

MANIFESTATIONS OF CURRICULUM CHANGE
ON ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE: TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

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IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

APRIL 2012

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ABSTRACT

MANIFESTATIONS OF CURRICULUM CHANGE ON ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE: TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS

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April 2012, 268 pages

The purpose of this study was to examine the manifestations of curriculum change on organizational culture of a primary school, with a specific focus on the culture of teachers. In this study, phenomenological design was used to investigate what meanings teachers attached to the changing nature and structure of their work, through the examination of the organizational culture of one primary school located in Ankara. Data were collected through face-to-face semi-structured teacher interviews aiming to find out the meaning of curriculum change and its manifestations on teacher culture for them. Findings revealed that although teachers perceived the change as a threat at the initiation process due to their experiencing lack of choice, they later expressed approval of the values and beliefs of the constructivist curriculum. However, when their meanings and perceptions regarding implementation are examined, it seems that the constraints regarding implementation are more decisive than these values and beliefs. Besides, it was found that teachers mostly defined factors outside them as constraints to their

implementation of the curriculum, such as physical limitations or insufficient in-service training. Finally, findings showed that the working lives of teachers outside the classroom manifested change especially in aspects like lesson planning and preparation, and cooperation among teachers.

Keywords: Educational change, curriculum change, teacher culture

ÖZ

PROGRAM DEĞİŞİKLİĞİNİN ÖRGÜTSEL KÜLTÜR ÜZERİNDEKİ GÖSTERGELERİ: ÖĞRETMEN ALGILARI

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Doktora, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Yard. Doç. Dr. Yaşar Kondakçı

Nisan 2012, 268 sayfa

Bu araştırma, program değişikliğinin, bir ilköğretim okulunun örgütsel kültürü üzerindeki göstergelerini, öğretmen algıları çerçevesinde incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. Çalışmada, öğretmenlerin mesleklerinin değişen doğası ve yapısına ne gibi anlamlar yüklediklerini tespit etmek amacıyla, Ankara'da bir ilköğretim okulunun örgütsel kültürü olgubilim deseni kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Veriler, program değişikliğinin öğretmenler için ne anlama geldiğini anlamak ve bunun örgüt kültürü üzerindeki göstergelerini bulmak amacıyla gerçekleştirilen yarı yapılandırılmış yüz yüze öğretmen görüşmelerinden oluşmaktadır. İlk olarak, bulgular öğretmenlerin her ne kadar değişimi ilk aşamada bir tehdit olarak algılasalar da, daha sonraki aşamalarda program değişikliğini onayladıklarını ifade ettiklerini ve sonradan ona uygun değerler ve inançlar edinmiş olduklarını göstermiştir. Fakat uygulamayla ilgili anlam ve algılarına bakıldığında, uygulamanın önündeki engellerin bu değer ve inançlardan daha belirleyici olduğu ifade edilebilir. Öğretmenlerin değişen programları uygulamada, fiziki sınırlılıklar ve yetersiz hizmet içi eğitim gibi

dıřsal engellerle karřılařtıkları ortaya çıkmıřtır. Son olarak, ğretmenlerin sınıf dıřı meslek yařamlarında da, zellikle ders planlaması ve hazırlığı ve ğretmenler arası iřbirlięi gibi konularda deęiřim yařandıęı ortaya çıkmıřtır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Eęitimde deęiřim, program deęiřiklięi, ğretmen kltr

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My gratitude and indebtedness in completing this dissertation extend in many directions. I have been blessed with beyond words with personal and professional support.

I would like to start by expressing my deepest appreciation and gratitude to my supervisor Assist. Prof. Dr. Yaşar Kondakçı, without whom none of this would have been possible. Many thanks for both the invaluable guidance and key considerations he has provided me with and also for his ongoing support and motivation.

I would like to thank all the teachers and administrators working at the school organization chosen as the study site. The insightful reflections of those who participated in the study have been very helpful and deepened my study. In addition, I would like to thank all the teachers for warmly welcoming me in the staff room and sharing their friendship with me.

I would like to thank my committee members, Prof. Dr. Ali Yıldırım, Assist. Prof. Dr. Çiğdem Haser, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Cennet Engin Demir, and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sadegül Akbaba Altun for their generous contributions with their comments and suggestions.

I owe a lot to my friends Filiz Kartal and Zafer Çelik for our insightful conversations, and to my friends Pelin Kohn and Oya Taneri for their valuable comments and suggestions throughout the experience.

For a debt of thanks beyond words, I would like to express my gratitude to my parents, my sister and brother for their love and support, and to my husband for being a great companion throughout the journey.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter covers a brief introduction to the concept of organizational culture, the reflections of cultural theories in organizational research and analysis, the concept of culture in educational organizations, the phenomenon of curriculum reform at a national level, and how this process is transforming teachers as the strongest element of organizational culture of schools. Next, the purpose of the study is mentioned together with the research questions. After revealing the significance of the study, the chapter finally defines the terms used in the study.

1.1 Background to the Study

Culture is as significant and complex as is it difficult to understand and use in a thoughtful way since it has no fixed definition nor a view that is widely agreed upon even in anthropology, where its roots lie. This may partly be because even a simplest definition of the concept – collectively shared forms of cognition, values, meanings, beliefs, understandings, ideologies, rules, norms, symbols, emotions, expressiveness, the unconscious, behaviour patterns, structures, practices, etc. (Alvesson, 1993) - lends itself to a variety of understandings of its meaning, as all of these collectively shared concepts may be targets of study themselves. Another definition that Geertz puts (1973, p. 24) is that “culture is the creation of meaning through which human beings interpret their experiences and guide their actions”. For Geertz, culture is dependent on the meanings it has for those involved in that culture. Meaning refers to how something is interpreted subjectively by an

individual. Individual meanings are certainly important and they are likely to vary across a group. Nevertheless, cultural understanding does not focus on these individual interpretations, but on collectively shared orientations within a group (Alvesson, 2002).

Just as there are differing views on the definition of culture, there are also differing views on the ontological status of culture (Smircich and Calas, 1987); as how to attain knowledge in all these different understandings of it result in diverse methodologies and levels of analysis. Cultural analysis can be applied to all kinds of social phenomena as long as it concentrates on meanings tied to each other and reflected in a symbolic form. A symbol, as defined by Cohen (1974), is an object or statement that stands ambiguously for something else and something more than the object itself. This means a symbol is richer than what it stands for in terms of meaning, but it represents meaning in a more economical (Alvesson, 2002) and striking way. Symbols guide our thinking, feeling and acting on specific phenomena.

Although the use of the concept of culture is quite recent in organizational analysis, the notion of organizational culture has first been emphasised by Selznick (1957), who viewed organizations as institutions rather than mere rational structures (Hoy, 1990). According to Selznick, institutions are infused with value, which produces a distinctive identity for the organization. At the beginning of 1980's, an interest in the role of national cultures on the success of corporate firms aroused because of the incredibly fast rising of the Japanese economy, which was utterly devastated by a World War only 30 years ago. A number of books were published in this period, a famous example to which would be by William Ouchi (1981), trying to enlighten the secrets behind the success of these Japanese companies. His work was the first of the works which would boom later in the decade on what is referred to as corporate cultures.

According to Ouchi (1981, p. 41), organizational culture is “systems, ceremonies, and myths that communicate the underlying values and beliefs of the organization to its employees”. However, Schein (1985, p. 6) defines organizational culture as “the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by the members of an organization, that operate unconsciously, and that define in a basic taken-for-granted fashion an organization’s view of itself and its environment.” Schein states that organizational cultures are created by leaders, and it is one of the most important functions of leadership to create and if necessary destroy a culture (1985). Schein is one of those who argue that with a thorough understanding of an organization’s culture, leaders can better assist organizational learning and development. Schein argued that (2010) the challenge of leadership is to perceive the limitations of one’s own organizational culture and then to develop the present culture. According to this perspective which is referred to as ‘corporate culture’ by Smircich (1983), the concept of culture is considered as an integral organizational variable. Advocates of corporate culture tended to identify strategies and processes by which organizational leaders could manipulate culture for managerial purposes. To Tatro (2007, p. 14), this perspective views organizational culture as an element of organization that can be strengthened to facilitate management objectives. Deal and Kennedy, (1982), too noted that the construction of shared values is central to high organizational performance, a stance that puts great emphasis on the value of a ‘strong culture’. This view of culture in organizations can be named as ‘instrumental’ according to the distinction made by Peterson and Spencer (1990). To them, organizational culture can either be seen as instrumental, as in the case of corporate culture, or as ‘interpretive’, that is, creating a sense of meaning for members regarding organizational values (1990).

When seen as an interpretive root metaphor for organizations, culture promotes a view of organizations as expressive forms and manifestations of human consciousness (Smircich, 1983). This approach departs from the conceptualisation of culture as an organizational variable and views culture as a concept rather than

a thing. The 'culture as root metaphor' view to studying organizational culture offered by Smircich (1983) stimulates a different cognitive interest in the researcher's attention, which "shifts from concerns about what do organizations accomplish and how they may accomplish it more efficiently, to how is organization accomplished and what does it mean to be organized" (Smircich, 1983, p. 353). Alvesson (1991) implied that this approach is more closely related to the practical cognitive interest, but might also produce valuable knowledge from an emancipatory point of view, as focusing on the systems of meaning in human organizations would inevitably lead to the recognition of conflicting preferences and interpretations through revealing the unconscious assumptions and processes that lead human beings.

In strategic terms we need to think about organizations as being cultures rather than having cultures. It is the conception of organization rather than the object of study that makes the culture perspective unique. The important point, therefore is not *what* we study, but the different way we look at the organization: the task for the culture strategist is not to think *about* culture but to think *culturally* (Bate, 1994, p.17).

This study, too, takes organizations as cultures; and rather than approaching it from an instrumental and functionalist stance, it treats cultures as systems of shared symbols and meanings. An organizational culture is, then, conceived of as a pattern of symbolic discourse that needs interpreting, deciphering or reading in order to be understood.

The concept of culture in the study of educational organizations is not new either (Hoy, 1990). Waller (1932, as cited in Hoy, 1990) studied the role of rituals, rites, ceremonies and values in his analysis of the school as a social system. However, it is after 1980 that culture became fashionable in education, with the publication of several articles taking a corporate culture stand and analysing the culture of effective schools (Hoy, 1990). A school reform concept popular a decade or more

ago, effective schools, considered culture to be a mechanism to achieve greater levels of learning in students (Oches, 2001, p. 8). They aimed to enhance or to change the culture to get desired results. Deal, for instance, proposed that effective schools have strong cultures and listed the elements of a strong culture (Deal, 1985). Bates (1987), however, argued that such formulations treat organizational culture at schools as managerial culture, which narrows the concept down. Oches (2001) agreed with him in that culture cannot be manipulated to the extent that a cause-effect relationship between all actions and desired outcomes is possible. A researcher approaching culture as a variable views it as equal to other variables such as personnel, location, and assumes that it can be quantified and tracked in the name of profitability (Oches, 2001).

In short, in the field of educational administration, culture is either seen as a tool to increase effectiveness, or as a tool for understanding meaning. According to Brunner, “the chief subject matter of school, viewed culturally, is school itself” (1996, p.28). However, this does not mean that school is to be examined in isolation from the rest of the system surrounding it. There may possibly be interesting interactions between the cultural norms at the national level and the types of formal institutional systems they design for the organization and management of schooling (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996). Aspects of education system such as the degree of centralisation may form qualitatively different educational contexts in different nations or in different schools in the same country.

Although the terms ‘educational change’ and ‘educational reform’ are often used interchangeably, because of the distinctive meanings and implications they have, the term ‘educational change’ is preferred for the purposes of this discussion. Fullan (2005) claims that educational change is a means of achieving a particular educational goal or set of goals through creating changes in goals, skills, philosophy or beliefs, behaviour, and most importantly, ‘change in practice’ (p.

25). Educational change is not a single entity with an objective reality, but rather multidimensional (Fullan, 2005), the dimensions being 1) possible use of new teaching materials, 2) possible use of new teaching methods, and 3) the possible alteration of values and beliefs (p. 25). In our case, the object of change is the curriculum, which can simply mean “a written action plan that teachers use as the basis for their lessons” (Horn, 2002, p. 198). This definition entails that curriculum is content, but at the same time the sequence of it, the instructional methods used to deliver it, and the assessment of it. It is also essential for us to keep in mind the distinction made by Cuban (1993) between the official curriculum – i.e., the content, skills, and values that the authorities expect teachers to teach - , and the taught curriculum – i.e., teacher beliefs about what they are expected to teach- , as this study aims to find out teacher beliefs as one of the dimension of school culture.

Today, in order to increase the quality of education, education programs are constantly reviewed and improved (Angın, 2008; Bıkmaz, 2006). Şimşek and Yıldırım (2004) claimed that education reform is influenced by changes in economic and social conditions worldwide. Thus, the curricular innovation studied here is a reaction to changing educational, economic, and political conditions in Turkey and in the world. The purpose of primary education is to ensure that every child acquires the basic knowledge, skills, behaviors, and habits to become a good citizen, is raised in line with the national moral concepts and is prepared for life and for the next education level parallel to his/her interests and skills. The idea of learning as well as teaching has changed its meaning throughout history, and most recently, it has become increasingly student-oriented (Bıkmaz, 2006; Köse, 2006). Therefore, Turkish basic education faced the issue of modernizing its curricula and preparing its students to meet the changing workforce needs. The basic idea behind curricular change was to change the curriculum from a subject-centered to a learner-centered one and change the pedagogies from a behaviorist to a constructivist one (Akınoğlu, 2008; Babadoğan & Olkun, 2006). In general terms,

in the new curriculum, activities are planned in a constructivist approach while considering the individual differences in learning, and leaving room for localization of the activities.

Constructivism is a theory of learning which stems from the idea that knowledge is constructed by the knower based on mental activity (von Glasersfeld, 1995). Learners are considered to be active organisms seeking meaning. Constructivism is founded on the premise that, by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world consciously we live in. Each of us generates our own 'rules' and 'mental models', which we use to make sense of our experiences. Learning; therefore, is simply the process of adjusting our mental models to accommodate new experiences (von Glasersfeld, 1995).

The concept of constructivism has roots in classical antiquity, going back to Socrates's dialogues with his followers, in which he asked directed questions that led his students to realize for themselves the weaknesses in their thinking. The Socratic dialogue is still an important tool in the way constructivist educators assess their students' learning and plan new learning experiences (Jones & Brader-Araje, 2002).

In this century, Jean Piaget and John Dewey developed theories of childhood development and education, what we now call Progressive Education, which led to the evolution of constructivism.

