teacher candidates, trainee teachers and newly appointed teachers*” got the highest arithmetic average for both expectation level ($\bar{x}=4,77$ – always) and perception level ($\bar{x}=4,32$ – always). In colleague cooperation dimension in item 5 “*Participating in studies or research project processes (preparing, conducting and participating)*” got the lowest arithmetic average for both expectation level ($\bar{x}=4,31$ – always) and perception level ($\bar{x}=3,30$ – sometimes). According to the findings obtained over this dimension it can be said that embracing new participants and helping them is considered as a prior situation on behalf of colleague cooperation. Teachers helping new participants without externalising can be considered as an important beginning in terms of colleague cooperation. It can be seen via item 5 that there is a demand of taking part in various projects and studies however this situation does not occur at the same rate. Although this difference between expected and perceived situations can be considered as normal, it can be said that various informal structures in organization play role at this point.

Findings and Comments towards First Sub Problem of Research

As the first sub problem sentence of research is “Is there a significant difference between expectations and perceptions of teachers towards teacher leadership?”, the findings and comments obtained as a result of Mann Whitney U Analysis were given in Table 5.

Table 5. Mann Whitney U Analysis Showing the Difference of Points of Teachers for Each Dimension and Total towards Teacher Leadership According to Expectation and Perception Levels

Dimension	Level	N	Mean Rank	Rank Sum	U	p
Institutional Development	Expectation	239	317.23	75818.00	9983.000	.000
	Perception	239	161.77	38663.00		
Professional Development	Expectation	239	308.90	73827.00	11974.000	.000
	Perception	239	170.10	40654.00		
Colleague Cooperation	Expectation	239	311.12	74358.50	11442.500	.000
	Perception	239	167.88	40122.50		
Total	Expectation	239	319.88	76452.50	9348.500	.000
	Perception	239	159.12	38028.50		

According to Table 5 the points got for each dimension and total towards teacher leadership depending on expectation and perception level, show significant difference in favour of expectation level ($p=.00$). Although this generated condition is considered as an expected situation, the research shows consistency with the obtained findings towards research problem situation.

Findings and Comments towards Second Sub Problem of Research

As the second sub problem sentence of research is “Is there a significant difference between expectations and perceptions of teachers towards teacher leadership according to gender?”, the findings and comments obtained as a result of Mann Whitney U Analysis were given in Table 6 for expectation part and in Table 7 for perception part.

Table 6. Mann Whitney U Analysis Showing the Difference of Expectation Points of Teachers for Each Dimension and Total towards Teacher Leadership According to Gender Variable

Dimension	Gender	n	Mean Rank	Rank Sum	U	p
Institutional Development	Female	119	126.86	15096.50	6323.500	.125
	Male	120	113.20	13583.50		
Professional Development	Female	119	127.24	15141.00	6279.000	.092
	Male	120	112.83	13539.00		
Colleague Cooperation	Female	119	121.57	14467.00	6953.000	.720
	Male	120	118.44	14213.00		
Total	Female	119	126.16	15013.50	6406.500	.169
	Male	120	113.89	13666.50		

According to Table 6 the points got for each dimension and total towards teacher leadership at expectation level depending on gender do not show significant difference ($p > .05$). This situation can be interpreted as expectation level does not change according to gender about teacher leadership and the expectation points of male and female teachers towards teacher leadership are equal.

Table 7. Mann Whitney U Analysis Showing the Difference of Perception Points of Teachers for Each Dimension and Total towards Teacher Leadership According to Gender Variable

Dimension	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Rank Sum	U	p
Institutional Development	Female	119	125.53	14938.00	6482.000	.218
	Male	120	114.52	13742.00		
Professional Development	Female	119	124.63	14830.50	6589.500	.302
	Male	120	115.41	13849.50		
Colleague Cooperation	Female	119	125.05	14881.50	6538.500	.259
	Male	120	114.99	13798.50		
Total	Female	119	125.36	14918.00	6502.000	.232
	Male	120	114.68	13762.00		

According to Table 7 the points got for each dimension and total towards teacher leadership at perception level depending on gender do not show significant difference ($p > .05$). This situation can be interpreted as perception level does not change according to gender about teacher leadership and the perception points of male and female teachers towards teacher leadership are equal.

Findings and Comments towards Third Sub Problem of Research

As the third sub problem sentence of research is “Is there a significant difference between expectations and perceptions of teachers towards teacher leadership according to teaching branches?”, the findings and comments obtained as a result of Mann Whitney U Analysis were given in Table 8 for expectation part and in Table 9 for perception part.

Table 8. Mann Whitney U Analysis Showing the Difference of Expectation Points of Teachers for Each Dimension and Total towards Teacher Leadership According to Teaching Branch Variable

Dimension	Teaching Branch	n	Mean Rank	Rank Sum	U	p
Institutional Development	Basic Education Teacher	87	121.06	10532.50	6519.500	.856
	Branch Teacher	152	119.39	18147.50		
Professional Development	Basic Education Teacher	87	125.63	10930.00	6122.000	.320
	Branch Teacher	152	116.78	17750.00		
Colleague Cooperation	Basic Education Teacher	87	127.78	11116.50	5935.500	.178
	Branch Teacher	152	115.55	17563.50		
Total	Basic Education Teacher	87	124.29	10813.00	6239.000	.467
	Branch Teacher	152	117.55	17867.00		

According to Table 8 the points got for each dimension and total towards teacher leadership at expectation level depending on teaching branch do not show significant difference ($p > .05$). This situation can be interpreted as expectation level does not change according to teaching branch about teacher leadership and the expectation points of basic education and branch teachers towards teacher leadership are equal.

Table 9. Mann Whitney U Analysis Showing the Difference of Perception Points of Teachers for Each Dimension and Total towards Teacher Leadership According to Teaching Branch

Dimension	Teaching Branch	n	Mean Rank	Rank Sum	U	p
Institutional Development	Basic Education Teacher	87	115.67	10063.00	6235.000	.463
	Branch Teacher	152	122.48	18617.00		
Professional Development	Basic Education Teacher	87	112.60	9796.00	5968.000	.209
	Branch Teacher	152	124.24	18884.00		
Colleague Cooperation	Basic Education Teacher	87	122.44	10652.50	6399.500	.678
	Branch Teacher	152	118.60	18027.50		
Total	Basic Education Teacher	87	116.39	10125.50	6297.500	.541
	Branch Teacher	152	122.07	18554.50		

According to Table 7 the points got for each dimension and total towards teacher leadership at perception level depending on teaching branch do not show significant difference ($p > .05$). This situation can be interpreted as perception level does not change according to teaching branch about teacher leadership and the perception points of basic education and branch teachers towards teacher leadership are equal.

Findings and Comments towards Fourth Sub Problem of Research

As the fourth sub problem sentence of research is “Is there a significant difference between expectations and perceptions of teachers towards teacher leadership according to Professional working year?”, the findings and comments obtained as a result of Kruskal Wallis Analysis were given in Table 10 for expectation part and in Table 11 for perception part.

Table 10. Kruskal Wallis Analysis Showing the Difference of Total Expectation Points of Teachers towards Teacher Leadership According to Professional Working Year Variable

Professional Working Year	N	Mean Rank	X ²	df	p
0 – 5	71	123,32			
6 – 10	77	111,86			
11 – 15	32	121,25			
16 – 20	16	133,56	2.303	5	.806
21 – 25	20	129,75			
26 years and over	23	117,33			
Total	239				

According to Table 10 the total points got towards teacher leadership at perception level depending on Professional working year do not show significant difference ($X^2=2,303$, $sd=5$, $p=.806$). This situation can be interpreted as perception level does not change according to Professional working year about teacher leadership and the points of teachers towards teacher leadership according to professional working year, are equal.

Table 11. Kruskal Wallis Analysis Showing the Difference of Total Perception Points of Teachers towards Teacher Leadership According to Professional Working Year Variable

Professional Working Year	N	Mean Rank	X ²	df	p
0 – 5	71	119,63			
6 – 10	77	116,44			
11 – 15	32	113,03			
16 – 20	16	104,50	9.094	5	.105
21 – 25	20	113,03			
26 years and over	23	159,61			
Total	239				

According to Table 11 the total points got towards teacher leadership at perception level depending on Professional working year do not show significant difference ($X^2=9,094$, $df=5$, $p=.105$). This situation can be interpreted as perception level does not change according to professional working year about teacher leadership and the points of teachers towards teacher leadership according to Professional working year, are equal.

Findings and Comments towards Fifth Sub Problem of Research

As the fifth sub problem sentence of research is “Is there a relation between expectations and perceptions of teachers towards teacher leadership?”, the findings and comments obtained as a result of Spearman Rank Correlation Analysis were given in Table 12.

Table 12. Spearman Rank Correlation Analysis Showing the Relation between Expectation and Perception Level Total Points of Teachers

Variable	N	r _s	p
Expectation – Perception	239	.346	.000

According to Table 12, there is a weak relation between total points got at expectation-perception level towards teacher leadership ($r_s=.34$, $p=.00$). Within the scope of research this situation can be considered as while teachers are evaluating actual situation towards teacher leadership, they express their perception levels objectively without affecting from their expectation levels.

Discussion, Result and Suggestions

In this part discussions conducted in the light of findings obtained within the scope of research, attained results and given suggestions take part.

It is in question that the paradigm belonging to period humankind lives, reflects to all fields. Within historical period when achieved stages are considered, it can be said that we are in continuous change and development. Toffler (1980) defines this period as agricultural society for a thousand period, industrial society for period of three hundred years and for the last period as information society. However, these days are started to be mentioned as Industry 4,0 period where there is embodiment of product or service according to demand, search of flexibility and perfectness in production and service, as it is in all fields blowing of winds of change in education field (Yazıcı and Düzkaya, 2016). The main actors of this change can be ordered as increased knowledge, vary of philosophies about knowledge, increasing of thinking limits, changes in values and expectations, increasing of labour force, production and product variety etc. Within the scope of Industry 4,0 for success of transformation one of the eight criterion that is thought to be successful is education and continuity of professional development (Çeliktaş, Sonlu, Özgel and Atalay, 2015). In the context of all these changes the importance of education services that has an important place in social mobility of individuals, does not reduce on the contrary it gradually increases. By this means the expectations towards the roles of teachers that have great part in the content of education and in presentation of education services, increase in parallel to experienced developments (Eryaman & Riedler, 2009). Teacher leadership held within the scope of research and expectations towards teachers come out in the frame of this leadership approach can be considered as one of the efficiency fields that teachers have to have. Today when it is thought that the content of education cannot be limited with school, the teachers are expected to contribute institutional development within the scope of leadership roles, continue their professional developments and make cooperation with their colleagues.

It is seen that teacher leadership as one of the concepts that has to be supported to increase the quality of education, frequently finds response in literature. In this research in which teacher leadership is evaluated according to expectation and perception levels of teachers, teachers interiorising this subject and showing behaviours towards this way can be seen as main result according to obtained findings. Also, as expected situation expectation levels of teachers were found higher than perception levels. Besides this, the weak relation came out between expectation and perception levels shows at what rate teachers are in expectation about this subject and at what rate their expectations achieved in actual situation. There was not obtained any difference both at expectation and perception levels and sub levels of teachers according to gender, teaching branch and professional working year. At this point there reached a conclusion that teacher leadership is an accepted concept in the eye of all teachers.

Within scope of research discussion, result and suggestions according to sub dimensions regarding teacher leadership are as follows;

Institutional Development Dimension

When institutional development is thought as one of the qualifications that education institutions are expected to have, it is seen that leadership concept is among indicators ordered towards period as Cheng, Tam and Tsui (2002) stated. It is an expected situation that leadership roles of education managers are seen both in their status and in their conducted studies. However, as education content leadership concept is held in terms of business rather than status today (Dempster et al., 2017). By this means it can be said that teachers showing leadership behaviours towards various activities will provide positive contribution to institutional development. On the basis of this dimension the tendency of teachers towards participating to studies towards school development is among observed results. Besides this, although evaluations done towards more specific activity fields got high point again, it fell behind general content. On the basis of this dimension there reached a conclusion that there is a general tendency in teachers however at some points due to various reasons this tendency

decreases. For the activity fields in which tendency is little, reasons such as the existence of resistance point or insufficiency in leading point can be asserted. In this scope on behalf of institutional development it can be suggested to conduct studies such as forming a team by management for activities with low participation, making period guidance, increasing sensibility. Also, it should be careful about persistency of solutions produced for continuing of participation and conducting activities providing contribution to institutional development. By this means the importance of involving teachers by managers to decision periods, supporting situations revealing teacher leadership, giving time and opportunity for teachers in this way, providing education and source at necessary points, can be emphasized.

Professional Development Dimension

One of the power sources effective in obtaining and maintaining of leadership is expertise power. It is possible to maintain expertise power defined as special skill, knowledge and abilities of leader (Can, 2010) via professional development. As a dimension of teacher leadership for professional development İlğan (2013) stated that student is valuable in proportion to his effect to learnings. As supporting this saying at this dimension, the highest point that teacher evaluations have, was taken via item of reliable given to students. By this means the effort of teacher to maintain his professional knowledge and professional development is among important factors that give reliable to student and increase the quality of education. Education managers and experts generally show a wide consensus in supporting professional developments of teachers however there occurs problems about this subject due to questions such as what is important for teachers, how the organization is done, how the support is given, how sustainability is provided (Lieberman and Miller, 2007). As a result, obtained research results show that teachers are concerned and willing in terms of professional development. About professional development the highness of readiness level of teachers can be seen as an important advantage on behalf of increasing quality of education. In order to maintain this situation doing legal regulations that will open the ways of teachers in professional development, increasing personal benefits, using various motivating equipments and organizing trainings can be suggested to education managers.

Cooperation with Colleagues

Another dimension of teacher leadership can be considered as contributing achievement of aims of organization by affecting formal and informal groups in education organizations. The existence of cooperation among teachers in terms of providing Professional development and increasing quality in education organizations via this way carries a separate importance (Archibald et al., 2011; Desimone et al., 2002). By this means activities such as supporting new participants, affecting developments of colleagues, sharing experiences, discussing actual developments and participating in various studies, can be conducted. According to findings obtained within the scope of research, there reached a conclusion that the teachers are rather willing in studies defined as colleague cooperation. However, at perception level participating in various studies are not seen as high as at expectation level. In addition, there observed sufficiencies especially at involving studies and project point. It can be said that there is the effect of school culture at this point. Uğurlu and Yiğit (2014) state that forming effective school culture and open school climate can increase volunteer participation to these kinds of behaviours. It can be suggested that in terms of increasing colleague cooperation school managers present social environments for teachers to recognize eachother and use various motivating tools in this way. Also, it can be said that it is necessary to solve problems that teachers encounter in terms of work load and time to conduct these kinds of studies.

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Professional Development through a Web-Based Education System: Opinions of Middle School Mathematics Teachers ¹

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Abstract

A web-based education system was designed within the scope of a project to ensure the professional development of middle school mathematics teachers. This system was designed in a way to allow teachers to prepare a Hypothetical Learning Trajectory and lesson plan related to the algebra learning content and also to give feedback to these contents prepared. In this study, it was aimed to determine teachers' opinions about such web-based education system. In line with this aim, at the end of application, semi-structured interviews were conducted with twelve mathematics teachers. In this study, phenomenology, one of the qualitative research designs, was adopted, and thematic analysis was used in the analysis of data. Accordingly, six main themes regarding the process taking place from the design stage to the application stage of the web-based education system were specified to determine the opinions of teachers regarding the system. According to the results obtained, it was observed that teachers generally liked the design of the system. When teachers' opinions about the strengths and weaknesses of the system are examined, the strengths are the facts that it makes teachers prepare lesson plans and that the system enables to revise these lesson plans prepared in line with the reflective questions and feedback received from moderators. Regarding the weak aspect of the system, only one teacher expressed his/her opinion that integrating the theoretical knowledge in the feedback of moderators into the class does not apply to all learning environments. The general opinion of teachers about their satisfaction with the web-based education system is that they are satisfied with the system. They emphasized that teachers get detailed information about certain algebraic concepts and

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integrate this information into their teaching thanks to expert opinions they receive. Furthermore, it was observed that teachers agree that the system is useful in recognising their own shortcomings and mistakes.

Keywords: Professional development, Learning trajectory, Web-based education system, Middle school mathematics teachers, Mathematics education.

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Introduction

Professional development of teachers takes place through formal or informal learning. Formal learning is a structured and organized process, that is, this process is related to a training program received by teachers. Therefore, postgraduate education, in-service training, seminars, etc. are included in this process. However, informal learning, it is related to teachers' *individual experiences* (Gann & Friel, 1993; Grosemans et al., 2015). Both ways of learning affect the teaching and learning process of teachers. However, there is also a need for professional development programs to ensure the continuity of learning and to increase the qualification of teachers. When the related literature is examined, it is observed that there exist studies on professional development in different contexts. It is noteworthy that some of these studies are aimed at professional development of mathematics teachers (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Sztajn, Campbell & Yoon, 2011; Wieland, 2011; Jones & O'brien; 2011; Huber, 2011; Snoek, Swennen & Van Der Klink, 2011; Patel, Franco, Miura & Boyd, 2012; Borko, Koellner & Jacobs, 2014). These studies show that teachers have made progress in the context of pedagogical content knowledge and experienced positive changes in their beliefs and attitudes (Bütün, 2012; Lee-Swars, 2015). In Turkey, the shortcomings in teachers' competences stand out in studies on the pedagogical content knowledge of mathematics teachers (Goulding, Rowland & Barber, 2002; Baştürk & Dönmez, 2011; Gökkurt & Soylu, 2016; Tanışlı, Ayber & Karakuzu, 2018). While a number of of these shortcomings may be related to the quality of the undergraduate education of teachers, a number of of them are related to the efficacy of the individual efforts of teachers to develop themselves after they begin their profession.

The professional development of teachers in Turkey has been ensured by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) In-service Training Department, and locally by governorates since 1982. In addition to these, professional development activities are maintained through the seminars held within the school, and projects conducted by the MoNE, universities or various institutions (Bümen et al., 2012). Nevertheless, in addition to in-service teacher training they receive, it is important to monitor what teachers learn in this training, how they integrate their new knowledge and skills in their classes, how they evaluate their students in this process and how they reflect these evaluations to their own learning. Unfortunately, in-service training carried out in Turkey does not include much of this kind of information. On the other hand, many studies conducted on professional development are not compulsory and usually provided during summer holidays, mid-term breaks, at weekends or outside school hours. Therefore, teachers need to allocate additional time to be part of such activities.

Considering the factors that will obstruct the development of teachers, the most effective and efficient support to them can be provided through web-based education systems in which teachers can get help from the environment in today's world in which the internet and technology are part of our lives. Indeed, it is noteworthy that such systems are used to provide the professional development of teachers and become widespread with each passing day (Kao & Tsai, 2009; Waheed et al., 2011; Chien, Kao, Yeh & Lin, 2012). On the other hand, it is observed that these studies are on examining the changes in the attitudes, beliefs, and motivations of teachers (Kao, Wu & Tsai, 2011; Chien, Kao, Yeh & Lin, 2012). Therefore, in addition to these investigations, it can be said that there is a need for studies, which investigate the professional development of teachers through web-based systems with various interactive functions such as discussion environments, investigating course materials and giving feedback, updating and changing these materials, adding videos with classroom practices when needed, and providing feedback upon these videos. In this way, how teachers integrate the training they have received into the classroom environment can be observed.

Along this direction, in the context of this paper, a web-based education system that is independent of time and place was developed, and a two-year project study was planned to ensure the professional development of mathematics teachers. The scope of the project is to design a web-based portal to ensure professional development of mathematics teachers, where the teachers design their own Hypothetical Learning Trajectories (HLT) (Simon, 1995) regarding teaching-learning algebra activities in Turkish middle school mathematics context. HLT was first suggested by Simon (1995) for the literature on mathematics education. The HLT can be expressed as creating educational activities

that make students understand the mathematical concept more deeply by describing the *learning routes* of students with regard to a mathematical concept, in other words, defining a *roadmap* for their progress in the process of learning (Simon, 1995; Zembat, 2016). Within the scope of this project, each teacher designed HLT through web-based system by interacting with mathematics teacher educators for each step (as will be described later) considering learning goals, student backlog and use of appropriate materials and activities. The pilot study of the project (i.e. the first year of the project) has been completed, continues.

In this article, it was aimed to both introduce the design and application process of the web-based education system and determine the opinions of the middle school mathematics teachers who use a web-based education system and participate in the pilot study. The answer to the following research question was sought in this context:

What are the opinions of middle school mathematics teachers on ensuring their professional development through a web-based education system?

It is believed that this study will serve as an example to similar projects to be newly designed by presenting the design of a practical and ergonomic web-based education system based on HLTs. It is also believed that this study is important in terms of both making the system more functional and ensuring the participation of teachers in similar studies in line with the opinions to be taken from teachers.

Designing a Web-Based Education System

Three stages were taken into consideration when designing a web-based education system named XXXX (the Programme for Supporting the Professional Development) developed within the scope of the project. In the first stage, the content was prepared which included the introductory video of the project, theoretical perspectives (constructivism and learning trajectory presentation) and examples (hypothetical learning trajectories and lesson plans) aiming to inform the participants about the project, and this content prepared was transferred to the Web environment under the name of the relevant website xxxxx.edu.tr

As provided in Figure 1, the introductory video of the project was placed on the main page of the web-based education system. Furthermore, buttons, which enable the teachers who wish to participate in the project to register in the system and then log in, were placed on this page.



Figure 1. The Main Page Screen with the Project's Introductory Video

Presentations on how teachers can use the system as the participants of the project, theoretical perspectives that constitutes the content of the project, and the examples prepared were placed on the

main page immediately after the introductory video for teachers to access them easily all the time (Figure 2). Furthermore, a membership automation system was created on the website for security purposes, and the activities of the participants (teachers) were taken under control by the administration panel and admin (project coordinator).



Figure 2. Section with Theoretical Information and Examples on the Main Page

The communication component of the system was addressed in the second stage of the design of the web-based education system. In this context, the membership of twelve teachers, who were determined as project participants, was activated, and other memberships were made passive. Twelve teachers who were determined as the participants of the project were assigned randomly to three researchers, who were moderators in the system, and the processes of the teachers were made available for monitoring by the researchers through the moderator interface. In addition to this, a connected users tab, which allows four participants assigned to each researcher.

The third stage of the design of the web-based education system, which is the management component, is the part in which the task cycle and the processes in this cycle are designed. In this context, three different designs were created: admin, moderator and user interfaces. The admin interface is the section where all the settings in the application are performed. The moderator interface is the section where the moderators can monitor the processes of the users (i.e. teachers). In this process, the moderator can examine the learning objectives entered into the system by teachers and give feedback with regard to these learning objectives. Then, by examining the lesson plans prepared by teachers according to the provided feedback, they receive (modified) learning objectives. Moreover, the moderators can ask reflective questions to teachers with regard to such lesson plans and give feedback according to given responses of reflective questions. In addition to this, moderators can watch the classroom videos through the portal where the teachers upload to the system.

The user interface is a section where teachers enter their learning objectives, lesson plans, practices into the system and get feedback from the moderators. The processes (Creation of learning objectives, Preparation of the lesson plan, Implementation of the lesson plan, and Adding the video of the lesson) which the teachers go through when creating their learning trajectories. In this cyclical structure, teachers must successfully complete the previous process in order to pass to the next process, and the moderator must approve the teachers' processes. Taking the moderators' approve can be considered as a key tool in the context of the web portal.

The processes appear in grey if the teacher who has started the task cycle does not enter any data (see Figure 3). When one of the processes is completed, it turns yellow, and the moderator is expected to provide feedback on the completed process and ask the reflective questions. After evaluating and approving the process by the moderator, it turns green and allows the teacher to move on to the next process.

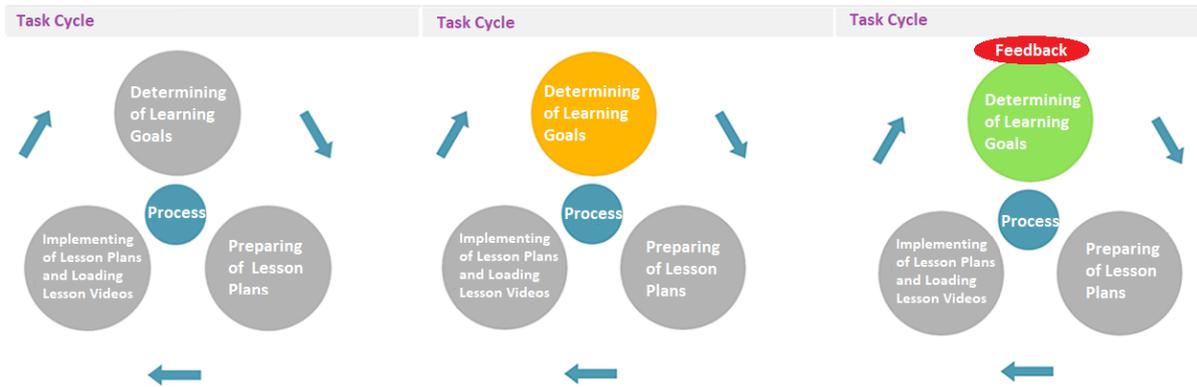


Figure 3. Functioning of the Task Cycle through the portal

In the web-based education system, communication between moderators (researchers) and users (teachers) is provided through feedback and reflective questions. In this direction, when teachers are asked reflective questions or given feedback by moderators, teachers can follow these feedback and reflective questions from the task cycle on their screens as shown in Figure 4. Furthermore, moderators are automatically informed by e-mail of the interactions of teachers regarding the system, similarly, the teachers are automatically informed of the interactions of moderators by e-mail.

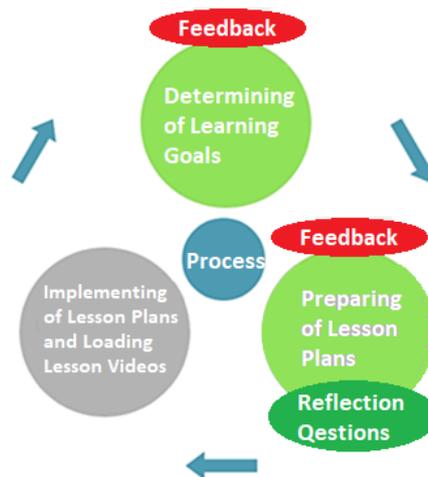


Figure 4. Appearance of the Feedback and Reflective Questions in the Task Cycle

Methods, Research Design

In this study, phenomenology among qualitative research designs was used since it was aimed to determine the opinions of middle school mathematics teachers on the professional development over the web-based education system. Phenomenology is a qualitative research model that examines in depth the phenomena that we are aware of but are not knowledgeable enough, or we do not think enough about (Creswell, 2009; Frankel & Wallen, 2000; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). Phenomenology is also expressed as cases when all participants experience a common phenomenon (Creswell, 2012), and phenomenological studies investigate the perceptions and thoughts of the participants about these situations they experience and how they create awareness in themselves by structuring them (van Manen, 2007). In this context, the perceptions of middle school mathematics teachers of the web-based education system in which they have experience were considered as a phenomenon each, and phenomenology design was adopted in this study to determine how they perceive this system and which common themes were achieved.

Participants

Phenomenological research describes the common meaning of several people's experiences with regard to a phenomenon or concept (Creswell, 2013). Therefore, data sources in phenomenological studies are individuals or groups who have experienced the phenomenon that the research focuses on, and who can express or reflect this phenomenon (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). In this context, the participant group of this study which aims to determine the opinions of middle school mathematics teachers on the web-based education system consists of 12 teachers working at middle schools in Eskişehir province, teaching mathematics to 6th-grade students in the 2017-2018 academic year and selected using the maximum diversity sampling method (Creswell, 2013). The information on the teachers who participated in the study is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic features of the participants

Code	Graduation	Education Level	Experience (year)
T ₁	Faculty of Education	Bachelor	10
T ₂	Faculty of Education	PhD Candidate	4
T ₃	Faculty of Education	PhD Candidate	7
T ₄	Faculty of Education	PhD Candidate	11
T ₅	Faculty of Education	Bachelor	6
T ₆	Faculty of Education	Bachelor	1
T ₇	Faculty of Education	Master of Science Candidate	4
T ₈	Faculty of Education	Bachelor	15
T ₉	Faculty of Education	Master of Science	3
T ₁₀	Faculty of Education	Bachelor	13
T ₁₁	Faculty of Education	PhD Candidate	10
T ₁₂	Faculty of Education	Bachelor	5

Data Collection Tools

The semi-structured interview technique that provides flexibility to the researcher (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011) was used as the data collection tool in the study to obtain the opinions of the teachers regarding the use of web-based portal. In this context, a semi-structured interview form was prepared by the project coordinator for the problems and opinions regarding the functioning of the system, its context, strong and weak aspects. The interview questions in the form were then presented to two faculty members together with the expert opinion form, who are experts in mathematics education and having roles as researchers in the project. Examples of the questions in semi-structured interview form and together with expert opinion form are presented in Table 2. The interview form was revised according to the expert opinions.

Table 2. Examples of the interview questions asked to teachers and expert evaluation form

Examples of the Semi-Structured Interview Questions	It can be taken as it is.	It should be arranged as explained.	It should be removed from the form for the following reason.
Could you use the content on the introductory page of the system in the project process? Do you think it was sufficient?		Could you use the content on the introductory page of the system (introductory video, presentations, sample lesson plans, and trajectories) in the project process? Do you think it was sufficient? If you think that it is not sufficient, what kind of content do you suggest be added?	

Do the screens that you enter your content (learning objectives, lesson plans) allow you to work comfortably? What kind of a data entry screen would allow you to work more comfortably?	X
Could you monitor the processes of your partner with whom you were matched in the system?	Could you monitor the processes of your partner with whom you were matched in the system? Did you benefit from monitoring your partner's processes? What kind of benefits did you get?
Do you think you took into consideration the feedback on your lesson plan? Could you revise your plan in accordance with the feedback?	X

The pilot trial of the revised interview form was carried out by the project coordinator with a teacher. In accordance with the pilot trial, repetitive questions were removed from the form and questions that could not be answered were revised. Therefore, in the light of obtained feedbacks, final version of the form was prepared for implementation. Although the interviews were planned to be conducted via the web-based education system, they were conducted face-to-face, and audio recordings were taken by taking into consideration the possibility of the teachers not responding over the system in detail.

Data Analysis

In the study, thematic analysis technique was used in the analysis of data obtained as a result of semi-structured interviews (Liamputtong, 2009). In this context, six main themes were determined with regard to the process from the design stage of the web-based education system to its implementation to determine the opinions of the teachers on the system as shown in Figure 5. These themes are the design and interface, content of the system, functioning of the system, strong and weak aspects of the system, satisfaction and suggestions.

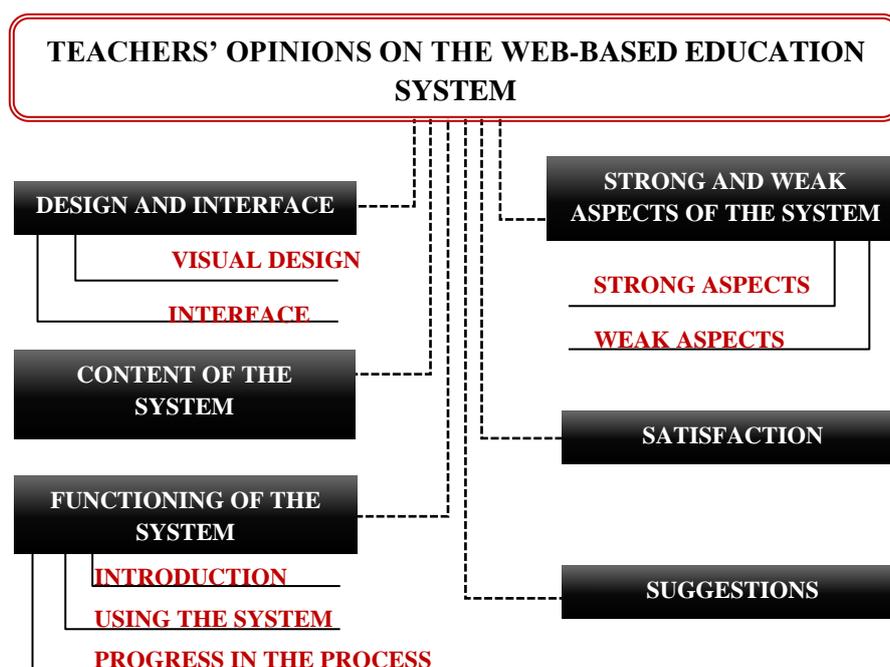


Figure 5. Themes under which the Data were Analysed

The coding and theme development process were carried out independently by three mathematics educators, and reliability of 81% was ensured by calculating reliability (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 64). The themes and sub-themes were presented as diagrams in the findings, and coding such as T₁ was used for the candidates.