Piaget believed that humans learn through the construction of one logical structure after another. He also concluded that the logic of children and their modes of thinking are initially entirely different from those of adults. The implications of this theory and how he applied them have shaped the foundation for constructivist education.

Among the educators, philosophers, psychologists, and sociologists who have added new perspectives to constructivist learning theory and practice are Lev Vygotsky, Jerome Bruner, and David Ausubel. Modern educators who have studied, written about, and practiced constructivist approaches to education include John D. Bransford, Ernst von Glasersfeld, Eleanor Duckworth, George Forman, Roger Schank, Jacqueline Grennon Brooks, and Martin G. Brooks.

Learners construct their own understanding of the world they live in through reflecting on lived experiences on the basis of social interaction. This is also what happens on a larger framework when culture is constructed socially through interactions. “Culture, as the site where meaning is generated and experienced, becomes a determining, productive field through which social realities are constructed, experienced and interpreted” (Turner, 2003, p.12).

In recent years, the primary and secondary education have gone through a curriculum change initiative, which has brought a direct impact on every stakeholder at every level in our education system. Curriculum change has had direct impact on the roles and responsibilities of teachers more than any other constituency in our educational system. Such change relates a lot to teachers’ school cultures in many ways as it aims to redefine their educational philosophies. This is a challenge for teachers because they are supposed to make sense of constructivism, the new philosophy, and then reorient their practices to be consistent with constructivism. How teachers respond to these curricular innovations and what new meanings they attach to the changing nature and structure of their work may be examined through the organizational culture of the school. Teachers may find themselves in cultural dilemmas during this reorientation, which would prevent theoretical ideals of the new curriculum from being realised in school settings. The culture in which the curriculum is embedded is an area often ignored during curriculum change efforts. However, a

curriculum cannot be considered in isolation from the culture in which it is to be implemented.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

Considering this discussion, the purpose of this study is to investigate the manifestations of curriculum change on teachers' organizational culture. As a phenomenological study it aims to examine culture as an organizational dynamic in the process of systemic curriculum change, and see how teachers make sense of the reflections of this change on their roles, values and beliefs. In other words, in this study it is assumed that the ongoing process curriculum transformation will have repercussions on the construction of meaning and the way this meaning shape behaviors of teachers. The implications of curriculum transformation will be captured in cognitive and behavioral manifestations of the teachers. Therefore, not only the materials they use, their approaches toward the students, the teaching methods they adapt but also the language they use will have some connotations with the newly adapted constructivist curriculum. Considering this general assumption in mind, the study answers the following specific research questions:

- 1) What are the meanings made by teachers from their lived experiences of transition into constructivist curriculum?
- 2) How does the transition into constructivist curriculum manifest itself in the organizational culture of teachers?
- 3) What is the meaning of new roles and values attached to teachers and teaching by constructivism as perceived by the teachers?

1.3 Significance of the Study

In recent years the primary and secondary education have gone through a curriculum change initiative, which has a direct impact on every stakeholder at every level in our education system. Curriculum change has also had direct impact on the roles and responsibilities of teachers more than any other constituency in our educational system. It is believed that such change relates a lot to teachers' workplace or occupational cultures as it aims to redefine their educational philosophies. This is a challenge for teachers because they are supposed to make sense of constructivism, the new philosophy, and then reorient their practices to be consistent with constructivism. There is no literature that investigates the full scope of the challenges faced by teachers while going through such a profound change in depth. Although studies around the world have increasingly been focusing on the pivotal role that teachers play in educational change, limited qualitative data exist especially in Turkey which describes constructivist elements in teachers' cognitive and behavioral manifestations. How teachers respond to these curricular innovations and what new meanings they attach to the changing nature and structure of their work can be examined through the organizational culture of the school. Teachers may find themselves in cultural dilemmas during this reorientation, which would prevent theoretical ideals of the new curriculum from being realised in school settings. The culture in which the curriculum is embedded is an area often ignored during curriculum change efforts. However, a curriculum cannot be considered in isolation from the culture in which it is to be implemented.

In fact, systemic curricular change has become a global phenomenon. This type of state policy initiatives on curriculum influence the extent to which teachers can control the curriculum and its implementation; thus, creates a change in roles, values and beliefs of teachers about the nature of their work. In their quest for

solutions to the existing problems, educational policy makers usually portray what is going on in schools in a way that is highly critical of both the existing curriculum and the teachers who implement it (Morris, Chang & Ling, 2000). However, change does not automatically occur when a set of problems are diagnosed and a set of solutions are proposed which are intended to produce uniform responses in all teachers. Therefore, there is a need to look at the micropolitics of curriculum change from the perspectives of teachers as agents of implementation, to see the extent to which teacher power has been undermined.

When teachers are asked to adopt technocratic forms of curricula by the curriculum planners, especially in cases where standardised testing system is a burden on the instruction, teachers are becoming “deskilled” (Apple & Weiss, 1983). Deskilling teachers means expecting them to execute the curriculum in the classroom while experts external to the classroom engage in the construction of it (May, 1989). As a result of this intensification of teachers’ work, the execution of the work is separated from the conceptualisation of it, which makes teachers dependent on outside expertise and reduces them to technicians. To sum up, change does not occur by merely assigning new roles to the teachers on paper, but it occurs “as a result of the interplay between structure, agency and culture” (Helsby, 2000, p. 93), where structure means the imposition of the new national curriculum, agency is the teacher’s part in putting it into practice, and culture means the beliefs, values, norms, and patterns of interaction which are inherent in teachers and which heavily influence the responses of individual teachers (Helsby, 2000).

The day-to-day routines that can be seen at schools are always actually situated in a larger framework of norms, expectations, and values that give meaning to all activities occurring in schools. Even determining what is good in education and what is bad is a question of values. Every decision made by schools as organizations reflects certain value preferences. Teachers’ experiences, meanings

and descriptions of their working lives may provide a framework for analysing to see if a new form of teacher culture has emerged or not, or how teachers are making sense of the phenomenon that is reconstructing their teaching identities. Culture has a potential for expanding the field of educational administration as it may stimulate us to think of the constructs that have so far been taken for granted and identify new problems of significance (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996).

In fact, a lot has been said about culture in educational organizations in leadership studies based on the assumption that leadership is contingent upon the context in which it is exercised. Nevertheless, according to Hallinger and Leithwood (1996), these studies also assume that leadership is exercised in a Western cultural context. Therefore, there is a need to look at the concept of culture from a Non-Western context, but not from solely a leadership perspective. Besides, a thorough look at the cultural identity of an educational organization would enable the researcher to study culture through the analysis of the discourse of the school administrators and teachers. As Cherryholmes (1987, p. 301) put, the discursive practices of schooling are embedded in pedagogical forms as well, and they “determine what counts as true, important and relevant”. An individual’s perceptions are filtered through his or her language, basic assumptions, and cognitive structures. This filtering process is used to make sense of events. School culture is a phenomenon that cannot be studied directly but inferred from observed behaviour such as language, rituals, and ceremonies commonly encountered in the cultural setting. “Culture does not act machine-like with every action being predictable and every element totally definable” (Oches, 2001, p. 40). It is larger than the set of activities observed to explain it. It is not a tool to increase effectiveness, but a tool for understanding meaning. “The chief subject matter of school, viewed culturally, is school itself” (Brunner, 1996, p. 28).

In much of the writing on teaching and teachers’ work, teachers’ voices have either been curiously absent, or been used as mere echoes for

preferred and presumed theories of educational researchers. Teachers' voices, though, have their own validity and assertiveness which can and should lead to questioning, modification and abandonment of those theories wherever it is warranted (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 4).

Saussure (1973) insists that the relation between a word and its meaning is constructed, not given, by directing us to the cultural and social dimensions of language. Language is cultural, not natural, and so the meanings it creates are too (Turner, 2003, p. 11). This is why studying the manifestations of constructivism in culture make sense.

Change in practice occurs as a result of the interplay between structure, agency and culture (Acker, 1990). Helsby (2000) too argues that these three aspects are interdependent, and will influence each other to a great extent. In our case 'the structural demands' stemmed from the imposition of the National Curriculum and related requirements; 'agency' refers to the part played by teachers in actively translating these government policies into practice; and 'culture' denotes to the sets of beliefs, norms, values and patterns among teachers.

Based on teachers' understandings and experiences, findings of this study will contribute to developing, updating and strengthening the current elementary curriculum, by means of catering to the authentic professional needs of teachers at the frontier. Moreover, the study provides MONE and school administrators with information regarding the design of interventions for effective curriculum adoption and implementation. In addition, this study will also provide important insights for scrutinizing and reviewing the curriculum reforms in Turkey for policy makers.

In addition, this study may contribute to social constructivist theory developed by Vygotsky through opening a new path of research to those interested in the

relationship between knowledge construction and culture, and how new knowledge is culturally constructed by teachers in interaction with others.

1.4 Definition of Terms

Organizational culture: the shared philosophies, beliefs, ideologies, assumptions, expectations, attitudes, norms and values in an organization by the members. It is used in this study to refer to the organic nature of organizational life, which emerges from the lived experiences of organizational members, namely teachers for this study. Thus, the definition of organizational culture is limited in a way that it merely includes teacher culture for the purposes of this study.

Constructivism: a theory of learning which stems from the idea that knowledge is constructed by the knower based on mental activity.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the concept of culture, cultural studies in education, organizations and culture, teacher culture and its significance for educational change, educational reform in Turkey, constructivist education and the research design phenomenology.

2.1 Birth of a Concept: Culture

The word ‘culture’ is so commonly used in our everyday conversations that it is nearly impossible to talk about the most commonplace details of everyday life without using the word, as can be seen in today’s most catchy phrases such as ‘consumer culture’, ‘a culture of failure’, or ‘primitive cultures’. Despite being so popular and common, “it is still real in its significations both in everyday language and in its increasingly broad currency within the fashionable discourses of the modern academy globally” (Jenks, 2003, p. 1). According to what sociologists and anthropologists have come to say, culture is all that is symbolic. In other words, what is ‘cultural’ is the symbolic representations that constitute human knowing. The idea of culture embraces a range of topics, processes, differences and even paradoxes, many of which cannot be resolved; therefore, the concept is both complex and divergent in its various applications.

Culture is the force at work which makes human behaviors apparent and distinctive, which means it makes it possible both for the individual performing an

action and the spectator watching and interpreting the action to characterize the action for what it is. In this way, culture becomes the means to distinguish between different versions of the same sort of action and attribute it to different human groups (Inglis, 2004). That is to say, culture is found in the signs of human action (e.g., social interaction, language etc.), embedded in the contexts and settings of everyday life (Inglis, 2004).

What we think of as the world-out-there is directly a product of complex interaction between the world-out-there and our language. Reality materializes at the moment when actuality meets the concepts and self-understanding of human beings endeavouring to bring that world more or less under human control (p. 2).

The concept of culture, according to Jenks (2003), has a history which is in relation to traditions of thought all of which are located in social structures, taking us in our investigation as far as Kant and Hegel of the European philosophy, and from there to classical theories of sociology and cultural anthropology. The first articulate expression of the verb 'cultivate' in a different meaning than it has in agriculture was by Coleridge, a British literary critic, which is how the word 'culture' in its modern meaning was born.

Although there had been prior formulations of the concept of culture, the first major thinker to write about culture could be taken as Bentham, who dedicated his body of writing to understanding human psychology as a reaction to industrialization and the misery of human against it. Another major thinker among the very first users of the concept in the same way as we do today was Kant, whose work dates back to before the term 'culture' was used for its contemporary meaning. In other words, the notion of culture was first discussed by Immanuel Kant, a philosopher of the Enlightenment, who placed individual human agency at

the centre of creation (Inglis, 2004); and culture was the conceptual framework through which human could find material reality.

As Geertz (1973, p. 24), defines “culture is the creation of meaning through which human beings interpret their experiences and guide their actions.” For Geertz (1973), culture is dependent on the meanings it has for those involved in that culture. In a similar way, Inglis (2004) defines culture as the force at work which makes human behaviors apparent and distinctive. That is, through culture, the individual performing an action and a spectator interpreting it is able to characterise the action for what it is and is able to perform it as such. Characterising the action includes distinguishing between different versions of the same type of action; which enables us to attribute it to different human groups. This definition sees culture as something very concrete, and therefore something to be compared across nations, an approach also evident in the works of early anthropologists such as Geertz. They tended to view the practices of different, usually tribal and non-Western cultures with the purpose of changing their place in the scale of advancement, and mostly reduced culture to an understanding of the material artifacts the primitive societies were using (Smith, 2000). Traditional culture, as Geertz writes, “denotes a historically transmitted pattern of meanings embodied in symbols, a system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic forms by means of which people communicate, perpetuate, and develop their knowledge and attitude towards life” (1973, p. 89).

Together with the foundation of the Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies in Birmingham, the above mentioned view of cultures started to change; and culture started to be taken as “collective subjectivity”, that is, a way of life adopted by a community or a social class (Alasuutari, 1995). One of the earliest examples of this sort of study was by Hoggarts (1958, as cited in Alasuutari, 1995), who studied everyday life and the objects of everyday entertainment to reflect society. A more critical step was taken against the elitist and hierarchical definition of

culture by Bourdieu (1984), in his work which studied the 'habitus' (distinctive life style) of social groupings.

The genesis of the concept culture as has been classified by Jenks (2003) is helpful in understanding the birth and development of the concept in social science:

1. Culture as a cognitive category: Culture becomes intelligible as a general state of mind. It carries with it the idea of perfection, a goal or an aspiration of human achievement or emancipation. This perspective originates from the works of Coleridge and Carlyle, and latterly Matthew Arnold, Romantic literary critics.
2. Culture as a collective category: Culture invokes a state of intellectual or moral development in society. This position links culture with civilisation and Darwin's theory of evolution, which pioneered anthropology.
3. Culture as a descriptive category: Culture is considered as the collective body of arts and intellectual work in a society especially in everyday use.
4. Culture as a social category: This is the view that sees culture as a whole way of life (pp. 8-9).

Malinowski's (2003, p. 51) definition in a way combines all the categories in this four-fold typology through his view that "culture is the integral whole consisting of implements and consumers' goods, of constitutional charters for the various social groupings, of human ideas and crafts, beliefs and customs". Although culture can be local and hugely variable among social groupings, it has to be a consistent and integrated pattern of thought and action (Benedict, 2003).

2.1.1 Class versus Culture

According to Jenks (2003, p. 5) "the idea of culture can be witnessed emerging in the late eighteenth century and on into the nineteenth century as part of, and

largely as a reaction to, the massive changes that were occurring in the structure and quality of social life.” These social and political changes were unprecedented in human experience, and thus confusing, disorientating and controversial. The social structure was politically volatile, which brought about new forms of ranking and hierarchy, together with division of labor, population gaining density and proximity, urbanization, industrialization and improved communication systems (Jenks, 2003). While the newly emerging market society and the technological development associated with it initially fostered class-based organizations, its long-run effects tended to promote organizations based on cultural similarity (Hechter, 2004).

The thought of ‘radical political economy’, which has its roots in Western Marxism, built upon many of the themes already present in Marxism and made them more tractable. Among those themes is the notion that capitalism is not a self-guiding system as markets have their own failures and contradictions, and power is important to the development of the system (Storper, 2001). Especially in social sciences, this thought has come to be closely associated with what is known as the ‘cultural turn’: the notion that “the keys to understanding contemporary society and to transforming it lie in the ways that culture orients our behaviors and shapes what we are able to know about the world” (Storper, 2001, p. 161). According to this, knowledge and practice are relativistic as they are culturally determined (Storper, 2001).

The intellectual development of the movement has been very successfully summarized by Storper (2001) as follows:

1. Modernism created a world with many good things as well as bad things including imperialism, colonialism or linear categorical rationalist thinking, which resulted in a tendency to suppress difference and diversity in order to marginalize the ‘other.’

2. This has created some movements that aim to struggle against the order of modernity, such as the poor, gays, environmentalists, etc. Each of these are considered together as a group because the way they know the world is common; thus as opposed to the modernist 'universal rational actor', now we have these 'cultural entities.'
3. Modernism as epistemology and as doctrine is too rationalistic and unitary to comprehend these movements and their demands; therefore, a new way of looking at social development is necessary (pp. 161-162).

What is born is a new theory of society based on the relationships between culturally different groups and collective cultural entities, in contrast to Marxism which is based on relationships between classes, and to liberalism which is based on relationships between individuals (Storper, 2001).

Although traditional Marxism had not valued the significance of the idea of culture, critical Marxism has contested this approach and has tended to "view culture as the ways of life of particular social classes," and as totally determined by economic relationships (Turner, 2003, p. 18). Bennett (1981), however, argues that culture is not simply dependent on and passively influenced by economic relationships but it actively influences them and has consequences for both economic and political relationships.

The 'cultural' turn in sociology has taken two main forms: 'epistemological' and 'historical' cases for culture. The epistemological case is the idea that culture is universally constitutive of social relations and identities, whereas the historical case claims that culture plays a significant role in constituting social relations and identities. To the first, Giddens is most probably a very influential contributor, as he argues that social structures are reproduced in the everyday practices of social actors who are knowledgeable about the practices in which they are engaged (Giddens, 2003). This case for culture is largely associated with post-structuralists

such as Laclau and Mouffe, who have used the term ‘discourse’ instead of ‘culture’ (Nash, 2001). To Nash, the rejection of deterministic models of society linked with structural-functionalism and the new emphasis on subjectivity are among the reasons for ‘agency of the social actor’ to be at the centre of sociological analysis (Nash, 2001).

As a result of this cultural turn, “all social life must be seen as potentially political where politics is the contestation of relations of power” (Nash, 2001, p. 77).

2.1.2 The Birmingham School and British Cultural Studies

British cultural studies has its roots in postwar Britain, where a ‘new’ Britain was being represented through the revival of the capitalist industrial production, the establishment of the welfare state, and the Americanisation of the popular culture. The conditions of this new English culture were to be scrutinized in an attempt to understand these changes and their cultural, economic and political effects (Turner, 2003).

The Birmingham Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies (CCCS), which could be claimed to be the key institution in the history of the field of cultural studies, was established at the University of Birmingham in 1964 with Hoggart as its first director, aiming to direct itself to cultural forms, practices and institutions, and their relation to society and social change (Turner, 2003). Its original curriculum centred on the works of Hoggart, Williams and Thompson, “each of whom tried to understand the momentous changes in British social structure thought from the margins of the existing disciplines” (Baron, 1985, p. 73), as could be seen in what Williams (2001) wrote:

Our whole way of life, from the shape of our communities to the organization and content of education, and from the structure of the

family to the status of art and entertainment, is being profoundly affected by the progress and interaction of democracy and industry, and by the extension of communications (p. 12).

Cultural studies are regarded to begin with Richard Hoggart's *The Uses of Literacy* and Raymond Williams' *Culture and Society*, which were both published in 1958. Both Hoggart and Williams, two adult education tutors with working-class origins, came from a tradition of English literary criticism, and concentrated on the moral and social significance of literary forms. Later they were interested in 'reading' cultural forms other than literature such as popular songs or television with the same method. In an aim to reconnect texts with the society, they started thinking about how culture was structured as a whole (Turner, 2003), and came up with the point that "culture... was itself a ... signifying practice and had its own determinate product: meaning" (Hall, 1980, p. 30).

Williams (2003) categorized the definitions of culture into three:

- Ideal culture, in which culture is a state or process of human perfection.
- Documentary culture, in which culture is the body of intellectual and imaginative work that records human thought and experience.
- Social culture, in which culture is a description of a particular way of life, which expresses certain meanings and values not only in art but also in institutions and ordinary behavior (p. 28).

The analysis of culture, to Williams (2003), should take as its emphasis this third definition, and include the historical criticism inherent in the second definition as well, with the goal of describing a particular way of life. He warns though that the ultimate goal is not to compare the meanings and values ascribed to a particular way of life, instead it is to discover certain general laws or trends by which social and cultural development as a whole can be better understood (Williams, 2003).

A theory of culture, then, according to Williams (2003, p. 32) is the study of relationships between elements in a whole way of life. The attempt, thus, is to discover the nature of the organization or the pattern revealed by these relationships.

The work of the pioneers in cultural studies, which has emerged from a literary critical tradition that saw popular culture as a threat to the moral and cultural standards of modern civilization, breaks the elitist assumptions of the literary tradition about 'high culture' (Turner, 2003). Now, it aims to examine the everyday and the ordinary, the processes "that exert so powerful and unquestioned an influence that we take them for granted" (Turner, 2003, p. 2). Thus, "the blurring of the distinction between high or elite culture and its more popular manifestations" is one of the legacies of the Birmingham School (Hyttén, 1999, p. 7). To Turner, although cultural studies today could be considered an interdisciplinary field where certain concerns and methods have converged, it is not still a unified field (2003).

2.1.3 Cultural Studies in Education

Cultural Studies originated in Britain and took its name from the CCCS, where the major scholars had experiences in the field of adult education. The influences of these experiences are mentioned by Williams (1989), as he reveals that cultural studies has its origins in the field of education while describing the origin of it. In fact, almost all the founding figures of cultural studies started their careers, and their intellectual projects in the field of education, outside the university, in adult working class courses (Wright and Maton, 2004). Wright and Maton observe that CCCS was partly an attempt to recreate what these figures conducted and engaged in outside the university in the elitist, politically restrictive and restricted world of the academy (2004, pp. 76-77).

Education being a prominent part of early cultural studies work conducted at the CCCS, several works were published on education, the most famous of which was *Learning to Labour* by Paul Willis (1977), a classic ethnographic research that gave particular attention to students' actions at a time. His book explored the lives and experiences of students in schools, in other words, how they constructed their worlds or made meaning of their everyday experiences, in a way that is largely inspired by symbolic interactionism (Casella, 1999). As well as its methodology, the significance of this work is also largely demonstrated in its distinction from previous sociological studies of education in terms of its findings. What was interesting about these young boys at school was that they walked into the capitalist social order as factory workers willingly, with a celebration of their own academic failures and a very explicit awareness of the benefits that the 'manly' manual jobs would bring them in their future lives (Smith, 2000).

Despite these early contributions, the field of education is generally known to be absent from contemporary discussions of cultural studies. Wright and Maton (2004) even claim that "cultural studies has not only developed somewhat of a blindspot for its own nature as education, but also for education as an academic field of inquiry" (p. 78). Giroux argues that this is reciprocal as educational theorists pay little interest in cultural studies too (1994). The relations between cultural studies and education developed into something Wright and Maton call 'flirtation' starting with the 80's, with the spread of critical pedagogy (2004) and concerns with adult literacy, poverty, and social change through education (Casella, 1999). Hytten (1999), too, pointed out that cultural studies has been most readily embraced in education in the tradition of critical pedagogy, and lately within ethnic and diversity studies. In general it would not be wrong to say that a cultural studies approach to education enabled scholars to investigate the dominant culture critically and make room for the voices of the silent. Henry Giroux (1983)

and Paolo Freire (1970), for instance, produced most well-known texts in this manner.

Casella (1999, p. 107) argued that this flirtation has evolved into a relationship as “cultural studies is one of the few academic areas that makes room for educational researchers to be creative as well as critical”. In a world being increasingly defined by new technologies, mounting concerns about schooling and job and social insecurities, and changing notions of identity, the concerns and research methodologies of education should encapsulate cultural studies (Casella, 1999).

In the meantime, “educational research informed by symbolic interactionism developed in the western world alongside growing dissatisfaction with more positivistic and functionalist epistemologies and methods of research” (Casella, 1999, p. 111), which was the driving force behind qualitative and interpretive research in education. Since Willis’s *Learning to Labour*, research in cultural studies of education has developed as an area of educational studies through studies of youth culture or school culture, which will be discussed in detail in later sections of this chapter.

In education, we often neglect metaphysical questions and instead focus on engineering ones (Hyttén, 1999). Metaphysical questions are valuable because they enable us to involve in the deconstruction of the given in a critical manner. Engineering questions such as how we can efficiently reach a predetermined goal are quite common in education, which leaves very little space for questions of purpose. Thus, cultural studies is a very promising field which education may approach in an attempt to answer less technical and more philosophical questions through studies trying to bring the two different and on the surface separate but naturally linked fields together.

A cultural perspective when examining research would lead us to expect that aspects of teacher culture would shape the schools' responses to new requirements of policy makers. Acker (1990) argued that the cultural look, as well as theoretical approaches such as symbolic interactionism more generally, shows us that meanings and interpretations are significant in their own contexts.

2.2 Organizations and Culture

As well as traditional or societal culture, organizational culture exists through the interpretation of the actors of historical and symbolic forms (Tierney, 1988). That is, organizational culture is grounded in the shared assumptions of individuals participating in the organization. Culture, as Denison (1996) points out, refers to the deep structure of organizations, which is rooted in the values, beliefs, and assumptions held by organizational members.

The growing interest in organizational culture by the industry is partly connected to the admired success of Japanese firms, and partly to the changing nature of the corporate industry. More innovative and knowledge-intensive businesses are credited for developing and sustaining distinct corporate cultures. Even in older firms where culture is not normally seen as a top priority, culture receives substantial attention especially at times of change (Alvesson, 2002). Moreover, the changing trend from mass production to more organic systems serving for service, knowledge and information sectors in the economy makes ideational aspects more important especially in service sector (Alvesson, 1990). Hancock and Tyler (2001) stated that changes in production technology and work organization may have had a role in making the cultural dimension more important, "as efforts to reduce storage costs by increasing the throughput speed of products in manufacturing process call for greater flexibility and a higher degree of commitment from the workforce" (p. 103). Culture, in such contexts, is conceived to serve the function

of unifying or normative glue that holds the organization together. It is the symbols, beliefs, values, practices and artifacts that define for members in these changing work conditions who they are and how they are to do things (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

2.2.1 What is Organizational Culture?

Although the use of the concept 'culture' is quite recent in organizational analysis, the notion of organizational culture has first been emphasized by Selznick, who viewed organizations as institutions rather than mere rational structures (1957). According to Selznick, institutions are infused with value, which produces a distinctive identity for the organization. At the beginning of 1980's, an interest in the role of national cultures on the success of corporate firms aroused because of the incredibly fast rising of the Japanese economy, which was utterly devastated by a World War only 30 years ago. A number of books were published in this period, a famous example to which would be by William Ouchi (1981), trying to enlighten the secrets behind the success of these Japanese companies. His was the first of the works which would boom later in the decade on what is referred to as corporate cultures. The study of organizational culture; hence, became one of the major domains of organizational research during the 80's, when studies often compared western organizations to Japanese or other national organizations (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985). The rise of this interest in organizational culture was mainly because of the rise of Japanese firms during the late 70's, which were considered to have superior operating characteristics (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985).

In anthropology, culture is taken as the conceptual foundation on which field observers base their explanations of the order and pattern among individual and collective life experience. Culture has assumed a similar explanatory role in organizational theory (Bergquist, 1992). According to Ouchi (1981),

organizational culture is “systems, ceremonies, and myths that communicate the underlying values and beliefs of the organization to its employees.” However, Schein (1985) defines organizational culture as “the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by the members of an organization, that operate unconsciously, and that define in a basic taken-for-granted fashion an organization’s view of itself and its environment” (p. 6). As well as traditional or societal culture, organizational culture exists through the interpretation of the actors of historical and symbolic forms (Tierney, 1988). That is, organizational culture is grounded in the shared assumptions of individuals participating in the organization. Culture, as Denison (1996) points out, refers to the deep structure of organizations, which is rooted in the values, beliefs, and assumptions held by organizational members.

Meaning is established through socialisation to a variety of identity groups that converge in the workplace. Interaction reproduces a symbolic world that gives culture both a great stability and a certain precarious and fragile nature rooted in the dependence of the system on individual cognition and action (p. 624).

When the interest of the academicians is considered, theirs is more of an attempt to free themselves from traditional organizational research, which was highly objectivist, and to provide a deeper, richer and more realistic understanding of organizations. Although the indigenous ‘feel’ of the workplace has been studied under a variety of labels, including organizational character, milieu, atmosphere, and ideology, the related concepts of climate and culture have provided an impetus and general framework for contemporary discussions of the workplace (Hoy, 1990).

Organizational culture scholars in the 80’s mostly used qualitative and ethnographic techniques of anthropology and sociology; and their works on organizational culture stemmed from two basic intellectual traditions (Hoy, 1990),

the first one being the holistic studies in the tradition of Radcliffe and Brown (1952), which may be said to represent a functionalist tradition in anthropology. This first tradition encouraged the researcher to consider a society or a group as a whole and to find out how its cultural elements function to maintain the social structure, such as in corporate ceremonies or company legends. A second tradition which may best be represented by Geertz (1973) and Goodenough (1971), emphasized the importance of discovering the 'native's point of view'. Goodenough sees culture as a system of shared cognitions, rules, knowledge, beliefs, or constructs that influence how members perceive and interpret their world (Smircich, 1983). Hofstede (1983), too, defined culture as "collective programming of the mind", and focused on the local meanings and their comparison. This school was called 'semiotic' "for its focus on language and symbols as the principal tools for apprehending the native's perspective" (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985, p. 161). Geertz suggested that "the whole point of a semiotic approach to culture is to aid us in gaining access to the conceptual world in which our subjects live so that we can, in some extended sense of the term, converse with them" (1973, p. 24). To accomplish this, a researcher must be immersed in the complex clusterings of symbols that people use to confer meaning upon their world, which requires him or her to be involved in an intellectual effort of 'thick description' (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985). Despite this distinction, these two schools of thought see culture as both a dependent variable shaped by a unique time and place, and an independent variable shaping the behaviors of people.