Findings

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 12 teachers participating in the study following the pilot study to determine the opinions of the teachers on the web-based education system and to make the necessary arrangements by taking such opinions into consideration for the main implementation of the web portal with a large setting. The data obtained from the interviews were gathered under six main themes related to the process from the design stage to the implementation stage of the web-based education system as shown in Figure 6. Some themes were divided into sub-themes since they contain several different components.

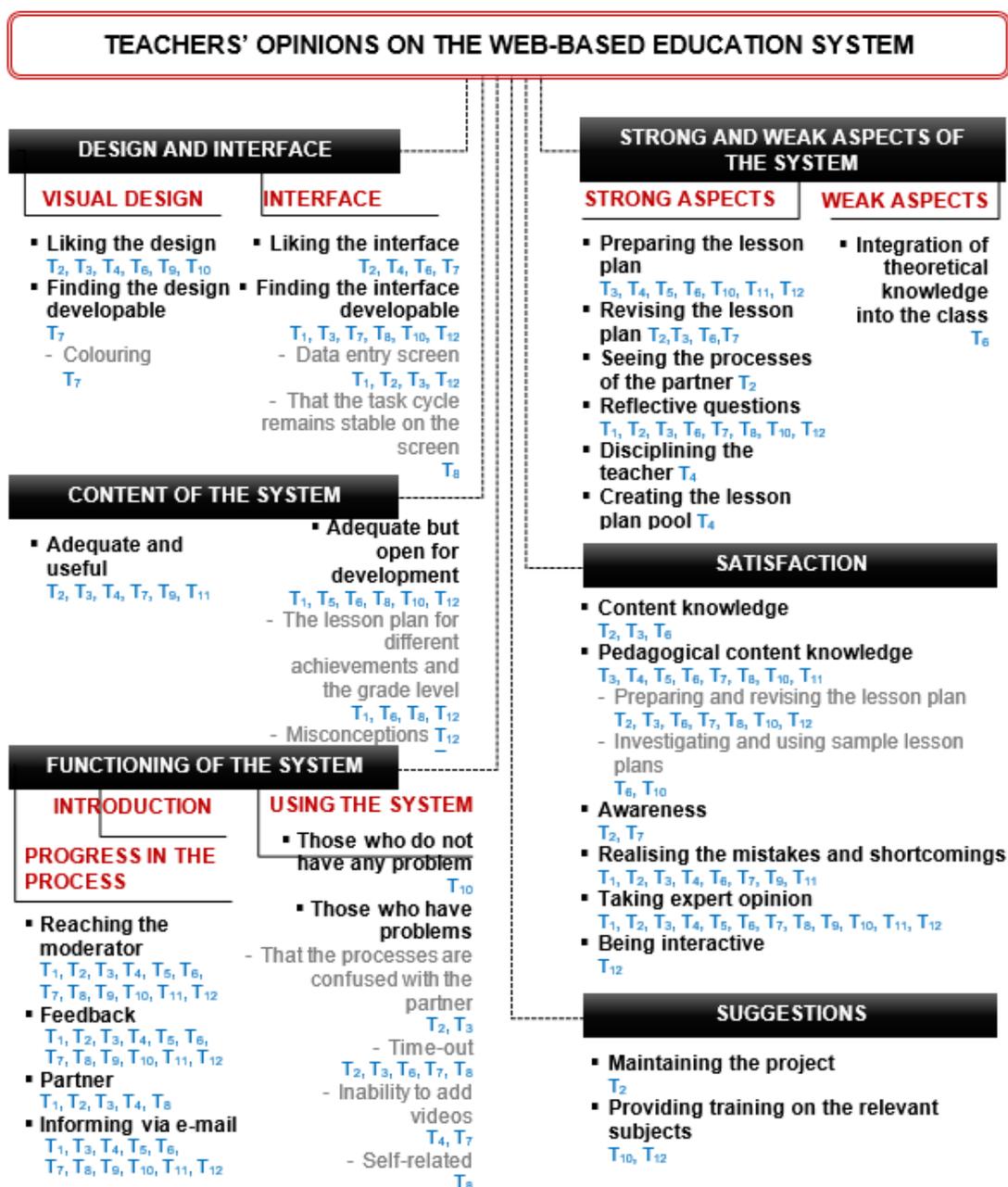


Figure 6. Opinions of the Teachers on the Web-Based Education System

As a result of the interviews, when the design of the web-based education system was evaluated, as seen in Figure 6, the teachers generally liked the design, and one of the teachers thought that it could be improved. The suggestion of this teacher for the improvement is that the design should be more colourful and interesting. Regarding the interface of the portal, the teachers also stated that the interface could be improved. The suggestions for the improvement of the interface were to develop the data entry screens and the task cycle remaining stable in the interface.

When the opinions of the teachers regarding the content of the system were examined, it was observed that two different opinions emerged. As seen in Figure 6, half of the teachers found the content downloaded in the system adequate and useful, while the other half found it useful but lacking. Two of the teachers, who found it adequate and useful, stated that they applied the sample lesson plans in the system that were prepared for guiding the teachers when preparing their own lesson plans in their class. The statements of one of these teachers are as follows.

Researcher: *Could you use the content on the introductory page of the system (introductory video, presentations, sample lesson plans, and trajectories) in the project process?*

T₆: *Yes, I did. It was the subject of areas. I checked it before the lesson. I took notes, and I even checked these notes when teaching the subject area.*

The teachers who found the contents downloaded in the system useful but not adequate. One of the points they found inadequate is that the sample lesson plans for different grades and different achievements are not included in the system. Furthermore, they emphasized that they had difficulty in determining the misconceptions, which are one of the components of the lesson plan and demanded to provide training on this.

An introductory meeting on the functioning of the system was held before starting the application, and the researchers explained the functioning of the system to the participant teachers in detail. In the interview conducted at the end of the application, the teachers were asked whether this introductory meeting was sufficient for them, and 11 teachers stated that it was sufficient. One teacher stated that it was not sufficient and that more detailed training could be provided especially on the preparation of a lesson plan.

As a result of the questions asked to evaluate the functioning process of the system, it was found out that the teachers encountered some problems while using the system as shown in Figure 6. Two of the teachers stated that the learning objectives that they entered into the system were confused with the learning objectives of their partner, and five of them stated that the website timed out at the beginning of the application, so they had to enter the data once more. One teacher stated that he/she had difficulty in the use of the system because he/she was not good at technology, while the other one stated the same on the grounds of not following the informative e-mails. Both teachers had problems with uploading the videos to the system. The teachers communicated these problems to the moderators during the implementation process, and these software-related problems were solved by sharing them with the web developers. One of the teachers stated that he/she did not encounter any problem in the process.

When evaluating the process of functioning of the system, the teachers were also asked the question “*Could you easily access the researchers during the process when you needed them?*”, and in line with the answers received, it was found out that the teachers agreed with the opinion that they could easily access the moderators they were assigned to. T₆ stated that he/she received the response very quickly, while the teacher coded T₁ stated that the WhatsApp application facilitated and accelerated this process. Regarding the question “*Could you benefit from the feedback you received from the researchers?*” asked in this direction, all the teachers stated that this feedback was helpful, and three of the teachers stated that the feedback given was quite detailed. The answer given by T₆ to this question “*Yes, I even wrote it. I read it again and again and checked it. I used it in that way. It included quite useful information. I even had a flash of insight. I thought, wow, is this like that. For*

example, the patterns were never explained like that before, introduction to algebra from patterns. I thought how related they are..." shows how useful this feedback is. In addition, the teachers were asked whether they could follow the processes of their partners with regard to the functioning of the process and if they did, whether it was helpful or not. Except one of the teachers, the others followed their partners' processes, and the teacher who did not follow them did not realize that they could see their partners' processes in the system. Four of the teachers who followed the processes stated that it was useful to examine the lesson plans of their partners in preparing their own plans, and two of the teachers stated that examining the feedback their partners received from the moderators was useful in applying the lesson plan. Two teachers said that the ability to see the processes of their partners motivated them, while the teacher coded T₄ among these teachers explained the case saying "*It was useful for me in terms of motivating. Thinking that I should not be late as he/she did it a long time ago.*"

The teachers were asked whether they were informed via e-mail in the process after the reflective questions or feedback that the moderators entered into the system. Ten teachers stated that they received these e-mails, one teacher stated that he/she noticed the e-mails after a long time, and one teacher stated that he/she did not need any e-mail since he/she constantly checked the system.

The teachers were also asked about the strong and weak aspects of the system. One of the strong aspects of the system in accordance with the teachers' opinions on this subject was determined as having the teachers prepare a lesson plan. The teacher coded T₁₀ expressed his/her thoughts on this as follows:

"Unfortunately, our teachers no longer get prepared for the lesson. I mean, a lesson plan is not prepared beforehand. I can say quite comfortably that this rate is 80%. There are teachers who enter the class by taking their pencil case only. Unfortunately, readily available sources also lead to this. So, they use what's in the source book. Or, ready-made software files, software on the computer. They prevented teachers from getting prepared for the lesson and making a lesson plan. They no longer do it. Therefore, the contents of the lesson remain a little empty. But in your plans, I've seen so many things. I've seen many things that we missed. All of them were about permanent learning. I especially liked the sample lesson plans for this purpose."

Another strong-looking point is that the system allows revising these lesson plans in accordance with the reflective questions and feedback received from the moderators. T₁ expressed his/her opinions on this as follows: "*The feedback of the system, the reflective questions, and so on, were very useful for us to see our mistakes and shortcomings.*" The teacher coded T₂ considered having a partner in the system as one of the strong aspects of the system by stating his/her opinions as follows: "*It was also nice to have a partner. I haven't thought of it at all, but now I'm thinking about the question asked. I wonder what it would be like if I were on my own. But I think it's a nice idea to be matched.*" According to the opinion of the teacher coded T₄, it is one of the strong aspects of the system that it disciplines teachers in preparing a lesson plan. Finally, in accordance with these lesson plans prepared by the teachers, the creation of a lesson plan pool was defined as one of the strong aspects of the system by the teacher coded T₅.

As for the weak aspect of the system, only one teacher expressed his/her opinion. This teacher stated that integrating the theoretical knowledge in the feedback of the researchers into the classroom does not apply to each learning environment. The teacher coded T₁₀ expressed this as follows: "*The weak aspect is that we cannot convert the process to the format you want as we are in the field. It is difficult to implement in the classroom environment.*"

Moreover, the teachers were asked whether they were satisfied with this web-based education system that they participated in. The general opinion of the teachers is that they were satisfied with the system. They emphasized that they obtained detailed information about certain concepts especially thanks to the expert opinions they received and integrated this information into their teaching. In

addition, they stated that they obtained detailed information on how to teach the algebra learning domain to their students. The teacher T₆ expressed his/her opinion on this subject as follows: *“I am really satisfied with it. I learned how to explain algebra in my professional life. It has been a very useful system.”* Furthermore, it was observed that the teachers agreed that the system was useful in recognizing their own shortcomings and errors. T₂ stated that he/she entered the lesson in a more conscious way as a result of this application and expressed his/her satisfaction with the system as follows.

“In the continuation of this system, I think that it will reflect in my next plan prepared more positively both on my lesson and me. I'm glad I joined the system. I think this made progress in me ... I realized this progress when teaching the lesson. I realized that I entered the class more consciously and that the lesson plans I prepared before were in the wrong direction or were not detailed. That's why this system has been beneficial for me, I'm satisfied with it.”

T₁₂ stated that he/she was satisfied with the fact that the system is web-based and carried out interactively. Finally, the teachers were asked whether they had general suggestions with regard to the system. A teacher stated that the continuation of the processes in the system would be more beneficial for their professional development. The statements of T₃ *“I can say this. For example, if we look at the first and third plans, I made this revision more consciously in the third plan. I considered the feedback more consciously. I mean, if I had a fourth plan, I think I would do better”* seems to support this opinion. Another suggestion for the system is the training of teachers on the relevant subjects before the implementation begins. For example, T₁₂ stated that he/she had difficulty when determining the misconceptions, did not know what to write, and training on this subject at the beginning of the application would be useful.

Discussion and Conclusion

According to the findings of the study, it was determined that most of the teachers liked the design and interface of the web-based education system. On the other hand, half of the teachers found the content loaded to the system adequate and useful, while the other half found it useful but lacking. Among those teachers who found the content adequate and useful, the teachers coded T₆ and T₁₂ stated that they applied the sample lesson plans found in the system that were prepared for guiding the teachers in their classes. Although the sample lesson plans for different learning domains loaded to the system are intended to guide teachers in preparing their lesson plans, it is noteworthy that the teachers applied these plans in their classes. This situation suggests that teachers need well-prepared lesson plans, and if they can achieve such plans, they are willing to perform their teaching using these plans. Indeed, as it is also expressed by Arends (1988), lesson plans significantly contribute to creating well-managed and more disciplined learning environments. Moreover, the studies conducted show that a well-planned lesson reduces the waste of time (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Driscoll & Freiberg, 1996; Strinfield & Teddlie, 1991; quoted by Johnson, 2000), ensures that students internalise and better comprehend what they learn (Driscoll & Freiberg, 1996; Walberg, 1991, quoted by Johnson, 2000). Teachers' requests for existence of exemplary lesson plans for different grade levels in the system seems to support research findings in the related literature. Furthermore, the fact that Konyalıoğlu, Konyalıoğlu and Işık (2002) found out in their experimental study that the learning success of the group in which the lesson is taught using a plan is significantly higher than the learning success of the group, in which the lesson is taught without using a plan is a result that is parallel to obtained situation.

In the evaluation of the functioning process of the system, the teachers stated that the feedback they received from their moderators was detailed and it was very useful in their teaching. In addition, they emphasized that it ensured that they became aware of their own teaching, established a relationship between the concepts that they previously could not relate, and saw their mistakes and shortcomings. Therefore, these opinions of the teachers support the view that the academic support they receive after the beginning of their profession contributes to their professional development. Indeed, as it is also mentioned in the literature, mentorship is important for teachers who are new to

the profession to continue their professional development in a healthy way and contribute to the success of students and institutions (Blackhurst, 2002; Sorcinelli & Yun, 2007; Wilson et al., 2002). Moreover, it is a fact that novice teachers experience some problems in the adaptation process and in their teaching. These problems manifest themselves more clearly, especially in the first years when they start their profession (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993). In the study, the fact that the teachers T₂ and T₆ with less professional experience clearly stated that the feedback of the moderators was effective and useful supports this opinion.

Another condition which is evaluated in the process of the functioning of the system is that teachers can follow the processes of their partners. The teachers stated that the examination of the lesson plans of their partners was useful in preparing their own plans, and as well as examining moderators' feedback of their partners. These positive opinions of the teachers about partnership attract attention to the professional development model of the lesson study. The lesson study creates an environment that enables questioning the teaching approaches of the teachers of one another and in which teachers can benefit from each other's experiences (Özen, 2015; Boran and Tarım, 2016). Teachers begin the lesson study cycle with the preparation of the lesson plan aimed at the achievements they will teach, then discuss these lesson plans with other teachers. In this context, it can be said that the first stage of the lesson study was partially carried out by establishing a partnership over the web-based education system, xxxxx, in avirtual environment.

It is expected that a teacher primarily has content knowledge and integrates this knowledge into many components such as teaching strategies, student and program knowledge in the context of pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986; Ball, Thames & Phelps, 2008). In the study, the fact that T₆ stated that integrating theoretical information in the feedback of the moderators into the classroom is a situation that does not apply to each learning environment is a noteworthy result. This statement of the teacher shows that he/she has difficulty in converting the content knowledge he/she has into pedagogical content knowledge and cannot revise the lesson plan he/she has prepared in accordance with different situations he/she encounters. Nevertheless, as it is also stated by Schoenfeld (2006), it is necessary for teachers to leave from determined plan and revise their lessons in line with the aims of the lesson when necessary. It can be thought that the fact that the teacher with such an opinion is novice teacher may be a factor in developing such an opinion. Indeed, in their study, Peterson, Marx and Clark (1978) reported that experienced teachers consider the problems that may be encountered during the lesson in their plans, and when compared to novice teachers, they focus on the rules with regard to the activities and the feedback to be given to students more. Furthermore, the fact that two teachers with less professional experience stick to the lesson plan and follow the order of teaching (i.e. Eroğlu, 2016).

Moreover, in the interviews conducted, the teachers stated that they had difficulty in determining the misconceptions in their lesson plans and did not know what misconceptions students might have. However, student knowledge is important in terms of affecting the pedagogical content knowledge development of teachers, and consequently, ensuring their professional development. As it is also expressed by Simon (2006), as the student knowledge develops, the teacher's knowledge also changes simultaneously, and this change affects the learning of the teacher about learning, teaching, and the learning of students regarding their mathematical thoughts. Teachers' opinions that training on this subject would be very useful support the researchers' statements.

As a result, the general opinion of the teachers is that they are satisfied with being a part of the project and maintaining their professional development by using the web-based education system. They emphasized that they realized their shortcomings in their relevant content knowledge, especially regarding certain concepts, and they could integrate this information into their teaching by completing these shortcomings in line with the feedback they received from the moderators. They also stated that it was an opportunity for them to work with faculty members who are experts in their field. On the other hand, the teachers expressed their satisfaction with the system's being web-based and interactive implementation of the system. They also presented their suggestions for the project they participated in. One of these suggestions is that the trajectories and lesson plans they prepared and implemented for

the achievements in the system are not limited only to the algebra context but are also aimed to extend other contexts such as geometry. They even stated that it would be useful to perform it at other grade levels. Another suggestion is that providing more detailed training on the relevant subjects before starting the application will make the process more effective.

In summary, the opinions of the teachers on the web-based education system show that it contributes to their professional development. This result is in line with the findings of the studies in which teachers who were taught over the mathematical thinking of students could integrate this knowledge into the plans they prepared in the learning and teaching process and, above all, they could contribute to the concept development and problem solving success of students in their classes in the programs developed for contributing to the professional development of teachers (Fennema et al., 1996; Franke, Carpenter, Levi and Fennema, 2001; Kazemi and Franke, 2004; Sherin and Van Es, 2009). Moreover, teachers' positive opinions on the education system's being web-based are parallel to other research findings that suggest that providing teachers' professional development in web-based environments will be an effective way (Kao and Tsai, 2009; Waheed, Salami, Ali, Dahlan and Rahman, 2011; Chien, Kao, Yeh and Lin, 2012).

Suggestions

Within the scope of the study, it was determined that the teachers implemented the sample lesson plans related to different learning contexts and were intended to guide them in preparing their lesson plans. This attitude of the teachers shows that they need lesson plans in their teaching processes and they are willing to apply these lesson plans in their classrooms if they can access them. It is interesting that teachers tend to apply ready-made lesson plans instead of preparing their own plans. Conditions that cause teachers to develop an attitude in this direction can be examined through other studies.

Another interesting result of the study is related to the feedback that the teachers received from the moderators. The teachers emphasised that they found this feedback useful in the subject they taught, they realized that they had shortcomings especially in their content knowledge with regard to certain concepts, and they could complete these shortcomings in line with the feedback they received from the moderators, and they could integrate it into their teaching. They also stated that they had difficulty in defining the misconceptions and situations in which students might have difficulty while preparing their lesson plans. These statements of the teachers suggest the question about the reasons for the shortcomings in the content and pedagogical content knowledge of a novice teacher. Accordingly, studies should be carried out to investigate the factors causing the shortcomings of teachers in the profession rather than studies conducted with pre-service teachers, and new ideas should be created to eliminate these shortcomings. In this case, it may be an option to develop a system in which the content and pedagogical content knowledge of teachers in the profession can be measured at regular intervals, and teachers with shortcomings are determined and given in-service training. Moreover, teachers' opinions that the academic support provided contributes to their professional development is an indicator that they need a mentor. In this respect, programs can be developed in which the Ministry of National Education of Turkey provides academic support especially to novice teachers in cooperation with the education faculties of universities.

The teachers also stated that it was also useful to follow the processes of their colleagues with the partnership system within the scope of the project. However, environments and educational programs in which teachers in Turkey can work together with their colleagues and exchange their ideas are quite limited. Accordingly, projects can be developed to create an environment in which teachers can examine, evaluate and discuss each other's teaching processes, and the number of academic studies conducted in this context can be increased.

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Comparison of Writing Skills of Students of Different Socioeconomic Status ¹

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Abstract

This study compares the writing skills of students with different socioeconomic statuses, using the quantitative research method designs of “survey study” and “causal-comparative study”. The study group included 67 Turkish teachers and a total of 120 eighth-grade students from four different middle schools in the province of Gaziantep, Turkey, and the study was conducted during the 2016–2017 academic year. The socioeconomic status determination survey was applied to the students in order to ascertain their socioeconomic status. The students’ written texts and the teachers’ responses to the questionnaire were used as the study data. The written expression texts were evaluated by two experts according to the written expression evaluation form. NCSS (Number Cruncher Statistical System) 2007 (Kaysville, Utah, USA) software was used to analyze the data. In the analysis of the data, in addition to descriptive statistical methods (mean, standard deviation, median, frequency, ratio, minimum, and maximum values), Mann-Whitney U test was used for the paired comparison of data which did not display a normal distribution. The results revealed there to be a significant difference between the students with high and low socioeconomic status, in favor of the group with high socioeconomic status in terms of the form, content formation, content organization, word choice, and grammar dimensions of the written expressions. The results failed to show a significant difference between the two groups in terms of the students’ skills in “conducting research on the writing subject” and “building a draft of the text to be written” but did show a significant difference in “evaluating their writing”, in favor of the students with high socioeconomic status.

Keywords: Socioeconomic status, language skills, writing skills

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Introduction

Although the idea of equality of opportunities in education has been a main goal, even from ancient times, and a great amount of effort has been put into securing this, the differences in opportunities in education are still present today and maintained on the basis of social classes. The efforts of many national and international institutions to provide equality of opportunities in education have not succeeded to the extent desired. Factors such as the social class of the parents and their corresponding socioeconomic and cultural conditions based on the area of residence, and the parents' educational level, professions, values, and future goals impact adults' and particularly children's chances of benefitting from education opportunities and of achieving success in the educational process (Kemerlioğlu, 1996, p. 106). Social and cultural factors are, quite naturally, the primary components of the sociocultural environment; that is, social and cultural approaches, beliefs and customs in a society form the sociocultural environment. When discussing the socio-economic environment, the economic dimensions tend to be emphasized. A social environment encompasses all of the social conditions corresponding to the social roles affecting individuals of a group, which includes any societies and institutions that the individual interacts with in his or her culture (Güler, 2013).

Child-rearing constitutes part of the common values system represented by individuals of a particular socioeconomic status (SES). For example, parents with a low SES tend to apply stricter education demands, apply more punishment in educating their children, particularly physical punishment (Elder, 1965), and engage in less verbal communication with their children. On the other hand, parents with a high SES mostly focus on rewards, privation of love, or rational justifications to develop the desired behaviors in their children (Liebert et al., 1977, p. 427, as cited in Kuzgun, 1986). The effect of this and similar behavior patterns observed in children's education has inevitable consequences on the development of their knowledge skills. In this context, family experiences and behaviors stemming from socioeconomic characteristics are thought to play a dominant role in the development of children's basic language skills.

Social linguistics is a field of study that combines the concept of sociology, which investigates the aforementioned social environment and its different social strata, and the concept of linguistics, which investigates the effects these features of sociology have on linguistic behaviors. Social linguistics examines language in terms of its function in society. Society and language are two concepts that cannot be distinguished. In other words, social life cannot be considered outside of language nor language outside of social life. Social linguistics, since it focuses the effect of the environment on an individual's use of language, first examines the structure of the society and the corresponding structure of the language (Selen, 1989, p. 1). There are theories that are prominent in the field of social linguistics, Basil Bernstein's sociolinguistic theory of deficiency and William Labov's theory of separation, the latter of which is generally a critical response to the first theory (Güven, 2012). In applying the deficiency theory to the relationship between a society's social strata and speech forms, it is highlighted that the language attainment and use of individuals from low or proletarian layers differ from those of individuals from high layers. In a study comparing the speech patterns of individuals within low, mid, and high social strata, it was found that individuals from a low stratum, compared to those from high and mid strata, had a narrower vocabulary and communicated using simpler sentences (Öztürk Dağabakan, 2012, p. 90). The theory of separation, on the other hand, is used to explain the variety of language in terms of linguistics. In the framework of this theory, an investigation into how and to what degree linguistic systems function is carried out, looking specifically at the regional, social, and functional forms, in addition to standard form/forms, that exist in a spoken language (İmer, 1987).

How the social environment and different social strata affect individuals' education and development becomes apparent in their communicative and linguistic behaviors. Based on the view that the social environment of individuals might have an effect on recipient language and generative language skills, it is assumed that there are certain differences between individuals who were raised and live in different socioeconomic environments, in terms of their basic language skills and various

readiness levels (Eryaman, 2008). In fact, Erkan (2011) investigated the school readiness level of students with low and high SES and found that the children with high SES had a higher readiness level, compared to their peers with low SES. On the other hand, a study by Katırcı Ağaçıran (2016) revealed that first-grade students' scores on reading comprehension and reading speed differed by SES, and that as SES increases, students' scores on reading comprehension and reading speed improve. In a study by Calvo and Bialystok, (2014), where six-year-old children were classified into four groups based on SES, the results failed to indicate any difference between the children's basic intelligence levels but did find that SES had an effect on language skills and fulfilling tasks. Similarly, Çelen (1993, p. 86) indicated that SES starts to affect the language development of a child starting at 18 months, and that children who are raised in relatively good environments have a richer vocabulary, and a better syntax and sentence structure. Hoff-Ginsberg (1998) conducted a study on children between the ages of 18–29 months and observed that children raised by parents with mid and high SES have a higher level of lexical and grammatical development. The results of the aforementioned study further indicated that SES and social environment are important variables in the attainment or development of basic language skills.

Writing is one of the basic language skills on which the effect of socioeconomic difference should also be observed. Writing attainment involves multiple variables. First, since writing it is an expression of emotion and thoughts through symbols, it requires knowledge about writing. Secondly, writing is related to thought, as it is a reflection of our thoughts and designs. Lastly, it is a tool that involves a psychological aspect, considering that it is an expression of wishes and desires. In addition to these, it is rule-based, limiting the individual with various rules regarding writing, grammar, and text. At the same time, it is artistic in that it enables the choice of wording and individual creativity (Hamzadayı, 2010). Writing, being interbedded with mental processes in addition to language skills, contributes to the development of many skills. It particularly helps students to expand their thoughts, organize and enrich their knowledge, use the language, and broaden their vocabulary (Güneş, 2014, p. 159). Results reported by some studies in the literature put forward that students experience certain problems in the writing process, including inadequate planning, lack of paragraph knowledge, the inability to order thoughts, repetition (Yılmaz, 2013, p. 259), and titles lacking correspondence to content. The SES of students could serve as the basis of these problems. In fact, SES might have an effect on many variables, from the study conditions of the students, to their attitudes toward the lesson.

Determining and resolving the problems experienced in the field of education requires that all these variables be taken into consideration. Therefore, today, where social stratification in terms of economics and social status is an inevitable feature of society, there is a need for studies that investigate, describe, and compare the behaviors of individuals with low and high SES.

Significance and Purpose of the Study

The literature review conducted as part of this study revealed that much of the research on this subject in question has involved examination of the effectiveness of methods, techniques, and strategies on the writing process (Conti, 2004; Eryaman, 2007; Maden & Durukan, 2010; Hamzadayı & Çetinkaya, 2011; Temizkan, 2011; Topuzkanamış, 2014; Bai, 2015; Dölek & Hamzadayı, 2016) and evaluation of students' attitudes and anxiety towards writing (Schweiker-Marra & Marra, 2000; Kurt & Atay, 2007; İşeri & Ünal, 2012; Ceran, 2013; Bayat, 2014). While there were some studies focusing on the importance of socioeconomic status in terms of language skills, there was only a limited number of studies encountered that examined the writing skills of students of different socioeconomic status (Deniz, 2003). The results obtained in this study shall serve to assist practitioners tasked with improving the writing skills of students. In this context, this study aimed to compare the writing skills of students of different socioeconomic status. In line with this main aim, the following research questions were developed for the study:

- 1) Is there a significant difference between the scores of students of different socioeconomic status of the “form” dimension of writing?

- 2) Is there a significant difference between the scores of students of different socioeconomic status on the “content formation” dimension of writing?
- 3) Is there a significant difference between the scores of students of different socioeconomic status on the “content organization” dimension of writing?
- 4) Is there a significant difference between the scores of students of different socioeconomic status on the “word choice” dimension of the writing?
- 5) Is there a significant difference between the scores of students of different socioeconomic status on the “grammar” dimension of writing?
- 6) Is there a significant difference between the written expression general scores of students of different socioeconomic status?
- 7) Is there a significant difference between students’ skills of “writing different types of texts” in terms of their socioeconomic status?
- 8) Is there a significant difference between students’ skills of “evaluating their own writing” in terms of their socioeconomic status?
- 9) Is there a significant difference between students’ skills of “conducting research on the writing subject and developing a draft of the text to be written” in terms of their socioeconomic status?

Method

Design of the Study

This study compared the writing skills of middle-school students of different socioeconomic status by applying the quantitative research method designs of “survey study” and “causal-comparative study”. Survey studies quantitatively describe tendencies, attitudes, or views of a sample derived from a population, with the researcher drawing inferences from this sample (Creswell, 2016, p. 155). A questionnaire is generally applied in these studies (Bal, 2009, p. 60). The questionnaire is a self-statement-based data collection tool that each participant of the study fills out (Johnson & Christensen, 2014, p. 162). Causal-comparative studies, on the other hand, aim to determine the reasons for differences between groups of individuals and their conclusions, without making any interventions in either the conditions or the participants. While the results from causal-comparative studies can help to identify differences, they are unable to precisely indicate the factors leading to these differences (Büyüköztürk et al., 2016, p. 16–17).

Study Group

The study group included 67 Turkish teachers and 120 eighth-grade students from four different middle schools in the province of Gaziantep, Turkey. The study was conducted during the 2016–2017 academic year. The purposeful sampling technique was used to select the schools from which the teachers and the students would be chosen for participation in the study. By selecting data-rich situations, purposeful sampling enables an in-depth investigation. The aim of this sampling technique is to discover and explain natural and social events or phenomena in the context of the situations selected (Büyüköztürk et al., 2016, p. 90). In applying purposeful sampling, the socioeconomic environment of the schools was considered. In this context, students from academically the most successful classroom of the schools selected in two different socioeconomic regions participated in the study.

Information on the average monthly income of the students of different socioeconomic status is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Average Monthly Incomes

	Low-level	High-level
Average monthly income	1433 TL	3591 TL

Table 1 shows the parents' educational status and family size data by income level group (average monthly income of 1433 TL and 3591 TL).

Table 2. Data on Educational Status of Parents and Family Size

		Low-level f(%)	High-level f(%)
Father's educational level	Illiterate	-	-
	Literate but did not attend school	-	-
	Primary school	26	6
	Middle school	30	16
	High School	4	16
	University (undergraduate)	-	20
	University and above (graduate)	-	2
Mother's educational level	Illiterate	16	-
	Literate but did not attend school	4	2
	Primary school	32	12
	Middle school	6	20
	High School	2	16
	University (undergraduate)	-	6
	University and above (graduate)	-	4
Average number of people living at home		5.7	4.8

In looking at the fathers' educational levels in Table 2, it can be seen that there is a greater concentration of fathers who only had completed primary and middle school in the low-level SES, whereas in the high-level SES, there is a greater concentration of fathers who had completed high school and university. Similarly, for the mothers' educational level, there is a greater concentration of them who were illiterate or had completed only primary school at the low-level SES, while at the high-level SES, there was a greater concentration of them who had completed middle-school and high school. In addition, in the low-level SES, the average number of people in the families was slightly higher than that of the high-SES group.

Data Collection and Analysis

Part of the data for the study was obtained from the students' written texts. The Written Expression Evaluation Form, developed by the researchers, was used to analyze the written texts. Three experts examined the form and based on their feedback, certain items were changed before finalizing the form. In order to obtain some of the data, like "planned writing" and "students' evaluation of their writings", which were not possible to derive from written texts, a nine-item questionnaire was used for the students' writing process. Opinions from five experts were taken to ensure the content validity of the questionnaire and its understandability. Based on the experts' feedback, some of the items were corrected while others were excluded from the questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to a pilot sample taken from the target audience before being finalized.

A socioeconomic status survey was applied to the students in order to determine their socioeconomic status. This survey included questions on the educational level of parents and their monthly income. The average monthly incomes were considered in the classification of students by socioeconomic status.

NCSS (Number Cruncher Statistical System) software was used to analyze the study data (Kaysville, Utah, USA). In addition to descriptive statistical methods (mean, standard deviation, median, frequency, ratio, minimum, and maximum values), Mann-Whitney U test was used for the paired comparison of data which did not display a normal distribution. The significance level was accepted as $p < .05$.

Results and Interpretation

The results of the study are presented in two parts. The first part includes the significance of the differences between the students' written texts, while the second part includes the results of the teachers' responses to the questionnaire.