To Ouchi and Wilkins (1985), organizational culture may be viewed as "a continuation of the main line of organizational sociology" (p. 458). There has been an enduring conflict between the researchers of organizational sociology since Max Weber, between those who focus on the order and rationality creating capacity of organizations and those who emphasize the chaotic and nonrational features of organizational life. Moreover, Alvesson too pointed out (1991) "that the expansion of organizational culture and symbolism studies may be said to be

triggered off by tendencies to ‘social disintegration’, including the recession of traditional ideologies or work and authority pattern during the last decade” (p. 213).

It is this conflict that has given birth to organizational culture, as the resistance of systems to bureaucratic interpretation caused a major anomaly in the study of formal structures in organizations (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985). School systems, for example, called “organized anarchies” by Cohen, March and Olsen, (1972), represented very weak rational properties and thus defined by Weick (1976) as “loosely coupled systems.”

The ground was thus prepared for a new approach to the study of organization. The paradigm of formal organizational structure had been found incapable of encompassing the anomalous forms of hospitals and of school organization, nor could it effectively encompass the modern Japanese industrial firm, which had come to prominence in scholarship as well as in public affairs (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985, p. 468).

Hence, the importance of culture in directing human behavior, which had already been central to the study of anthropology, began to be directly applied to the study of organizations (Fine, 1984). This interest was predominantly a promanagement one based on the assumption that a strong and effective culture would tie the employee to the organization and prevent alienation, which is why they argued that managers should be conscious of and benefit from the culture of their organization, and the cultural forms such as jargon, jokes, sagas, rituals and stories. The majority of the studies in this tradition have attempted to assert that some cultures are better for some organizations than others and that organizations must be flexible enough to change cultures when necessary. These authors examined corporations that have proven to be successful to see how consciously

shaping the organizational mission, ideologies, ceremonies or myths can help better management.

The most influential of these authors is Schein (1985), who listed the elements of organizational culture as follows, 1) the observed behavioral regularities of organizational interaction, such as language and rituals 2) the norms that evolve in working groups 3) the dominant values espoused by an organization 4) the philosophy that guides an organization's policy toward employees and customers 5) the rules of the game for getting along in the organization 6) the feeling or climate that is conveyed in an organization by the physical layout and interactions of members with customers (p. 1).

According to Schein (1985), these elements reflect the organizations culture but none of them is the essence of culture. "The term culture should be reserved for the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by the members of an organization, that operate unconsciously, and that define in a basic 'taken-for-granted' fashion an organization's view of itself and its environment" (Schein, 1985, pp. 492-493). Group assumptions that are shared, taken for granted, and usually unconscious were also seen by Schein (1990) as the most critical and fundamental foundation and driver of organizational culture.

Just like Schein, Lyons argues that the nature of organizational culture is multidimensional; therefore, a truly comprehensive view of organizational culture would try to identify and consider organizational culture's various dimensions (Lyons, 2003).

Organizational culture can be understood as encompassing at least the following dimensions:

- a) Cognitions: patterns of shared perceptions, schemas, thought processes, reasoning, decision making, assumptions, shared meanings, and sense making.
- b) Values: established patterns of priorities and ethics, and that which is held sacred or of high esteem.
- c) The symbolic: shared meaning, sense making process, metaphors and other symbolic language, shared symbols, rituals, ceremonies, stories, sagas, and myths. Symbols include anything that has symbolic meaning, or, in other words, anything that stands for or represents something else. Sometimes the symbolic meaning is obvious while at other times a symbol may have a less well-known or even hidden level of meaning. The meaning is a message that needs to be deciphered. “Themes of the symbolic discourse are deciphered by finding and analysing various kinds of symbolic systems and their associated meaning” (Smircich, 1983, p. 351).
- d) Differentiation: the existence and role or influence of diversity, conflict, subculture groups, and politics, especially established patterns. This is critical as understanding the characteristics of organizational culture only as shared sameness may cause us to fail to recognize the diversity and conflict inherent in every organization (Frost, 1991).
- e) Fragmentation: patterns present within the subgroup or organizational culture of ambiguity, uncertainty, confusion, inconsistency, paradoxes, unclear expectations, apparently unsolvable problems, and symbolic expressions that may not have clear interpretation or may be impossible to decipher within organizations. All these things have a fragmenting effect rather than an integrating effect.
- f) Emotions: patterns present within the organizational culture regarding shared feelings about particular subjects, how feelings are handled, the awareness and impact of feelings as well as the general, pervasive emotional climate.

- g) The unconscious: group of organizational patterns of potential, unconscious contents and processes related to both the personal unconscious and the collective psyche/archetypal. These unconscious processes include defence mechanisms, transference, projection, projective identification, and countertransference. Smircich (1983) argued that “culture may also be regarded as the expression of unconscious psychological processes” (p. 351).
- h) Contracts: rules, norms, agreements, expectations, promises, commitments. Contracts can be about behavior, as well as about relationships, cognition, or emotion. Reactions to breaking contracts may vary from one organization to another, and there may also be different cultural rules about what types of contracts can or should be made, what issues can or should contracts address, and about who can make or break them.
- i) Patterns of interaction and relationships: seeks to discern and understand the effects of existing functional and dysfunctional interaction and relationship patterns.
- j) Defining traits or characteristics: labels that try to capture and express the perceived or felt essence of character or personality of the organizational culture, the public perception of the organization, what it is like to experience being there, or what it is like to deal with the organization.

The interest in the study of organizational culture is understandable since it provides a framework for creating order out of complex and often chaotic dynamics of organizational life. There are certainly many other ways of the use of culture theory in organizations but those mentioned here are the most significant and influential ones.

Smircich divides how culture is dealt with in organization studies into two broad perspectives, culture as a variable and culture as a root metaphor (1983). As the most well known example to the perspective seeing culture as an organizational

variable, Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv and Sanders (1990) sought an answer to the question whether organizational cultures can be measured quantitatively, and came up with a number of discrete dimensions of culture and studied these dimensions through four basic manifestations of culture, which are, symbols, heroes, rituals, and values (1990). The dimensions are process-oriented versus result oriented cultures; job oriented versus employee oriented cultures; professional versus parochial cultures; open system versus closed system cultures; tightly controlled versus loosely controlled cultures; and lastly pragmatic versus normative cultures (Hofstede et al., 1990). The following section provides a review of the studies in the same stance, making use of the dimensions of culture in organizations to reach a 'better' or 'stronger' culture in an attempt to accelerate change.

2.2.2 Organizational Culture as a Managerial Tool

According to a group of scholars, organizational culture may be used as a means of reinforcing organizational development (Hofstede et al., 1990; Schein, 1985; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992). To them, studying organizational culture allows for insights into changing or strengthening those aspects of organizations which are key to the organizational development process. Schein (2010) also claimed that an understanding of organizational culture is necessary to identify what may be the priority issues for the leader and leadership. This perspective could be described as being functionalist in Burrell and Morgan's (1979) terms and being based on technical cognitive interests according to Habermas (1972). When culture is portrayed as something that functions as a mechanism of stability and equilibrium, it also becomes something that can be designed and manipulated by the leaders in accordance with an organizational plan or mission (Hancock & Tyler, 2001), which makes it a critical strategic variable for organizational change.

Schein states that organizational cultures are created by leaders, and it is one of the most important functions of leadership to create and if necessary change a culture (1985). It may be both taken as a product of leadership, which “embodies accumulated wisdom from those who came before us”, or a process which is constantly renewed and reproduced as newcomers learn the old ways and eventually become teachers of those old ways (Bolman & Deal, 1997). When the culture is created as a ‘product’ by the leader, the next task for the leader is to operate the mechanisms to help the acceptance and maintenance of the culture, which include steps like recruitment of new entries, training of them, measuring results for reward and control, and finally actions to reinforce the values such as ensuring employees’ exposure to organizational folklore and role models. (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004).

2.2.2.1 Organizational Culture as an Instrument of Change

Schein is one of those who argue that with a thorough understanding of an organization’s culture, leaders can better assist organizational learning and development. Schein argued that (2010) the challenge of leadership is to perceive the limitations of one’s own organizational culture and then to develop the present culture. According to this perspective which is referred to as “corporate culture” by Smircich (1983), the concept of culture is considered as an integral organizational variable. Advocates of corporate culture tended to identify strategies and processes by which organizational leaders could manipulate culture for managerial purposes. Ford and Ford (1995), for instance, argued that organizational culture is created through conversations, and thus, it is essential for leaders or change agents to take into account the rigor and consciousness in the communication of intentional change. To Tatro (2007), this perspective views organizational culture as an element of organization that can be strengthened to facilitate management objectives. Deal and Kennedy, (1982), too noted that the

construction of shared values is central to high organizational performance, a stance that puts great emphasis on the value of a 'strong culture'. This view of culture in organizations can be named as 'instrumental' according to the distinction made by Peterson and Spencer (1990), who argued that organizational culture can either be seen as instrumental, as in the case of corporate culture, or as 'interpretive', that is, creating a sense of meaning for members regarding organizational values (1990). For instance, in his study on the organizational culture of a college going through change, Tatro (2007) argued that leaders who want to advance the mission of a college might benefit from understanding the political, social, and economic factors that have influenced the organizational culture of it in addition to the behavioral, emotional and cognitive experiences of the faculty and the students of the college. Organizations produce cultural phenomena just as they produce goods or services. The conception of culture is based on the systems theory framework. Culture is viewed by this perspective as a more subjectivist internal variable which has later been recognized into the systems model. As Smircich (1983) claimed, there is a prevalent belief that companies which have internal cultures supportive of their strategies are more likely to be successful. The overall aim of researchers in this direction is to diagnose organizational culture so that it would help the manager to negotiate his way while managing the company (Smircich & Calas, 1987).

Bergquist and Pawlack (2008) take a different path than merely diagnosing the existing culture with an aim to improve it, and suggest that we adopt an "appreciative perspective" of the culture of an institution. That is, upon changing the structure or processes, leaders must "focus on the successes of the organization in order to build a preferred future for it" (Bergquist & Pawlack, 2008, p. 221).

As opposed to this approach which sees culture as a means of socialisation into the organization and a tool for organizational change used by the managers and the employee having no influence on it, culture is also seen as a root metaphor for

organizations, which promotes a view of organizations as expressive forms and manifestations of human consciousness (Smircich, 1983).

2.2.3 Culture as Root Metaphor for Organizations

Unlike the first perspective to the study of organizational culture that sees culture embedded in the larger metaphor of organism for organization, culture as root metaphor for organizations views organizations as cultures themselves. It promotes a view of organizations as expressive forms and manifestations of human consciousness. According to Putnam and Fairhurst (2004), organizational culture is not just another piece in the puzzle, but it is the puzzle. One important point to be noted according to Inglis (2004, p. 22) is that “culture cannot be planned but will have its way”. The theoretical background where it stems from is the concept of culture in anthropology. According to how culture is conceptualized in anthropology, this view is also divided into three themes by Smircich and Calas (1987) and Smircich (1983):

1. Cognitive perspective: Culture is seen as a system of shared cognitions or a system of knowledge and beliefs. Organizational culture may be represented as a ‘master contract’ which includes the organization’s self image and rules and regulations that organize beliefs in the light of this image.
2. Symbolic perspective: They treat cultures as systems of shared symbols and meanings. An organization is conceived of as a pattern of symbolic discourse that needs interpreting, deciphering or reading in order to be understood. The focus of analysis is on how individuals interpret and understand their experience and how these interpretations and understandings relate to action. The focus of some research in this perspective is on language, symbols, myths, rituals and stories. However, these are not taken as cultural artifacts, but as generative

processes that shape meanings that are fundamental to the existence of the organization.

3. Structural perspective: They claim that culture displays the workings of the unconscious infrastructure. The purpose of their research is to reveal hidden and universal dimensions of the human mind in the organization.

According to Habermas (1984), knowledge does not exist as some abstract entity, but is the product of intentional human activity. Values, goals, purposes and aims concerning the ultimate potential contribution of a specific research effort are governing it. These aims, to Alvesson (1991), are knowledge-constitutive or cognitive interests, which he groups under three as: the technical aims to find laws or law-like relationships; the practical is concerned with the understanding of the historical and traditional context of human life; and the emancipatory cognitive interest aims to stimulate self-reflection in personal and social life in order to free man from the restrictions and repressions of the established social order and its ideologies. Alvesson (1991) pointed out that the majority of organizational culture researchers, who have a rather functionalistic orientation focusing on the immediate interests of practitioners can be considered to be proceeding from a technical cognitive interest (1991). These authors assume that knowledge about how symbols function and how they can be deliberately changed and controlled provide the potential means for the manipulation of symbols by the managers.

However, the ‘culture as root metaphor’ view to studying organizational culture offered by Smircich (1983) stimulates a different cognitive interest in the researcher’s attention, which “shifts from concerns about what do organizations accomplish and how they may accomplish it more efficiently, to how is organization accomplished and what does it mean to be organized” (Smircich, 1983, p. 353). To Alvesson (1991), this approach is more closely related to the practical cognitive interest, but might also produce valuable knowledge from an

emancipatory point of view, as focusing on the systems of meaning in human organizations would inevitably lead to the recognition of conflicting preferences and interpretations through revealing the unconscious assumptions and processes that lead human beings.

There are others who have departed from the conceptualization of culture as an organizational variable and viewed culture as a concept rather than a thing. The first step towards understanding the essence of organizational culture is to appreciate that it is a concept rather than a thing. This distinction is crucial. A thing can be discovered and truths established about it, for example, through empirical research. Unlike a thing, however, “a concept is created in people’s minds – that is, it must be conjured up, defined and refined” (Ott, 1989, p. 50).

Bate (1994) pointed out why culture is not a ‘thing’ as:

In strategic terms we need to think about organizations as being cultures rather than having cultures. It is the conception of organization rather than the object of study that makes the culture perspective unique. The important point, therefore is not *what* we study, but the different way we look at the organization: the task for the culture strategist is not to think *about* culture but to think *culturally* (p. 17).

As Oches (2001) claimed, culture cannot be manipulated to the extent that a cause-effect relationship between all actions and desired outcomes is possible. A researcher approaching culture as a variable views it as equal to other elements such as personnel, location, etc. and assumes that it can be quantified and tracked in the name of profitability. For example, school culture is a behavioral phenomenon that cannot be studied directly. It is inferred from observed behavior such as language, rituals, and ceremonies commonly encountered in the cultural setting (Oches, 2001). However, that it is inferred from observed behavior does

not mean culture acts machine-like with every action being predictable and every element totally definable. It is larger than the set of activities observed to explain it. It is not a tool to increase effectiveness, but a tool for understanding meaning. According to Bruner (1996, p. 28), “the chief subject matter of school, viewed culturally, is the school itself.”

2.2.4 Studies of School Culture

Schools are considered as ‘open systems’, that is to say, in relation to an ‘environment’ (Tipton, 1985). While schools do indeed have different cultures, it is also likely that schools operating within a given societal context (culture) will share many similar cultural characteristics when compared with schools in other nations. Put differently, the values and behavioral norms shared by people of a given culture will exercise a profound effect on all aspects of relationships within schools (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996). Thus, Hallinger and Leithwood argue that the societal culture exerts a significant influence on administrators beyond that of the specific organization. There may possibly be interesting interactions between the cultural norms at the national level and the types of formal institutional systems they design for the organization and management of schooling (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996). Aspects of education system such as the degree of centralization may form qualitatively different educational contexts in different nations. Especially together with the widespread use of internationally comparable data such as league tables, the discussion of whether such comparison makes ‘cultural’ sense or whether certain educational activities that are found to be successful in one nation are culturally appropriate for the other has risen (LeTendre, Baker, Abika, Goesling, & Wiseman, 2001). Thus, the argument is usually centered around whether it is feasible or not to borrow educational practices from other nations; because the distinctive cultures that the nations have are thought to be shaping actual practices in schooling.

The study of LeTendre et al. (2001) examined these assumptions about cultural and cross-national comparisons with data from the 1995 TIMMS survey in Germany, Japan, and the US. While there are undeniable national cultural factors affecting teaching in the US and other nations, this study revealed how global dynamics in national educational policy trends affect teachers' working lives. It was concluded that classroom environments are remarkably similar around the world, and teachers work within homogenous parameters of instructional practice that are institutionalized on a global level, though it is dangerous to imply that everything is the same everywhere, since the global dynamic culture of teaching may sometimes reach a dead end where unique national and local change is also possible (LeTendre et al., 2001). In her criticism of LeTendre et al.'s work, Anderson-Levitt (2002) argued that this must not be taken as a dead end due to unique national change, but because of the differences in the implementation process, which are quite natural. People will never borrow an idea from another country, or even from the school next door, without transforming it into something new (Anderson-Levitt, 2002), which reminds us of the premise that every school is a unique culture.

Just like unique national and local change is possible, there is also the issue of whether national cultures are that stable across nations and homogenous within nations. There may also be differences within nations, which is the focus of what Abraham (2007) calls differentiation/polarization studies. Van Houtte's (2006) study, which provides large sample quantitative analysis of differentiation and polarization between school cultures in Belgium, is an example to these. Her results conveyed that there is a causal relationship between internal differentiation in the form of streaming the students and polarization of student sub-cultures.

Similarly, Arslan, Kuru and Satici (2005) investigated teachers' perceptions of organizational culture and its dimensions in primary and secondary schools in

order to examine similarities and differences between levels. A survey was conducted through an organizational culture questionnaire in randomly selected three primary and three high schools in Gebze. The results revealed that according to teachers' perceptions, there is a strong organizational culture in primary schools while in high schools organizational culture is perceived to be weak by teachers. These studies could be given as examples to studies that aim to identify types of cultures in different levels of educational organizations.

The organizational culture perspective into understanding the relationships or patterns in higher education contexts has been quite popular in the fields of both management and education. One of the most influential of these works is by Bergquist (1992), who identified four distinct cultures in American higher education, recognizing that each culture can only be understood in the context of its historical roots and its multiple representations in the campus. These cultures are: collegial culture, managerial culture, developmental culture, and negotiating culture. Bergquist (1992) asserted that although one of these is usually dominant and embraced by the faculty and administrators in a higher education context, the other three cultures too are always present and in interaction with the dominant one. In a more recent study, he pointed out the importance of two additional cultures in higher education institutions, namely virtual culture and tangible culture, which have emerged as a result of the external influences on our global culture (Bergquist & Pawlack, 2008). Bergquist's work assumes that the importance of studying culture appears when efforts are initiated to bring about change, and those who initiate change must take into account that different strategies are needed during times of change for each culture, which demonstrates us that he assumes organizational culture to be a tool that can be manipulated in order to reach organizational aims such as change.

A more recent attempt to advance the understanding of the relationships between academic staff and administrators in a university context was done by Kuo (2009).

His study used interview data from 18 academicians and 18 administrators in a US university, with the purpose of investigating how they perceive and construct their relationship from an organizational culture perspective. The findings suggested that in general the relationships between academic staff and administrators are professional and based on collegiality, interpersonal dynamics, professionalism and open dialogue; and underscore the importance of appreciating how cultural subjectivity, diversity and complexity can have a direct impact on the evolution of relationships between academic staff and administrators. This study is significant in that it reaffirms the role of culture and its manifestations in academic circles as they create and shape dynamic relationships.

A school reform concept popular a decade or more ago, effective schools, considered culture to be a mechanism to achieve greater levels of learning in students (Oches, 2001). They aimed to enhance or to change the culture to get desired results. As an extension of the discourse of effective schools in educational leadership studies, the concept of school culture has attracted a lot of attention, especially in the form of studies into the shaping or reshaping of school culture in line with managerial targets. Bulach (2001), for instance, claims that the secret for successful change in schools is to identify the existing culture and reshape it. This diagnostic approach is also apparent in the 'strong school cultures' literature, which sees teachers and administrators as important variables in creating an effective school culture. Lance's (2010) study which is based on a case study of two ethnically diverse urban primary schools in England might constitute an example to this as it aims to identify core values conducive to the building of a positive school culture. The commitment of the headteachers to their individual schools, their respect for the pupils and their families, and their attention to providing a breadth of learning experience were identified as being the key factors.

Oplatka and Brown's study (2007) is also one that regards school culture as a variable that can be manipulated in the light of managerial aims, in their case being the incorporation of market orientation in the school culture. They believe that market orientation as an element of school culture extends beyond customer orientation, and also includes values like competitor orientation and inter-functional coordination, which altogether benefit schools since they underpin the development and implementation of successful organization-environment relationships.

An example of this approach which emphasizes 'strong' or 'positive' cultures in the Turkish context can be seen in Uğurlu's (2009) study, which documented the significance of school culture for organizational development. Through semi-structured interviews with teachers and analysis of documents, the characteristics of school culture were identified, and it was observed that administrators' behaviors had a determining effect on school culture. From these findings, it was concluded that we must give importance to the organizational culture of a school in order to make the school more effective by changing the behaviors of the people who are part of the organization (Uğurlu, 2009).

Another study by Şahin (2004), which aimed to determine the relationship between the leadership styles of school principals and school culture through a survey in 50 primary schools in İzmir using school principal's leadership style scale and school culture scale, sees principals as an important variable in creating an effective school culture. The results conveyed that principals exhibit more transformational leadership than transactional style, and there is a positive relationship between the transformational leadership and some dimensions of school culture in the scale such as cooperative, educational development and social-educational.

What the findings of these studies depict in common is that organizational culture in educational organizations at all levels including higher education is a significant variable which influences various aspects or factors such as relationships among staff, leadership styles, organizational development, and organization-environment relationships; and there is point in paying more attention to and being aware of culture as having a determining effect on these factors.

2.2.5 Teacher Culture and its Significance for Educational Change

Teachers may be expected to exhibit a variety of discourses, the cultural forms of which will be influenced by patterns of work, teacher education, and socialization. Hence, it would be hard to expect that there will be any single set of beliefs and practices that belong essentially to teachers. However, the school organization, the problems and dilemmas of teaching and curriculum are likely to provide similar conditions to teachers that may result in the evolution of distinctive cultures for them (Sachs & Smith, 1988). There is a strand of teacher culture theory that proposes that teachers as a professional category are not homogenous, so their cultures are not either. Cherryholmes (1987), for instance, claimed that teacher cultures are fluid, pluralistic and diverse, depending on the environmental, systemic and biographical features of teachers. In contrast to this, another position is that teachers and schools are characterized by uniformity rather than pluralism (Bernstein, 1987; Goodlad, 2004). Hargreaves (1984) also mentioned high cultural consensus among teachers regarding the meaning of work for them. Teachers make up their minds about how to change their practices in the light of their informed practical deliberations (Craig, 2009).

Teachers' work has been the subject of many major restructuring efforts over a couple of decades around the world, and the working lives of teachers have undergone dramatic changes as a result of curriculum demands or change efforts

on working times or teacher roles (Klette, 2000). Many scholars have noted that the relationship between education policy, the activities of teachers and school administrators, and student learning and achievement is a complex one (e.g., Cuban, 1993; Fullan, 1999; Hatch, 2002).

Grimmett et. al's (2008, p. 103) examination of teacher research indicates that "instructional improvement needs to be transformed into an experience that sustains a rich conversation about pedagogical possibilities, working alongside teachers to help diverse learners in a rapidly changing social context by collaboratively addressing the vexing questions and perplexing dilemmas inherent in daily practice." Teachers' emotions, as Hargreaves (2005) pointed out, are also critical during the instructional improvement process since teachers may resist outside pressure in order to protect their professional identity and their emotions of the workplace.

2.2.6 Studies into Teacher Culture

A cultural perspective when examining research would lead us to expect that aspects of teacher culture would shape the schools' responses to new requirements of policy makers. Acker (1990) argues that the cultural look, as well as theoretical approaches such as symbolic interactionism more generally, shows us that meanings and interpretations are significant in their own contexts.

While educational research once focused on the behaviors and processes of teachers, it now recognizes the need to consider how teachers think about their work (Brilhart, 2010). This postmodern shift requires an epistemological framework that emphasizes human meaning making in context and an interpretive framework that recognizes the impact of social interactions and context for this

meaning making. There is increasing emphasis on the importance of including a focus on the contextual parameters that shape teachers' lives rather than just focusing on teacher practice alone (Ohi, 2008). The reason for this is explained by van den Berg (2002) as follows:

The existing patterns of culture, power, and control within a school system clearly influence the functioning of teachers, which leads to the question of how developments can be steered in such a manner that the personal identities and meanings of those directly involved are also taken maximally into consideration (pp. 583-584).

Klette (2000) studied the implications of recent changes in education in Norway for teachers' work. Starting with the 80's, as a result of the pressures on the traditional welfare state model to change educational policies, there was a shift to a more decentralized model of education in terms of regulation, planning, financing, and school improvement, continued with curricular reforms in the early 90's (Klette, 2000). The evaluation of her findings indicated that the new policies had a positive impact on teacher collaboration and cooperation in schools to a certain extent; nevertheless, did not lead to professional development either at institutional or individual level.

In an ethnographic study aiming to understand how primary teachers construe the notion of work, Nias (1989) argues that despite their differences, primary school teachers see themselves in similar ways. In her study, these similarities were found to be centred around the feelings of strong doubt about the quality of their own functioning as teachers. According to the findings, these doubts are caused by the monotony of daily classroom activities; a changed mentality of students who appear to be less disciplined and less motivated; increasingly negative attitudes of those outside the school toward education; confusing and sometimes slack attitudes of local, regional, or national policies; and less serious and less motivated attitudes of younger colleagues.

Another study in the same vein is Helsby's (2000) work that explores the changes in teachers' work cultures and professionalism as a result of the constraints brought about by the National Curriculum in England. Drawing upon interview data from a 30 month study of teachers' professional cultures, Helsby concluded that the initial implementation of the National Curriculum in England could be seen to have a negative effect on teacher professionalism, as it overtly challenged teacher autonomy. However, it was also seen that this acted as a positive prompt for teacher development (2000).

A similar study was conducted in the same context by Mac an Ghail (1992), with the purpose of critically examining the institutional dialectical dynamics of how recent policy influences teacher cultures and in turn how teacher cultures impact policy. The study identified three groups of teacher cultures on the basis of interviews, observation and a questionnaire: the cultures of the Professionals, the Old Collectivists, and the New Entrepreneurs. Although none of these ideologies held exclusive control over the others, they interacted in a competing way with a dominant position emerging, that of the New Entrepreneurs (Mac an Ghail, 1992).

Acker's (1990) study also uses longitudinal ethnographic data to investigate the impact of recent government legislation on primary school teachers, through an analysis of the changes in their distinctive cultures. By the end of a year, Acker observed visible signs that the culture of teachers at her case school was changing, the impetus largely being the government initiatives. Her study shows us that the implementation process of government initiated change was more than simply a technical matter, and some aspects of teacher culture at the school such as collegiality, and collaboration made it smoother; whereas other aspects such as the reluctance to produce written documents made it more difficult. Overall, teachers

perceive a threat and are anxious about the changes in general, but changes are not perceived as destructive or deskilling by them (Acker, 1990).

Every decision made by schools as organizations and by individual teachers in their classrooms reflects certain value preferences (Tal & Yinon, 2009). Friedman and Almog-Bareket (2006) looked at value dimensions and organizational strategies differentiating among schools based on a study of Israeli teachers. Based on a model of seven value types being conformity, autonomy, innovation, conservatism, boundedness, achievement and well-being, they found that all of these with an addition of eighth value –creativity- emerged from the data. Their data also revealed that diversity among schools is likely to reflect variability regarding the intensity of endorsement of the value dimensions (2006).

New researchers in cultural studies have improved past research by taking seriously how interactions produce not only perspectives on the world that are gendered and raced but categories of people and understandings about the world that are embedded in our language. Theoretically, the outcome has been a melding of symbolic interactionism, critical multiculturalism, and forms of postmodern literary theory (Casella, 1999, p. 113).

2.3 Educational Change

The modern state is the one that plans and governs social service and technological sufficiency on one side, and humans' development and improvement on the other side. Its control and intervention is at its maximum, both protecting the public and making it advance. Education is one of the domains the modern state controls as such and intervenes in. Thus, educational reforms are always of the most significant and pervasive ones all over the world.