Results from the Students' Written Texts

Table 2. Analysis of the students' scores on the items in the written expression evaluation form according to the socioeconomic status of the schools

Skills		School's Socioeconomic Status		<i>p</i>
		Low (n=60)	High (n=60)	
<i>Form</i>				
1. Setting appropriate margins, and paragraphs and line spaces	<i>Min-Max</i>	1-4 (2)	1-5 (2.5)	0.001**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.06±0.68	2.67±0.93	
2. Writing smooth and legibly	<i>Min-Max</i>	1-4.5 (2.5)	1.5-5 (3.3)	0.001**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.49±0.69	3.22±0.81	
<i>Content Formation</i>				
3. Giving depth to the subject	<i>Min-Max</i>	1-3.5 (2)	1.5-5 (2.5)	0.003**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.27±0.57	2.74±0.83	
4. Supporting the main ideas and emotions with supplementary ideas and emotions	<i>Min-Max</i>	1-3 (2)	1.5-5 (2.5)	0.001**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.23±0.48	2.81±0.92	
5. Reaching the main idea intended to be communicated in the text	<i>Min-Max</i>	1-3.5 (2.5)	1.5-5 (3)	0.001**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.36±0.50	3.08±0.81	
6. Starting the text with an appropriate introductory statement	<i>Min-Max</i>	1-4 (2.5)	1.5-5 (3)	0.003**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.51±0.59	2.94±0.90	
7. Having an impressive conclusion statement that summarizes the topic	<i>Min-Max</i>	1.5-3.5 (2)	1.5-5 (2.5)	0.001**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.25±0.46	2.79±0.89	
<i>Content Organization</i>				
8. Having a title related to the topic	<i>Min-Max</i>	1-4 (2)	1-4.5 (3.5)	0.001**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.19±1.12	2.98±1.26	
9. Presenting the topic in a logically consistent and harmonious manner	<i>Min-Max</i>	1.5-3 (2)	1.5-5 (3)	0.001**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.30±0.44	3.01±0.86	
10. Addressing a single thought or emotion in each paragraph	<i>Min-Max</i>	1.5-3 (2)	1.5-5 (2.5)	0.001**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.07±0.30	2.63±0.79	
11. Avoiding repetition of thoughts in the text	<i>Min-Max</i>	1.5-3 (2)	1.5-5 (3)	0.001**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.24±0.37	2.91±0.71	
<i>Word Choice</i>				
12. Using words in the right place and with the right meaning	<i>Min-Max</i>	1-4 (3)	1.5-5 (3.5)	0.001**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.88±0.55	3.48±0.69	
13. Avoiding the use of words that might have the same meaning in a sentence	<i>Min-Max</i>	1.5-3.5 (2)	2-5 (3)	0.001**
	<i>(Median)</i>			
	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2.32±0.43	3.15±0.73	

Grammar				
14. Obeying writing rules	<i>Mean±SD</i>	1.5-4 (2.5)	2-5 (3)	0.001**
	<i>Min-Max</i>	2.50±0.54	3.08±0.76	
	<i>(Median)</i>			
15. Using punctuation in the right place	<i>Mean±SD</i>	1.5-3.5 (2)	1.5-5 (3)	0.001**
	<i>Min-Max</i>	2.29±0.46	2.78±0.84	
	<i>(Median)</i>			
16. Forming sentences that conform to grammar rules	<i>Mean±SD</i>	1.5-3.5 (2.5)	1.5-5 (3)	0.001**
	<i>Min-Max</i>	2.47±0.49	3.18±0.74	
	<i>(Median)</i>			
Mann Whitney U Test		**p<0.01		

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *setting appropriate margins, and paragraphs and line spaces* was 2.06±0.68, while the mean score of the students with high SES was 2.67±0.93. The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *writing smooth and legibly* was 2.49±0.69, while the mean score of the students with high SES was 3.22±0.81. The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *giving depth to the subject* was 2.27±0.57, while the mean score of the students with high SES was 2.74±0.83. The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.003$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *supporting the main ideas and emotions with supplementary ideas and emotions* was 2.23±0.48, while the mean score of the students with high SES was 2.81±0.92. The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill of ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *reaching the main idea intended to be communicated in the text* was 2.36±0.50, the mean score of the students with high SES was 3.08±0.81. The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on the skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *starting the text with an appropriate introductory statement* was 2.51±0.59, while the mean score of the students with high SES was 2.94±0.90. The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *having an impressive conclusion statement that summarizes the topic* was 2.25±0.46, while the mean score of the students with high SES was 2.79±0.89. The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *having a title related to the topic* was 2.19±1.12, while the mean score of the students with high SES was 2.98±1.26. The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *presenting the topic in a logically consistent and harmonious manner* was 2.30±0.44, while the mean score of the students with high SES was 3.01±0.86. The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *addressing a single idea or emotion in each paragraph* was 2.07 ± 0.30 , while the mean score of the students with high SES was 2.63 ± 0.79 . The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *avoiding repetition of thoughts in the text* was 2.24 ± 0.37 , while the mean score of the students with high SES was 2.91 ± 0.71 . The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *using words in the right place and with the right meaning* was 2.88 ± 0.55 , while the mean score of the students with high SES was 3.48 ± 0.69 . The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *avoiding using words that might have the same meaning in a sentence* was 2.32 ± 0.43 , while the mean score of the students with high SES was 3.15 ± 0.73 . The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *obeying writing rules* was 2.50 ± 0.54 , while the mean score of the students with high SES was 3.08 ± 0.76 . The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *using punctuation in the right place* was 2.29 ± 0.46 , while the mean score of the students with high SES was 2.78 ± 0.84 . The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

The mean score of the students with low SES on the skill of *forming sentences that conform to grammar rules* was 2.47 ± 0.49 , while the mean score of the students with high SES was 3.18 ± 0.74 . The mean score of the students with high SES was found to be significantly higher than that of the students with low SES on this skill ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$).

Table 3. Analysis of the students' scores on the sub-dimensions of the written expression evaluation for according to the schools' socioeconomic status

Skills		The schools' socioeconomic status		p
		Low (n=60)	High (n=60)	
Form	Mean±SD	2-7 (4.5)	3.5-10 (5.5)	0.001**
	Min-Max (Median)	4.55±1.14	5.88±1.53	
Content formation	Mean±SD	5.5-17 (11.5)	7.5-24.5 (13)	0.001**
	Min-Max (Median)	11.59±2.18	14.37±4.16	
Content organization	Mean±SD	4.5-11.5 (9)	7-19.5 (11.3)	0.001**
	Min-Max (Median)	8.78±1.43	11.53±3.02	
Word choice	Mean±SD	3-7.5 (5)	3.5-10 (6.5)	0.001**
	Min-Max (Median)	5.19±0.86	6.63±1.37	
Grammar	Mean±SD	4.5-11 (7.3)	5-15 (9)	0.001**
	Min-Max (Median)	7.25±1.38	9.01±2.31	
Total	Mean±SD	20-53 (37.8)	29.5-79 (43.8)	0.001**
	Min-Max (Median)	37.36±5.55	47.39±11.48	
Mann Whitney U Test		**p<0.01		

A significant difference was found between the students' scores on the "form, content formation, content organization, word choice, and grammar" sub-dimensions of the written

expression evaluation form ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$). The scores of the students with high SES, compared to the scores of the students with low SES, were higher on the sub-dimensions of *form*, *content formation*, *content organization*, *word choice*, and *grammar*

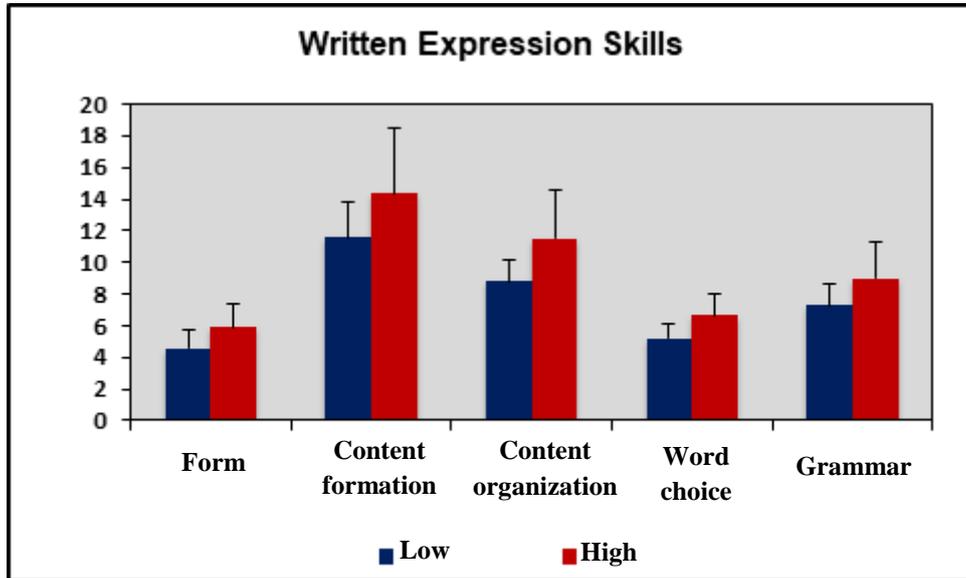


Figure 1: Distribution of the students' scores on the sub-dimensions of the written expression evaluation form

A significant difference was also found between the students' *written expression total scores* ($p=0.001$; $p<0.01$). *The written expression total scores* of the students with high SES were higher than the scores of their peers with low SES.

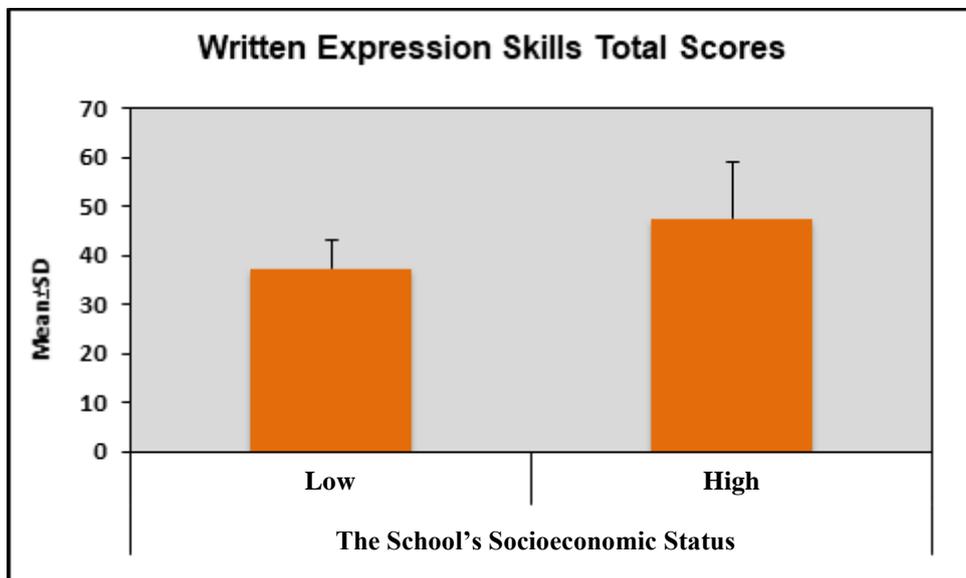


Figure 2: Distribution of the students' writing expression skills general scores

2.Results from the Teachers' Responses to the Questionnaire

Table 4. Comparison of the Teachers' Evaluation of Students' Performances in Writing Activities

Objectives		The School's socioeconomic status		
		Low (n=45)	High (n=22)	<i>p</i>
<i>Planned writing</i>				
1. Students can conduct research on the writing subject.	<i>Mean±SD</i>	1-5 (3)	2-4 (3)	0.063
	<i>Min-Max (Median)</i>	2.73±0.96	3.18±0.80	
2. Students can build a draft of the text to be written.	<i>Mean±SD</i>	1-5 (3)	1-4 (3)	0.762
	<i>Min-Max (Median)</i>	2.87±0.99	2.91±0.81	
<i>Writing different types of texts</i>				
3. Students can write event texts.	<i>Mean±SD</i>	2-5 (4)	2-5 (4)	0.148
	<i>Min-Max (Median)</i>	3.64±0.71	3.86±0.56	
4. Students can write essays	<i>Mean±SD</i>	1-4 (3)	2-4 (3)	0.433
	<i>Min-Max (Median)</i>	2.93±0.86	3.14±0.64	
5. Students can write statement texts.	<i>Mean±SD</i>	1-5 (3)	2-4 (3)	0.783
	<i>Min-Max (Median)</i>	3.13±0.81	3.09±0.68	
6. Students can write poems.	<i>Mean±SD</i>	1-5 (4)	2-5 (4)	0.846
	<i>Min-Max (Median)</i>	3.53±0.89	3.59±0.80	
<i>Evaluating their own writing</i>				
7. Students can evaluate their writing in terms of form and content.	<i>Mean±SD</i>	1-4 (3)	2-4 (3)	0.096
	<i>Min-Max (Median)</i>	2.78±0.90	3.18±0.80	
8. Students can evaluate their writing in terms of language and expression.	<i>Mean±SD</i>	1-4 (3)	2-4 (3)	0.049*
	<i>Min-Max (Median)</i>	2.67±0.88	3.14±0.83	
9. Students can evaluate their writing in terms of spelling and punctuation rules.	<i>Mean±SD</i>	1-4 (3)	2-5 (4)	0.006**
	<i>Min-Max (Median)</i>	2.73±0.99	3.45±0.86	
Mann Whitney U Test		* <i>p</i> <0.05	** <i>p</i> <0.01	

No significant difference was detected between the performance scores the teachers assigned to the skill of “conducting research on the writing subject” ($p=0.063$; $p>0.05$). Nevertheless, it is striking that the scores assigned by the teachers from the school with high SES, compared to the scores of their counterparts from the school with low SES, were higher. Similarly, no significant difference was determined between the teachers' scores on the students' skills of “building a draft of the text to be written and writing event and statement texts, essays, and poems” and on “evaluating their writing in terms of form and content” ($p=0.762$, $p=0.148$, $p=0.433$, $p=0.783$, $p=0.846$, $p=0.096$; $p>0.05$).

A significant difference, in favor of the teachers from the school with high SES, was found between the teachers' performance scores assigned to the students' skills of “evaluating their writing in terms of language and expression” ($p=0.049$; $p<0.05$)” and “evaluating their writing in terms of spelling and punctuation rules” ($p=0.006$; $p<0.05$).

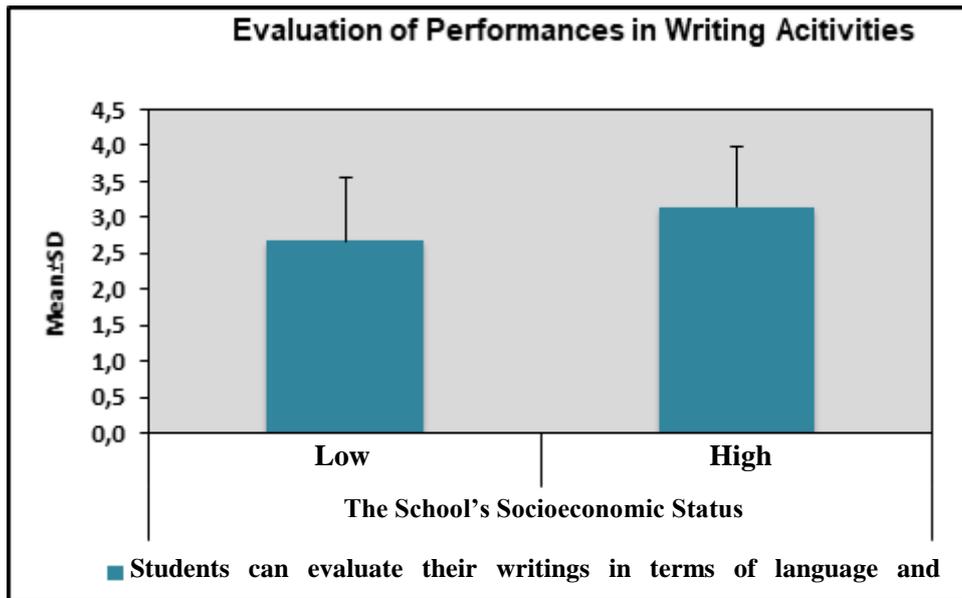


Figure 3: Distribution of the students' level of evaluation of their own writings in terms of language and expression

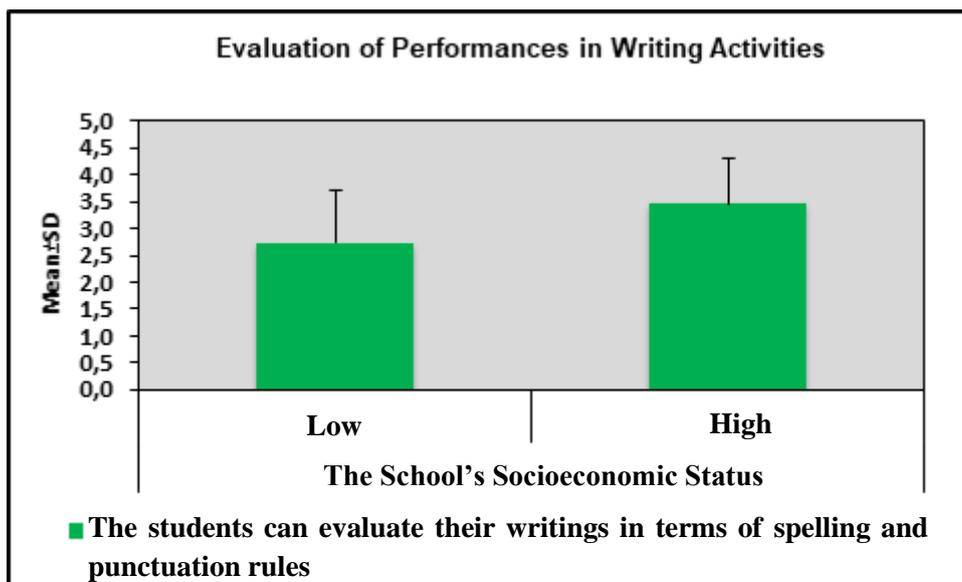


Figure 4: Distribution of the students' level of evaluation of their own writings in terms of spelling and punctuation rules

Conclusion, Discussion, and Recommendations

This study investigated the writing skills of middle school students with different SES. The results showed that both the students with low SES and the students with high SES had the most difficulty in the skills of “*setting appropriate margins, and paragraphs and line spaces*” under form dimension; “*supporting the main ideas and emotions with supplementary ideas and emotions*” under the content formation dimension; “*addressing a single thought or emotion in each paragraph*” under the content organization dimension, and “*using punctuation in the right place*” under the grammar dimensions. These results indicate that the two groups with different SES had the same difficulties in writing.

Despite both groups having the same difficulties, the results showed that the students with high SES were more successful than their peers with low SES in all dimensions of the writing skills. In terms of the different dimensions of writing skills (form, content formation, content organization, word choice, and grammar), the biggest difference between the students with low and high SES was in the dimensions of content formation and content organization, the results of which could be related to the students' level of readiness in cognitive processing for writing.

On the other hand, the results derived from the teachers' responses to the questionnaire failed to indicate a significant difference between the two groups in the dimensions of "planned writing and writing different types of texts" but did find a significant difference in the dimensions of "evaluating their writings in terms of language and expression, and spelling and punctuation." The significant difference between the groups in terms of "evaluation", which functions as the highest level in Bloom's cognitive taxonomy, implies that students with high SES have better cognitive competencies. Bernstein (1990) also stated that children with low SES are unable to fulfill the cognitive necessities of educational applications due to their parents' cultural and linguistic inadequacies (As cited in Avcı, 2013).

The results of this study were corroborated by the results of studies in the literature investigating the relationship between SES and writing skills. Bartscher, Lawler, Ramirez, and Schinault (2001) listed low SES and the different lifestyles stemming from this situation as the reasons for the inadequacies in students' writing skills. Magnifico (2010) argued that writing does not only involve recall based on complicated schema types or an inherent operation, but it also is a skill that is interwoven with the author's ability to interpret, the linguistic society, social position, values, and world actions. Deniz (2003) revealed there to be a significant difference between rural and urban primary school students, in favor of the urban students in terms of writing skills, and concluded that various socio-economic and cultural conditions based on the area of residence were the effective factors responsible for this difference. Neumann (2016) and McKenzie (2015) similarly found that parents' SES had an effect on early literacy.

The results of this study were similar to the results of other studies in the literature examining the relationship between SES and language skills. Taner and Başal (2005), in their study, revealed that the language development of students with mid and high SES, compared to the language development of their peers with low SES, were higher. Şahin (2011) carried out a study to determine sixth-grade students' awareness of listening skills and found there to be a significant difference in favor of students with high SES. In a different study, Şahin (2009) detected a high-level significant relationship between reading habits, which have been shown to have an indirect effect on basic language skills, especially reading skills, and SES, and it was concluded that as SES increases, the level of reading habit also increases. Regarding the skills of reading comprehensions and effective reading, some studies have indicated that students with high SES are more successful than students with mid and low SES (Dökmen, 1994; Avcıoğlu, 2000; Coşkun, 2003). In addition, SES has been shown by some studies in the literature to also have an impact on students' levels of academic achievement (Suleman, Hussaini Khan, & Nisa, 2012; Cedeño, Martínez-Arias, & Bueno, 2016; Asiegbu & Ezeugbor, 2018).

This study clearly indicated that SES has effects on the form, content formation, content organization, word choice, and grammar dimensions of the middle school students' texts. Demir (2013) stated that parents of high SES tend to raise their children in a freer and stimulant-rich environment, are more democratic in the relationship with their children, and create a setting where their children can express themselves more comfortably, all of which contribute to the language development of children. For this reason, schools should be designed with rich stimuli to minimize the effect of SES differences on basic language skills, and affective domains, such as students' confidence, motivation and self-efficacy, should be kept at the level desired.

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Research on the Sport High School and Other High School Students' Attitude Towards Physical Activities and Levels of Satisfaction with Life

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to identify the attitude of students of sport high schools and those of other high schools towards physical activities and their levels of satisfaction with life and to examine whether there are differences between these two student groups. In the study, 3 different scales were used on 368 students in total, who were studying in Sivas province in 2017-2018 Educational Year, found by convenience sampling method. The first scale is "the Personal Information Form", which consists of 8 articles, for identifying the demographical characteristics of the participants; the second scale is "the Cognitive Behavioral Physical Activity Questionnaire (CBPA)", which was developed by Schembre et al., (2015) and was adapted to Turkish by the validity and reliability study done by Eskiler et al., (2016), for identifying the participants' attitudes towards physical activities. The third scale is "the Satisfaction with Life Scale", which was developed by Diener et. al (2002) and prepared as 5-statement 5-point likert type, for identifying the participants' levels of satisfaction with life. SPSS 25 package software was used in data analysis. The data were reflected as values of percentage, frequency, and average standard deviation. 180 sport high school students and 188 other high school students were participated in the study, when looked at the findings acquired. It was found that the attitude levels of sport high school students towards physical activities are higher than those of other high school students, and in parallel, it was seen that they have higher levels of satisfaction with life. As a result, it can be said that regular physical activity positively increases the individual's satisfaction with life. Thus, regular physical activity is recommended.

Keywords: Physical Activity, Satisfaction with Life, Sport, Student, Attitude

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Introduction

For healthier individuals and a healthier society, it is necessary to encourage individuals to perform physical activities at the most convenient level, given the benefits of physical activity. It is obvious that physical activity is essential for a long and quality life. Physical activity is necessary not only for children, but also for adults and the elderly (Yüksel, 2001).

Regular physical activity prevents contracting various diseases, as well as increasing individual's physical capacity. It is also true that physical activity also increases individuals' job performances and their capacities for home activities and recreational time. It has been observed that individuals who do regular physical activities have higher physical work capacities and that they have quicker nerve and muscle system responses than their sedentary peers (Alpkaya et al., 2004).

Attitude, one of the crucial components of human behavior, can be defined as learned tendencies which impel the individual to show certain behaviors in the face of certain individuals, objects, and situations. The fact that attitude is a determinant for the individual in participation to various activities and fields made it necessary to discuss this matter within the context of its relationship with physical activity (Koca and Aşçı, 2004). For example, according to Graham (1995), the key to improve the individual's tendencies towards physical activity is to understand his/her perception, thoughts, and attitudes.

Satisfaction with life is defined as the positive difference between the individual's life expectations and the degree at which these expectations are met. In other words, satisfaction with life can be defined as the individual's emotional reaction or attitude towards life as a whole; time at work, outside of work and leisure time (Özdevecioğlu, M.,(2003) ; Sung-Mook et al. (1994)).

When evaluated from this perspective, satisfaction with life can be seen as a form of attitude. It is thought that sports create a source for the individual to develop positive attitude towards life as a whole. In that regard, the positive effect of physical activity and sports on satisfaction with life has been revealed by recent studies (Gaudreau and Antl, 2008; Poulsen, Ziviani, and Cuskelly 2006; Mahan, Seo, Jordan, and Funk, 2015; Yıldız, Gülşen, and Yılmaz (2015)).

Low satisfaction with life has revealed the negative health conditions which include the relationship between satisfaction with life and the behaviors of familial care being an intermediary for the internal and external behavioral problems of teenagers. On the other hand, high satisfaction with life has been asserted to be a shield for teenagers against developing aggressive behavioral problems in the face of unfavorable life conditions (Suldo & Huebner, 2004). Thus, it is proposed that the increase in satisfaction with life would reduce the prevalence of aggressive behavior in teenagers. The most popular opinion on this matter is to canalize teenagers to sports and social activities (Tabuk, 2009). In this study, it was aimed to identify the attitude of students of sport high schools and other high schools towards physical activities and their levels of satisfaction with life and to examine whether there are differences between these two student groups.

Material and Method

The study is a descriptive study in survey model. In the study, 3 different scales were used on 368 students in total, who were studying in Sivas province in 2017-2018 Educational Year, found by convenience sampling method. The first scale is "the Personal Information Form", which consists of 8 articles, for identifying the demographical characteristics of the participants. The second scale is "the Cognitive Behavioral Physical Activity Questionnaire (CBPAQ)", which was developed by Schembre et al. (2015) and was adapted to Turkish by the validity and reliability study done by Eskiler et al. (2016), for identifying the participants' attitudes towards physical activities. CBPA Questionnaire consists of 15 statements which was prepared in 5-point likert format (1: Strongly Disagree, 2: Disagree, 3: Undecided, 4: Agree, 5: Strongly Agree) and 3 subscales. The subscales are Result Expectation (1,2,9,13,14), Self-Organization (3,4,5,6,8), and Personal Obstructions (7,10,11,12,15).

The third scale is “the Satisfaction with Life Scale”, which was developed by Diener et al., (2002) and prepared as 5-statement 5-point likert type, for identifying the participants’ levels of satisfaction with life. SPSS 25 package software was used in data analysis. The data were presented as values of percentage, frequency, and average standard deviation. 180 sport high school students and 188 other high school students participated in the study.

Findings

180 sport high school students and 188 other high school students participated in the study. The age percentages of the participant students are as follows: 0,8 % are 14 years old, 11,7% are 15 years old, 29,6% are 16 years old, 47,6% are 17 years old, 9% are 18 years old, 1,1% are 19 years old, and 0,3% are 20 years old. 174 (47,3%) of the participants are female and 194 (52,7%) of them are male. 144 of students participate in individual sports, 128 of them participate in team sports, and 126 of them participate in sports activities.

Table 1. Grade Dispersion of Participants

Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
9 th Grade	56	15,2
10 th Grade	91	24,7
11 th Grade	193	52,4
12 th Grade	28	7,6
Total	368	100

15,2% of the participants are at 9th grade, 24,7% are at 10th grade, 52,4% are at 11th grade, and 7,6% are at 12th grade.

Table 2. Monthly Family Income Distribution of Participants

Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
TL 0-1601	93	25,3
TL 1602-3200	191	51,9
TL 3201 and over	84	22,8
Total	368	100,0

Those whose families receive TL1602-3200 monthly income are more than other groups.

Table 3. Comparison between the Participants’ Attitude towards Physical Activity and Their Levels of Satisfaction with Life

Variables	High School	N	Mean	Ss	T value	P value
Satisfaction with Life	OHS (Other HS)	188	14,72	4,93	-2,612	,009
	SHS (Sport HS)	180	15,95	4,08		
Result Expectation	OHS	188	3,63	1,12	,223	,823
	SHS	180	3,61	1,02		
Self-Organization	OHS	188	2,90	1,05	-5,486	,000
	SHS	180	3,48	,95		
Personal Obstructions	OHS	188	3,09	,88	,260	0,795
	SHS	180	3,07	,92		

According to Table 3, a significant difference was found in Self-Organization and Satisfaction with Life variables between Sport High School students and Other High School students, while no significant difference was found in Result Expectation and Personal Obstruction variables.

Discussion and Conclusion

Today, improving teenagers’ attitude towards physical activity and producing physically and psychologically healthy athletes depend on the efficiency of the education in school period. This can

shape in parallel with the attitudes of school, students, and teachers towards physical activities. If the student knows him/herself well, and the teacher knows his/her student well and suitable materials are provided, the possibility for the student to participate in physical activities will increase.

The study of Doğan in 2011, in which the scale of attitude towards physical education lesson and sports developed by Demirhan and Altay (2001) was used, aimed to acquire knowledge about the levels of physical fitness and sports and the attitudes towards physical education lesson and sports of the students who were studying at different high schools at various status in Niğde in 2010-2011 academic year. In the study, in which 267 students in total between the ages of 14 and 18 participated and which was conducted in order to determine the attitudes towards physical education and sports and the physical characteristics of the students (height, body weight, body-mass index, basal metabolic speed, body-fat percentage, fat masses), no significant difference was found between the schools. However, significant difference was found between Self-Organization subscale of physical activity attitude and Satisfaction with Life of sport high school and other high school students in our study. This situation favoring sport high school suggests that sport high school students have a more positive attitude towards physical activities and have higher self-esteem than other high school students. Considering the schools in our study as schools at different status, we can say that the study is not on a similar line with those of Doğan (2011) and Demirhan and Altay (2001).

Aicinena (1991) suggested in an article on attitudes of teachers and students towards physical education and sports that teacher's behavior is a determinant on students' participation in physical activities, and that it affects students' attitude towards physical education. With regards to our study, sport high school teachers being mostly physical education teachers can have a positive effect on their students' attitude towards physical activities. The motivation of students in order to get healthier by doing sports is closer to the positive extreme. It is already known by everybody how and to what extent regular exercise can improve organic endurance and physiological functions of individuals at any age. Besides, it is worth considering the suggestions that regular exercise in the fields of psychology and sociology also can protect individuals from stress and stress-related issues (Sunay et al. (2004), Kalish, 1998; Zorba, 1999).

The individual who participates in sports activities reduces physical tension, consolidates his/her esteem for his/her body image, feels energetic, and takes pride on the achievement s/he has got; all of which are positively related both with satisfaction with life and with mental health. This sportive process leads to gratification by suitable skills and effort, and the completion of the process generates a greater satisfaction before achieving the goal (Fişne, 2009).

Fişne asserted in the study that "sedentary" students have lower level of satisfaction with life than that of "rarely active", "moderately active", and "highly active" students. It is observed that the "sedentary" students have the lowest score average of satisfaction with life, and "highly active" students have the highest. In our study, it was found that sport high school students have a higher score of satisfaction with life than that of other high school students. These results can be considered to be in line with the result obtained in Fişne's (2009) study.

The first attainment achieved by physical activity is the improvement in daily life condition. As a result of this improvement, the individual gets less fatigue by daily physical stress. Activities such as climbing stairs, rushing for the bus, fast walking, lifting up and carrying can be given as examples to daily stress. After physical exercising on a certain program, the improvement will be obvious to see. As a result, facility and not suffering from fatigue in daily works will increase the satisfaction with life of individuals. It is also known that physical activities are performed in preventing, deferring, and treating physical injuries and diseases. Cardiovascular diseases group, including coronary heart diseases, peripheral vein diseases, and hypertension, is one of the most crucial disease groups inflicted mainly upon lack of activity. Other important group is dorsal diseases, incorrect posture, and activity anomalies. The most important body anomaly is obesity. Due to physical activities being beneficial in preventing these kinds of diseases, it can be said that it increases quality and satisfaction with life of individuals (Fişne, 2009).

According to Gür (1992), regular physical activity for infants and teenagers is essential for physical, mental, and social health. Unwanted behaviors, such as smoking, drinking, drug addiction and aggressiveness, are less visible in individuals who participate in physical activities and sports, while the development of behaviors, such as healthy diet, sufficient rest, are increased. The increase in these behaviors is thought to improve the quality and satisfaction with life of individuals.