The terms 'reform' and 'change' in education present different purposes and outcomes. To Horn (2002), the difference lies in the fact that 'reform' implies that something is wrong and will be better, but 'change' simply implies that something will be completely altered or transformed after the implementation. Popkewitz (1991), too, shares this belief that 'reform' requires some sort of intervention in the going-on process in the name of progress. However, it is quite common to see these terms being used interchangeably depending on people's understandings of them. For the purposes of this study, the term 'educational change' will be preferred as it connotes a more transformative process aiming to rebuild what is considered 'learning' and 'knowledge', rather than simply trying to correct a deficiency in the system.

Horn (2002) claims that the two terms are also different in terms of their relation to the general public. Reforms are less likely to create anxiety among the public as they are more narrowly focused and they require most aspects of the educational system remain the same. This means it is easier for reforms to gain wider public support and they can be more easily explained. However, when it comes to educational change, public support is not sufficient in itself as a reeducation of the public is also essential. "Change requires public understanding of something that is new and outside of their personal experience with education" (Horn, 2002, p. 2).

2.3.1 Educational Change at the Macro Level

Either call it reform or change, the inclusion of public support as a requirement demonstrates that this is inherently a political process, sometimes even stemming from political motives and agendas not related to education at all (Horn, 2002). The need to compete for support for the part of the initiators of change requires them to demonstrate to the public the need for change and the planned benefits. While promising an improvement in the education system, policy makers tend to

forget that the existing system may also have some strengths and be highly critical of it (Morris, Chan & Ling, 2002). In the case of primary curriculum change that was realized in Turkey in 2005, the same was done by stressing the ranking of Turkey according to 2004 PISA results (Gür, Çelik & Özoğlu, 2011).

‘Political’ also refers to an allocation or reallocation of scarce educational resources, which implies that “whoever controls the change process has the power to benefit some students or community constituencies more than others” (Scheurich, 1997). As Blase and Björk put it, the term ‘politics’ refers to decisions about the allocation of valued goods for a particular society or organization, in other words, it is the question of who gets what, how and when (2010).

For the purposes of this study, what is meant by change in the discussion is imposed or mandated change by policymakers. However, either voluntary or imposed, all real change involves loss, anxiety and struggle and it is essential to recognize this as a natural and inevitable aspect of it; otherwise we might ignore important aspects of change and misinterpret others (Fullan, 2001). This is parallel to what Schön referred to as “passing through the zones of uncertainty” (1971, p. 12). Real change represents both personal and collective experience that reflects ambivalence and uncertainty (Fullan, 2001), which makes the subjective reality of those involved very relevant to the success or failure of the change attempt. Since change puts goals, skills, philosophies or beliefs of those involved at stake and causes ambivalence or incoherence, it is necessary to question their subjective conceptions of reality. The conceptual understandings that educators, students, and community members share about educational change are an important sociological constraint that impedes the development of controlled change within educational structures (Seldin & Maloy, 1979, p. 30).

Educational change is technically simple but socially complex... A large part of the problem of educational change may be less a question

of dogmatic resistance and bad intentions and more a question of the difficulties related to planning and coordinating a multilevel social process involving thousands of people (Fullan, 2001, p. 45).

The degree of change is strongly related to the extent to which teachers interact with each other and others providing technical help. Fullan argued that significant educational change consists of changes in beliefs, teaching styles and materials, which can be brought about only through a process of personal development in a social context (2001).

Although there is a strong need to attend to the local particularities while analyzing education policy making, it is still valuable to be aware of the general patterns and convergence around the world (Ball, 1998). In fact, this convergence has become so natural and widespread that education is seen as a test of globalization thesis; on the grounds that if education, as the most national of institutions, is being globalised, then the idea of globalization must have some substance (Dale, 2009). The area of education where we are most likely to see convergence because of globalization is pedagogy, one of the most culturally bound elements of education. Dale identifies three possible areas of convergence of pedagogies in education: of practices, of justifications of them, and of spaces which frame those justifications. Dale (2009) claims that 'national' is not anymore the only scale of activity in education, or the only level at which we may discern changes in education.

A shift is taking place in the relationship between politics, government and education in mostly complex westernized post-industrialized countries, which Carter and O'Neill (1995) call 'the new orthodoxy', which they characterize through the following elements: 1) Improving national economics by tightening the connection between schooling and employment, 2) Enhancing student outcomes in employment related skills and competencies, 3) Attaining more direct

control over curriculum content and assessment, 4) Reducing the costs to government of education, 5) Increasing community input to education by direct involvement in school decision making.

The fact that change is mandated from national policy making or, as is usually the case, from supranational organizations does not mean that it is to be readily accepted. However, there is such a tendency in studies especially in developing countries, which is highly problematic according to Morris, Chan & Ling (2002). It is generally assumed that policies are unproblematic and that barriers to change stem from schools and teachers within schools (Morris, Chan and Ling, 2002). Instead, we need to focus on the ways schools and teachers perceive or respond to centrally initiated change, rather than the extent to which it was implemented. Therefore, when analyzing what would have changed if an innovation were fully implemented, there is a need to look at the change occurred in one of the following three things first: curriculum materials, teaching practices and beliefs and understandings of teachers about the curriculum and learning practices (Fullan, 2001). This assumption is not only widespread in empirical implementation studies but also in the minds of the national policy makers. To Hargreaves, “change has been developed or imposed in a context where teachers have been given little credit or recognition for changing themselves, and for possessing their own wisdom to distinguish between what reasonably can be changed and what cannot” (1994, p. 6). The challenge of curriculum change, according to Carson (2008), starts with the curriculum development itself, “because of its focus on curriculum outcomes rather than the implementation process” (p. 2). He argues that ‘implementation’ as a concept is inherently problematic. While curriculum design is a reformist and creative activity addressing the shortcomings of the curriculum, implementation focuses on the interventions made on the teacher through in-service training and instructional support materials, without dealing with the teachers’ understandings and identities formed in relation to the former curriculum (Carson, 2008). Although teachers pay

attention to objectives and plan their lessons appropriately, teaching is not primarily a rationally planned activity. This is defined as the ‘lived curriculum’ by Aoki (2005), who attaches importance to the contingent and local worlds of particular classrooms and the contexts of teachers.

2.3.2 ‘The Teacher’ in Educational Change Literature

2.3.2.1 The Teacher as a ‘Professional’

Teaching as a complex process may be conceptualized in many different ways, one of which is that it is a professional activity. This conceptualization of teaching acknowledges the body of specialized knowledge acquired by teachers through training and experience. Secondly, apart from specialized knowledge that the job requires, what makes teaching a professional activity is its goal orientation in relation to students, parents, administrators, inspectors, politicians and so on. These are agencies that most probably hold differing positions against and thus expectations from teachers, which usually creates the conflict of what constitutes good teaching in teachers. Third, teachers deal with problems that are often complex and ambiguous, especially in class, which is considered a complex environment itself (Calderhead, 1997). “Given this complexity of the teaching task, it indeed seems a remarkable achievement that teaching and learning occur in schools at all” (Calderhead, 1997, p. 82). Therefore, ‘the teacher as professional’ may be valuable to us in conceptualizing and exploring the nature of teachers’ practice better.

Following Calderhead’s conceptualization of teaching as a professional activity, there is a need to discuss what constitutes the first requirement he claims for a practice to be professional, that is, the body of specialized knowledge that one is required to have. Shulman explains this body in three domains of content knowledge, which he defines as “the amount and organization of knowledge *per*

se in the mind of the teacher”: a) subject matter content knowledge, b) pedagogical content knowledge, and c) curricular knowledge.

To Shulman (1997), teachers must both be capable of defining for students the accepted truths in a domain, and also be able to explain why a particular knowledge is worth knowing and how it relates to other pieces of knowledge, both in theory and practice. He expects that the subject matter content knowledge of the teacher must be at least equal to that of the subject matter major (Shulman, 1997). As for pedagogical content knowledge, Shulman refers to “the particular form of content knowledge that embodies the aspects of content knowledge most germane to its teachability” (p. 85). This includes the most regularly taught topics in that area, the most useful forms of representation of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, examples, explanations and demonstrations, namely, the ways of representing and formulating the subject in a way to make it comprehensible to students, with different conceptions and preconceptions about the topic due to age, backgrounds, and experiences (Shulman, 1997). Within the last category, curricular knowledge, we have the knowledge that we expect teachers to have regarding curricular alternatives and the associated materials available for instruction of a specific topic. This type of knowledge, to Shulman, is like the knowledge of possible treatments available to ameliorate a given disorder in the case of a physician for a teacher (1997). To sum up, a teacher need not only be a master of strategies and procedures, but also must be capable of explaining why something is done, which makes him/her a professional (Shulman, 1997). However, while a theory is able to empower the teacher with the cultural and theoretical frame of reference, at the same time it makes him dependent and limited within a ‘restricted’ area of one dominant theoretical paradigm. Any theory as a framework of thinking shapes the consciousness and limits the teacher to a single system of symbols (Shepel, 1995).

2.3.2.2 The Teacher as ‘Person’

Upon discussing the body of knowledge that a teacher as a ‘professional’ should have, it is quite noteworthy to remember that “teachers are more than mere bundles of knowledge, skill and technique... teachers are people too” (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1997, p. 67). You cannot understand the teacher or teaching without understanding who the teacher is as a person (Goodson, 1992). This also means you cannot change the teacher without changing the person the teacher is (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1997). The teacher as a total person is made up of factors like age, stage of career, life experiences, and gender. All these factors influence teachers’ interest in and reaction to innovation and their motivation to seek improvement (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1997). Even Fullan, who has insisted on whole school change in many of his works, admits later that because of the so far neglected notion of ‘teacher as person’, massive commitment to whole school change is an unrealistic goal, especially for those in their late careers. Instead, they suggest “modest but persistent attempts to expand teaching repertoires and to improve practice in association with colleagues” (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1997, p. 71). In order to understand the relationship between educational change and the teacher as person, Beck and Hansen (2009) investigated the generational differences and similarities in a post-reform school in regard to learning values and the competence discourse about the curriculum reform. What they found was young teachers are more reform friendly than their older colleagues (Beck & Hansen, 2009).

Teaching is one of the few professions where it is impossible to separate the human element loaded with value, emotion and belief from the professionalism of the work. Thus, the following paragraphs aim to dwell on the literature that does not separate the two aspects, but intentionally take them as one.

There are two widely agreed upon explanations of the meaning of the change in teachers' work: professionalization and intensification. Those who are centered on the explanation of professionalism argue that teachers' role have extended in a way that has realized the professionalization of them. For them, teachers are becoming more skilled and teaching has become more complex through initiatives such as the whole school curriculum development, involvement in collaborative cultures of mutual support and professional growth, and engagement in processes of school-wide change (Hargreaves, 1994).

Those who claim for the intensification of teachers' work focus on major trends towards deterioration and deprofessionalisation, as they portray teachers' work as becoming more routinised, deskilled and degraded. To them, teachers are deprived of the trust to exercise power and expertise of judgement in their classrooms since they are controlled by prescribed programs, mandated curricula and step by step pre-determined methods of instruction. What is intensified here is that they are expected to respond to greater pressures and comply with the requirements of numerous innovations under more stressful and less stable conditions (Hargreaves, 1994). Some examples of the more apparent results of intensification are listed as reduced time for relaxation, even for lunch during the working day; lack of time to keep up with the field, chronic and persistent overload, and reduction in the quality of service by Hargreaves (1994).

The process by which teaching is changing and teachers are changed is systematically ironic. Good intentions are persistently and infuriatingly turned on their heads. Even the most well-intentioned change devices which try to respect teachers' discretionary judgments promote their professional growth and support their efforts to build professional community are often self-defeating because they are squeezed into mechanistic models or suffocated through stifling supervision (p. 3).

Thus, professional development may actually result in stricter bureaucratic control, and threaten the desire to teach. There is no human change without emotion (Hargreaves, 2004), especially for teachers, who are found to depend on intrinsic psychic rewards rather than public external rewards (Lortie, 1975). Teachers' organizational change in schools is also about emotions such as conflict, unpredictability, resistance, and some loss of self-image. When teachers resist reform efforts, it is often because it threatens their self-image, their sense of identity, and their emotional bonds with students and colleagues by overloading the curriculum and intensifying teachers' work and control from the outside (Zembylas, 2010).

“Curriculum reform efforts usually have ignored the culture in which curriculum is embedded. An extremely important part of this culture is the teacher who will plan and implement the curriculum” (Tobin & Dawson, 1992, p. 81). To change the curriculum, it is essential to help teachers reconceptualize the manner in which they make sense of their respective roles, which reminds us that teacher education is a critical component of curriculum change so that they “become *educated* in the use of the resources to facilitate learning of students in their classrooms” (Tobin & Dawson, 1992, p. 92). Change, then, in this context, is taken to be change in teachers' practice and behavior that provides evidence of change in attitude, disposition and thinking (Miller, 2002), in other words, the range of meanings that teachers assign to the change. There may be a couple of factors influencing the extent to which teachers actually change their practices following a change in their thinking and dispositions. In a study into the perceptions of teachers to the new science curriculum reform in South Africa by Bantwini (2010), for instance, it was found that teachers were either negative about the reform, or neutral about it with some concern. What Bantwini also looked into was where the perceived meanings of teachers emanated from, and s/he found that the following factors contributed to the formation of teachers' perceptions (2010): 1) Lack of understanding of the

curriculum reforms, 2) Lack of classroom support, 3) Lack of in-service professional development for teachers.

Fullan notes that it is the actions of teachers, who he considers the frontline agents of change, which are critical to successful implementation of change (2001). This might well be the reason why in some occasions, new packages of curriculum have deliberately been designed in a way that would be almost ‘teacher proof’, that is, in a way that would facilitate instruction no matter how prepared or unprepared the teacher is (Tobin & Dawson, 1992). This might be the case because there are huge differences among the training profiles of the teachers, or in an attempt to decrease the workload of teachers so that they would more readily accept the new curriculum. However, designing the change process in a way that it will be ‘teacher proof’ would certainly diminish the pivotal role that teachers play in educational change. In her research report aiming to find out the personal and organizational factors which teachers say affect their receptivity to change, Mellencamp (1992) concluded that ‘teacher voice’- the ability of teachers to initiate and decide change and to be heard as respected members of the schooling system- is the most critical factor affecting teacher receptivity to change.

All in all, ‘the best’ possible scenario for successful curriculum reform would be informed by a dialectic nature of theory and practice encountered both in the academia and the field, with a particular attention to teachers and the cultural regularities of their specific contexts (May, 1989).