Recent technological advancements impel individuals to inactivity as of infancy, and this causes a life style which is not suitable for human organism. Today, many factors, such as using the advanced technology in humanity's favor, mass media being prevalent, support to developments in sports and health sector by public and private sector, the idea of a healthier life and more satisfaction with life put into the minds of teenagers regardless of gender by more visibility for sports and health related contents on media, can affect individuals' attitude towards physical activity. In addition, individuals can adapt quickly to society since sports is sustainable and contributes to the spiritual, mental, and physical development of individuals. Natural results of the mentioned cases can be said that individuals are aware of the benefits of sports, whatever their educational status are, and that they project this awareness on their children. As a result, it was determined that sport high school students' attitude towards physical activity are higher and that their level of satisfaction with life are also high in parallel with the former. Regular physical activity positively affects individuals' satisfaction with life. In this regard, regular physical activity is recommended for individuals.

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Children's Questions and Answers of Parents: Sexual Education Dilemma

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Abstract

The main aim of this study is to determine questions of 36 to 72-month-old children have about sexuality and to examine the answers given by parents. In the first stage of the study, 84 parents were contacted in order to determine children's most frequently asked questions on sexual development. In the second stage, top two questions from this list were selected and directed to 80 parents, all of whom were sampled from a separate pool. As a result of this study, it was discovered that children mostly question the physical features of girls and boys, and the pregnancy period. When parents' responses were examined, it was determined that a small portion of the responses were based on scientific grounds and that parents often provided answers based on avoidance-based and religious beliefs. Also, parents' gender, age, number of children, gender of their children, learning status and income do not make any difference.

Keywords: preschool period; sexual development; sexual education; parent; child

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Introduction

From the moment they are born, babies begin to understand and explore their environment. The foremost factor that triggers this process is their curiosity about the world they were born in. During the course of this recognition and exploration period, a baby makes observations, touches things and tries to understand what she/he encounters. By this means, baby tries to familiarize and harmonize herself/himself with both herself/himself and the external world. Following her/his observations and experiences, a baby will be aware that there are two gender types, that people of each gender type resemble one another, and that she/he belongs to either of them at the age of 2 or 3. When a three-year-old child is asked the question ‘Are you a girl or a boy?’, he or she generally labels his/her gender accurately. After labeling his/her gender and identifying himself/herself correctly, the child continues to observe those who resemble him/her and others who don’t and starts to question and express physical differences between them. In his study carried out to determine the sexual information level of 147 children between the ages of 2 and 6, Volbert (2000) stated that children from all ages have knowledge about their gender identity, gender differences and parts of sexual organs. This fact can be interpreted as an inseparable part of growth and development.

The purpose of sexual education, which includes emotional, social and physical aspects of growth, interpersonal relations, sexuality and sexual health, is to inform children and young individuals on various notions, skills and values and to ensure them happy, secure and satisfying relationships (European Parliament, 2013; cited from Kadioğlu Polat and Üstün Budak, 2015). Sexual education of a child begins with his/her birth. Particularly at about the age of 2,5-3, a child encounters people from the same-sex and opposite sex in numerous stages such as the development of expressive language, process of socializing and becoming independent, and the beginning of nursery education, and this generates a lot of questions. Frankham (2006) and Volbert (2000) have also claimed that children most frequently ask questions about pregnancy, birth and the differences between genital organs. All these questions come from the child’s curiosity and desire to know. As the first teachers of a child are his/her parents, he/she directs such questions to them. According to Güneş (2013) and Uçar (2015), during this period, the biggest responsibility of the family is to acknowledge the child’s sexual development and to be aware of the child’s developmental features, instead of waiting for the child to ask these questions first. Therefore, parents should take responsibility for providing information on sexuality, setting an example for the child, as well as requesting the child’s school to give sexual education, supporting this education and inspecting it (Çalışandemir, Bencik and Artan, 2008). Frankham (2006) has expressed that parents generally prefer to give an explanation when children ask questions or when someone in the family is pregnant or gives birth. However, not answering a child’s questions on time or in an age appropriate way may cause his curiosity to deepen and lead him/her to different and inaccurate sources of information (Türküm, 2013). When children are inhibited in terms of their sexual interest, they come to know various things about the specific aspects of sexuality (Schuhrke, 2000). For this reason, parents have to take the first and most important step. Given on time and in accordance with the child’s age, his/her parents’ answers will both satisfy the child’s curiosity – even if for a short while – and strengthen the relationship between parent and child. Frankham (2006) has also asserted that parents in the US have a hard time providing information on sexuality to their adolescent children.

Within this context, this study’s aim is to find out what kind of questions 36 to 72-month-old children ask to their parents and what sort of answers are given by parents. It also aims to determine whether variables such as gender, age, number of children, educational status, gender of children, and level of income affect parental answers.

Method

Model and Study Group

This is a qualitative research study. Maximum Variation Sampling Method was used for the selection study group. The aim of Maximum Variation Sampling is to discover what kind of similarities and common aspects are available among situations that bear diversity by providing sampling variety (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2004). Two separate sample groups were used in the study. The first stage of study consists of 84 parents. Most of the them are women and university graduates and 46,4% of them have 2 children. When it comes to gender of their children, 36,9% of them have one daughter, 34,5% of them have both daughters or sons. Additionally, it can be concluded that average age of parents is 34,14 and average income is 4.177,38 Turkish Liras.

After the first stage of the study, namely the determination of most frequently asked sexual development questions among children, was completed, the second stage was initiated with the examination of answers provided for the previously specified questions. To analyze parents' answers to these questions, 80 parents who have 36 to 72-month-old children were selected. Only those who did not take part in the first study group were included in the second stage. Demographic information of parents selected for the second stage is as follows:

Similarly to the first stage of the study, nearly all parents who participated in the second stage of the study are women and nearly half of the participants are high-school graduates. When it comes to the number of children they have, it was determined that 53,8% of parents have two children. In terms of the gender of their children, 38,7% of parents have both daughters and sons, 33,8% of them have only one son. Additionally, it is concluded that average age of the parents who participated in the second stage is 34,11 and their average income is 3.869,37 Turkish Liras.

Data Collection Tools

Parents' Demographic Information Form

Six questions were included in this form. Parents' Demographic Information Form includes questions related to parents' gender, age, number of children they have, their children's gender and finally, the school he or she graduated from as well as income status.

Specification Form for Questions About Sexual Development

Main purpose of this form is to determine the questions children most frequently ask to their parents about sexual development. There is only one instruction on the form. 'Write down the questions your children ask you about sexual development.' Parents were asked to follow this instruction and to write down 5 questions most frequently asked by their children about sexuality.

Parents' Answer Form for Questions About Sexual Development

This form includes two questions most frequently asked by the children from the first stage of the study. Taken from 'Specification Form for Questions About Sexual Development', these questions are as follows:

1) (If your child is a girl) why don't I have a weenie? / (If your child is a boy) why don't girls have a weenie? (The wording used for these questions are not 'Why don't I have a vagina? Why don't boys have a vagina? In neither of the questionnaires from the first stage of the study were the questions worded this way. In consideration of research ethics, data obtained from the first study group weren't edited. For this reason, questions were prepared and presented in their original form.)

2) 'How did I go in my mother's belly?'

In Parents' Answer Form, the questions children asked about sexual development were addressed to parents. In the second stage, parents were queried 'If your child asked you the following questions, how would you answer?'

Data Analysis

Data was analyzed through Content Analysis Method. During content analysis, the aim was to reach connections and concepts that can help explain the data collected. Data is scrutinized in detail via content analysis; inputs that have resemblance are put together within the frame of certain concepts and themes, then they are interpreted and arranged in a way that readers can understand (Karataş, 2015).

Direct citations are included so as to support the themes discovered in findings of the study. Also, since credentials of the parents participating in the study will be kept confidential, a code system was formed. Considering the order of forms, parents were given codes such as E1, E2, E3, etc.

Reliability

One of the methods used for reliability of qualitative research is the strategy of 'researcher attitude.' In this strategy, the researcher must by no means not let his/her personal assumptions, worldview, biases, and academic position interferes with the study. Otherwise, there is the potential of these elements negatively influencing the study. In this study, researcher's attitude strategy was employed. To determine the questions children most frequently ask about their sexual development, parents were asked; and the most frequent questions were specified. Afterwards, the previously determined questions were directed to a separate study group composed of different parents and their answers were written down. Researchers did not alter any of the questions or answers parents have provided; they conducted the study while preserving the original form of data obtained from study group.

Findings

Findings of the study were accumulated in three topics and each finding was presented in a distinct sub-heading.

Findings concerning questions 36 to72-month-old children most frequently ask about sexual development

84 parents, who were brought together with the purpose of determining questions 36 to72-month-old children most frequently ask about sexual development, were asked to fill out 'Specification Form for Questions About Sexual Development' and as a result of analysis of answers provided by these parents, 4 themes have emerged. These themes have the following titles: 'differences in physical features', 'pregnancy period', 'gender stereotypes' and 'adult relationships'.

The theme of 'differences in physical features' includes questions on physiological and anatomical differences due to a child's biological gender. For instance, these are questions about the absence or presence of a penis or vagina and having big or small breasts. 'Pregnancy period' theme involves questions covering stages from the conception to the pregnancy period and birth itself. For instance, they are questions about how the baby got inside his/her mother's belly and about how he/she would come out. 'Gender stereotypes' theme includes questions regarding men and women's gender roles and identities. For example, questions on color choice, make-up, dress and length of hair

are categorized under this theme. Finally, the theme of ‘adult relationships’ consists of questions related to the emotional and sexual experiences of men and women.

As a result of content analysis, findings concerning questions children ask about sexual development are presented on Table 1.

Table 1. Content analysis results of questions 36 to 72-month-old children most frequently ask about sexual development

Questions about sexuality	n	%
Differences in Physical Features	137	52,49
Pregnancy Period	79	30,27
Gender Stereotypes	27	10,34
Adult Relationships	18	6,90
Total	261	100

Parents participating in this study stated that they were asked a total of 261 questions about sexual development. Following the content analysis, it was observed that 52,49% of questions were related to differences in physical features; 30,27% of them were about pregnancy period; 10,34% were about social sexuality stereotypes and lastly, 6,90% were related to adult relationships. Raw samples for each theme are presented on Table 2.

Table 2. Raw data samples of children’s questions

Differences in Physical Properties	Pregnancy Period
E4. “Why doesn’t my sister have a weenie?”	E11. “How did my brother/sister go in your belly?”
E5. “Will I grow a weenie like the one my older brother has?”	E16. “How do people get pregnant?”
E13. “When will my breasts get bigger?”	E40. “How did I come into the world?”
E19. “Why is the thing what I pee and a boy pees with different?”	E45. “How does the baby come out of his/her mother’s belly?”
E21. “Why don’t girls do their toilet standing.”	E66. “I want to have kids. What should I do?”
E31. “Why didn’t my dad breastfeed me?”	E77. “Do you buy babies from the hospital?”
E69. “Why doesn’t my sister have a weenie, is she sick?”	E80. “What do you do to have a brother/sister?”
Gender Stereotypes	Adult Relationships
E3. “Why are women’s nails long but men’s are short?”	E12. “Why do boys and girls kiss?”
E18. “Will I have a husband too?”	E21. “What does it mean to make love?”
E20. “Are boys or girls stronger?”	E26. “Why do you sleep in the same bed if you are not going to make a brother/sister?”
E31. “Why don’t men wear pink?”	E47. “Can I kiss like on the television?”
E63. “Bartu has long hair, is he a girl?”	E61. “When I grow up too, will I sleep with Tuğçe like you do?”
E74. “Mom, am I circumcised?”	

As seen on Table 4, when the questions children ask about physical differences are examined, girls and boys dwelled generally on the absence or presence of their penis. None of 84 parents stated that boys asked the question ‘Why don’t I have a vagina (even with a different name referring to that anatomical organ)? Accordingly, if it is a girl, the question is ‘why don’t have a weenie?’ and if it is a boy, the question is ‘why don’t girls have a weenie?’ Moreover, it was determined that children directed questions about physical differences between adult men and women and differences between children and adults as well as questions about differences between a boy and a girl.

In regard to the pregnancy period, most questions were about how a baby in conceived. Concerning adult relationships, questions about adult women and men’s sexual and emotional relations were asked. Finally, with respect to gender stereotypes, questions about differences in men and women’s appearances in terms of gender stereotypes were asked.

Findings concerning parents' answers for questions 36 to 72-month-old children most frequently ask about sexual development

In the first stage of the study, questions children most frequently ask about sexual development were determined and questions with high recurrence frequency in 'Differences in Physical Properties' and 'Pregnancy Period' themes were selected. These questions are

- (If your child is a girl) Why don't I have a weenie? / (If your child is a boy) why don't girls have a weenie?
- How did I get in my mother's belly?

In the second stage of the study, parents' answers for the previously determined questions about sexual development were examined. First of all, content analysis of the following questions was completed: (If your child is a girl) why don't I have a weenie? / (If your child is a boy) why don't girls have a weenie? As a result of the content analysis, 4 themes were specified. These sub-themes were named evasive answers, answers based on religious beliefs, answers with a scientific basis and answers based on social stereotypes.

The theme of evasive answers includes answers that have no religious or scientific base and that do not provide a full explanation. While the theme of answers based on religious beliefs try to satisfy the child's curiosity through religious notions and teachings, the theme of answers based on gender stereotypes includes answers that do not depend on religious or scientific basis but contain unrealistic and extraordinary elements frequently conveyed to children in the society. Finally, the theme of answers with a scientific basis is made up of answers that are appropriate for the child's developmental level and that bear scientific truth.

Results of the content analysis carried out in line with the parents' answers are given on Table 3.

Table 3. Content analysis results for the questions 'why don't I have a weenie?' / 'why don't girls have a weenie?'

Parents answers for questions about sexuality	n	%
Evasive Answers	44	55
Answers Based on Religious Beliefs	21	26,25
Answers with a Scientific Basis	12	15
Answers Based on Gender Stereotypes	3	3,75
Total	80	100

Within the context of the study, it was determined that out of 80 parents, who answered the questions 'Why don't I have a weenie? / Why don't girls have a weenie?', 55% of them gave evasive answers, 26,25% of them offered answers based on religious beliefs, 15% of them gave scientific answers and 3,75% provided answers based on social stereotypes. Raw data samples belonging to four themes are presented on Table 4.

Table 4. Raw data samples of themes that were formed in accordance with parents' answers.

Evasive Answers	Answers Based on Religious Beliefs
E5. "Girls and boys have different bodies"	E23. "God created men and women, each type of gender has different characteristics, and for this reason girls don't have a weenie."
E9. "Girls have organs peculiar to them."	E59. "God creates boys with weenies and girls with choochies, so that they can be different."
E10. "It is because men and women are different."	E65. "God created boys and girls with different organs. For example, your breasts don't grow bigger"
E28. "That's the order of the world, honey."	
E43. "I would give superficial answers saying you are a man like your father/you are a girl like your mother."	

E49. "There is no need for a weenie to be a girl."	either."
E51. "My daughter is three and half years old and has got brothers. She asked this question and as I wasn't prepared for this, I couldn't figure out what to say and I ignored it."	E71. "Because God created them as they are."
E62. "Because you are a girl, girls don't have a weenie."	E76. "They are created in this way, what girls have are called private parts."
Answers with a Scientific Basis	Answers Based on Gender Stereotypes
E13. "Girls' and boys' organs are different. Girls have a vagina and boys have a penis."	E55. "Girls don't have a weenie, it is circumcised. So girls don't have one."
E14. "Only boys have a weenie. For example, you, your grandfather and your father have it. Girls have a choochie. For example, your grandmother and I have it. As girls are different from boys, the places we pee with are different. Girls don't have weenie."	E66. "Because girls are princesses. We are different from boys. They watch Spider man. And you watch Ayas, Pepe etc. They play with cars and you play with dolls. They can be naughty sometimes but you are very polite. There are some differences between us and this is one of them."
E18. "Since there are two types of gender, boys have weenie and girls have vagina."	E74. "So that girls can be more elegant and they can sit politely"

When Table 4 is examined, it can be seen that parents' evasive answers don't actually give children a full explanation. Alternatively, answers based on religious beliefs give explanations related to the creation and answers based on gender stereotypes separate genders not only in terms of physical properties but also in terms of behavior. It can even be stated when E55, one of the parents, says that girls are circumcised and so they don't have a weenie, he/she considers girls deficient compared to boys and imposes this view on the child. It is thought that this view can make girls feel deficient. By leading him to think that if he is circumcised, he might turn into a girl, it might cause boys to be terrified of circumcision. In general, this view can have a negative effect on both boys and girls.

The second question children most frequently ask is 'How did I get in my mother's belly?' This question was directed to the parents in the study group and their answers were analyzed through content analysis method. The results of content analysis are presented on Table 5.

Table 5. Results of content analysis for answers to 'How did I get in my mother's belly?'

Parents' answers for Children's questions about sexuality	n	%
Evasive Answers	48	60
Answers Based on Religious Beliefs	24	30
Answers with a Scientific Basis	7	8,75
Answers Based on Gender Stereotypes	1	1,25
Total	80	100

Regarding the question 'How did I get in my mother's belly?', it was concluded that, out of 80 parents, 60% of them gave evasive answers, 30% of them gave answers based on religious beliefs, 8,75% of them gave answers with a scientific basis and 1,25% gave answers based on social stereotypes. Raw data samples of each theme are presented on Table 6.

Table 6. Raw data samples of the themes were formed in accordance with parents' answers.

Evasive Answers	Answers Based on Religious Beliefs
E47. "We wished for you and here you are."	E3. "When people love each other, God gives them a child."
E55. "I will explain how you entered in your mother's belly later."	E4. "God put you in my belly."
E60. "They gave an injection in the hospital and you were born, then we took you"	E16. "Your dad and I wished for you and prayed God so that he would give us you. Then He gave you"
E62. "I slept with your father and there you were when we woke up."	E25. "God gives. I asked from Him and He put a baby in my belly. He will be a doctor when he grows up."
E65. "Your mom and dad loved each other very much. They were lovers. Lovers kiss each other and have some special times that you can't understand now and	E34. "I am telling him/her that he/she is a gift from God."
	E56. "God wished for it and so you were born."

they have babies.” E67. “When moms and dads love each other a lot, they have a little gift. Then you show up in my belly.”	E58. “We prayed and waited, and then you were born.”
Answers with a Scientific Basis	Answers Based on Social Stereotypes
E7. “Each mother has an egg in her belly and each father has sperm. Dads give sperms to moms and moms unite sperms with their eggs in their belly and baby starts to grow there, when it is time, they get out of there. That’s how you were born.” E14. “There is this thing called sperm in your dad’s body. This sperm goes inside your mom, When it is united with the egg inside your mom, they go in the egg and start to grow together and the eggs turn into babies.” E51. “Sperms needed for you to get born begin a journey towards your mother’s ovary. At the end of the journey, you were born”	E24. “We saw you on the clouds and loved you a lot. We said may these babies belong to us and you came to us. You went inside my belly and you got bigger and bigger. When you couldn’t fit into my belly, you went out and came to us”

When Table 6 is examined, it can be discerned from the evasive answers that parents mostly attribute the pregnancy process to something beyond themselves. For instance, these include wishing for a baby and taking one from the hospital. In the answers based on religious beliefs, it was observed that they again attribute the pregnancy to a being beyond themselves, i.e. God, and they explain it through religious beliefs. On the other hand, only one parent gave an answer based on social stereotypes. Said parent explained the pregnancy by adjusting the old-fashioned notion that claims ‘Storks have brought you’ into to something else beyond himself (clouds). It can be deduced that common aspect of all the answers except for the ones with a scientific basis is that a mother and father’s role in the pregnancy is completely ignored. This attitude may be related to parents’ preference to keep their roles in the pregnancy in the background so as to prevent the child from asking the same question again. On the other hand, while some parents have chosen to give their answers in accordance with their religious beliefs, others may have felt themselves insufficient to provide a scientific answer appropriate for their children’s age.

Findings concerning the comparison of answers in terms of parents’ gender, age, number of their children, their children’s gender, educational background and income level

Depending on parents’ gender, age, number of their children, their children’s gender, educational background and income level, parents’ answers were compared for the following questions: ‘Why don’t I have a weenie? / Why don’t girls have a weenie?’ The result of comparison is presented on Table 7.

Table 7. Depending on the parents’ gender, age, number of their children, their children’s gender, educational background and income level, comparison of parents’ answers to the questions ‘Why don’t I have a weenie? / Why don’t girls have a weenie?’

		Religious		Evasive		Scientific		Social		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Gender	Female	19	25	42	55,3	12	15,8	3	3,9	76	100
	Male	2	50	2	50	-	-	-	-	4	100
Age	20-25 years old	3	60	2	40	-	-	-	-	5	100
	26-30 years old	6	40	6	40	1	6,7	2	13,3	15	100
	31-35 years old	4	16	16	64	4	16	1	4	25	100
	35-40 years old	5	19,2	15	57,7	6	23,1	-	-	25	100
	41 years old and older	3	33,3	5	55,6	1	11,1	-	-	9	100
Number of Children	Only child	6	21,4	16	57,1	5	17,9	1	3,6	28	100
	Two children	11	25,5	24	55,8	6	14	2	4,7	43	100
	Three or more children	4	44,4	4	44,4	1	11,2	-	-	9	100
Children’	Girl	5	22,8	12	54,5	3	13,6	2	9,1	22	100

s Gender	Boy	8	29,7	13	48,1	5	18,5	1	3,7	27	100
	Both boy and girl	8	25,8	19	61,3	4	12,9	-	-	31	100
Education al backgrou nd	Primary School	3	33,3	6	66,7	-	-	-	-	9	100
	Secondary School	-	-	3	100	-	-	-	-	3	100
	High School	8	36,4	10	45,5	4	18,1	-	-	22	100
	Associate Degree	-	-	5	83,3	-	-	1	16,7	6	100
	Graduate	9	24,3	18	48,7	8	21,6	2	5,4	37	100
Income level	Postgraduate	1	33,3	2	66,7	-	-	-	-	3	100
	At Hunger Threshold	0	0	3	100	0	0	0	0	3	100
	At Poverty Threshold	13	27,7	26	55,3	5	10,6	3	6,4	47	100
	Middle and Upper Class	8	26,7	15	50	7	23,3	0	0	30	100

When Table 7 is examined, it can be seen that, depending on the gender variable, parents who participated in this study mostly gave evasive answers and answers based on religious beliefs. Another important finding is that all of the 12 participants who gave answers based on science were women. When parents' answers are compared on the basis of age variable, it can be observed that while more than half of the parents between the ages of 20 and 25 gave answers based on religious beliefs, parents in other age groups generally offered evasive answers. In terms of the number of children parents have, it was determined that parents with one and two children generally gave evasive answers while parents with three or more children gave both evasive answers and answers based on religious beliefs. Moreover, it can be concluded that parents' educational background and income level as well as the gender of their children doesn't affect the answers parents offered for children's questions about sexual development and that parents mostly preferred to give evasive answers.

In conclusion, it is determined that regardless of parents' gender, age, educational background, income level and the number and gender of their children, to a large extent, parents offered evasive answers and answers based on religious beliefs to children's 'Why don't I have a weenie? / Why don't girls have a weenie?' questions.

One of the questions children most frequently ask about sexual development is 'How did I get in my mother's belly?' Depending on the parents' gender, age, educational background, income level and the number and gender of their children, parents' answers for this question were compared. Results of comparisons are presented on Table 8.

Table 8. Depending on parents' gender, age, educational background, income level and the number and gender of their children, comparison of the parents' answers to 'How did I get in my mother's belly?'

		Religious		Evasive		Scientific		Social		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Gender	Female	23	30,3	46	60,5	6	7,9	1	1,3	76	100
	Male	1	25	2	50	1	25	-	-	4	100
Age	20-25 years old	2	40	3	60	-	-	-	-	5	100
	26-30 years old	6	40	8	53,3	1	6,7	-	-	15	100
	31-35 years old	9	36	13	52	3	12	-	-	25	100
	35-40 years old	7	26,9	16	61,6	2	7,7	1	3,8	26	100
	41 years old and older	-	-	8	88,9	1	11,1	-	-	9	100
Number of Children	Only child	6	21,4	17	60,7	5	17,9	-	-	28	100
	Two children	14	32,6	27	62,8	1	2,3	1	2,3	43	100
	Three or more children	4	44,4	4	44,4	1	11,2	-	-	9	100
Gender of Children	Girl	6	27,3	13	59,1	3	13,6	-	-	22	100
	Boy	8	29,6	17	63	2	7,4	-	-	27	100
	Both boy and girl	10	32,3	18	58,1	2	6,5	1	3,1	31	100
Education al	Primary School	4	44,4	4	44,4	1	11,2	-	-	9	100
	Secondary School	1	33,3	2	66,7	-	-	-	-	3	100
	High School	7	31,8	15	68,2	-	-	-	-	22	100

Background	Associate Degree	4	66,7	2	33,3	-	-	-	-	6	100
	Graduate	8	21,6	22	59,5	6	16,2	1	2,7	37	100
	Postgraduate	-	-	3	100	-	-	-	-	3	100
Income Level	At Hunger Threshold	1	33,3	1	33,3	1	33,3	-	-	3	100
	At Poverty Threshold	17	36,2	28	58,6	2	4,2	-	-	47	100
	Middle and Upper Class	6	20	19	63,3	4	13,3	1	3,4	30	100

When Table 8 is examined, it can be seen that parents who participated in this study mostly gave evasive answers depending on parents' gender, age and the gender of their children. When answers of parents with an associate degree are examined, it can be determined that they generally offer answers based on religious beliefs. It was also discovered that among the answers provided by primary school graduate parents at hunger threshold with three or more children, the percentage of answers based on religious beliefs and evasive answers are equal and that those two constitute the highest proportion.

In conclusion, it was discovered that, regardless of parents' gender, age, educational background, income level and the number and gender of their children, to a large extent, parents gave evasive answers and answers based on religious beliefs to the children's question 'How did I get in my mother's belly?'

Discussions and Conclusions

When findings obtained from this study were examined, it was observed that questions children most frequent ask about sexual development are ones related to differences in physical features and ones concerning pregnancy. Tuzcuoğlu and Tuzcuoğlu (1996) have also discovered in their studies that children mostly ask their parents questions about pregnancy and physical differences between a boy and a girl. Moreover, Frankham (2006) and Volbert (2000) have stated that children most frequently ask questions regarding the pregnancy period, birth and differences in genital organs.

In terms of differences in physical features, it was concluded that girls mostly ask the question 'Why don't I have a weenie?' and boys ask the question 'Why don't girls have a weenie?' It is remarkable that children focus on presence or absence of a penis when it comes to the differences of boys' and girls' genitalia. The fact that children don't ask the question 'Why don't I have a vagina?' or 'Why don't boys have a vagina?' and the fact that they express their curiosity through questions on boys' genitalia can be explained through gender concept. Socially, boys' genital organs are discussed more comfortably than girls'. In fact, at times it is considered normal to have boys' genital organs on display.

This phenomenon can be related to the society's attribution of a higher value for men and thus for their genitalia. Additionally, it should be noted that the only parent in this study used the term 'penis' for boys' genitalia. Actually, it is crucial that children are taught scientific names of their genital organs. Martin et al (2011) discovered in their study that mothers with a daughter or a son avoided teaching the anatomical names of genital organs to their children. Instead, they preferred to use euphemisms. Also in Larsson and Svedin's study (2002), carried out with teachers and parents about sexual attitudes of 3 to 6-year-old children, it was concluded that adults, who participated in the study group, avoided naming children's genitalia, especially refraining from uttering girl's genital organ while talking about sexual attitudes with children. Kenny and Wurtule (2008) discovered that although the majority of children knew the names of bodily organs, only a limited number of children knew the correct terminology for their sexual organs. On the other hand, in a study carried out by El-Shaieb and Wurtule, it was discovered that parents avoided discussing differences of boys' and girls' genitalia with their sons and daughters. As these works suggest, literature supporting the findings obtained through this study already exists.

Upon examining parents' answers to children's questions, it was discerned that the majority of parents offered evasive answers and answers based on religious beliefs to questions 'Why don't I have a weenie?' or 'Why don't girls have a weenie?' and 'How did I get in my mother's belly?' Parents' ignorance of sexual education can also be considered a reason for their evasive answers. Ceylan and Çetin (2015) and Eliküçük and Sönmez (2011) state that parents see themselves insufficient to talk about sexuality with their children. In a study carried out by Konur (2006), parents, who had children between the ages of 4 to 6, expressed that they disapproved of family members providing sexual education to children because they were afraid of misleading them, they didn't know what kind of an approach they should take or they thought that sexual education was not necessary. Göçgeldi et al (2007), Eroğlu and Gölbaşı (2004), Tuğrul and Artan (2001), Tuzcuoğlu and Tuzcuoğlu (1996) concluded in their studies that, while answering their children's questions on sexuality, a considerable number of the parents felt themselves insufficient in terms of knowledge and didn't know what kind of an attitude they should adopt. Similarly, Croft and Asmussen (1992) have also noted that the fact that parents don't know what kind of information their children need any given age may cause them to avoid giving their children sexual education altogether. It should be remarked that the notion that parents feel inadequate to talk to their children about sexuality and to give them sexual education hasn't changed much in the last ten years.

The fact that parents don't believe in the necessity of sexual education or the fact that they didn't receive such an education from their own parents could play a significant role in most parents' offering evasive answers when it comes to their children's questions on sexuality. In a study by Orak and Bektaş (2010), it was observed that mothers, who were taught by their own mothers on sexuality either by asking or spontaneously and who found this information 'partly useful' or 'very useful', constitute a higher percentage when it comes to offering their own daughters sexual education. Similarly, Ceylan and Çetin (2015) discovered in their studies that a majority of parents didn't receive any sexual education. Therefore, parents who participated in this study group may have not received any sexual education either. In their own study, Geasler, Dannison and Edlund (1995) have asserted that although most parents want to do a better job, when it comes to sexual education they tend to play the same role as their own parents. In terms of the reasons that push parents to act like their own parents, factors such as shame and ignorance come into play.

Another factor that may cause parents to give evasive answers to children's questions can be the feeling of shame they feel when faced with these questions. Ceylan and Çetin (2015) determined in their study that parents feel inadequate and nervous about sexual education. Similarly, Martin and Torres (2014) observed that while parents were talking about the pregnancy period with their children, they tried to digress or gloss over the subject and they had problems in controlling their feelings. In Turnbull, Wersch and Schaik's study (2008), parents stated that they felt restless and ashamed when faced with children's questions on sexuality. Allen and Baber (1992) have also claimed that the feeling of shame might hinder both teachers and parents from talking to children about sexuality. Furthermore, Tuğrul and Artan (2001) and Tuzcuoğlu and Tuzcuoğlu (1996) have concluded in their studies that parents felt nervous, worried and embarrassed about their children's questions and that they even pretended not to hear of these questions. On the other hand, in a study carried out by Kurtuncu, Akhan, Tanır and Yıldız (2015), it was discovered that such feelings of embarrassment and hesitation were not only peculiar to parents but also to doctors and nurses, who are expected to guide parents, as well.

The idea that preschool children don't need sexual education or that it is too early to give them information about sexuality may be another reason for evasive answers. Mothers, who participated in the studies of Tuğrul and Artan (2001), have stated that sexual education should begin in high school. Stone, Ingham and Gibbins (2013) discovered in their studies that parents experienced a series of difficulties when answering their children's questions on sexuality. Major difficulties include the wish to protect the innocence of the child, ignorance about the age appropriateness of these explanations and the feeling personal discomfort. It was also detected in Davies and Robinson's studies (2010) that sexual education is avoided by emphasizing the innocence of childhood. Moreover, Klein and Gordon

(1992) have asserted that another factor that keeps parents from talking about sexuality might result from the assumption that these kinds of subjects would give the children 'ideas.'

Finally, it was discovered that, regardless of the parents' gender, age, educational background, income level and the number and gender of their children, parents offered evasive answers and answers based on religious beliefs to a large extent. This finding corresponds with the studies carried out by Göçgeldi et al (2007) and Yelken (1996). While Göçgeldi et al determined no statistically significant difference in sexual education given to children by both mothers and fathers on the basis of children's gender, parents' educational background, occupation, age and their monthly income, Yelken (1996) claimed that there were differences in mothers and fathers' level of knowledge on sexual education in terms of their educational and occupational status. In a study carried out with 130 children from the ages of 2 to 7, Gordon, Schroeder and Abrams (1990) have attempted to measure the level of children's knowledge on sexuality. It was discovered that regarding parts of the genital organs, pregnancy and prevention of sexual abuse, children from middle and upper socioeconomic classes have more knowledge and parents from lower socioeconomic classes have a more limiting attitude towards sexuality.

Consequently, when it comes to sexual education, although there may be some differences on the basis of parents' ages, educational status and socioeconomic levels, it can be concluded that the answers parents give to their children's questions don't show any significant change. Sexual education is regarded as a taboo in most societies and generally, evasive answers are given to the children's questions. Yet parents shouldn't forget that these questions are a natural part of their development and it is essential to provide children with age-appropriate answers of a scientific basis.

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Metaphoric Perceptions of Secondary School Students Related to Central Examination

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Abstract

This study aims to represent metaphoric perceptions of students related to central examination applied in transition to secondary school institutions. Within the study, the phenomenology approach from qualitative research techniques was used. To collect data, a semi-structured interview form developed by researchers was used. Data were collected from four secondary schools, two of which are in Artuklu and the other two of which are in Kızıltepe, Mardin, and from 200 students who will take central examination during 2017-18 school year. In analysing data, the content analysis technique was used. In the analyses made according to the content analysis, close metaphors were classified separately and thematized with suitable names to contain all metaphors included in the groups. At the end of the study, eight themes were found. These themes are “Stressful and challenging process”, “Milestone in life”, “Uncertainty”, “Victim”, “Hope” “The nature of life”, “Teog Exam (Transition from primary to secondary education)” and “Astonishment”. Among these “Stressful and challenging process”, “Milestone in life”, “Uncertainty”, “Victim”, “Teog Exam (Transition from primary to secondary education)” and “Astonishment” reflect a negative perception. In these themes there are 158 negative metaphors. Only “Hope” and “The nature of life” represent a positive perception with 29 positive metaphors. As a result, it is observed that metaphoric perceptions of students related to the central examination is in general negative, yet perception of few students is positive. This perception can be seen in metaphors developed related to examinations such as LGS, SBS, Teog, etc. conducted previously for that purpose.

Keywords: Central Examination, Metaphoric Perception and Secondary School

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Introduction

Defined as desired and intentional behavioural change through experiences in individuals (Ertürk, 1979), education is a field regarded by states, families and societies on which critical investments are made with great expectations. Satisfying expectations from education depends on training students from the very beginning of the preschool in accordance with their interests and abilities and on providing them with appropriate skills for the expectations of today's world.

Secondary school period is perhaps the most challenging period of life in which students prepare for the life and higher education with puberty-based tides.

High schools are institutions that give priority to the task of guiding students to jobs compatible with their interest and abilities and prepare them for business life and higher education as well as produce mainly training service for secondary schools in Turkey (Gedikoğlu, 2005). Just like universities, due diligence should be exercised in selection and placement of students into secondary schools. Thus, assessment and evaluation processes made related to the recognition and placement of students are expected to identify students accurately in terms of cognitive, affective and psychomotor preparedness levels and to place them into programs suitable for their existing traits (Demirel, 2004). This process is shaped according to scores obtained from examinations made for that purpose. Examinations that may result in huge gains or losses for students are considered as high risk examinations (Kutlu, 2014. Akt. Atar and Büyüköztürk, 2017). Examinations applied during transition into secondary schools are among high risk examinations (Atar and Büyüköztürk, 2017). Schools that do not meet the real demand due to limited number of quotas resort to selection of students through various ways to meet the active demand (Sağır and Mart, 2017).

The numerousness of students and the scarcity of qualified schools as well as tough conditions of competitions and the magnitude of the meaning ascribed to the examinations set a premium on examinations made for the selection and placement of students into secondary school institutions.

Since 2000s the system of student selection and placement into secondary schools has undergone significant changes at certain intervals. At the beginning of 2000s "High School Entrance Exam" (LGS) was conducted for the selection and placement of students into various high schools, particularly official/private science and Anatolian high schools and it was renamed as "Secondary School Selection and Placement Test" (OKS) in 2006 (Gür, Çelik and Coşkun, 2013). Shortly after the implementation of OKS, there was a debate on the necessity of changing the student selection and placement system based on various reasons (school, student, preparation for exam, family, the exam itself, etc.) (Gür, Çelik and Coşkun, 2013; Öztürk and Aksoy, 2014). Under the influence of these debates, a radical change was made under the name of "Transition System into Secondary School" (OGES) to be effective as of 2007-2008 education year and "Placement Test" (SBS) was applied (Erdoğan, Meşeci Giorgetti and Çifçili, 2011; Yiğittir and Çalışkan, 2013). It was decided that during the academic year of 2007 and 2008, SBS (Placement Test) would be taken by 6th and 7th grades and by 6th, 7th and 8th grades for three consecutive years. Besides, scores taken from examinations on grade basis were included into the student averages at various rates (Bal, 2011). It was decided that grade-based distribution of these rates would be 25% for 6th grade, 35% for 7th grade and 40% for the 8th grade, and that weighted year-end average of students from 6th to 8th grades would be 25%, and guidance and behaviour score would be 5%. A court decision cancelled the guidance and behaviour score, and the rate of weighted year-end average was raised to 30% from 25% (Gür et al., 2013). On grounds of debates and today's education needs, the system of student's selection and placement into secondary school was changed with a transition from SBS to TEOG (Transition from primary to secondary education) as of 2013-14 education year (Şad and Şahiner, 2016). In relation to available and unavailable reasons above, the system of student's selection and placement into secondary school was changed again to be effective as of 2017-18 education year under the name of central examination in spite of all objections observed by students, parents and educators (MEB, 2018).

In brief, the history of central examinations conducted for the purpose of selection and placement of students into secondary school is as follows:

- High Schools Entrance Exam (LGS) between 1998 and 2004
- Secondary School Selection and Placement Test (OKS) between 2004 and 2007,
- Placement Test (SBS) between 2007 and 2009,
- SBS between 2009 and 2013,
- TEOG (Transition from primary to secondary education) between 2013 and 2017 (Bağcı, 2016; Şad and Şahiner, 2016).

- Moreover, Central Examination (MS) related to Secondary School Institutions to Admit Students with Examination as of 2017-2018 education year (MEB, 2018). It was seen within the examination guideline related to the central examination that the examination would include 20 questions from Turkish, Maths and Life Sciences each and 10 questions from Republic of Turkey Revolution History and Kemalism, Education of Religion and Ethics and Foreign Language each, and that based on acquisitions specified within the 8th grade syllabus, there would be questions to assess student skills of reading comprehension, interpretation, deduction, problem solving, analysing, critical thinking, scientific process and the like, and besides, a correction form would be used to allow that three incorrect answers lead to the nullification of a correct one (MEB, 2018).

In regard to the importance of the meaning ascribed to examinations, researchers feel the need to study related to impacts of the examination on students. One of the ways of understanding the impacts of the examination on students is to determine perceptions of students regarding the examination. Perceptions of individuals related to a certain topic can be determined through methods such as scale, questionnaire, interview and thinking loud as well as through metaphors (Koçak, Gül, Gül and Bökeoğlu, 2017).

Thoughts and perceptions of students may be set forth related to the Central Examination which was changed again as they are not only at the centre of the system of the transition to secondary school which is debated by educators, parents, students and other shareholders of education and repeatedly changed by Ministry of Education but also experience the heavy burden and stress of the system for years. Thus, there may be a research on what students as test takers think related to the examination, with what they associate it (metaphor/analogy) and the reasons why they associate the examination with the metaphors they develop.

Metaphor is to express something unknown with something known and to describe the meaning of the unknown using the tools and properties of the known. Individuals can comprehend a highly abstract, complicated or theoretical fact through metaphors as a very powerful cognitive means (Saban, Koçbeker and Saban, 2006). In other words, metaphor is an expression of an individual related to a concept or fact as s/he perceives using images (Levine, 2005). In short, metaphors are images that are developed by individuals to make an abstract or complicated concept or fact more comprehensible.

Metaphors can be used in various fields of education such as education management, creating and planning syllabi and education domain. Furthermore, they can be used to clarify topics that are incomprehensible or difficult to comprehend or some concepts, perceptions and attitudes in the education domain (Döş, 2010).

Considering metaphoric researches on education, it is possible to come across studies in which metaphors of teachers and teacher candidates in different branches are studied related to concepts such as manager, inspector, teacher, student, gifted students and so on (Saban, Koçbeker and Saban, 2006; Shaw, Massengill, and Mahlios, 2008; Döş, 2010 and Kalyoncu, 2012). In addition to studies related

to metaphoric perceptions of teachers and teacher candidates, there are also studies that touch upon metaphoric perceptions of students related to some concepts such as teacher, school, science, scientist, knowledge, examination, TEOG or different classes (Newton and Newton, 1998; Güler and Akman, 2006; Doğan-Bora, Arslan and Çakıroğlu, 2006; Aydın, 2010; Dikmenli, 2010; Akçay, 2011; Soysal and Afacan, 2012; Camcı-Erdoğan, 2013; Narayan, Park, Peker and Suh, 2013; Şad and Şahiner 2016 and Koçak, Gül, Gül and Bökeoğlu, 2017).

It is thought that the investigation of perceptions of students related to the new transition system into secondary school that closely concerns test-takers and their parents will allow the assessment of the examination in the eye of students and thus will contribute to taking some measures regarding reducing the stress and concern experienced by students. There have been some studies on TEOG, which is a Central Examination in transition from primary to secondary school, in Turkey (Özden, Akgün, Çinici, Sezer, Yıldız and Taş, 2014; Özkan and Özdemir, 2014; Yerlikaya, 2014; Birinci, 2014; Kaşıkçı, Bolat, Değirmenci and Karamustafaoğlu, 2015; Kazan, Karaman, Akçalı, Şişmanoğlu, 2015; Şad and Şahiner 2016). This study is among the studies in which metaphoric perceptions of students related the Central Examination are sought to be described. With this aspect, it is believed to contribute to the literature.

Objective

The main objective of the study is to determine metaphoric perceptions of students regarding the Central Examination related to secondary school institutions that will admit students through examination that has been effective as of 2017 in Turkey. In this respect, it is expected to contribute to reducing negative impacts of the central examination on students.

Method

During the process of collecting and interpreting data related to the study, the phenomenology design, as one of the qualitative research designs, was used. The phenomenology design is to focus on phenomena which are realized but about which we do not possess a thorough and detailed comprehension. Phenomenology is a convenient study ground on which studies are conducted on phenomena that people are not unfamiliar with but cannot fully comprehend their meaning (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008). Phenomenology focuses on not only how people perceive, describe, judge, recall, and interpret but also what they think of them and how they talk about them with others (Patton, 2014). This study that intends to determine metaphoric perceptions of students related to the phenomenon of “Central Examination” is suitable for the “phenomenology” design.

Sampling

Within the phenomenology studies data sources are comprised of individuals or groups that experience the phenomenon that is focused in the study and that can express or reflect the relevant phenomenon (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008). Within the study, the data source has been 200 students that took the central examination during 2017-18 education year. Purposeful sampling was used. In the purposeful sampling, researchers make use of their own judgements on whom to select and take those that are most relevant for the research (Balcı, 2009). Therefore, the sampling was comprised of 50 voluntary students from four schools in total, two of which are located in Mardin Merkez Artuklu High School and the other two of which are in Kızıltepe County.

Data Collection

In the interview with participants of this study, which was designed to determine metaphoric perceptions of the central examination (MS) taken by students and their supervisor teachers, what metaphor meant was explained with answers to the questions of students and teachers, and besides they were informed about the meaning and importance of the study. After the interview, voluntary

students that would take the examination soon were given semi-structured forms starting with the phrase “CENTRAL EXAMINATION is like Because” under the supervision of teachers and they were asked to complete the form by filling in the blanks available in the form. Forms completed were collected by teachers and delivered to the researchers. These semi-structured forms serve as the data collection tool of the study. Just as the word “like” is directed towards explaining the relation between the topic of the metaphor and its source in general within studies that describes metaphoric perceptions, so the word “because” serves to explain the reason of creation of metaphors (Saban, 2008).

Data Analysis

During this stage of data collection, 200 students were reached. An assessment was made on semi-structured interview forms of 185 students among these, who could develop meaningful metaphors and associate the metaphor developed with its reason.

In the analysis of qualitative data, descriptive and content analysis techniques are used. Descriptive analysis is more superficial compared to content analysis and frequently used in studies in which the conceptual structure of the study is predetermined clearly. As regards content analysis, it requires a more in-depth analysis of data and ensures that themes and dimensions that are uncertain beforehand are revealed (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008, p. 223). The process in the content analysis serves to gather similar data depending on certain concepts and themes and to interpret them by regulating to make them comprehensible for readers (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008, p. 227). Therefore, research data were analysed according to four-staged “content analysis technique. These stages are: 1. Codification of data; 2. Obtainment of themes; 3. Regularisation of codes and themes; 4. Definition and interpretation of findings (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008, p. 228). Works done within the study related to these stages are as follows:

Codification of data

During this stage, all metaphors developed by students related to the Central Examination were listed on computer environment. Each participant form was assigned a number. Listed metaphors and their reasons that were found meaningful were located and codes regarding metaphors were determined. Metaphors developed were assessed in terms of the topic of the metaphor, its reason and the relationship between its topic and reason. Researchers ruled out metaphors which did not include any metaphors or an explanation or ground for the metaphor, did not contribute to the explanation of the term “MS” and could be approached within more than one category. In this context, fifteen semi-structured forms were excluded from assessment.

Obtainment of themes

Researchers surveyed which properties of the Central examination were considered by students regarding metaphors developed and how these properties were conceptualized. While some of the themes were formed by using concepts such as a challenging and stressful process, hope and astonishment that are included in semi-structured forms directly filled by students, the rest of them were thematized by giving them new names. When forming themes, names related to feeling, thought, creature and animal were excluded. For, while some feelings and thoughts have positive meanings, some others evoke negative meanings. For example, while hope is a favourable feeling, stress is negative. As it is not suitable to develop these two metaphors under the same theme, different themes were used. This situation was considered as valid for the concepts of animal and creature. Metaphors with similar meanings were included into the same theme. Direct quotations were made by giving students each a code (e.g. Ö15, Ö48 or Ö129, etc. (Ö refers to Student) from expressions believed to represent these themes well or be interesting.

Regularisation of codes and themes

185 metaphors developed by students were grouped by researchers under eight themes considering their name and meaning closeness. Opinions and suggestions of three expert academicians in the field of education were asked related to this thematisation. In accordance with the opinions and suggestions given, the process of thematisation was finalised. Hereunder, eight themes were determined as “a stressful and challenging process (f=49)”, “milestone in life (f=41)”, “uncertainty (f=35)”, “victim (f=18)”, “hope (f=17)” “nature of life (f=12)”, “TEOG examination (f=10)” and “astonishment (f=3)”.

Validity and Reliability

There are some different approaches that overlap in some issues and dissociate in some others relating to the validity and reliability of qualitative researches (Lincoln and Guba (1986); Sandelowski (1986); Maxwell (1992); Eisenhart and Hove (1992) and Leininger (1994). According to the approach of Leininger (1994), as one of these approaches, in a qualitative research it is enough to have the properties of “cogency, approvability, contextuality of the meaning, repetitive patterns, saturity and transmissibility”. Where these research data are evaluated considering these properties, the level of attention and concentration shown by students when researchers and teachers fill in the assessment instrument can be expressed as writing what is believed. It was found adequate in terms of approvability property to see that all students admitted in interviews which were made with five students who were selected from each school and marked to reveal whether their own metaphors and their explanations overlap with those available within the study in terms of approvability that metaphors and their explanations within the study overlapped with their own metaphors and explanations. Furthermore, in this context what students wrote were directly included in the study. As the finding and analysis section included the contextuality of the meaning, repetitive patterns, saturity and transmissibility properties, this section excluded these properties. This study satisfies the validity and reliability terms considering Leininger (1994) approach related to the validity and reliability of a qualitative study.

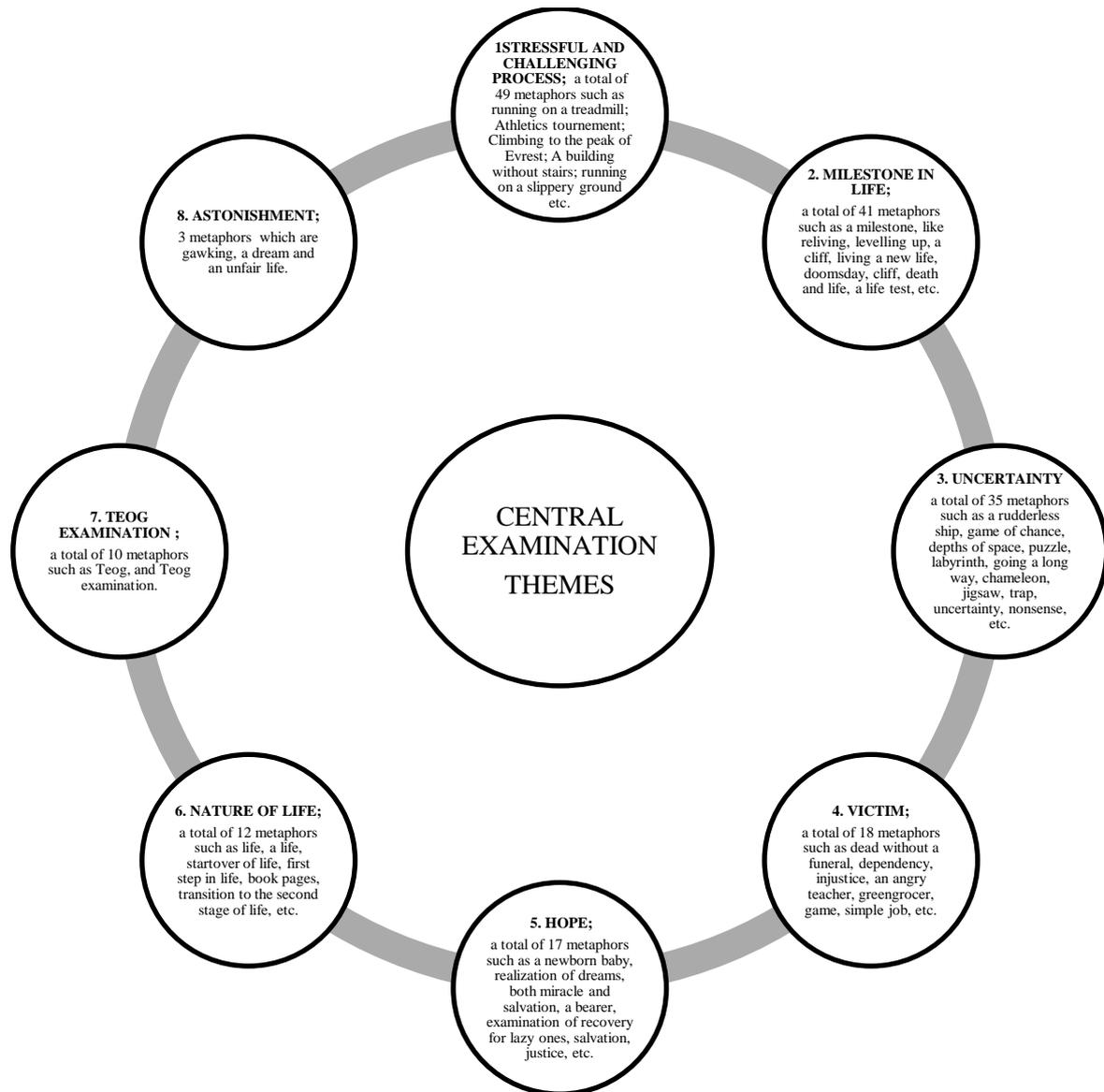
Definition and interpretation of findings

Findings

When presenting the findings of the study, primarily the meanings of themes were explained. Then, metaphors examples in each theme were summarized. Finally, each theme was analysed separately and in detail.

Figure 1 represents eight themes developed related to the central examination and metaphor examples under each theme. Some metaphors under the themes were included through direct quotations from participant explanations.

Figure 1: Themes related to metaphors developed by students regarding the central examination conducted for transition to secondary school institutions and metaphor examples under the themes.



Metaphors developed by students related to the central examination were collected under eight themes. When creating themes, attention was paid to collection of metaphors with closest meanings under the same theme. All metaphors under the eight themes and their reasons of being developed were included in this section through direct quotations from participant statements.

1. The theme of a stressful and challenging process

The reason why the name of a stressful and challenging process was chosen as a theme was that students featured the examination stress, concern related to the examination and challenges of the examination process within a major part of their metaphors that they developed related to the central examination. *This theme includes: "Extraordinary examinations", "a huge challenge", "running on a treadmill", "hunting by hunter", "climbing mountain", "climbing a challenging mountain", "a fruit being grown", "a prime minister seat", "a hurdle race track", "a race", "obstacle to success", "running track", "athletics tournament", "going into the fire", "climbing Mount Everest summit", "being respectful and orderly", "a building without stairs", "drowning in ocean", "running on a*

slippery floor”, “mother and father”, “a long and narrow path”, “suffering in hell”, “the human under the water”, “the birth of a baby”, “fidget spinner”, “elephant”, “a brutal monster”, “donkey”, “helping my father”, “dog”, “a weird thing”, “poison”, “a tough track”, “climbing over tough hills”, “disgustingness”, “trouble”, “having a job”, “halter”, “horse race”, “shoes that pinch”, “thief” and “something bizarre”.

Some of the reasons to develop these metaphors are as follows:

“Climbing Mount Everest Summit”: *As it is a challenging examination to the core, it looks like climbing Mount Everest Summit (S60).*

“Drowning in Ocean”: *If you swim in the ocean without an ability to swim, you will drown. Students take examinations but do not know what to do and how to solve questions. You drown and get lost in thoughts that express mistakes and regret (S71).*

“Suffering in Hell”: *The central examination is not balanced as while some of the schools admit students without an examination, some others do not. As hardworking and lazy students do not take examinations, they are like to be admitted to the same school and I believe that this is so nonsense, unfair and erratic. We do not know how to study; in brief it has turned out to be something like going to hell (S75).*

“Fidget Spinner”: *You feel uneasy when thinking. I am dying of stress. They should be thinking about us young people a bit (S102).*

“Thief”: *I compare it to a thief as it steals my life (S136).*

2.The theme of milestone in life

The reason of naming the theme as milestone in life is that students have featured some of the metaphors developed related to the central examination and attributed meanings that can be regarded milestone in life to these metaphors. Following metaphors are included in the this theme: *“a milestone”, “a tough bend”, “walking on stairs”, “the examination of escaping the world”, “like reliving”, “drawing for the future”, “levelling up”, “jumping off a cliff”, “starting a good life”, “blossoming”, “a tree”, “a game show”, “a cliff”, “dream, climbing a mountain”, “success for our future”, “the examination that shapes our life”, “easing our life”, “restarting a life”, “having a job”, “a pen”, “overcoming obstacles”, “climbing a steep mountain”, “bridge”, “doomsday”, “jewellery”, “a cliff”, “life”, “milestone”, “the straight path (as-sirat in Arabic)”, “despair in life”, “something fatal”, “something that makes life miserable”, “examination thief”, “climbing over tough hills”, “death and life”, “our future”, “the gate to the life in future”, “the examination of life” and “the examination of our life”.*

Some of the metaphors were developed due to following reasons:

“A Milestone”: *This examination is one that changes our life at one point. You should restart. If we want to have an up-to-date life, we should study and try to pass this examination. In fact, all examinations are crucial for us. Yet we should study hard for a good high school, good friends and a good life (S19).*

“Doomsday”: *We should be admitted to a good high school for a good job. That means if you pass the examination then the doomsday ends and if you fail, it will be your doomsday (S97).*

“A Cliff”: *It seems as if you set out by a car. However, you are not aware of the traffic and your destination. Someone appears and shows you the way. Yet unfortunately it is a bit late. There is a cliff at the end of that way. And you have come to an end. If you fall off that cliff, it means you have*

come to the end of your life. Yet if you make a U turn when approaching that cliff, you will escape (S48).

“Death and Life”: *The examination will determine our life. Thus, if we win the examination, we will go on living, and if not, we will die (S152).*

“The Examination of Our Life”: *When we become successful in this examination, we may be admitted to a good school. We may have a good job and career. But if we fail, we will have a bad high school, job and career (S184).*

3.The theme of uncertainty

The reason of selecting the name of uncertainty as a theme is that within a major part of the metaphors related to the central examination, students have addressed to uncertainties that arise from causes such as the difficulty level of the examination and questions and the examination being conducted for the first time. This theme includes metaphors such as “*rudderless ship*”, “*a puzzle and labyrinth*”, “*seasonal migration*”, “*blowing leaf in the wind*”, “*an overturned ship in the sea*”, “*an alarm clock*”, “*depths of space*”, “*university exam*”, “*Ashoura*”, “*housework*”, “*marrying and divorcing*”, “*messy and fuzzy hair*”, “*an all-mixed-up stew*”, “*game of chance*”, “*chameleon*”, “*jigsaw*”, “*trap*”, “*something bizarre*”, “*horse race*”, “*uncertainty*” and “*nonsense*”.

The reasons of developing some of the metaphors are as follows:

“Seasonal Migration”: *It is like seasonal migration, each season you migrate from a place to another. That is to say, it changes all the time. The central examination is also like the seasonal migration and changes once in 2-3 years (S2).*

“An overturned ship in the sea”: *We had been familiar with the TEOG system for a few years and regarded that. Yet all of a sudden they introduced a system called Central Examination and we drowned in that system (S14).*

“A blowing leaf the wind”: *Neither the direction nor the destination of a leaf blowing in the wind is clear. The Central examination is just alike. It is not clear where it will go, how it will settle, what results will come out and what the system will be (S12).*

“Uncertainty”: *As it is not obvious how the examination will be, it makes me stressful and thrilled (S172).*

“Nonsense”: *A system was introduced to relieve the stress of students. This system is more difficult and on the top it, three incorrect answers lead to the nullification of a correct one and as this increases the stress, it is nonsense (S104).*

4.Victim

The reason why the theme was named as victim is that students have regarded themselves as the victim of the new examination system in some of the metaphors related to the central examination as the system has continually changed with ambiguities that are thought to be used against them. This theme includes following metaphors: “*A dead without funeral*”, “*hunter*”, “*injustice*”, “*dependency*”, “*greengrocer*”, “*an angry teacher*”, “*nothing*”, “*game*”, “*toys*” and “*simple job*”.

Students stated following reasons when developing some of the metaphors:

“A dead without funeral”: *We were comfortable with TEOG. We were the first victims of this examination. We were unlucky as all teachers thought that the examination would change (S107).*

“An angry teacher”: If we make a mistake when we are with a teacher, that teacher will get angry at us and punish us. The examination is just alike because if we make a mistake then we cannot go to a good high school (S174).

“Hunter”: This new system wants to hunt me and those like me (S117).

“Simple job”: They change the system without asking, concerning and with their own way. They do this as we say nothing. Thus, it looks like a simple job (S127).

“Game”: National Education introduces new things again and again. We do not know what to do. We are downright baffled (S115).

5.The theme of hope

The reason to name the theme as hope is the students’ hope and thought to be likely to achieve their goals through the examination. Under this theme, the metaphors are: “*a new-born baby*”, “*realization of dreams*”, “*overcoming obstacles*”, “*both miracle and salvation*”, “*a bearer*”, “*going to the space*”, “*a board*”, “*examination of recovery for lazy ones*”, “*the day for hardworking ones*”, “*lion goes hunting*”, “*salvation*”, “*a good thing*”, “*justice*”, “*beauty*” and “*superb*”.

Some of these metaphors were developed due to following reasons:

“Realization of dreams”: *Realization of my dreams is to have a goal and to win a good high school. Yet for this I have to study hard and put in effort (S17).*

“To overcome obstacles”: *I will do my best to overcome the obstacle created by this examination. I will study hard; go to a good school and achieve all these (S53).*

“Both miracle and salvation”: *I hope those deserving will be admitted to a good high school, particularly me. I wish everyone a continued success (S57).*

“Lion goes hunting”: *Just as a lion catches its hunt successfully, so people go hunting when taking an examination. When they become successful, they become as happy as a lion which catches its hunt (S58).*

“Beauty”: *Whether we win the examination or not, we will be admitted to a high school. There are not many high schools in our neighbourhood, yet I am happy as we are enrolled based on address (S179).*

6.The theme of nature of life

The theme of nature of life is the name given because students have developed some metaphors to reveal that they have regarded the examination as a matter of nature of life. This theme includes metaphors such as “*life*”, “*a life*”, “*a documentary*”, “*book pages*”, “*start-over of life*”, “*two sides of the same coin*”, “*jeweller*”, “*the examination of life*”, “*proceeding to the second page of life*”, “*magnificent*” and “*equation*”.

Some of these metaphors were developed due to following reasons:

“The first step in life”: *It is like the first step in life. For, it is the previous step before high school, college and finding a job. If the first step is successful, then next ones will also be successful (S93).*

“Transition to the second stage of life”: *I compare the examination to turning pages of a newspaper or a notebook. We open a new page in our life and this examination is like a desire for*

jumping to the next page of our life. When we were at primary school, we were on the first page of our notebook. Following this examination, we will go to a high school and have a new life, just like a page as fresh as a daisy (S135).

“Jewellery”: *This examination will determine our life in the future. That is to say, as it will determine our lifeline, it is as precious as jewellery (S92).*

“Start of life”: *Because the examination will determine the route of our life (S85).*

“Life”: *Because the examination system is change just like life (S89).*

7.The theme of TEOG examination

The reason why this theme was chosen is that some of the students likened the TEOG examination to the central examination. Under this theme, there is the TEOG examination metaphor with a frequency of ten.

Some of the metaphors were developed because of following reasons:

“Teog examination”: *During only two sessions, three incorrect answers lead to the nullification of a correct answer. This has been done to paint students into a corner; I wish there weren't such a new system (S82). It looks lie TEOG which was conducted in previous years (94). It looks like a challenging TEOG examination for me and my friends (S96). It looks like previous TEOG examinations; both are the same (S169). I think it looks like TEOG. The only difference is that TEOG was composed of two examinations and this examination is composed of only one, which is optional (S177).*

8.The theme of astonishment

The reason of naming the theme astonishment is that the examination astonishes students. Under this theme, there are themes such as “gawking”, “*an unfair life*” and “*a dream*”.

These metaphors were developed due to following reasons:

“Gawking”: *When taking the examination of the new system and seeing the questions in it, we gawk at the questions. That is to say, the examination is one that is overrated by everyone (S11).*

“An unfair life”: *There was TEOG and it was very good without any limitation of duration. However, during our time the central examination was introduced. Thus, I wanted to express it as an unfair life (S18).*

“A dream”: *When you sleep, you want to forget the challenges in life, yet it is just a dream and when you wake up, such challenging things wait for you that everything comes for you and then you drown, thus you get exhausted. You should study hard and struggle; therefore you should regard everything as a dream (S9).*

Discussion and Conclusion

Metaphoric perceptions of eighth grade students, who will take the “CENTRAL EXAMINATION” conducted to be placed into secondary school institutions, were analysed through content analysis technique in the study. Metaphors that were developed by students related to the CENTRAL EXAMINATION” according to the analysis results were categorized under eight themes. ***The theme of a stressful and challenging process***” is ranked as the first with 49 metaphors, ***the theme of milestone in life***” ranked as the second with 41 metaphors, ***The theme of uncertainty***” ranked as the third with 35 metaphors, ***The theme of victim***” ranked as the fourth with 18 metaphors,

“The theme of hope” ranked as the fifth with 17 metaphors, *“The theme of nature of life”* ranked as the sixth with 12 metaphors, *“The theme of TEOG Examination”* ranked as the seventh with 10 metaphors and finally *“The theme of astonishment”* ranked as the eight with three metaphors.

As can be understood from themes, it can be stated that secondary school students generally have negative metaphoric approaches related to the central examination that they have to take to be admitted to the secondary school institutions, that is to say to high schools, and that was changed again during the 2017-18 education year and named as central examination. For, it is observed that only twenty nine of these metaphors developed by students were positive while the rest of 185 metaphors were negative. In fact, considering these metaphors, it can be observed that students intensely regard this central examination, perceive it as a stressful and challenging process and find it scary. Particularly that students explain the central examination through metaphors such as a matter of life or death, suffering in hell, doomsday, etc. is significant in terms of demonstrating that the central examination has negative influences on students that are experienced by them intensely. Besides, a plenty of observations can support these findings.

Within literature, findings of the following studies overlap with and support metaphors in this study that were predominantly found negative and had unfavourable, scary and frightening meanings ascribed to the central examination by students: the study conducted by Koçak, Gül, Gül and Bökeoğlu (2017) titled as “Investigation of students’ metaphors related to the term examination (TEOG); the study made by Karaşahinoğlu (2015) titled as “The relationship between metaphoric examination perceptions of students and opinions of parents on school”, the study carried out by Karadeniz, Er and Tangülü (2014) titled as “Metaphoric perceptions of 8th grade students related to SBS”, the study made by Elmacı (2015) “Determination of teacher opinions and their metaphoric perceptions related to public personnel selection examination and field information examination” and the study made by Nartgün and Gökçer (2014) with findings related to the theme of “negative factors” titled as “These dangerous situations that students compare with the examination”. Moreover, in his study, Dönmez (2017) states that the TEOG examination is far from assessing proficiencies specified within the General Purposes of Turkish National Education, continues to be information-centred and mainly parrot fashion, cannot assess affective and psychomotor acquirements of students, that this approach has not abolished training centres where students get prepared for exams, on the contrary, it transformed schools to training centres, and that as long as school successes are assessed depending on the scores of TEOG, the race between students will be a challenging one that increases the stress and harm them more. These concerns expressed for the TEOG examination are unfortunately valid for the central examination as well.