2.3.3 Educational Reform in Turkey

There is a need to discuss educational reforms in the light of both internal conditions and external influences. This is actually true for administrative reforms in Turkey in general, as they are generally initiated by or because of external

actors or dynamics. For instance, the structural reforms of the Turkish administration after 1980's basically aimed to recognize the relationship between the state and the market so that the neo-liberal policies of the new world could be more readily and smoothly adapted. International or supra-national organizations such as the OECD, World Bank, UNESCO, European Commission and WTO began playing an increasingly dominant role in shaping national socio-economic policies across the world countries by providing credits and loans, preparing projects and reports, and conducting comparative research activities (Devidal, 2009; Domenech & Mora-Ninci, 2009). Particularly for educational policy development, OECD is considered one of the most influential international actors today (Rautalin & Alasuutari, 2007). Unlike many other international organizations, OECD does not have a legislative or economic power over its member countries. Its influential power is rather related to its expert position that stems from its vast comparative research capacity (Rautalin & Alasuutari, 2007).

The Republic of Turkey was established in 1923 as an invention of the modernists who sought a radical transformation of traditional Ottoman Islamic social, economic, and political structures after the 3-year War of Independence. The modernization project of the statesmen took Westernisation, democracy, and secularization as the new basis for the society (Güven, 2004). The Turkish Revolution, with an emphasis on secularism and nationalism, placed great emphasis on the education of its young population. From the declaration of the republican state to this day, there have been a lot of amendments at all levels of education both in terms of process and content.

An Education Congress was led by Atatürk in 1921, in order to discuss and develop elementary and secondary education programs. In 1924, The Law of Unification of Education was passed, which connected all schools to the Ministry of Education and resulted in a unified system of education. Elementary education was later reorganized with the 1961 law, which increased the duration of

education in village elementary schools from three to five years. In 1973, the Basic Law of National Education was passed, through which basic education became eight years and middle schools which had formerly been a part of secondary education became a part of primary education. 1981 is another critical date in the history of Turkish educational reform because of the Higher Education Law, which collated all higher education institutions under universities, and established a Council of Higher Education for the central administration of higher education.

At present, all of the primary and secondary schools are bound to MONE, and there are standard rules and regulations referring to every school and every educational act taking place in these schools, which are both structurally and financially dependent on the Ministry. Thus, we have a centralized system design in the administration of education, which is vertically established, hence produces an example of stagnant bureaucracies defined by Bolman and Deal (1997). Fretwell and Wheeler (2001) also state that Turkey has the most highly centralized educational system among OECD member states.

Educational reforms in Turkey have usually paid only lip service to the citizens since they have concentrated on bits and pieces of the system but never touched core structural or pedagogical practices. In other words, the general picture of reforms show that they have not had the substantial effect hoped for by the policy makers as they were fragmented change efforts aiming to gain political advantage (Akşit, 2007). Large scale reforms in education in Turkey are mandated to teachers, students and other stakeholders of the system.

In 2004, two major reform initiatives were proposed one of which is curricular. The curricular reform for primary education was launched in 2005, with the aim of making major alterations in the educational philosophy and teaching methodology in order to prepare children better for a changing world. Unlike the former

curriculum that was largely drawn from a behaviorist understanding, the new primary curriculum is based on constructivist paradigm and multiple intelligence theory (Çalışkan & Tabanlı, 2009).

The objectives of the curriculum reform according to the Board of Education and Training are as follows (TTKB, 2005):

- a) To reduce the amount of content and number of concepts
- b) To arrange the units thematically
- c) To develop nine core competencies across the curriculum
- d) To move from a teacher-centred didactic model to a student centered constructivist model
- e) To incorporate ICT into instruction
- f) To monitor student progress through formative and authentic assessment
- g) To enhance citizenship education
- h) To introduce second language courses in primary school
- i) To widen the scope of religious education
- j) To establish a system of student representation
- k) To engage students in community work

The first draft of the program, prepared through the participation of representatives from non-governmental organizations, universities, and schools, was piloted in 120 schools in 9 different cities in the 2004-2005 academic year. Then, the pilot study was evaluated to make the necessary revisions, to design new course books and instructional materials. The new curriculum was put into action throughout the country in 2005-2006 academic year.

A number of studies have been conducted into both evaluating the effectiveness or progress of educational change in Turkey, and finding out the perceptions and views of the insiders of change such as teachers and principals during change processes, some of which will be summarized in the following section.

2.4 Constructivist Education

2.4.1 Constructivism as a Philosophy of Science

Constructivism is a theory of knowing that assumes knowledge cannot exist outside the bodies of cognizing beings. Although it also recognizes a form of reality that exists independently of cognizing beings, the experiences of them are constructs that are shaped by what is known and learned by the individual. Thus, knowledge is a construction of reality, constructed and adapted as a result of successive experiences and reflections. Knowledge, for a constructivist then, is relative, subjective, adaptive and constrained. Epistemologically, constructivism assumes that knowledge and reality do not carry an absolute or objective value; rather, they are made up of the network of relationships in our lives. Ontologically, this means that reality is in fact unknowable unless others in our social group verifies it.

Objectivism and constructivism represent opposite extremes on an epistemological continuum (Murphy, 1997). According to the objectivist view, objects have intrinsic meaning, and knowledge is a reflection of a correspondence to reality, which means it should represent a real world that is presumed to be existing independent of the knower. The criterion for the truth of knowledge is, then, whether it correctly reflects that independent world or not (Murphy, 1997). In contrast, as Murphy (1997) put it, “the constructivist view argues that knowledge and reality do not have an objective or absolute value, or, at the least, that we have no way of knowing this reality” (p. 5). von Glasersfeld (1995) indicates that this reality “is made up of the network of things and relationships that we rely on in our living, and on which, we believe, others rely on too (p.7). From this proposition then, constructivists are trying to explain how individuals come to a shared understanding of reality (Cobb & Yackel, 1996).

The two principles of this theory of knowledge which has its roots in philosophy, psychology, and cybernetics are: “1) knowledge is not passively received but actively built up by the cognizing subject; 2) the function of cognition is adaptive and serves the organization of the experiential world, not the discovery of ontological reality” (von Glasersfeld, 1989, p. 162). Constructivist theory of knowledge was first explicitly formulated in 1710 by Giambattista Vico, who wrote that “epistemic agents can know nothing but the cognitive structures they themselves have put together. To know means to know how to make. One knows a thing only when he can tell the components that it consists of. God alone can know the real world but the human knower can know only what he himself has constructed” (as cited in von Glasersfeld, 1989).

Einstein, most famous for his opposition to the assumption of objectivity in science, argued that “the object of all science, whether natural science or psychology, is to co-ordinate our experiences and to bring them into a logical order (1955, as cited in von Glasersfeld, 2001, p. 33). This is what lies in the core of constructivist epistemology and what determines the constructivist view. As scientists try to bring their experiential world into a rational order, other human beings also try to produce knowledge from their everyday experiences, only in a less explicit and coherent way (von Glasersfeld, 2001).

According to the assumption of objectivity, a theory must reflect the structure of an independent reality if it continues to fit experience and yield satisfactory results. However, to von Glasersfeld (2001, p. 36), from the constructivist point of view, this is only an illusion stemming from the confusion that a world is supposed to exist irrespective of any experiencer. Thus, it would be more accurate to talk about ‘intersubjective’ and ‘intersubjectivity’ instead (von Glasersfeld, 2001), as “objectivity is only the delusion that observations could be made without an observer” (p. 37). “The sensory perceptions (conscious empirical presentations) can only be called internal appearances. Not until understanding is added (and

makes order in the manifold) does empirical knowledge, i.e., experience, arise from it” (Kant, 1800, as cited in von Glasersfeld, 2001, p. 38). Immanuel Kant, who pointed out that for the eye to see anything, the brain must have learned how to interpret what the eye saw, was actually the first to tackle the idea that there is a world of material reality for which the pure reason could find an exact linguistic mirror (Inglis, 2004).

In modern psychology, the notion of cognitive construction was put into words as part of developmental theory by Baldwin and Piaget, who mapped the procedures and operations by which the human subject constructs a relatively stable experiential world with its limited sensation and mental operations. Piaget actually set out from Kant, who denied the possibility of arriving at a precise grasp of absolute knowledge (von Glasersfeld, 1989). Later, Simmel too stated that the function of this cognitive capacity was adaptive, i.e., aiming to enhance the organism’s management of experience rather than producing a whole picture of the real world (Simmel, 1895, as cited in von Glasersfeld, 1989). What is revolutionary about constructivism is that knowledge cannot be a true match of ontological reality, it can only be viable in the sense that it fits the experiential constraints which limit the cognizing abilities and possibilities of the organism. From the constructivist point of view, meanings are conceptual structures, and thus influence to a great extent the individual organism’s construction of his own experiential reality (von Glasersfeld, 1989).

In an attempt to answer questions like ‘who does the constructing?’ or ‘what is constructed?’ constructivists are thought to have differentiated among themselves, which brought about “a taxonomy of various constructivisms” (Irzik, 2001, p. 158). Cognitive constructivists are those who propose that what is constructed is mental representations by individuals. Although they all agree that individual is the actual constructor, they also emphasize that these representations arise from interactive processes among individuals in a community. Thus, as Irzik (2001)

points out, cognitive constructivism could be taken as the minimal core of all constructivisms. Among varieties of this philosophy, radical constructivism is the most influential one especially on learning theory because of its focus on knowledge. Their main variation from cognitive constructivists is their claim that not only mental representations but also knowledge (including scientific knowledge) is constructed (Irzik, 2001, p.159). When constructivism is taken in the context of education, it has philosophical meanings such as personal constructivism as portrayed by Piaget (2005), social constructivism explained by Vygotsky (1978), radical constructivism depicted by von Glasersfeld (1995).

Constructivism in general discards the notion that knowledge could or should be a representation of an observer-independent world and replaces it with the demand that the conceptual constructs we call knowledge be viable in the experiential world of the knowing subject (von Glasersfeld, 1989). From a constructivist perspective, 'knowledge' refers to conceptual structures that epistemic agents consider viable given the range of present experience within their tradition of thought and language (von Glasersfeld, 1989). This is parallel to Piaget's definition of 'adaptation'. For Piaget, knowledge is not and can never be a representation of the real world but instead a collection of conceptual structures that have been 'adapted' within the knowing subject's range of experience. Piaget mentioned adaptation as the main goal of cognitive activity and extended the use of the word from the domain of biological survival to the internal mental equilibrium of the organism (von Glasersfeld, 2001). Adaptation in his sense, then, means to fit into the experiential world. In other words, 'to know' does not mean possessing true representations of reality, but rather possessing ways and means of acting and thinking that will allow the organism to attain goals that he has chosen (von Glasersfeld, 2001).

According to Piaget, interactions between individuals may be taken as the basis of all social facts, and all inter-individual interaction consist of either values or

conventional signs, which correspond to the cognitive, the affective and the symbolic aspects of individual behavior (Kitchener, 1983). Piaget discusses that values originate from the individual's interests and desires but when in interaction with another person with his own interests, values become systematized into larger regulatory structures that tend towards a reversible equilibrium as a result of the exchange (Kitchener, 1983). To ensure this equilibrium in which values are preserved for a long time, there must be norms of obligations, in other words, rules.

According to Kitchener (1983, p. 37), "Piaget's claim that social interaction is the basis for the child's abandonment of egocentrism is well-known and underscores his point that the social is a necessary condition for the development of knowledge". It is also essential to point out that a particular form of social relation is necessary for the development of knowledge, that is, cooperation. To him, cooperation generates reason (Kitchener, 1983). In other words, knowledge in this perspective is constructed by the individual through his interactions with its environment. In a conversation, for instance, speakers use words, but any word uttered with the purpose of understanding is symmetrical as it belongs both to the speaker and the listener (Roth & Radford, 2010). Thus, "the word is a thing in our consciousness that is absolutely impossible for one person, but that becomes a reality for two" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 256). In sum, Piaget emphasized the social learning process rather than the isolation of the individual on the internalization of knowledge, while Vygotsky focused primarily on the developmental processes and their relationship with learning.

As a criticism to the typical generalizations associated with constructivism, Lesh, Doerr, Guadalupe & Hjalmarson (2003) make the two objections that follow: 1) "there exists important knowledge that is not in the form of constructs and 2) construction is only one of many relevant processes in knowing" (p. 214). They point out that constructing is far too narrow to describe the many ways and

nuances of ways that significant conceptual systems are learned (Lesh et al., 2003).

2.4.2 What is Constructivist Learning?

There is usually a particular school of thought and norms and set of values that shape every educational activity. To Shepel (1995), these are sometimes hidden and not easily recognized, but sometimes teachers are consciously aware of these norms and their reflections in their teaching strategies. According to Shepel (1995), in a situation of cultural self-determination, the teacher must be given an opportunity to construct his or her own frame of reference and professional action, which is why teachers' learning that is essential during change process must be designed as a meaning making activity.

We may find traces of the logic of constructivist learning in the teachings of Socrates, whose approach consisted of leading students through a series of questions to promote critical thinking, known as the Socratic Method (Murphy, 1997). The conception of learning is central to constructivism, which emphasizes the process of learning rather than the product (Murphy, 1997).

The basis of educational practice is how we perceive knowledge and knowing. In the case of constructivism, as it is believed that learners actively construct knowledge in order to make sense of the world around them, learning is likely to emphasize the development of learning and understanding. In contrast, behaviorism emphasizes observable, external behaviors and avoids reference to meaning, representation and thought (Murphy, 1997). In von Glasersfeld's metaphors pertaining to the role of the teacher, this difference may be better illustrated. Whereas the role of the teacher in constructivism is "the midwife that

gives birth to understanding”, it is “mechanic of knowledge transfer” in traditional instruction (von Glasersfeld, 1995).

In the light of the above mentioned premises, the constructivist scholars have proposed a set of principles that can guide teaching practices and the design of learning environments. The instructional principles based on constructivism are as follows: the aim of each learning activity should be apparent to the learner (Honebein, Duffy & Fishman, 1993); the learning environments should be relevant with the real world; the goals students bring to the environment should be consistent with the objectives of instruction; instruction should concentrate on solving real-life problems, that is, the learners allowed to engage in scientific activities and problem solving (Wilson, 1996); help the students to find new ways to solve problems by helping the students to realize the conceptual interrelatedness, providing multiple representations or perspectives on the content. Moreover, the students should be included in decision-making process (Jonassen, 2004). Explicitly, the teacher should discuss the instructional goals and objectives with the students, not impose them on them. In addition, learning should be internally controlled and mediated by the learner; and the teachers allow the students to take the liability of their own learning. Furthermore, the teachers provide means and environments that help students interpret the various perspectives of the world. In constructivism, the teacher does not any more serve as an authority on a subject, as direct instruction is seen as a threat to intellectuality (Baines & Stanley, 2000). The students should be given an ownership of the learning or problem solving (Wilson, 1996). Besides, students should be given the opportunity to assess their own success; assessment should serve as a self-analysis instrument.