Considering the findings of the study shown above as a whole, it is observed that no matter how the examination for admission of students to secondary school institutions is named (LGS, SBS, TEOG, MS), the change in the method and content of the examination has not affected the fact that examinations are the source of negative feelings such as stress, concern, fear, etc. for students. In this context, Ministry of National Education should understand that the reason of the examination is primarily a limited number of good quality schools and upgrade the quality of schools as well as adopt the principle of equalising school qualities at the end (Dönmez, 2017). It is thought that acting under this principle can alleviate the pressure of the examinations of the education system on students.

Furthermore, some of the students had positive perceptions related to the central examination and these perceptions were stated through metaphors such as “*A life*”, “*First step in life*”, “*Start-over of life*”, “*Magnificent*”, “*Jewellery*”, “*A renascent child*”, “*The day of hardworking ones*”, “*Salvation*”, “*Justice*”, “*Beauty*”, etc. in the study by Koçak, Gül, Gül and Bökeoğlu (2017) titled as “Investigation of students’ metaphors related to the term examination (TEOG)”, students have stated this situation through metaphors such as “*Enjoyment*”, “*Trust*”, “*Hope*”, “*Happiness*”, “*Joy*”, “*Excitement*”, “*Curiosity*”, “*Freedom*”, etc. In the study carried out by Karadeniz, Er and Tangülü (2014) titled as “Metaphoric perceptions of 8th grade students related to SBS”, students have expressed their positive perceptions through metaphors such as “*Life*”, “*Renaissance*”, “*Heaven Road*”, “*Dream*”, “*Teacher*”, etc.

When considering these findings as a whole, it can be concluded that no matter how the name of the examination for the transition into secondary schools changes (SBS, TEOG, MS), some students have positive perceptions in the least, and that they express these through positive metaphors. This conclusion can reveal that students do not have completely negative perceptions related to examinations for transition into secondary schools, however positive perceptions are few.

Following recommendations can be given depending on the findings of the study:

It is observed that metaphoric perceptions of students related to the Central Examination are in general negative and this is shown through metaphors developed by them. Reasons of this situation originating from the system, students and parents may be investigated and negativities based on these may be minimized.

Changes in examinations conducted for transition into secondary schools can be discussed thoroughly by all shareholders and shared with them much earlier to avoid abrupt changes.

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Learning Implementations about Cooperative Learning Method: A Case Study in Turkey

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Abstract

This study aims to evaluate the implementations of cooperative learning method in teaching limit and derivatives and the opinions of prospective teachers and instructors about these implementations. The research is designed as a case study and conducted with 28 prospective teachers (20 female, 8 male) who were attending the course of calculus in the department of science and technology teaching. The data obtained by interviews and observations were analyzed via content analysis. According to results, it was found out that the implementations of cooperative learning method created a positive effect on prospective teachers and made them learn the subjects more easily. On the basis of the results mentioned above, it can be recommended to use the cooperative learning method in teaching the subjects of limit and derivatives in teacher education. This study focused on teaching the subjects of limit and derivative; however similar studies can be carried out with different mathematics topics.

Keywords: Calculus, case study, cooperative learning, student teams-achievement divisions.

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Introduction

Learning mathematical concepts and skills is an active process, not a passive one. Students construct knowledge through their experiences during lessons (Johnson & Johnson, 1991). When the methods and techniques requiring active participation of students to lessons are used, they learn and remember better and faster and they enjoy learning. In Turkey, however, it can be said that a teacher centred education is being conducted in higher education institutions and the students generally follow the lessons as audiences instead of active participants. On the other hand, it is well-known that mathematics topics are the ones which can be learnt meaningfully by the students' participations to the activities, solving the questions and discussing the results.

The significance of students' active participation in the learning and teaching activities has been noticed in Turkey in recent years. Accordingly, the elementary, secondary and high school curriculums have been re-designed in order to provide the students with opportunities to participate in learning and teaching activities. In this context, it is stated in the mathematics curriculum (MoNE, 2018a) that mathematics considers the students as the center and pays attention to the conceptual understanding. Also, students' way of verbal expressing of themselves has an important place in internalizing, understanding and structuring the mathematical concepts. In addition, it is also recommended in the curriculum that the students should exhibit how they structured the concepts in this process and they should be encouraged to communicate personally and inter-personally.

Teacher competencies are another important issue which has been discussed in Turkey in recent years. Teacher competencies are explained as "General Competencies of Teaching Profession" and "Subject Area Competencies" in details in the documents which were published by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE, 2018b). These documents show the importance that the Ministry of National Education, which is the biggest employer and which plays an important role in the planning of education, gives to the teacher competencies. The importance of the teachers' acquiring both subject area competencies and general competencies of teaching profession during their training has become more apparent. In this context, it is thought that the teachers' both being in effective learning environments which will enable them to acquire strong subject knowledge and experiencing the effective learning environments and transferring these experiences into their future teaching careers are important. In this context, cooperative learning method is one of the methods which provides students with active participation to lessons and supports in-class discussions.

Cooperative learning method is used prevalently in many subject areas and class levels. One of the reasons of this is that it has positive effects on academic success (Sharan, 1980; Slavin, Madden and Leavey, 1984; Leikin and Zaslavsky, 1997; Johnson and Johnson, 1981; Johnson and Johnson, 1989; Tarım, 2003; Tarım and Artut, 2004; Artut and Tarım 2007, Artut, 2009; Häsel-Weide and Nührenbörger, 2013). Although the studies about this learning method were focused on elementary and secondary education, it is expressed in discussions about the benefits of this method that it can also be implemented in higher education classes (Artut, 2016, Artut and Tarım, 2007; Emley, 1987; Garfield 1993; Johnson, Johnson and Smith 1998; Johnson, Johnson, and Smith, 2013; Kaptan and Korkmaz, 1995; Van Voorhis 1995).

Cooperative learning method is one in which small groups of students and their peers are used to maximize their learning (Johnson, Johnson and Smith, 1991). In the classrooms in which cooperative learning method is used, the students are expected to discuss, help each other, evaluate other students' knowledge and try to fulfil each other's deficiencies (Slavin, 1995).

Cooperative learning has many different forms, such as Jigsaw, Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC), Teams-Games-Tournament (TGT), Learning Together (LT), Team Assisted Individualization (TAI), Academic Controversy (AC), Group Investigation (GI), Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD), etc. (see Kagan [1992] for more details).

In addition to many other fields, STAD can be used in mathematics. By the help of STAD, students interact mutually, become responsible for each other's learning and they develop their other skills. In the practice of STAD, students start working in their teams and attempt to complete the task given to them on their own after the teacher's presentation of the topic. During this process, they are also responsible for their friends in the same group to contribute to the accomplishment of the task as best as they can. In the last phase, the students are supposed to have a quiz in which they are not allowed to help each other in the group (Slavin, 1990).

In line with the explanations above, it was aimed to implement Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD), which is a technique in cooperative learning method, in the teaching of limits and derivatives topic in the course of calculus of the prospective teachers who were attending the department of science and technology teaching and to evaluate the opinions of the prospective teachers and instructors about this implementation.

Method

This study was designed as a case study. Case study is a method in which one or more than one cases, environments or interactive groups are investigated profoundly. A complex or a special case is investigated in their own conditions in this method (Sönmez & Alacapınar, 2013; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). The reason of preferring the case study method in researches is why it enables to investigate a case or a fact profoundly which is based on the questions of "how" and "why" and which cannot be controlled by the researchers (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2000). This research investigated the implementation process of Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD) technique in the general mathematics class of the first grade students who got certain marks and entitled to get education in the science and technology department of the education faculty in a state university. In this context, the sample of this study consisted of 28 first grade students (20 female, 8 male) who were attending to the general mathematics class in the science and technology department.

Interview form

In this research, an interview form which was developed by the researchers was used so as to determine the opinions of prospective teachers about working in groups based on cooperation while learning mathematics. Here are some of the questions from the interview form:

- Do you prefer working and solving the questions about limits and derivatives in groups or following the questions the teacher solve as in previous implementations? Why?

- Do you think working with your group friend on questions about limits and derivatives as it was implemented in this lesson has an effect on your understanding the topics? How?

Observation

Throughout the research, each session was observed by one of the researchers. A standard observation tool was not used in the study. During the unstructured observation, the relationships and behaviours between the prospective teachers were recorded in written.

Teaching Methods and Implementation

In line with the explanations above, the instruction schedule was developed by following the steps below.

1. Step (Formation of the clusters): The clusters of four prospective teachers were formed by the researchers heterogeneously considering the variables of academic success and gender. After the clusters were formed, cluster working guides were given to every cluster.

2. Step (Instructor presentation): In the first two class hours of the course of calculus I-II which is four class-hour a week, lecturing was done by one of the lecturers. In the rest two class-hour, the clusters worked on the worksheet which was prepared in accordance with the task as explained below.

3. Step (worksheets):

There are two collateral small boxes in which two equivalent questions are asked. Two prospective teachers from each cluster answered the questions in the worksheet together. The first prospective teacher answered the question in the first box and the second prospective teacher answered the question in the other box. While the first prospective teacher was solving the question in the first box, the other prospective teacher was watching him/her. While the first prospective teacher was solving the question step by step, he explained the solution of the problem to his/her friend. If the first prospective teacher was solving the question incorrectly or making a mistake, the other prospective teacher helped him/her. After the first prospective teacher finished solving the question, the second prospective teacher started solving the question in his/her box. This time, the first prospective teachers tried to help the second prospective teacher. By this way, all questions were solved in return. The other two prospective teachers in the same cluster solved all the questions in worksheet in the same way. After both worksheets in the cluster finished, they checked each other's worksheets mutually.

1. Step (Quiz): All prospective teachers were given a quiz about the topic covered individually every other week.

2. Evaluation: Through the interview form below, the opinions of the prospective teachers were taken about the implementation with worksheets as mentioned above.

Data Analysis

The data obtained by interviews and observations were analyzed via content analysis, a qualitative research data analysis method. The data were evaluated with constant comparative method in order to make content analysis. Through this way, themes and codes were constituted by comparing the data in the interview form. The data obtained from the prospective teachers were coded so as to present and not to create disruption without revealing the identities of the prospective teachers. Therefore, the first student who was interviewed was coded as "PT1", the other prospective teachers were coded as "PT2, PT3" in the same way according to their turn in interviews.

Results

In this study in which the evaluation of the implementation of Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique in the instruction of limits and derivatives, the data obtained were presented under two titles as interview and observation findings.

Interview findings

The codes and themes which were formed through the analysis of the data obtained from the interviews were given in Table 1.

Table 1. The codes and themes about the interview form

Theme	Code
Learning process	It fertilizes learning
	It facilitates learning
	It makes learning permanent
	It provides active participation in the process
Cooperating and sharing	Offering help to his/her friends
	-bilgi alışverişini kolaylaştırıyor
	-Arkadaşımı izlerken öğrendiği fark ettim
	We discuss our results together
Participating of each student	Participating in the work,
	Willing to complete the task
	Completing his/her task

When Table 1 was considered, it was seen that the interviews with the students were collected under three themes as learning process, cooperating and sharing and participating of each prospective teacher. Four codes were used in the theme about learning process. In this context, 21 of the prospective teachers who participated in the research stated that the method which was implemented fertilized learning, 19 of them expressed that it facilitated learning, 14 of them told that it made learning permanent and 8 of them remarked that it provided active participation in the process. For example, some of the students' opinions are as follows:

-From my point of view, the lessons are much more productive than the ones before. I realized that I can learn more easily this way (PT2).

-In the previous implementations, lecturer of the lesson used to solve the questions about the topic by himself/herself; we used to watch and I used to think I learnt the topic. Later, I had a lot of difficulty when I tried to solve a question about the topic. By the help of this method, I try to solve the question with my friend since I am active in the process instead of just watching (PT 10).

-As students have feelings for other students, I think I can understand better this way (PT 21).

When Table 1 was taken into account, the theme of cooperating and sharing consisted of two codes. In this context, it was seen that 22 of the students declared that they offered help to their friends and 7 of them stated that this method provided them with discussion about the topic together with their friends. For example, some of the students' opinions are as follows:

-When I had difficulty while solving the question in my box in the worksheet, my friend offered help to me. I also offered help to my friend when s/he had difficulty (PT11).

-After completing the task given to us, we shared our results with each other and discussed on them. That was really useful (PT 7).

When Table 1 is considered, three codes are seen in the theme of participating of each student. In this context, it is seen that all of the students expressed that they participated in the tasks given to them, 24 of them told that they completed the tasks ambitiously and 28 of them remarked that they completed the tasks given to them. For example, some of the students' opinions are as follows:

-I participated in all the tasks ambitiously and I could complete (PT 15).

-I really enjoyed every task given to me during these studies (PT 5).

Observation findings

The results of content analysis based on the data obtained from the observations throughout the research process were collected under two titles as learning process and cooperating and sharing.

i. Learning process: The observations showed that all of the students participated in the tasks, worked on the tasks carefully and they tried to complete the tasks by checking the notes that they took in the lessons and their course books when they could not solve the questions. Another situation that was observed was the students' more careful behaviours about attendance.

ii. Cooperating and sharing: The observations revealed that while the students were working on the tasks given to them in groups of two, one of them tried to help the other while watching his/her friend trying to solve question and they worked on the tasks given cooperatively. It was also observed that the groups of two tried to cooperate with the other groups after asking for help from the other group of two in their group when they could not solve a question. It was often observed that they tried to compare their results with the other groups to check its correctness. The following dialogue was observed between two students in the same group during the studies based on cooperation.

PT 3: I cannot solve this question. Do you have an idea?

PT 7: I cannot solve the question, either. Let's ask the other friends in our group.

PT 3: OK.

Another mutual dialogue was observed as below.

PT 12: I wonder if this way of solving this question correct? I am not sure.

PT 21: I am not sure, either. Why don't we compare it with the results of other groups?

Conclusion and Recommendation

According to the students' views, the findings of this study revealed that the lesson implementations based on Student Teams-Achievement Divisions technique resulted in a positive effect on the students' learning the subject of limit and derivatives. This finding is consistent with the literature findings (Sharan, 1980; Slavin, Madden, & Leavey, 1984; Leikin & Zaslavsky, 1997; Johnson & Johnson, 1981, 1989; Tarim, 2003; Artut & Tarim, 2007, Artut, 2016) suggesting that cooperative learning method was effective on mathematics teaching. It is believed that this positive effect might have been produced as the learning environment enables the pre-service teachers' active participation in the classes.

Both the interview and observation findings of this research presented that cooperative learning environment supports the pre-service teachers' active participation in the classes. Similarly, Cavanagh (2011) propounded that the cooperative learning environment encourages the students' active participation in the classes. In addition, according to Gilbert-Macmillan (1983), students were given opportunities in cooperative learning method for thinking aloud and this method presented environments to come across different ideas and concentrated on the problem-solving process more than the answer of the problem. In this study, it was found out that the views of the prospective teachers were also in line with this direction. The prospective teachers expressed that they shared their point of views effortlessly while they were working together, discussed on the questions for long and contributed in effective discussions on particularly defining the strategies to implement while solving the problem and the appropriateness of the results they reached. Moreover, Dimabuyo and Portia (2011) mentioned that in cooperative learning method, students were more actively busy with communicating with each other, so it helped their mathematical communication to develop.

In this research, it was revealed that the prospective teachers were able to understand the subjects which they hadn't understood before by cooperating with their group friends more easily. One of its reasons can be the peer interaction which was expressed by a prospective teacher as "I think I can understand better this way as the students can understand each other better (S21)". It can be said that this study is consistent with the literature findings that show working in cooperative learning environment increases the peer interaction.

The observation findings of this research showed that all of the students worked on the task cooperatively, they completed the task, they helped each other and they shared the results they obtained with the other groups. For example, one of the prospective teachers stated his opinion as "After completing the task, we shared our conclusions with each other and we discussed on the results. This was very beneficial for us (PT2)". Accordingly, it can be said that this process might have resulted in a positive effect on their understanding the subject.

There are many studies which show that cooperative learning method has a positive effect on developing positive attitudes towards mathematics class (Gelici & Bilgin, 2012; Gök, Doğan, Doymuş & Karaçöp 2009; Lazrowitz, Lazarowitz & Baird, 1994; Nichols & Hall 1995; Tlusty 1993; Ural 2007; Yıldırım 2011). In this study, the prospective teachers expressed that they enjoyed studying on the tasks with their opinions as "I was willing to participate in all of the tasks given and I was able to complete them (PT15)" and "I really enjoyed completing every task during these studies (PT5)". This can be considered as an indication of the prospective teachers' developing positive attitudes towards mathematics class.

Consequently, it can be said that studying in groups based on cooperation affected the pre-service teachers' learning the subjects of limit and derivatives positively. On the basis of the results mentioned above, it can be recommended to use the cooperative learning method in teaching the subjects of limit and derivatives in teacher education. This study was conducted on teaching the subjects of limit and derivatives. Similar studies can be carried out on different mathematics topics. In line with the results of this study, it can be recommended to conduct an experimental study which examines the efficacy of this method in teaching the subjects of limit and derivatives.

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Analysis of Changes in the Affective Characteristics and Communicational Skills of Prospective Teachers: Longitudinal Study

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study is to analyze the change in the affective characteristics (attitudes, interests and self-efficacy beliefs) and communication skills of prospective teachers, and to question what these changes are, how they happened and the reason behind them. This study has been designed longitudinally for this purpose. The study group consists of 28 prospective teachers that were educated under 3 different undergraduate programs. 12 of the prospective teachers studied primary mathematics education while 8 of them studied Turkish and 8 of them studied social sciences. The research's study group was determined by the maximum variation sampling method. The placement scores of prospective teachers were taken as a basis in order to enable maximum variation. Data was collected from prospective teachers by means of scales and semi-structured interview forms. According to the research's results, prospective teachers started their teaching education with a high level of affective characteristics and communication skills. It was seen that there was a decrease in the attitude and self-efficacy levels, an increase in the communication skills levels and no change in the interest levels of prospective teacher over time. The results show that there was no significant difference between the first and second measure scores from the participant's measure instruments. However, in the analyses performed individually, it was seen that some prospective teachers had significant changes in their affective characteristics and communicational skills.

Keywords: Affective characteristic, interest, attitude, self-efficacy belief, communicational skills

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Introduction

Beginning from the Tanzimat (Reform) period, when institutions that educate teachers as systematic and innovation movements started to be established, the search and expectation of qualified teachers who continue to increase their significance in the 21st century continues to be important today. Indeed, the main factor in the emergence of qualified human power is the teachers and qualified teachers training process is needed for qualified teachers. This process can be listed under three elements including input, process and product when addressed with a system approach. The dynamic structure between these elements is important in terms of the quality of teacher training. One of the important factors of the input dimension in teacher training is the prospective teacher and their admission characteristics. In this system, the higher the quality of input is, the stronger the possibility of getting a quality product is. On the contrary, it seems quite difficult to obtain a quality product from a low input. Therefore identification of the admission characteristics of prospective teachers is considered important. Furthermore, the consideration of student characteristics in education programs prepared for any educational institution is one of the main principles. Based on this main principle, identifying/learning the admission characteristics of prospective teachers that are placed in teaching education programs in all aspects is important for the implementation and success of programs (Eret Orhan and Ok, 2014).

Demographic information, socioeconomic states, interests, tendencies and attitudes for profession, beliefs in their ability to perform their jobs, and communicational skills with the social environment are among the admission characteristics of prospective teachers. Within this scope, it is believed that addressing and examining the affective dimension of characteristics is important. Because poet Goethe's emphasis on "among everything, the things we can learn are the ones we love" can be interpreted as individuals who are willing to learn or do things for which they feel emotionally positive and have interest. Besides, it could be said that affective characteristics that guide human behaviors play an important role in the realization of effective learning as Balaban Salı (2006) states that interest and participation of students in the learning process is closely associated with the will and enthusiasm they feel. In Bloom's (1998) theory called mastery learning or school learning, interest, attitude and academic self-concept of students related to any course or unit are expressed as the affective admission characteristics. It is emphasized that positive admission characteristics increase the learning level of students and can also decrease the differences between the success of students by 25% (Senemoğlu, 2012, p.442-443). In research conducted by Abak, Eryılmaz and Fakiyoğlu (2002), it concluded that multiple affective characteristics of university students such as attitude, motivation, anxiety, and self-efficacy have an effect on their success. In other studies (Guy, Cornick and Beckford, 2015; Wiltsher, 2016; Robinson, Ranellucci, Lee, Wormington, Roseth, Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2017; Józsa and Barrett, 2018; Kertechian, 2018; Ray, Onifade and Davis, 2018), it was also concluded that there was a relationship and positive effect between the affective characteristics and academic success.

In this study, the affective characteristics dimension is based on mastery learning model of Bloom (1998). In Bloom's model, factors determining the learning level are stated as student qualities, quality of teaching service and learning product. According to Bloom (1998), when student qualities are brought to the desired level and a qualified learning process service is provided, the learning level of students will rise. Student qualities are addressed in two dimensions including cognitive admission characteristics and affective admission characteristics (Bloom, 1998; quot. Senemoğlu, 2012). Interest, attitude and academic self-concept of students related to any course or unit are expressed as affective admission characteristics. Therefore, the affective admission characteristics are the combination of students' interest, attitude and self-concept related to a course (Bloom, 1998). Thurstone (1928) defined attitude as the total of tendencies, feelings, prejudices, biases, thoughts, fears, threats and beliefs of individuals about any subject (Robinson, 1975). Herr and Cramer (1996) defined interest as the reactions of individuals in which they like, do not like, or, are indifferent to a person, subject or activity (quot. Deniz, 2009). It is suggested that academic self-concept and academic self-efficacy can be substitutes for each other, and both concepts assess the similar structure which is the efficacy perception (Pajares, 1996; Çalışkan 2014). According to Pajares

and Schunk (2001), it is emphasized that both concepts are even used as synonyms by several researchers (quot. Çalışkan, 2014). Therefore, the concept *self-efficacy* is preferred to be used in this study.

According to the literature research about the admission characteristics of prospective teachers and their attitudes towards teaching, studies on admission characteristics (Ok, 1991; Uygun, 2010; Chroinin, Tormey and Sullivan, 2012; Özder, 2012; Eret Orhan and Ok, 2014; Kahramanoğlu, 2014; Kutluca Canbulat, 2014; Yokuş, 2015; Kahramanoğlu and Bay, 2016;) focused on characteristics that must be owned by prospective teachers at the admission to educational programs. It is seen that studies on attitudes (Kyriacou and Kunc, 2007; Lašek and Wiesenbergová, 2007; Başbay, Ünver, Bümen, 2009; Aydın and Sağlam, 2012; Hacıömerlioğlu and Taşkın, 2010; Aydın and Tekneci, 2013; Tunçeli, 2013; Bağçeci, Yıldırım, Kara and Keskinpalta, 2015; Karatekin, Merey and Keçe, 2015; Serin, Güneş and Değirmenci, 2015; Tufan, 2016; Akman, 2017; Blazar and Kraft, 2017; Kahramanoğlu, Yokuş, Cüçük, Vural and Şiraz, 2018) are relatively more in number as compared to the admission characteristics. These researchers mainly focused on identification of the attitude levels of prospective teachers.

There also conducted studies to directly or indirectly determine the interest levels of prospective teachers in the education and teaching profession (Eryaman, 2007; Okçabol et. al., 2003; Ok and Önkol, 2007; Aksu et. al., 2010; Liu, 2010; Low, Lim, Ch'ng and Goh, 2011; Eret Orhan and Ok, 2014; Riedler & Eryaman, 2016). Studies conducted in recent years on the self-efficacy beliefs of prospective teachers (Tarkin and Uzuntiryaki, 2012; Tunca and Alkın Şahin, 2014; Ayra and Kösterelioğlu, 2015; Ekinci, 2015; Şenaol and Ergün, 2015; Akman, 2016; Morgül, Seçken and Yücel, 2016) focused on the review of self-efficacy beliefs of prospective teachers from various branches in terms of teaching profession. Furthermore, studies conducted on the communicational skills of prospective teachers (Bozkurt Bulut, 2004; Pehlivan, 2005; Özerbaş, Bulut and Usta, 2007; Saracaloğlu, Yenice and Karasakaloğlu, 2009; Tümkaya, 2011; Çetinkaya, 2011; Tunçeli, 2013; Çuhadar, Özgür, Akgün and Gündüz, 2014; Ocak and Erşen, 2015) generally focused on identifying the skill levels of prospective teachers.

According to the results of these studies mentioned in the above paragraphs, it is seen that studies are conducted to identify the level of characteristics of prospective teachers such as attitudes, interests, self-efficacy and communication skills. However, no longitudinal study is based on repetitive measures of such characteristics of prospective teachers except for the study of Başbay, Ünver, Bümen (2009) in which they identified the attitudes of secondary education prospective teachers about teaching profession with repetitive measures. Therefore, this study is of importance as a longitudinal study conducted to analyze the change in attitudes of prospective teachers about teaching profession, their self-efficacy beliefs, interests in education, and communicational skills. Within this context, the main purpose of this study is to analyze the change in affective characteristics (attitudes, interests and self-efficacy beliefs) and communication skills of prospective teachers, and to question what these changes are, how they happened and what is the reason behind them. The following questions are asked within the scope of this general purpose.

1. What kind of a change has occurred in the affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers?
2. Is there a significant difference between the repetitive measures of affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers?
3. What kind of a change has occurred in the affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers on an individual basis?
4. What are the opinions of prospective teachers about how much the education they receive in the faculties to meet their expectations of teacher training?

5. What kind of a relationship is there between the placement scores of prospective teachers in the relevant program and change in their affective characteristics and communication skills?

Methodology

Study Design

This study is a longitudinal research conducted to analyze the change in affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers during the teacher training program. Longitudinal studies have many various forms: These are generally based on observation but can also be experimental (Caruana, Roman, Hernández-Sánchez & Solli, 2015). In this study, longitudinal research based on observation has been used since the researcher did not manipulate the variables related to any group and could observe the participants in their natural environment. Longitudinal studies are used to conduct continuous and repetitive measures in order to track certain individuals for a long time. These are generally observational and are used with qualitative and/or quantitative researches within a cause and effect relationship without any external effect (Caruana, Roman, Hernández-Sánchez & Solli, 2015; Lynn, 2009).

Study Group

The study group consists of 28 prospective teachers that were educated under 3 different undergraduate programs. 12 of the prospective teachers studied primary mathematics education while 8 studied Turkish and 8 studied social sciences. 5 of the prospective teachers were men and 23 were women and were all selected on a voluntary basis. The research's study group was determined by the maximum variation sampling method. The placement scores of prospective teachers were taken as a basis in order to enable maximum variation. Five prospective teachers were selected with highest, medium and lowest placement scores each for all programs. Thus, the study started with a total of 45 prospective teachers including 15 from each program. Firstly, data was collected from 45 prospective teachers but as the study was completed with 28 prospective teachers in the following data collection processes since some prospective teachers went to other universities through undergraduate transfer, some did not want to continue with the research and some responded randomly to data collection tools. All 28 prospective teachers participated in the complete data collection process. Distribution of these 28 participants based on their placement scores is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of prospective teachers that participated in the research based on their placement scores

		Placement Levels		
		High	Medium	Low
Programs	Primary Education Mathematics (PEM)	3	4	5
	Social Sciences (SS)	3	3	2
	Turkish (T)	2	3	3

Three, four and five prospective teachers included in the study were placed in the primary education mathematics undergraduate program with the highest, medium and lowest score, respectively. Three, three and two participants who were placed in social sciences education program with the highest, medium and lowest score, respectively, while two with the highest, three with medium and three with the lowest score in Turkish education program were involved.

Data Collection Tools, Process and Analysis

The study's data collection process took place between October 2016 and October 2017. The first data collection process commenced with the prospective teachers who started first class in the 2016-2017 educational period. Attitude, interest, self-efficacy belief and communicational skill levels

of prospective teachers were assessed twice by using the same measure tools on October 2016 and October 2017. In addition, interviews made with prospective teachers in October 2017 during second class about their opinions on the teacher training that they received for that year. Interviews were conducted one-on-one and were recorded. Various data collection tools were used in this process in order to assess various characteristics of prospective teachers. A semi-structured interview form was used in the interviews made with prospective teachers regarding teacher training. Four different data collection tools were used to assess the attitude, interest, self-efficacy belief and communicational skill levels of prospective teachers.

Semi-structured interview form

A single question interview form was used to determine whether the teacher training taken by prospective teachers for one year met their expectations and revealed their general opinions. The question proposed was: “Can you make a general assessment of the education you have received in the faculty so far? Have your expectations been met?”

Scale of Attitude on Teaching

A scale of attitude consisting of a single dimension and 10 items developed by Eret Orhan and Ok (2014) was used to assess the attitudes of prospective teachers regarding the teaching profession. In the scale development study, Cronbach alpha coefficient of the scale was .90 and in this study for the first measurement was .78 and the second measurement for this study was .82.

Professional Field Interest Scale

The inventory developed by Deniz, Türe, Uysal and Akar (2014) is an measure tool to identify the professional interest levels of individuals in 14 professional fields and is based on the information provided by individual about themselves. The inventory has two versions; the long version with 156 items and a short version with 72 items. Both versions have 14 subscales/dimensions. One of these dimensions is education and includes six items. The short version with 72 items was used in the study. In the validity and reliability studies performed for the short form, 14 factors express 49% of the total variance. Compliance index values of the items in factors vary between .87 and .99. Also, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of 14 factors varies between .59 and .92. In this research, Cronbach alpha coefficient of the factor related to education in the inventory for the first measurement was .72 and the second measurement for this study was .77.

Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale

The teacher self-efficacy scale that is developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) and adapted to Turkish by Çapa, Çakıroğlu and Sarıkaya (2005) consists of 24 items in 9 point likert format. The scale consists of 8 items for each 3 dimensions; student engagement, teaching strategies and classroom management. In the reliability study of scale, the coefficient for dimensions is .82, .86, .84, respectively, and the coefficient for the whole is .93. Factor load values of items in the scale vary between .49 and .74 in the reliability studies of scale. In this study, Cronbach alpha coefficient of the scale for the first measurement was .88 and the second measurement was .80.

Communicational Skills Scale

The communicational skills scale developed by Korkut Owen and Bugay (2014) consists of four dimensions and 25 items. Dimensions are called communication principles such as, main principles (CPMP), self-expression (SE), effective listening and non-verbal communication (ELNVC) and willingness to communicate (WTC). The factor load values of items in the scale vary between .30 and .70. The scale expressed 45.95% of the total variance. Reliability coefficient of the whole scale

was .88 while coefficients of subscales were .79, .72, .64 and .71, respectively. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of this scale for the first measurement was .76 and the second measurement was .72.

The Content analysis method was used in the analysis of data obtained from the semi-structured interview forms for data collection purposes. Data collected from the prospective teachers were analyzed in three stages: (1) coding of data, (2) identification of themes, (3) arrangement of codes and themes. Firstly, data was reviewed and codes were obtained. These codes were separated into themes so that they constitute meaningful wholes and categories were created. Lastly, codes were arranged according to the relevant themes. Two themes (positive and negative) were obtained as a result of the interview made regarding the teaching training of prospective teachers. In the analysis of data collected by means of scales, arithmetic mean and percentage were obtained for the first and third study questions, and Wilcoxon signed rank test was performed in order to find a significant difference between affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers in the second question. The purpose of this test is the fact that study group consists of 28 prospective teachers. Because it is stated in literature that if the number of samples is few, it would be appropriate to use non-parametric tests (Can, 2014, p.142).

Results

In this study, performed to analyze the change in affective characteristics (attitudes, interests and self-efficacy beliefs) and communication skills of prospective teachers, we have examined what these changes are, how they happened and what is the reason behind them. Descriptive statistics related to items found in the measure tool aimed at attitude, self-efficacy, interest and communication skills of prospective teachers are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics related to affective characteristics and communication skills

	Measures	N	\bar{X}	Sd	Minimum score	Maximum score
Attitude	First measure	28	39.00	8.86	17.00	50.00
	Second measure	28	38.50	7.15	21.00	50.00
Self-efficacy	First measure	28	179.57	22.07	134.00	213.00
	Second measure	28	174.79	18.82	140.00	212.00
Interest	First measure	28	23.18	3.51	13.00	28.00
	Second measure	28	23.21	4.29	17.00	30.00
Communicational skills	First measure	28	100.61	9.02	82.00	120.00
	Second measure	28	102.14	10.66	82.00	119.00

According to the scores of prospective teachers related to their affective characteristics and communication skills, it is seen that a decrease occurs in the attitude and self-efficacy scores over time ($\bar{X}_{\text{attitude } 1}=39.00$, $\bar{X}_{\text{attitude } 2}=38.50$; $\bar{X}_{\text{self-efficacy } 1}=179.57$, $\bar{X}_{\text{self-efficacy } 2}=174.79$). While no change was observed in the scores that prospective teachers obtained from the interest inventory, the mean value of the scores in communication skills scale increased from 100.61 to 102.14.

Changes that occurred in the affective characteristics of prospective teachers over time are shown in Figure 1. Mean values of affective characteristics are shown individually.

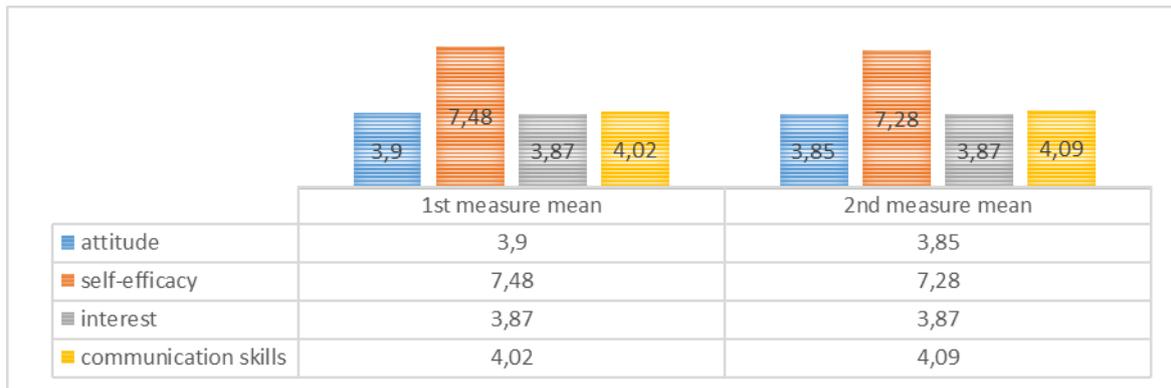


Figure 1. The first and second measure mean values of affective characteristics (attitude, self-efficacy, interest) and communication skills of prospective teachers

As a result of the analysis performed to reveal the change in affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers, it was seen that affective characteristics and communication skills of the prospective teachers were generally high according to the data collected in the first months of their education in the faculty. Accordingly, it might be said that prospective teachers start their teacher training programs with strong affective characteristics and communication skills. While the mean value of prospective teachers in their attitude levels related to the teaching profession was 3.90, this figure was observed as 3.85 in the second measure made one year later. Although small, a decrease is observed in the attitude mean values of prospective teachers. A similar situation is seen in the self-efficacy levels of participants. The self-efficacy level mean value of prospective teachers was 7.48 at the beginning and decreased to 7.28 one year later. Very little decrease was observed in the mean values. No change was seen in the mean values of interest in education ($\bar{X}_{1st\ measure} = \bar{X}_{2nd\ measure} = 3.87$). However, a partial increase was observed in the communication skills of prospective teachers. The mean value of prospective teachers' communication skill levels was 4.02 at the beginning and increased to 4.09 in the measure performed one year later.

From a general perspective, it can be said that stable measures were performed in terms of the assessed characteristics of prospective teachers. Even though changes in characteristics were positive or negative, the amount of change was quite small. Within this context, it might be said that prospective teachers were stable in their opinions.

The results of the Wilcoxon signed rank test that was performed to reveal the statistically significant difference between the mean values of scores that the prospective teachers obtained from the measure tools aimed at the identification of the affective characteristics and communication skills are provided in Table 3.

Table 3. Wilcoxon signed rank test results of first and second measure scores for affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers*

Characteristics	Scores	Ranks	N	Mean value of rank	Total rank	of z	P
Attitude	Second measure score	Negative ranks	14	14.79	207.00	-	.665
		Positive ranks	13	13.15	171.00	0.433	
	First measure score	Equal	1				
		Total	28				
Self-efficacy	Second measure score	Negative ranks	18	13.50	243.00	-	.086
		Positive ranks	8	13.50	108.00	1.715	
	First measure score	Equal	2				
		Total	28				
Interest	Second measure score	Negative ranks	12	14.33	172.00	-	.929
		Positive ranks	14	12.79	179.00	0.089	

	First measure score	Equal	2				
		Total	28				
Communicational skills	Second measure score	Negative ranks	10	12.75	127.50	-	.520
		Positive ranks	14	12.32	172.50	0.644	
	First measure score	Equal	4				
		Total	28				

*Based on negative ranks

According to the test results found in Table 3, there was no significant difference between the first and second measure scores that the participant prospective teachers took from measure tools ($p > .05$). The test results indicate that teacher training programs do not lead to a change in the affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers.

According to the analyses made on total scores, teacher training programs have no effect on the affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers. However, serious changes are observed in the individual evaluation of prospective teachers. In Table 4, 5, 6 and 7, the changes in the individual affective characteristics of prospective teachers are shown. In this regard, an attempt to explain the causality of such changes is reasoned.

Table 4. Results of changes in the first and second measure mean values related to attitudes of prospective teachers

	Attitude 1st Measure mean value	%	Attitude 2nd Measure mean value	%	Change %
ö14	2.3	46	3.6	72	26
ö15	2.5	50	3.8	76	26
ö16	3.2	64	4.3	86	22
ö5	3.7	74	4.6	92	18
ö2	3.5	70	4.2	84	14
ö7	2.6	52	3.3	66	14
ö8	3.3	66	3.8	76	10
ö23	1.7	34	2.2	44	10
ö13	3.7	74	4.1	82	8
ö12	3.7	74	3.9	78	4
ö26	4.8	96	5	100	4
ö18	4.8	96	4.9	98	2
ö21	4.9	98	5	100	2
ö27	4.2	84	4.2	84	0
ö24	4.7	94	4.6	92	-2
ö19	4.4	88	4.1	82	-6
ö1	5	100	4.5	90	-10
ö3	4.5	90	4	80	-10
ö4	4.3	86	3.8	76	-10
ö9	4	80	3.4	68	-12
ö11	3.7	74	3.1	62	-12
ö17	4.4	88	3.8	76	-12
ö6	2.8	56	2.1	42	-14
ö10	4.5	90	3.8	76	-14
ö22	4.1	82	3.2	64	-18

ö25	4.8	96	3.8	76	-20
ö20	4.3	86	3.2	64	-22
ö28	4.8	96	3.5	70	-26

According to the first and second measure scores of prospective teachers' attitudes on teaching profession, a positive change is seen in the scores of 13 prospective teachers. Since the attitude scores of these prospective teachers at the beginning of their studies at faculty changed positively one year later since starting their teaching training, it is observed that their emotional approach to the teaching profession is increased. Change rates in the scores of 13 prospective teachers were between 26% and 2%. Especially obvious was the change rate in the attitudes of prospective teachers with the Ö14, Ö15 and Ö16 codes being above 20%. When the positive change in the attitudes of these three prospective teachers is evaluated within the framework of education they received in the faculty (see Annex 1), they state that the education they received for 1 year in the faculty of education met their expectations, contributed positively in them and they received an education that led them to read, think and question. From this perspective, it could be said that the cause of the positive change in their attitudes is the quality of education they received in the faculty of education. In the review of opinions of other prospective teachers with a positive change in their attitude scores, only two participants (Ö12 and Ö23) have negative thoughts about the quality of education they received in the faculty. Some expressions from the views of prospective teachers are as follows:

Ö14: "... I'm satisfied with the education in faculty, I can say that it met my expectations. Students are valued and the aim is learning. There is an effort towards reading and questioning. The education fits the university phenomenon. The education is not sloppy at all."

Ö15: "... In general, I believe that the education I receive is good and sufficient. However, provision of a very easy and basic education in some courses lowers the level. Yes, the education I received met my expectations. But it could be better. ..."

Ö16: "... Knowledge I have received from some lecturers changed my perspective on life, people and events. I contribute in myself in terms of education however I am a bit behind in social activities. ..."

A negative change is seen in 14 of the prospective teachers that participated in the study. Thus a decrease occurred in the attitudes of 14 prospective teachers on the teaching profession after they started their education. The rate of change in the attitude scores of 14 prospective teachers varies between -26% and -2%. The greatest change occurred with the Ö28, Ö20 and Ö25 coded prospective teachers and the rate was -20% and greater. When the change in these prospective teachers is evaluated within the framework of education they received in the faculty (see Annex 1), it is seen that opinions of these three prospective teachers on the education were negative (see Annex 1). In general, participants stated that their expectations were not met, they experienced no mental or social change and could not find an answer to the question "How should a teacher be raised?" with the education they received (see Annex 1). From this perspective, cause of the decrease in their attitudes on the teaching profession can be explained with the quality of education they receive. The prospective teachers mentioned in the earlier paragraph who had a positive change in their attitudes on teaching profession emphasized that the education they received in the faculty of education met their expectations in general. When two results are evaluated together, it can be said that the positive or negative change that occurred in the attitudes of prospective teachers is related to the education they received. In the review of opinions of other prospective teachers with a negative change in their attitude scores, it is seen that the participants except for Ö24, Ö9 and Ö10 had negative opinions about the quality of education they received in the faculty. Relevant opinions of the prospective teachers are as follows:

Ö28: “... I definitely do not think that the education I received is sufficient. I even ask myself if this is the university education I should be receiving. How is a teacher raised? I couldn't find an answer to this question for two years here. ...”

Ö20: “... There is nothing done as an activity. Some lecturers teach the subjects very superficially, I have studied the same things at high school. So, what distinguishes this place from a high school? ...”

Ö25: “... They are trying to teach some things in general. Is this general information sufficient? It is a matter of debate. When I look back to see what I've got in my hands now... I see that there is not much. I cannot say that I have improved myself sufficiently in this or that course. ...”

Table 5. Results of changes in the first and second measure mean values related to self-efficacy of prospective teachers

	Self-efficacy 1st Measure mean value	%	Self-efficacy 2nd Measure mean value	%	Change %
ö15	5.58	62	6.67	74.11	12.11
ö10	6.33	70.33	7.29	81	10.67
ö13	7.04	78.22	7.96	88.44	10.22
ö8	7.04	78.22	7.67	85.22	7
ö14	5.92	65.78	6.33	70.33	4.56
ö22	7.33	81.44	7.58	84.22	2.78
ö27	8.75	97.22	8.83	98.11	0.89
ö12	7.92	88	7.96	88.44	0.44
ö19	6.42	71.33	6.42	71.33	0
ö20	8.38	93.11	8.38	93.11	0
ö4	8.08	89.78	8	88.89	-0.89
ö9	6.54	72.67	6.33	70.33	-2.33
ö3	6.88	76.44	6.63	73.67	-2.78
ö26	7.79	86.56	7.54	83.78	-2.78
ö7	6.38	70.89	6	66.67	-4.22
ö16	6.25	69.44	5.83	64.78	-4.67
ö21	8.88	98.67	8.42	93.56	-5.11
ö18	8.04	89.33	7.55	83.89	-5.44
ö23	8.17	90.78	7.67	85.22	-5.56
ö5	8.25	91.67	7.71	85.67	-6
ö1	7.75	86.11	7.17	79.67	-6.44
ö2	7.92	88	7.25	80.56	-7.44
ö28	8.42	93.56	7.71	85.67	-7.89
ö24	8.17	90.78	7.33	81.44	-9.33
ö25	8.38	93.11	7.54	83.78	-9.33
ö17	8.33	92.56	7.46	82.89	-9.67
ö6	7.71	85.67	6.83	75.89	-9.78
ö11	6.88	76.44	5.88	65.33	-11.11

According to the first and second measure scores of prospective teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in terms of the teaching profession, it is seen that there was a positive and negative change in 8 and 18 participants, respectively, and no change in the scores of 2 prospective teachers. It is seen that there was a decrease in the self-efficacy beliefs of majority of prospective teachers after they started their teaching education. The rate of change of the prospective teachers with positive change in self-efficacy beliefs was between 12.11% and 0.44% while such rate was between -11.11% and -0.89% for

the participants with a negative change. The largest positive change occurred in the participants with the codes Ö15, Ö10 and Ö13, which was greater than 10%. When the positive change in these prospective teachers is evaluated within the framework of education they received in the faculty for one year (see Annex 1), they stated that the education they received generally met their expectations and provided them with positive knowledge and skills. From this perspective, it might be said that cause of the positive change in their self-efficacy beliefs is related to the quality of education they received in the faculty of education. Because, the higher quality of education they receive, the more participants will believe that they will be able to fulfill the requirements of teaching profession and feel confident. According to the opinions of other prospective teachers with a positive change, participants except for Ö22 and Ö12 had a positive opinion about the quality of education they received in the faculty. Furthermore, the change in the attitude scores of Ö15 and Ö13 were positive and at a rate of 26% and 8%, respectively, whereas a negative change of -14% was seen in Ö10. It was also observed that there was a negative change in the attitude scores of Ö22, no change in Ö27, and a positive change in all other prospective teachers. Relevant opinions of prospective teachers are as follows:

Ö10: "... I think that the education in faculty is well. I believe that both our major course lecturers and other lecturers raise us with all due knowledge and experience. I do not think that I will have any trouble when I start teaching profession in the future. ... However, I would prefer to attend conferences and panels related to our department or personal development. I would actually like to gain knowledge in other subjects too. ..."

Ö13: "... I think that education I receive is quite sufficient. Various information is given in courses and we have the opportunity to discuss. I'm satisfied with that. However, there are few social activities. Unfortunately, there is nothing we can do except for the courses. ..."

Three prospective teachers with the largest negative change in their self-efficacy beliefs were Ö11, Ö6 and Ö17. Rates of change in the self-efficacy beliefs of these prospective teachers varied between -11.11% and -9.67%. When the change in prospective teachers is evaluated within the framework of education they received in the faculty (see Annex 1), it is seen that opinions of these three prospective teachers on the education they received during the last year were negative (see Annex 1). Participants emphasize that the education they receive did not meet their expectations, and was based on knowledge and rote-learning. It could be said that the confidence of prospective teachers in fulfilling the requirements of their profession decreased, and one reason behind that is the education they receive in the faculty. The change in the attitude of these prospective teachers on teaching profession is observed to be negative. Therefore, positive and negative changes in the self-efficacy beliefs of prospective teachers seem to be in parallel with the changes in their attitudes. According to the opinions of prospective teachers with a negative change in their self-efficacy beliefs on the quality of education they receive in the faculty, opinions of 9 participants were positive while 9 had negative thoughts. And considering the change in their attitude scores, an increase was seen in the attitude scores of 8 prospective teachers while the scores of 10 decreased. Relevant opinions of prospective teachers are as follows:

Ö11: "... Unfortunately, university is not the place we have dreamed of. Quality of education must be increased. Rote-learning based system must be ended - there is just knowledge. ..."

Ö6: "... It has contributed very little in affecting my education technically so far. Education here is only knowledge-based and they continue to make the mistakes that have been made in education until today. ..."

Ö17: "... I definitely don't like it. But I've seen that this problem is almost the same in most of the faculties. But still I wish that our lecturers would say "you are responsible for what I've lectured" instead of giving thick books and saying "you are responsible for these".

Table 6. The results of changes in the first and second measure mean values related to the interest of prospective teachers in education

	Interest 1st Measure mean value	%	Interest 2nd Measure mean value	%	Change %
ö8	2.22	44.4	3.38	67.6	23.2
ö12	3.67	73.4	4.67	93.4	20
ö13	4.17	83.4	5	100	16.6
ö16	3.67	73.4	4.33	86.6	13.2
ö21	4.17	83.4	4.83	96.6	13.2
ö22	4.17	83.4	4.83	96.6	13.2
ö5	4.17	83.4	4.67	93.4	10
ö26	4.5	90	5	100	10
ö17	2.83	56.6	3.17	63.4	6.8
ö1	4	80	4.33	86.6	6.6
ö23	3.33	66.6	3.63	72.6	6
ö7	3.33	66.6	3.5	70	3.4
ö15	3.17	63.4	3.33	66.6	3.2
ö27	3.67	73.4	3.83	76.6	3.2
ö14	3.67	73.4	3.67	73.4	0
ö24	4.67	93.4	4.67	93.4	0
ö18	4.67	93.4	4.5	90	-3.4
ö20	4.5	90	4.33	86.6	-3.4
ö2	3.5	70	3.17	63.4	-6.6
ö4	4.17	83.4	3.83	76.6	-6.8
ö6	3.67	73.4	3.33	66.6	-6.8
ö3	4.5	90	4.05	81	-9
ö19	3.5	70	2.83	56.6	-13.4
ö28	4.33	86.6	3.5	70	-16.6
ö11	3.67	73.4	2.83	56.6	-16.8
ö25	3.67	73.4	2.83	56.6	-16.8
ö9	4.17	83.4	3.17	63.4	-20
ö10	4.5	90	3.17	63.4	-26.6

According to the first and second measure scores of prospective teachers' interest levels in education, it is seen that there was a positive and negative change in 14 and 12 participants, respectively, and no change in the scores of 2 prospective teachers. It is seen that a positive increase occurred in the interest levels of half of the prospective teachers after they started their teaching education. The rate of change of the prospective teachers with positive change in interest levels was between 23.2% and 3.2% while such rate was between -26.6% and -03.4% for the participants with a negative change. The largest positive change occurred in the participants with the codes Ö8, Ö12 and Ö13, which was above 16%. When the change in prospective teachers is evaluated within the framework of education they received in the faculty (see Annex 1), Ö8 and Ö13 had positive thoughts about the teaching education received in the faculty while Ö12 had negative opinions. Prospective teachers with positive opinions emphasized the quality of education and lecturers whereas the participant with negative views stated that expectations related to teacher training were not met. Considering the thoughts of other prospective teachers that had a positive change of 10% or above, all except Ö22 had positive opinions about the education they received in the faculty. Therefore it might be said that the increase in the interest levels of prospective teachers results from the belief that the education received in faculty meets the expectations. Considering the change in the attitude and self-

efficacy belief scores of 3 prospective teachers with the largest change in interest levels, a positive change is seen in both of them. Relevant opinions of the prospective teachers are as follows:

Ö8: “... I'm quite satisfied with the education I have received. I understand the quality of education we are receiving since I also know the education they provide in other faculties. ...”

Ö12: “... Activities performed for the individuals to improve themselves are not sufficient and have not really met my expectations. What matters is not the courses only. Social activities are also important for us to improve ourselves. There are no activities at the university such as conferences or theatres. There is also no lab environment. There aren't sufficient materials for the experiments and observations to be performed. ...”

Five prospective teachers with the largest negative change in their interest levels were Ö10, Ö9, Ö25, Ö11 and Ö28. Rates of change in the interest levels of these prospective teachers varied between -26.6% and -16.6%. When the change in prospective teachers is evaluated within the framework of education they received in the faculty (see Annex 1), it is seen that opinions of Ö9 and Ö10 on the education they received were positive while other three participants had negative thoughts (see Annex 1). The opinions of Ö19 who had a negative change of over 10% were also negative. From this perspective, the cause of the decrease in education-related interest levels of prospective teachers might be the negative thoughts about the education received in faculties. Besides, considering the change in the attitude and self-efficacy beliefs of these prospective teachers, a negative change is seen in the attitude scores of above-mentioned 6 participants. In the self-efficacy belief scores, there was a positive change in the scores of Ö10, no change in the scores of Ö19, and a negative change in the scores of 4 other prospective teachers (Ö9, Ö11, Ö25 and Ö28). Relevant opinions of the prospective teacher are as follows:

Ö9: “... I think that education I received at university is sufficient and improves me. I believe that I have sufficient knowledge on how to behave to children in the future. However, social environment of the university doesn't provide me the university life I've desired. It doesn't let me improve myself in various aspects. ...”

Table 7. Results of changes in the first and second measure mean values related to communication skills of prospective teachers

	Communication 1st Measure mean value	%	Communication 2nd Measure mean value	%	Change %
ö27	3.6	72	4.72	94.4	22.4
ö13	3.84	76.8	4.52	90.4	13.6
ö15	3.52	70.4	3.96	79.2	8.8
ö5	3.8	76	4.16	83.2	7.2
ö12	4.2	84	4.56	91.2	7.2
ö10	3.64	72.8	3.96	79.2	6.4
ö16	3.92	78.4	4.2	84	5.6
ö1	4.2	84	4.4	88	4
ö4	4	80	4.16	83.2	3.2
ö26	4.56	91.2	4.72	94.4	3.2
ö7	3.56	71.2	3.68	73.6	2.4
ö21	4.4	88	4.52	90.4	2.4
ö23	4.08	81.6	4.16	83.2	1.6
ö3	4.12	82.4	4.16	83.2	0.8
ö8	3.8	76	3.8	76	0
ö18	4.56	91.2	4.56	91.2	0
ö19	3.28	65.6	3.28	65.6	0
ö20	4.2	84	4.2	84	0
ö24	4.8	96	4.76	95.2	-0.8
ö14	4.24	84.8	4.12	82.4	-2.4

ö9	3.88	77.6	3.72	74.4	-3.2
ö28	4.52	90.4	4.28	85.6	-4.8
ö22	3.64	72.8	3.36	67.2	-5.6
ö25	4.24	84.8	3.96	79.2	-5.6
ö2	4.12	82.4	3.76	75.2	-7.2
ö6	3.92	78.4	3.56	71.2	-7.2
ö17	4.2	84	3.84	76.8	-7.2
ö11	3.84	76.8	3.32	66.4	-10.4

According to the first and second measure scores of prospective teachers' communication skills, it is seen that there was a positive and negative change in 14 and 10 participants, respectively, and no change in the scores of 4 prospective teachers. It is seen that a positive increase occurred in the communication skills of half of the prospective teachers after they started their teaching education. The rate of change of the prospective teachers with positive change in communication skills was between 22.4% and 0.8% while such rate was between -10.4% and -0.8% for the participants with a negative change. The largest positive change occurred in the participants with the codes Ö27 and Ö13, which was above 10%. When the positive change in these prospective teachers is evaluated within the framework of education they received in the faculty for one year (see Annex 1), it is seen that the education they received met their expectations and they have a positive opinion about the matter. Within this context, the cause of this increase in the communication skills might be related to the quality of education they have received. In the review of change in the scores of attitude, self-efficacy beliefs and education-related interest levels of these prospective teachers, an increase that is parallel with the communication skill scores is observed. No change occurred in the attitude score of Ö27 only. Relevant opinions of the prospective teacher are as follows:

Ö27: "... Courses I have taken so far have met my expectations about my department. Besides, these courses provided me with a different perspective and enriched my thoughts. But I believe everything is up to the student. No matter how much qualified the lecturer might be, the student won't receive sufficient knowledge if he/she doesn't show any efforts. ..."

According to the review of four prospective teachers that had a change in communication skills scores above 7%, it is seen that opinions of three participants except Ö2 are negative about their education (see Annex 1). Especially Ö11 and Ö17 underlined that the socially improving environment at the university is not sufficient. From this perspective, a decrease in the communication skills of prospective teachers might have resulted from the insufficiency of extracurricular activities at the university (activities that improved personal, social or occupational skills). Besides, according to the changes in attitude, self-efficacy belief and education-related interest level scores of these prospective teachers, there was a negative change in the attitude scores of other participants except for Ö2, a negative change in the self-efficacy scores of four prospective teachers, and a negative change in the interest scores of other participants except for Ö17.

Table 8. Comparison of the university placement scores, and change in affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers

	Code Name	Department	University Placement Score	Change in Attitude %	Change in Self-Efficacy %	Change in Interest %	Change in Communication %
High	Ö1	PEM	414.58	-10	-6.44	6.6	4
	Ö2	PEM	374.05	14	-7.44	-6.6	-7.2
	Ö3	PEM	366.91	-10	-2.78	-9	0.8
	Ö4	PEM	351.93	-10	-0.89	-6.8	3.2
Medium	Ö5	PEM	351.702	18	-6	10	7.2
	Ö6	PEM	351.304	-14	-9.78	-6.8	-7.2
	Ö7	PEM	351.01	14	-4.22	3.4	2.4
	Ö8	PEM	345.75	10	7	23.2	0
Low	Ö9	PEM	345.508	-12	-2.33	-20	-3.2
	Ö10	PEM	344.92	-14	10.67	-26.6	6.4
	Ö11	PEM	333.103	-12	-11.11	-16.8	-10.4

	Ö12	PEM	329.48	4	0.44	20	7.2
	Ö13	SS	380.32	8	10.22	16.6	13.6
High	Ö14	SS	377.82	26	4.56	0	-2.4
	Ö15	SS	376.75	26	12.11	3.2	8.8
Medium	Ö16	SS	367.58	22	-4.67	13.2	5.6
	Ö17	SS	367.42	-12	-9.67	6.8	-7.2
	Ö18	SS	366.97	2	-5.44	-3.4	0
Low	Ö19	SS	363.24	-6	0	-13.4	0
	Ö20	SS	322.56	-22	0	-3.4	0
High	Ö21	T	418.65	2	-5.11	13.2	2.4
	Ö22	T	412.02	-18	2.78	13.2	-5.6
	Ö23	T	404.77	10	-5.56	6	1.6
Medium	Ö24	T	404.71	-2	-9.33	0	-0.8
	Ö25	T	404.27	-20	-9.33	-16.8	-5.6
	Ö26	T	402.14	4	-2.78	10	3.2
Low	Ö27	T	379.86	0	0.89	3.2	22.4
	Ö28	T	364.96	-26	-7.89	-16.6	-4.8

In the review of university placement scores of the participating prospective teachers and the change in their affective characteristics and communication skill levels, a positive change was observed in the affective characteristics of participants that were placed in the social sciences department with the highest score. The lower the placement scores of prospective teachers got, the more negative changes were observed. A positive change was seen in the interest dimension of affective characteristics of prospective teachers that were placed in Turkish education program with the highest score. No systematic change occurred in the other programs and dimensions.

Discussion, Conclusion and Suggestions

According to the results obtained in this study which was conducted to analyze the change in affective characteristics (attitude, interest and self-efficacy beliefs) and communication skills of prospective teachers, it would be right to say that prospective teachers started their teaching education with high affective characteristics and communication skills. Prospective teachers that start their education with high affective characteristics and communication skills is an expected and desired situation in terms of teaching profession. This is important in terms of enthusiasm, positive approach and self-confidence of prospective teachers towards the teaching profession. Considering the teacher training within system integrity, it might be thought that a strong input dimension can affect the process and output dimensions positively. This study's result on the high attitude levels of prospective teachers was parallel with the results of other studies conducted in the field (Baykara-Pehlivan, 2008; Akkaya, 2009; Doğan and Çoban, 2009; Eret Orhan and Ok, 2014) whereas it contradicted with the results of Dadandı, Kalyoncu and Yazıcı (2016) and Şahin and Şahin (2017). Ekinci (2017) concluded that internal factors of prospective teachers were highly effective in their choice of profession. According to the study, the internal factors are largely their emotional approaches towards the profession, i.e. attitudes. From this perspective, results of Ekinci's (2017) study are parallel with the findings of this study. In addition, Şahin and Şahin (2017) concluded that self-efficacy beliefs of primary school prospective teachers were at a medium level, which did not comply with the results obtained from this study. The result on high communication skill levels of prospective teachers obtained from the study is also similar to the results of other studies conducted in the field (Pehlivan, 2005; Çevik, 2011; Milli and Yağcı, 2017).

Another result of the study showed that there was a decrease in the attitude and self-efficacy levels, an increase in the communication skills levels and no change in the interest levels of prospective teachers over time. Research results showed that the changes occurred within a small amount. The results show that there was no significant difference between the first and second measure scores from the participant's measure instruments. The attitude dimension of this result is parallel with the study of Başbay, Ünver and Bümen (2009). Researchers concluded that attitudes of prospective teachers on teaching profession didn't change significantly during their education programs. Nevertheless, this result contradicted with some studies (Çakır, Kan and Sünbül, 2006;

Peker and Tambağ, 2007) in the field. In the studies of Çakır, Kan and Sünbül (2006) and Peker and Tambağ (2007), they concluded that teacher training programs affected the attitudes of prospective teachers on the profession positively.

There was no significant difference between the first and second measure scores for affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers. This shows that teacher training programs did not contribute positively in the improvement of attitudes, self-efficacy beliefs, education-related interests and communication skills of prospective teachers. However, in the analyses performed individually, it was seen that some prospective teachers had significant changes in their affective characteristics and communicational skills. While there was a positive change in the attitude scores of 8 prospective teachers at a rate of 10% and above, 12 participants had a negative change in their scores at a rate of 10% and greater. Opinions of prospective teachers with a positive change in their attitudes on teaching profession generally had positive thoughts about the teaching education they received in the faculty of education whereas participants with a negative change had negative opinions about teacher training. Therefore, the cause of change in the attitudes of prospective teachers was related to whether their expectations from the teacher training they received were met. Within this context, education programs caused changes in the attitudes of prospective teachers to the extent that their expectations are met. In self-efficacy beliefs, a positive change occurred at a rate above 10% in the scores of three prospective teachers while a negative change occurred at a rate above 10% in the score of only one participant. Opinions of prospective teachers with positive or negative change about the teacher training are generally related to the direction of change. In other words, the opinions of prospective teachers with a positive change in their self-efficacy beliefs are also positive about the teacher training. A cause and effect relationship can be established between the change in scores and thoughts.

While a positive change occurred at a rate above 10% in the education-related interest levels of eight prospective teachers, a decrease above 10% was seen in the interest levels of six participants. In the comparison of change in the scores of prospective teachers with their thoughts about teacher training, opinions of prospective teachers with an increased level of interest are also positive. As such, prospective teachers with a decreased level of interest have negative opinions about teacher training. Accordingly, the cause of the increase or decrease in the level of prospective teachers' interest is related to whether their education meets their expectations. In the communication skills dimension, there are few prospective teachers with a change of 10% or greater. While the opinions of prospective teachers with an increased change of 10% or greater were positive, the only participant with a decreased change greater than 10% had negative views. Besides, in the comparison of placement scores of prospective teachers compared to the relevant programs and the change in their affective characteristics and communication skills, the change in the affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers that were placed in the social sciences education program with high scores was positive. The direction of change differed as the scores of prospective teachers in this program became lower. Prospective teachers that were placed in the Turkish education program with highest scores had positive changes only in their relevant levels. There was no systematic change in other programs and dimensions.

In view of these results, the following suggestions can be made: The negative change in the affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers on an individual basis is mostly in parallel with their thoughts on the education that they receive in their faculties. Therefore, increasing the quality of education received by prospective teachers in their faculties is of great importance. The most common problematic points experienced by prospective teachers about the teaching education are few numbers of lecturers, knowledge-based courses, and the few social, cultural and educational activities provided for their personal and occupational improvement. The few number of lecturers in faculties means that some lecturers give courses that are not in their major fields. This might lead to courses given without quality. Therefore, increasing the number of lecturers is important. Besides, improvement of physical and technical infrastructures of faculties may also lead to more quality courses. Courses given at schools are not necessarily the only way of providing

professional qualities to prospective teachers. Increasing the number and quality of extracurricular activities may also affect the change in affective characteristics positively.

It is also seen in this study that there are positive and negative changes in the affective characteristics and communication skills of prospective teachers. Reasons of the positive and negative changes can be researched prospectively in more detail. Furthermore, repetition of the study with a larger sample seems important in terms of generalization of results.

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Annex 1. Findings related to personal information and measure results of prospective teachers

Name	Department	Gender	ÖSYM	First year				Second year				Opinions
				Attitude	Self-efficacy	Interest	Communication	Attitude	Self-efficacy	Interest	Communication	
Ö1	PEM	Female	414.58	5	7.75	4	4.20	4.50	7.17	4.33	4.4	- Education I received partially met my expectations. - Few number of lecturers. - Same teachers giving different courses. - Inability to take optional courses
Ö2	PEM	Male	374.05	3.50	7.92	3.50	4.12	4.20	7.25	3.17	3.76	- I'm satisfied with the education provided. - I received education based on thinking apart from rote-learning.
Ö3	PEM	Female	366.91	4.50	6.88	4.50	4.12	4.00	6.63	4.05	4.16	- Education is insufficient. - Knowledge-based. - The education that I received didn't contribute much. - It is like high school.
Ö4	PEM	Female	351.93	4.30	8.08	4.17	4	3.80	8	3.83	4.16	- The education that I received didn't contribute much. - Didn't meet my expectations. - We do not enjoy the courses. There is just knowledge...
Ö5	PEM	Male	351.702	3.70	8.25	4.17	3.80	4.6	7.71	4.67	4.16	- Didn't meet my expectations. - It is good that courses are based on producing ideas or solutions.
Ö6	PEM	Male	351.304	2.80	7.71	3.67	3.92	2.1	6.83	3.33	3.56	- The education I've received contributed very little. - A knowledge-based education.
Ö7	PEM	Female	351.01	2.60	6.38	3.33	3.56	3.30	6	3.50	3.68	- My education met my expectations - I believe that I have received a detailed education. - It enabled me to improve in terms of different areas of improvement.
Ö8	PEM	Male	345.75	3.30	7.04	2.22	3.80	3.80	7.67	3.38	3.8	- I am satisfied with the education. - There is quality education, lecturers are very good, etc...
Ö9	PEM	Female	345.508	4	6.54	4.17	3.88	3.4	6.33	3.17	3.72	- I believe that my education is sufficient. - Social activities are insufficient. - Inadequate activities do not let me improve myself.
Ö10	PEM	Female	344.92	4.50	6.33	4.50	3.64	3.8	7.29	3.17	3.96	- Didn't meet my expectations. My education is good - The social environment is weak
Ö11	PEM	Female	333.103	3.70	6.88	3.67	3.84	3.1	5.88	2.83	3.32	- Didn't meet my expectations - Education is based on rote-learning. - The social environment is not good - The library is weak
Ö12	PEM	Female	329.48	3.70	7.92	3.67	4.20	3.9	7.96	4.67	4.56	- Didn't meet my expectations. - Teaching materials are weak. - There are no activities such as conferences or theatres.
Ö13	SS	Female	380.32	3.70	7.04	4.17	3.84	4.1	7.96	5	4.52	- I think that the education I received is quite sufficient.

												- Socially weak...
Ö14	SS	Female	377.82	2.30	5.92	3.67	4.24	3.60	6.33	3.67	4.12	- I am satisfied with the education. - Students are valued. - There is an effort for reading and questioning.
Ö15	SS	Female	376.75	2.50	5.58	3.17	3.52	3.8	6.67	3.33	3.96	- I believe the education is sufficient apart from some courses I take. Lessons are given simply and superficially in those courses.
Ö16	SS	Female	367.58	3.20	6.25	3.67	3.92	4.3	5.83	4.33	4.2	- My expectations are met at a good level - Social environment is weak
Ö17	SS	Female	367.42	4.40	8.33	2.83	4.20	3.8	7.46	3.17	3.84	- Didn't meet my expectations. - Social environment is weak.
Ö18	SS	Female	366.97	4.80	8.04	4.67	4.56	4.9	7.55	4.50	4.56	- Met my expectations - I like the teaching approach of lecturers. There is no knowledge-based approach. They lead us to think more.
Ö19	SS	Female	363.24	4.40	6.42	3.50	3.28	4.10	6.42	2.83	3.28	- Didn't meet my expectations. - It is the same as high school. - Totally rote-learning...
Ö20	SS	Female	322.56	4.30	8.38	4.50	4.20	3.20	8.38	4.33	4.2	- Didn't meet my expectations - Courses are totally based on knowledge - I don't think that it contributes in my mental and social improvement
Ö21	T	Female	418.65	4.90	8.88	4.17	4.40	5	8.42	4.83	4.52	- Met my expectations - I received a good education
Ö22	T	Female	412.02	4.10	7.33	4.17	3.64	3.20	7.58	4.83	3.36	- Didn't meet my expectations. - It seems like the education will not provide anything for me except for the courses
Ö23	T	Female	404.77	1.70	8.17	3.33	4.08	2.20	7.67	3.63	4.16	- Didn't meet my expectations. - And I am pessimistic about whether it will in the future...
Ö24	T	Female	404.71	4.70	8.17	4.67	4.80	4.6	7.33	4.67	4.76	- The education is good and has met my expectations - Contribution to socializing and extra-curricular activities is weak
Ö25	T	Female	404.27	4.80	8.38	3.67	4.24	3.80	7.54	2.83	3.96	- Didn't meet my expectations. - I see that nothing has changed when I look back at last year.
Ö26	T	Female	402.14	4.80	7.79	4.50	4.56	5	7.54	5	4.72	- Didn't meet my expectations. - I think it will contribute more and more day by day
Ö27	T	Male	379.86	4.20	8.75	3.67	3.60	4.2	8.83	3.83	4.72	- Met my expectations - Field-related courses provided me with a different perspective but student's approach is also important. Students must show some effort.
Ö28	T	Female	364.96	4.80	8.42	4.33	4.52	3.50	7.71	3.50	4.28	- Didn't meet my expectations. - I study in the faculty of education but haven't found a response to the question "How should a teacher be raised?".

Roma Children: Victims of Social Injustices in Education

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Abstract

In this qualitative study aiming to identify the opinions of postgraduate students studying in İzmir, Turkey about the schooling practices of Roma children from social justice perspective, case study design was used. The study group included 46 post graduate students. As result of the study, it was identified that most of the participants agreed that the Roma children have limited access to schooling for such reasons as economics, Roma culture and the family structure, exclusion practices towards them, lack of social state and learned desperateness and made some suggestions accordingly. It can be argued that the disadvantaged status of Roma children and the inequities they exposed to manifest themselves as economic, cultural and thus participative injustices in education. Accordingly, improving the socio-economic conditions of Roma families thus children, valuing the culture of Roma and including Roma families and children in the education system were recommended.

Keywords: Social justice, Roma children, schooling

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Introduction

The relationships among culture, race and citizenship have been the main point of debates about the goals of social work and social policy in USA (Katz, 2001) and all around the world. So education, one of the most important apparatus of social policy, has played a major role in the integration of all children by developing social justice discourses (Sleeter, 2001). Correspondingly, a social justice orientation in the works of educational researchers started to manifest itself (Cook and Hegtvedt, 1983; Griffiths, 1998; Brown and Ed, 2002; Gardner and Crockwell, 2006; Artiles, Harris-Murri and Rostenberg, 2006; Chiu and Walker, 2007; Eryaman, 2009; Gillmore and Sullivan, 2014) and the language of social justice research has increasingly been embraced by the researchers with such terms as equity and opportunity (Larson and Murtadha, 2002). Since such factors as social class, race and ethnicity have been among the most important determinants of the benefits that students gain from their school experience (Villegas, 2007), people have begun talking more about the integration of minority children into the education system (Gerganov, Varbanova and Kyuchukov, 2005). As one of the minority groups, the Roma communities have been characterized mostly by experiences of exclusion and rejection (Symeou, Luciak and Gobbo, 2009) and Roma children have had to face the general requirements of schooling while carrying a number of historically accumulated social, cultural and economic disadvantages (Roth and Moison, 2011, 501). These social, cultural and economic disadvantages have reproduced injustices and “despite efforts to address such injustices and protect the rights of Roma communities, they continue to remain marginalized and ghettoized in contemporary Europe (Symeou, Luciak and Gobbo, 2009) and in Turkey.

Literature Review

Social Justice

The concept of social justice which has close relationships with such discourses as multiculturalism, critical race theory and democratic education (Larson and Murtadha, 2002) has been described as “both a process and a goal” with the ultimate aim being “full and equal participation of all groups in a society that is mutually shaped to meet their needs” (Bell, 1997, 3). According to Chiu and Walker (2007, 725), social justice is primarily concerned with positively equalising and improving the opportunities and prospects for the disadvantaged and disaffected members of society and disadvantage is often linked to race, ethnicity, culture, social class, gender and family structure. There are certain frameworks and dimensions dealing with the issue of social justice in the literature and Nancy Fraser’s dimensions of justice is one of the most familiar ones. According to Fraser (2003), justice and thus social justice should be considered in terms of redistribution, recognition and representation.

Redistribution called as distributive or economic justice which is derived from the idea of Rawls’s justice theory, refers to equality of opportunity. It is the most stressed dimension of social justice and related to “a more just distribution of resources and wealth” (Fraser, 2003), allocating resources and rewards equitably (Hyttén and Bettez, 2011) and the absence of exploitation, economic marginalisation and deprivation (Young, 1990). From the perspective of education, redistribution is the equitable distribution of intellectual matters as well as monetary (Cazden, 2012) and access to quality education (Tikly and Barrett, 2009). Redistribution, distributive justice in education is “the equalisation of resources available to all students and schools” (Bates, 2005, 11). Such issues as allocating information, communication and data unequitably and lack of quality and appropriateness in the provision of resources and opportunities (O’Neill, Woods and Webster, 2004) can be exemplified among the problems that can be encountered in the field of education.

Whereas redistribution is related to a vision of justice aiming to establish social equality through the redistribution of goods guaranteeing liberty, recognition defines the conditions of a just society through the aim of recognizing the individual dignity of all individuals (Honneth, 2004). Recognition which is also called as cultural justice is accepted as the foundation of social justice

(Bates, 2005) but it's not stressed as much as redistribution. Its goal is a "difference-friendly world, where assimilation to majority of dominant cultural norms is no longer the price of equal respect" (Fraser, 2003, 3) and it includes claims for the recognition of the distinctive perspectives of ethnic, racial and sexual minorities, as well as gender difference. According to Fraser (1997, 14), cultural justice involves a principle of recognition that seeks to redress cultural domination, non-recognition and disrespect. As places enabling students to be partners in social interaction, schools are both institutions through which recognition claims are made and which actively create status inequalities. Recognition is related to the need and the right to education of minority children to be aware of their cultural heritage and to be proud of their ethnicity in classes and schools feeling at home, not discriminated against and not inferior to children of other ethnicities (Roth and Moisa, 2011).

Representation or participatory justice requires social arrangements that permit all to participate as peers in social life. Overcoming injustice means dismantling institutionalized obstacles that prevent some people from participating on a par with others as full partners in social interaction (Fraser, 2008, 16). Young (1990, 53). treats the participatory justice within the context of marginalization and powerlessness and by participatory justice she refers to the extent to which groups of people are "expelled from useful participation in social life". Participatory justice can realize itself in such conditions of democracy as "participating in forming and running institutions, and receiving recognition for such participation; playing and communicating with others, and expressing our experience, feelings, and perspective on social life in contexts where others can listen (Young, 1990, 37). Within the context of education, ordinary political representation can be interpreted regarding debates around good governance in education and can include issues such as participation, voice, accountability and decision making at different levels of the education system (Fraser, 2008).

Most of the researches about social justice deal with the issues of allocation (Tyler and Smith, 1995) and grounded in the distributive justice (Young, 1990); however, it's impossible to build a sustainable social justice ideal without taking cultural and participative, dimensions of social justice. According to Fraser, only the combination of economic and cultural justice can guarantee the 'participatory equality' (Honneth, 2004, 353) and participatory justice is a prerequisite for realising issues of redistribution and recognition (Tikly and Barrett, 2009, 5). Redistribution, recognition and representation are all vital to determine equality and justice perceptions of individuals in education. Lynch and Baker (2005, 132) argue that there should also be equality in such dimensions as "respect and recognition; love, care and solidarity; power, and working and learning" to ensure justice in education. However, some groups suffer from the lack of economic, cultural and participative injustices in the normal processes of everyday life (Young, 1990) manifesting itself in education with the increase of exclusion and decrease in engagement with learning and exaggerating the differences in performance between advantaged and disadvantaged groups (Bates, 2005). Within this context, Roma people can be asserted to be one of the largest ethnic groups exposing to distributive, cultural and participative injustices in education all around the world.

Roma Aspects of Injustices in Education

Of the groups suffering from all the ill effects of marginalisation and exclusion related to their community (İlik, 2016), the Roma People are argued to be the most socially excluded members of society with a number of 15 million all around the world, almost 9 million of whom are in Europe and 2.5 million are in Turkey (İlik, 2016; Marsh, 2008). The history of Roma has mostly been characterized by experiences of rejection, exclusion, sterilization, slavery, banishment and even genocide (Symeou, Luciak and Gobbo, 2009; Murray, 2012). After centuries of oppression as slaves or nomads and persecution as an inferior race, the Roma are still suffering from high levels of poverty, poor housing, unemployment and low education (Fleck and Rughinis, 2007). According to the report of the European Commission (European Commission, 2011: 173/4), 'Roma in Europe face prejudice, intolerance, discrimination and social exclusion in their daily lives. They are marginalised and live in very poor socio-economic conditions' and as a result of this "Roma children are vulnerable and exposed to poor health, poor housing, poor nutrition, exclusion, discrimination, racism and violence"

(European Commission, 2013: 8). This exclusion is manifesting itself in educational practices as well and affecting children's schooling experiences to a great extent.

The disadvantaged status of the Roma is reflected in the educational system in many ways: the incomplete registration of Roma children in primary schools, their extremely high drop-out rate in the compulsory school system, the negligible number of Roma students attending secondary schools and universities, as well as the lack of classes in Romany language and culture due to their disadvantaged socio-economic conditions, the indifference of Roma families to education and particular educational practices of segregation carried out in many schools (Pasavec and Hrvatic, 2000, 94; McDonald, 2009; Biro, Smederevac and Tovilović, 2009; Roth and Moisa, 2009; Greenberg, 2010). In addition, most of the non-Romas' having such stereotypes as "the disaffection with school among Roma is natural (Flecha and Soler, 2013) and Roma people exclude themselves from the mainstream education to preserve their culture (İlik, 2016)" have also contributed to the educational exclusion of the Roma children to a great extent.

International organisations such as the United Nations (UN), Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) and many others criticized the treatments towards Roma people in Europe and attempted to offer various solutions. There have been several initiatives to improve the educational conditions of Roma children within the paradigms of integration and inclusion recently. However, the full equity and participation of Roma children to education is still a dream and most of the Roma children continue to be marginalized and remain among the lowest academic achievers all around the world. There is a gap between what is stated in educational policy documents and the reality of schools regarding Roma children (Symeou, Luciak and Gobbo, 2009). It's indicated by several reports that the inclusive approach isn't reinforced, integrated schools and classes can't reach their goal; rather the educational practices turn out to support segregation (Roth and Moisa, 2011) and the methods applied to civilize the Roma reinforce this segregation to a great deal. Within this context, some practices or methods such as grouping Roma children in the same classes having lower education level (Roth and Moisa, 2011), enrolling Roma children into special schools for children with mental retardation (Vincze and Harabula, 2008) reproduce the existing exclusion of Roma.

Within the context of Turkey, only Armenian, Rum and Jewish are accepted as minorities and the legislations related to the protection of minorities are applied to only these three communities. However, other minority groups such as Syrians, Protestant Christians, Kurds, Laz and Romas can't benefit from the rights laid down in international mechanisms (Kaya, 2012) and the right of education is one of the most important rights that Roma children are deprived of. The right of education in Turkey is secured with the 42th article of the Constitution and 7th article of National Education Basic Law. However, Roma children continue to be among the most unattached (Akkan, Deniz and Ertan, 2011) and disadvantaged groups to education (Alp and Taştan, 2011). There have been serious problems in the schooling of Roma children due to the reality of poverty and exclusive practices positioning the Roma at the bottom of social hierarchy manifesting themselves with such attributed traits as "fickle", "superficial" and even "guilty" and "immoral" by most non-Roma people (Gökçen and Öney, 2008). In spite of compulsory education system, the problems such as absenteeism and school dropout in high levels, exclusion from the process of schooling on the grounds of child labour and child marriage are common among Roma children (Akgün, 2004; Yavuzak Taban, 2010; Akkan, Deniz and Ertan, 2011; Diktaş, Deniz and Balcıoğlu, 2016; İlik, 2016; Tor, 2017). The education level of most Roma children who can receive education is on the primary school level and not schooling the girls is a common tendency among Roma families (Alp and Taştan, 2011, 33). Even if the Roma children receive higher levels of education, they encounter social exclusion and unemployment (İlik, 2016, 35) and this makes the Roma families prefer not to school their children. The principle of accessibility in education requires the prohibition of discrimination in access to the right of education and taking the necessary precautions to enable equality of opportunity for every member of society (Karan, 2017). However, the schools where the Roma people mostly live expose to several disadvantages since the basic requirements of the schools aren't met by the state and the school administrators have to raise funds from parents. Taken the reality of poverty Roma parents expose into

consideration, the disadvantageous situation of schools reproduce the inequalities and injustices once more.

As to the researches carried out regarding the education of Roma children, it's identified that the researches are mostly within the context of inclusive education or education for all (Booth and Ainscow, 2002; Akkan, Deniz and Ertan, 2011). However, it's hardly impossible to develop an equality discourse without referring to justice issues as the basis of equality. Inclusion, thus inclusive educational practices, require not only "bringing together children with different levels of ability, cultural backgrounds and socio-economic status in the same schools and classrooms" (Roth and Moisa, 2011, 511) but also a distributive, cultural and participative justice in education, a more broad perspective in the discourse of equality and thus democracy. In this respect, this paper aims to identify the opinions of postgraduate students studying in the Institute of Educational Sciences in a university in İzmir, Turkey about the schooling practices of Roma children from social justice perspective with a focus on the equal distribution of resources and opportunities; the extent to which rights and diversities of Roma children are recognised in education and thus the nature of Roma parents' and children's participation in the education.

Method

In this qualitative study, case study design was used. The key feature of case study design is to examine single or several cases in detail (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005) and to discuss the factors related to a case with a holistic approach (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007; Creswell, 2007). The study group was determined through maximum variety sampling method with an aim to generate a relatively small sample and reflect the variety of the participants as much as possible and identify different aspects of the problem according to this variety (Creswell, 2007; Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005). Within this context, 46 post graduate students, 26 of whom are MA and 20 of whom are PhD students studying in the Institute of Educational Sciences in Dokuz Eylül University, 24 of whom females and 22 of whom are males with different subject areas were chosen.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data of the research was collected by means of a semi-structured interview form including questions about the access of Roma children to schooling. This form was delivered to the participants by hand in January and the importance of their sincere opinions for the research was emphasized. Data analysis was performed in a descriptive way referring to the statements of the participants and the language used, the characteristics of the statements, symbolic narration and accommodation (Kümbetoğlu, 2005). The data were transferred to the computer and the replies of the participants were organized. The data was read several times, the similar and different point of views in the data were identified and irrelevant statements were sorted out. The statements that would be cited were chosen and presented referring to their original content. Also, before the analysis process, each participant was given a number and coded as MA (Master of Arts) and PhD (Doctorate); M (males), F (females) and EA (Educational Administration), SCG (Psychological Counselling and Guidance), T (Turkish Teaching), SE (Special Education), P (Physics Teaching), H (History), CE (Computer education and instructional technology). First, the researchers performed the analysis independently and later they discussed, evaluated and agreed on the themes.

Findings

As for the access of Roma children to schooling, it was identified that while most of the participants (n: 41) asserted that Roma children can't access to education due to various reasons; some participants (n: 5) stated that there isn't discrimination based on ethnicity in Turkey. The participants' opinions within this context are as follows:

“Our schools provide a suitable environment for only Turkish-Muslim-Sunni-heterosexual-male individuals as in all Turkish public institutions. I think the problem of nonexistence of minorities in public institutions and therefore schools has several reasons” (7F, PCG, MA).

“I don’t think there is such kind of a discrimination. Successful students are appreciated and respected everywhere. I think Roma children or other children from different ethnic origins abuse that. Unfortunately, those who don’t obey the rules enmesh in this situation all over the World” (23M, EA, MA).

The disadvantaged status of Roma children in terms of access to education in Turkey was revealed in several other studies in Turkey (Akgün, 2004; Akkan, Deniz and Ertan, 2011; Uğurlu, 2013; Çelik and Tar, 2015; Genç, Taylan and Barış, 2015; Diktaş, Deniz and Balcıoğlu, 2016; Tor, 2017). The opinions of the participants regarding the reasons preventing Roma children from access to schooling are presented in the following table.

Table 1. The reasons preventing Roma children from access to schooling

Reasons	N
Economic factors	9
Roma culture, lifestyle and family structure	7
Bias, discrimination and exclusion	7
Lack of social state	7
Learned hopelessness	5
Total	35

As seen in Table 1, economic factors constitute the biggest barrier which prevents Roma children from accessing to schooling. The participants described these factors as poverty, income equality and the obligation to work as a child labourer. One participant expressed her opinions within this context like this:

“I witnessed in my both personal and vocational life that Roma children started to sell flowers by dropping out the school or married by eloping. Because unfortunately, Roma individuals are prevented from finding jobs and being employed” (32F, PCG, PhD).

In addition to economic factors, Romas’ introverted cultural structure; their unsteady family structure, demonstrating itself with travelling all the time and uneducated Roma families who ignore education, don’t serve as a model for their children, consider children as a means of income and make their children marry at an early age, emerged as one of the reasons of Roma children’s limited access to schooling. It has been revealed in several studies both in Turkey and abroad that Romas’ unique culture and life style and parenting traditions have been significant determiners of Roma children’s schooling practices (Akgün, 2004; Eyüboğlu, 2007; Symeou, Luciak and Gobbo, 2009; Biro, Smederevac and Tovilović, 2009; Roth and Moisa, 2011; Orçan, Çiçekler and Arı, 2014; Genç, Taylan and Barış, 2015; Diktaş, Deniz and Balcıoğlu, 2016).

Also, Roma children’s exposure to discriminatory behaviour of principals, teachers and other students during their educational life and later exposure to bias and discrimination during the employment process were found to be another determinant of their limited access to education that cause them to feel excluded and alienate themselves from the school environment. One participant asserted her opinions as following:

“There are some common bias in our society. Unfortunately, these bias appear in schools as well. Roma, Kurdish and Armenian students are in a constant struggle against both different attitudes of their teachers and their friends’ bullying. This estranges them from education and supports the beliefs of families regarding schools. This is a vicious circle” (17F, EA MA).

Within this context, it's interesting to find that there are discriminative statements in the participants own discourses:

I know some Roma people who are educated and become civil servants. Even more, one of them became a member of Parliament in the latest elections. I don't agree on the common belief that Romas face discrimination. This is completely related to Roman culture and life styles of families. I can exemplify Romas' view of life with such kind of a narration: "One of the Romas studied and became qaimaqam (a deputy governor in Turkey), hankered after tambour while inspecting the city". [a humiliating statement] (43M, T, PhD).

Within the context of discrimination and segregation towards Roma children, it's revealed in several studies in Turkey that what removed Roma children from school is the exclusive practices towards them. Roma children stated that they often disguised themselves as non-Roma children didn't want to play with them, they also exposed to teachers' and school administrators' discriminative behaviours and attitudes (Akkan, Deniz and Ertan, 2011; Demirel, 2012; Orçan, Çiçekler and Arı, 2014; Çelik and Tar, 2015; Genç, Taylan and Barış, 2015; Diktaş, Deniz and Balcıoğlu, 2016) .

Some of the participants discussed the drawbacks of Roma children to schooling in macro level and adressed these drawbacks or reasons within the framework of lack of social state. They asserted that the state don't provide employment opportunities; the problems in disadvantaged districts aren't solved; coercive measures to provide Roma children with access to education aren't implemented with political anxieties; there are antidemocratic administration practices such as not letting Roma children speak their mother tongue and the inefficiency of student follow-up projects to solve the drop out problems of them.

According to the opinions of the participants, all the factors mentioned above cause Roma families and children to have such beliefs as they will already fail and even if they are succesful, they will have difficulty in finding jobs; in other words they feel learned desperateness, have prejudices towards education system itself and prefer to opt themselves out of schooling practices.

The recommendations of the participants regarding to improve the access Roma children to schooling are presented in the following table:

Table 2. Recommendations regarding to improve the access of Roma children to schooling

Recommendations	n
Social state and equal rights	10
Recommendations for Roma families	7
Recommendations for educationalists and educational researchers	5
Total	22

As seen in Table 2, the participants emphasized the importance of social state and equal rights on a large scale. They suggested that joint projects with municipalities, institutions and foundations should be developed to find solutions to the employment problem of Roma people; a more democratic and secular understanding of education should be adopted and within this context, compulsory education practice should be functionalized; various policies to enable Roma children to attend schools should be encouraged; the education system and curriculum should be flexed with such practices as selective courses at flexible hours, more emphasis on music and physical education courses, training for secure job opportunities with informal education practices after school. The opinions of one participant regarding this issue is like that:

The situation of Roma children is due to the antidemocratic structure of the administration. I think ethnicity constitutes the resource of polarization. Equality of opportunity in education must be enabled. Roma people don't think there is an objective education approach. They feel excluded. Democratic and secular understanding of education must be universalized. They should be able to feel

free in terms of expressing themselves and defend themselves against discriminative approaches. National identity must be blended with ethnic identity and equality must be provided” (30F, S, MA).

The participants argued that Roma families themselves have important roles to improve the opportunities of Roma children to access to schooling. They suggested that the families should strive hard to enhance their education level and change their conscious and attitudes towards education system; attempt to adapt to social structure by protecting their ethnicity and as a result demand the change themselves. One of the participants expressed his opinions with those statements:

As a teacher, I agree on the evaluation that Roma children are among the disadvantaged groups in terms of access to schooling. However, I think that these obstacles will be overcome progressively with the education of families initially and later including children in social inclusion policies (23M, EA, MA).

Lastly, participants made some suggestions for the educationalists and educational researchers as well and suggested that educationalists should be objective; show Roma people who are successful in their educational life as role models and thus Roma children should be included in education in some other way. The participants also suggested that educational researchers should make researches about the views of minority students and families towards education system and schools; they should examine what educational administrators think about the education of minority groups and how politicians deal with this situation.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify the opinions of postgraduate students about the education practices of Roma children from a social justice perspective. According to results of this study, it was found out that almost all of the participants agreed that the Roma children have limited access to schooling for such reasons as economics, Roma culture and the family structure, exclusion practices towards them, lack of social state and learned desperateness and of all these reasons, the economic factors are the most emphasized one by the participants. It's stressed in various researches in the literature that the schooling problems of Roma children are a direct consequence of the reality of poverty and their disadvantaged socioeconomic conditions (Posavec and Hrvatic, 2000; Biro, Smederevac and Tovilović, 2009; Symeou, Luciak and Gobbo, 2009). According to Connell (1994), while poverty is a result of maldistribution of resources and wealth in industrial countries, it's a result of lack of resources and wealth in the third world countries. Thus, it can be asserted that Turkey which is somewhere between an industrial and third world country is experiencing both maldistribution and lack of wealth and the minorities get the least slice of the cake. It's identified in many studies both in Turkey and abroad that the most prominent factor of social exclusion is poverty (Barness, 2002; Genç, Taylan and Barış, 2015) and what determines the schooling experiences of Roma children is economic insufficiency (Akgün, 2004; Biro, Smederevac and Tovilović, 2009; Akkan. Deniz and Ertan 2011; European Commission, 2011; Uğurlu, 2013; Diktaş, Deniz and Balcıoğlu, 2016; Tor, 2017) manifesting itself with having difficulties in covering the costs of schooling (uniform, books, computer, etc), finding pocket money, the inefficiency of opportunities and environments to study, having to work with the mentality that “schooling is impractical and ineffective for real life as it restrains them to contribute to family economy” (Cozma, Cucos and Momanu, 2000). Within this context, the economic insufficiency of Roma people occupies an important place in the injustice redistribution policies.

Actually, segregation of Roma children is discrimination against both the individual child and its ethnic community (Atger, 2009). In addition to not being recognised within the mainstream education system, the Roma culture is mostly seen as something inferior (Georgiadis and Zisimos, 2012) and labelled as black sheep with the humiliating traits attributed to them by the society. Although the emphasis on cultural rights strengthen policies for accepting diversity, recognition (Bates, 2005), and education is accepted as the path to emancipate from discrimination and dispossession by many minority ethnic groups worldwide (Georgiadis and Zisimos, 2012), the full

participation and access of Roma children in education has still been an ideal and Roma children rarely reach their full academic potential, and very few of them attain advanced education degrees (Symeou, Luciak and Gobbo, 2009). Therefore, the schools have been places reproducing cultural injustices rather paths to emancipate from discrimination. Notwithstanding this, Roma children are mostly blamed for their cultural characteristics and family life structures as a drawback to their integration into the school system (McDonald, 2009; Roth and Moisa, 2011; Georgiadis and Zisimos, 2012; Çelik and Tar, 2015). Not participating in education is mostly accepted as a characteristic of Romani culture and it's thought something outside of their systems of values (Divani, 2001: 11). However, it should be born in mind that most mainstream schools aren't welcoming and they are insensitive to the needs of Roma children in terms of curriculum, materials, assesment practices and teaching strategies. Also, the teachers mostly lack of necessary knowledge and training as to the culture and family structure of Roma children (McDonald, 2009; Miskovic, 2009) and they feel discriminated against or punished by having to work in those schools and call these schools as the places of exile (Erdeniz, 2005; as quoted in Orçan, Çiçekler and Arı, 2014). In addition to these, blaming Roma children, actually the victims, for their schooling practices "overlooks the economic and social conditions of many members of Roma groups and their relation to educational failure / success, while it turns a blind eye to the role of the state and its apparatuses, like the educational system (Zachos, 2012, 55) which is also identified in the participants' own opinions with the words "lack of social state" in this research.

It's a well known fact that Roma people have greater difficulty in accessing social rights and benefitting from these rights compared to the other groups of society (Genç, Taylan and Barış, 2015). Of all these rights, the socio-economic rights are in the foreground and Roma people expose to exclusion, thus injustices, in the economic life and participate in economic life at limited level. Work areas of Roma people are mostly temporary, part time or off the books and they are also made to work ignoring health and security concerns (Helsinki Citizens' Assembly, 2008). Also, such domestic problems as deficiency and scarcity of permanent jobs and their time of entry into the labour market are that many members of Roma groups face and thus prevent them from dealing with their children's educational needs (Zachos, 2012). In fact, the socio-economic projects provided for Roma people aren't sustainable and political anxieties are mostly in the foreground in the process of distribution of the services provided for them (Eyyüboğlu, 2007). In addition to problems caused by their socio-economic situations, Roma parents are mostly excluded from participating in school wide processes with such practices as not letting them go into the school and making them wait outside of the school (Marsh, 2008; Genç, Taylan and Barış, 2015) which prevent them from interacting with principals and teachers (Diktaş, Deniz and Balcıoğlu, 2016) and representing themselves in the education system. However, engaging Roma parents in their children's education is an important way both to increase students' educational opportunities, to help them do better in school (Roma Education Fund, 2010) and ensure their social participation (Diktaş, Deniz and Balcıoğlu, 2016). Also, it has been found out in various studies that Roma children don't participate in educational and social activities at the expected level (Akkan, Deniz ve Ertan, 2011, Uzun Mercan ve Bütün, 2015), as they are sometimes excluded from national festivals and graduation celebrations (Genç, Taylan and Barış, 2015) and they mostly live in the suburban neighborhoods outside the city where they can't benefit from the city's cultural and social life offerings (Orçan, Çiçekler and Arı, 2014). This situation of not accessing social rights based on right of asylum, education and employment also causes Roma people experience political exclusion (Barness, 2002). It has been revealed in various studies that Roma people show unwillingness in democratic and political participation and prefer to opt themselves out of the process (Kolukıncık, 2007; Yavuzak Taban, 2010; Çelik and Yüce Tar, 2015; Genç, Taylan and Barış, 2015) keeping their voice for themselves and serving as a model of silence, some kind of learned desperateness and prejudices against education system for their children. The Roma children also mostly prefer to opt out of education process to struggling (Genç, Taylan and Barış, 2015) without any expectation from education (Orçan, Çiçekler and Arı, 2014; Çelik and Yüce Tar, 2015).

Concerning the reasons of Roma children's limited access to schooling, the participants made some suggestions for Roma families themselves stating that Roma people should change their own minds, demand change themselves, etc. However, these suggestions for families themselves have

some kind of blaming minorities for their exclusion from the society and preferring to close the eyes to avoid of seeing the big picture, the lack of a social state which emanated the schools from becoming a public service that every individual of the society will benefit equally. From the social justice perspective, Turkish education system has been experiencing injustices in terms of both distribution of resources, wealth, opportunities and recognition of diverse cultures, ethnicities and races; thus participation in education. Although it's argued that some concrete steps to ensure social justice such as free school books, school meals, including certain languages and sects in the curriculum, it is still far away from a just system which gives an ear to the voice of the majority and the single culture and but not of the plurality and diversity. Turkey, which is accepted as a social state and that's also written in the constitution must provide justice for it's all citizens. In theory, what is expected from a social state is that it must make positive discrimination in the redistribution of the income obtained. Within this context, social state must come into prominence not only with powerlessness, poverty and the sustainability of the current situation but also with the functions that transform the injustice practices which constitute impediment to education, a basic human right, create inequality and reinforce the current injustices. "Men make their own history, but they do not make it as they please; they do not make it under self-selected circumstances, but under circumstances existing already, given and transmitted from the past (Marx, 1999, 5) and Roma children, bringing all the disadvantages of who they are, wherever they go, expose to several economic, cultural and thus participative injustices within Turkish education system. Education both as a means of stratification and as the only way to abolish the same stratification has a vital role in the empowerment of schooling experiences of Roma children. "It is true that education is not the ultimate lever for social transformation, but without it transformation cannot occur" (Freire, 1998, 37). When Turkish education system includes and values the culture of Roma and hear and recognize Romani voices, Roma disaffection turns into passion' (Gómez and Vargas, 2003, 560) and this is only possible with the transference of the concepts of social justice, diversity and equality to Turkish education system both in theory and the practice. Last but not least, as the participants have already suggested, the concept of social justice shouldn't remain in theory and in the words and educationalists and educational researchers should adopt a fair approach and the current educational administration literature should include the discourse of social justice and give voice to the minorities.

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