In the light of the above premises, then, the relationship between knowledge and learning in a constructivist classroom could be discussed, as summarized by Jaworski (1996): 1) Knowing is an action participated in by the learner, it is not

received from an external source; 2) Learning is a process of comparing new experience with knowledge constructed from previous experience, resulting in the reinforcing or adaptation of that knowledge; 3) Social interactions within the learning environment are an essential part of this experience and contribute fundamentally to individual knowledge construction; 4) Shared meanings develop through negotiation in the learning environment, leading to the development of common knowledge in a socio-cultural setting.

Teacher characteristics compatible with constructivist learning environments are as follows:

- They encourage student autonomy and also dialogue among students and between students and the teacher
- They use authentic data with physical and interactive materials
- They allow students to set goals, choose instructional strategies and content
- They elicit students' existing understandings of concepts, question these understandings with critical thinking questions and encourage them to do the same (Brooks and Brooks, 1999).

In constructivist classes classroom management is also viewed from a different angle. Explicitly, classroom management is seen as helping the students to become liable for their learning and to successfully reflect on and manage their learning behavior rather than rewarding and punishing students to control (Putnam & Burke, 1992). In constructivist learning environments individual's self-esteem is completely recognized and democratic rules are respected and reinforced. Therefore, the existing social and emotional climate in constructivist classrooms allows for the construction of meanings (El-Sheikh Hasan, 2000). Explicitly, the students are encouraged to share their opinions, represent concepts by using a range of tools and assess the solutions critically. The constructivist learning

environments allow the students to have a possession of the learning process, of the problem solving process, and of the problem itself (Crotty, 1998).

Finally, there has been some criticism regarding the inflexibility of constructivist learning theory and the almost complete refusal of certain instructional techniques such as lecturing as a result of this inflexibility. “Somewhere somehow, the constructivist paradigm has become as inflexible as the instructional approach its proponents are eager to dismantle” (Baines & Stanley, 2001, p. 327). Baines and Stanley also comment that lecture and discussion should not be completely discarded, but used as one of many diverse teaching strategies because of their power especially when delivered by a charismatic, demanding and knowledgeable teacher. “Students deserve a chance to learn at the elbow of an expert” (2001, p. 330). No single instructional model can substitute for a well organized lecture that delivers a mass of information, illuminates basic concepts, reviews relevant literature, and exhibits an example of a care about learning and teaching (Stunkel, 1998).

2.4.3 Review of Studies into Constructivist Curriculum in Turkey

As Şimşek and Yıldırım (2004) claimed, education reform is influenced by changes in economic and social conditions worldwide. The major driving force for the change we have been experiencing over the last couple of decades in the development and implementation of national education policies has also been worldwide economic and social conditions such as internationalization and globalization (Rinne, 2008). International or supra-national organizations such as the OECD, World Bank, UNESCO, European Commission and WTO began playing an increasingly dominant role in shaping national socio-economic policies across the world countries by providing credits and loans, preparing projects and reports, and conducting comparative research activities (Devidal, 2009; Domenech

& Mora-Ninci, 2009). Constructivism has had a major impact on all these documents shaping educational practices in the last quarter century (Jones & Brader-Araje, 2002).

The process of curriculum reform in Turkey in primary schools began with the indication of the need for a comprehensive and multifaceted reform in education in the Education Master Plan prepared in 1995 for the next fifteen years (EAP, 1996). According to the plan, four major areas of education urgently needed to be changed, which were: the philosophy of a model Turkish person, the curriculum and the teacher, the school and its environment, and finally the system and the administration. Shortly after the publication of the plan, in 1997, the duration of compulsory education was increased from five to eight years, which brought about the need to revise the curriculum to maintain the integrity. In 1999, efforts were initiated to update the science and mathematics curricula in accordance with the eight year compulsory education.

In 2002, Ministry of National Education (MONE) started working on the new primary school curriculum with the foundation courses such as Mathematics, Turkish, Life Skills, Social Sciences and Science and Technology for grades 1-5. The new curriculum was piloted in selected schools in selected provinces and started to be implemented in 2005-2006 academic year in all schools (Akınoğlu, 2008; Babadoğan & Olkun, 2006).

MONE and the body within MONE responsible for curriculum development, The Board of Education and Training made use of concepts from globalization and neo-liberal discourses while trying to explain the basic premises of the new curriculum (Gür, Çelik & Özoğlu, 2011). They argued that the recent changes and advances in education are essential because the educational practices of the industrial society are unable to produce the skills needed to confront the challenges of information society (TTKB, 2005). They also indicated that

educational norms of the information society such as lifelong learning, self-directed learning, critical thinking, and problem solving are the crucial elements of the new curriculum and providing the students with these skills is necessary to create a human capital stock that would help the country compete in an increasingly international market (TTKB, 2005).

Since the basic idea behind the curricular reform was to change the curriculum from a subject-centered to a learner-centered one and change the pedagogies from a behaviorist to a constructivist one (Akınoğlu, 2008; Babadoğan & Olkun, 2006), in general terms, activities are planned in a constructivist fashion while considering the individual differences in learning, and leaving room for localization of the activities. The emphasis on student-centered learning requires a change in teaching and learning from the mainly memorizing approach to more active learning for students (Akınoğlu, 2008; OECD, 2007).

The researchers investigated the curriculum developed for grades 1 to 5 to be implemented in the 2005-2006 academic year throughout the country, and compared it to previous curricula (Akınoğlu, 2008). They maintained that the 2005 curriculum has the following characteristics:

- The curricula exhibit an innovative perspective in general.
- Thematic approach is employed in the organization of contents and the learning domains are defined within this framework.
- Terminology used for the learning outcomes is extremely different (newly used “acquisitions” vs. former “objectives, targets, target behavior”).
- The new curricula accentuate skills such as critical thinking, creative thinking, communication, problem-solving, research, and decision-making.
- The learning-teaching processes and the role of the teacher are elaborated in a more detailed manner.

- Use of instruments and material is promoted and more concrete examples are given in relation to this project.
- Measurement and evaluation are related not only to the outcome but also to the process (pp. 180-183).

Recent research on constructivism is more abundant in instructional applications within classroom contexts than it is in its planning process or internalization process by the implementers. Although literature on constructivism is not plenty in the Turkish context, there are still a number of studies looking into the impact of constructivist learning and teaching both on learner achievement and teacher attitudes. When we examine the literature on the fate of educational change in general, we see that the studies that are trying to conceptualize the process by which an innovation is really translated into school practice can be classified into three perspectives: technological, political and cultural (House, 1979). The studies in this section will be discussed as grouped according to these perspectives, one of which matches with that of the present study.

2.4.3.1 Technological Perspective

The technological perspective tends to accept innovation as unproblematically progressive, and concentrates on systematic and rational ways to implement it. Acker (1990) points out that this approach encourages us to focus on the innovation itself and the means by which it is implemented, such as the program by which teachers are to bring about ends set by others. While doing this, the studies in this stance may develop a tendency to readily accept the change mandated to schools by national policy makers and supranational organizations. Morris, Chan and Ling (2000) assert that these studies generally assume policies are unproblematic and totally relevant to and compatible with the existing structure or culture.

To begin with, a study by Özpolat, Sezer, İşgör and Sezer (2007) investigated the views of class teachers regarding the new primary education curriculum through a questionnaire developed by the researchers. It was seen that the teachers have positive assumptions about the new curriculum. However, they also concluded that some aspects of this program have not been fully understood by teachers, such as the purpose of activities designed to implement the program in class. Özpolat et al. (2007) recommend that some in service training should be carried out in order to inform the teachers about the purposes of activities, which are a critical component of the instructional design in the new program.

In another study by Çınar, Teyfur and Teyfur (2006), the views of both primary school teachers and administrators about constructivist teaching approach and the new curriculum were investigated through a questionnaire designed to evaluate the views of participants. Similar to the formerly summarized one, both teachers and administrators were found to have positive attitudes towards the constructivist teaching approach in the new curriculum. As an obstacle to its full implementation in class, data indicated that participants see the lack or insufficiency of technological infrastructure in schools.

Akpınar's article (2010), though not an empirical study, could be given as an example to House's technological perspective due to its attitude towards the new curriculum and its implementation. Upon discussing what constructivism is, types of constructivism, the role of the teacher and the parent in constructivist learning, he concludes that constructivism is one of the major driving forces that MONE considered would lead to the establishment of a modern education system for Turkey. This hope, he argues (2010), should be shared by all kinds of educational workers and stakeholders, and their role must be to support the Ministry in all its efforts towards its implementation.

Akgün's study (2005) is also interesting in that it aims to investigate the views of researchers who have conducted experimental studies into constructivist learning environments, in an attempt to identify possible alternative further research areas. The findings of this research reveal that researchers participated in the study agree that the use of constructivist learning environments will improve the quality of education and train more fully equipped individuals; and the problems encountered in the implementation stem from the insufficiency of technological infrastructure and the previous learning experiences of the students.

2.4.3.2 Political Perspective

This perspective emphasizes ways in which the innovation is altered through conflicts and compromises of various interest groups, and incorporates the views of those who see the reforms in the context of large scale political and economic trends. Authors such as Apple (1986) and Giroux (1983), for instance, looked at the consequences of such trends on the work of teachers by asking questions like 'How do teachers experience the changes in their work?.'

As an example to this perspective, a study by Saracaloğlu et al. (2010) could be demonstrated from the Turkish context. This study aimed to determine the elementary teachers' participation level to the curriculum development process by investigating their views regarding their roles during the process through semi-structures interviews. Saracaloğlu et al. (2010) found that the attempts of MONE about curriculum development are not perceived to be sincere by teachers, as their beliefs and criticisms were not taken into account, and no communication was built between them and the developers during the process. This resulted in feelings of disappointment and despair on the side of the teachers regarding their participation in the development of the curriculum.

Gür, Çelik and Özoğlu's (2011) study constitutes a critique of the uses of PISA results by the national education authorities in Turkey through an examination of public documents and news bulletins issued by the Ministry. To them, such international league tables as the PISA are utilized as an external policy support tool to scandalize the existing educational system and conform to the demands of international reform proponents by establishing a reform pressure (Gür et al., 2011). Although the reform initiative had already been taken and project had been going on at the time of declaration of 2004 PISA results, they still proved to be handy in order to justify the reform and create public support. For example, "the then Minister of National Education stated that PISA results showed that educational system needs an urgent reform", and thus PISA was positioned as a reference to improve the curriculum (Gür et al., 2011, p. 12). What is wrong about doing this according to the authors is that although PISA is not a study of school curriculum, Turkish officials used it to justify the curriculum change, in a way that condenses all sorts of problems of Turkish education system such as low quality of teachers and teaching and inequalities in the system into solely a matter of curricular adjustment.

2.4.3.3 Cultural Perspective

In the cultural perspective, the focus is on the meanings and understandings of participants in a given setting regarding the innovation. This perspective stems from the premise that "teachers in a given context need to acquire a set of specific understandings about what is required of them, not only in skills or techniques, but also values, attitudes and beliefs in order to be competent members of an ongoing social group" (Acker, 1990, p. 261), and these values and beliefs as aspects of culture would shape the school's response to change.

Çalışkan and Tabanlı's research (2009) could be given as an example to research in teacher culture perspective as it examined how teachers perceive the new roles of school principals as defined in accordance with the new curriculum through interviews based on the new roles attached to the principals by the new curriculum. Their findings revealed that the school principal was perceived to be successful in terms of the application of the new curriculum and has done his best to establish the required infrastructure for the implementation of the new curriculum. The new roles attached to the principals were found to be:

- Having in-depth knowledge of the curriculum so as to guide the teachers through its implementation in a collaborative school environment
- Creating physical environment that facilitates the implementation by supplying materials and other resources.
- Encouraging and supporting teachers in their professional development (p. 114).

Although literature on constructivism is not plenty in the Turkish context, there are still a number of studies looking into the impact of constructivist learning and teaching both on learner achievement and teacher attitudes. As seen above, research on constructivism is mostly interested in instructional applications within classroom contexts rather than it is in its planning process or internalization process by the implementers. Thus, teachers' experiences, meanings and descriptions of their working lives may provide a framework for analysing to see if a new form of teacher culture has emerged or not, or how teachers are making sense of the phenomenon that is reconstructing their teaching identities. Culture has a potential for expanding the field of educational administration as it may stimulate us to think of the constructs that have so far been taken for granted and identify new problems of significance.

2.5 Foundations of Research Design

Prior to talking about methods, a discussion of epistemology is required, which means the different views regarding how to obtain knowledge about the world because every research methodology is based on a set of epistemological beliefs which influence how you understand and interpret data. In most general terms, these differing views will be divided into three: those of positivists, a well-known advocate of which is Durkheim's quantitative methodology; interpretivists, Weber being an early and prominent example; and lastly those of critical theorists such as Marx (Travers, 2001). These epistemological beliefs are also called 'big' or 'grand' theories (O'Donoghue, 2007) or 'paradigms' (Kuhn, 1970).

As Travers claims, Weber believed that sociology had to address the meaningful character of social action using interpretive methods, which is apparent in his study *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*. In this famous work, he tried to understand what it means to be a member of a particular social group through conducting interviews and observations (Travers, 2001). Durkheim, however, believed that we can obtain a more superior and large-scale scientific understanding of society as a whole through people's actions in macro processes, and refused to deal with what people understand of their own actions (Travers, 2001). As opposed to these two, influenced by the intellectual movement of Marxism, we have critical theory, which draws on techniques from the interpretive traditions but with a political stand, as they believed the object of inquiry to be to change the world, not just simply understand it (Travers, 2001). Several qualitative research methodologies emerged from all three of these epistemological perspectives; however, for the purposes of this study, only the interpretive and critical traditions will be elaborated.

The interpretive epistemology, also called 'the interpretive paradigm' by Burrell & Morgan (1979), gave birth to several research traditions first in sociology and later

in other fields like organization theory and education. Symbolic interactionism is one of these traditions, the roots of which largely influenced qualitative research in general. The term 'symbolic interactionism' was first used in the 50's by Herbert Blumer, who argued that "as human beings we act singly, collectively and societally on the basis of meanings which things have for us" (1995, p. 115). In other words, individuals are influenced by other people, but they are also active in interpreting and responding to the people and objects they encounter in the world (Travers, 2001). An important qualitative research methodology, grounded theory, emerged from this tradition. Grounded theory, developed by Glaser and Strauss is a more scientific version of symbolic interactionism. They argued that sociological analysis could well be scientific in the way that quantitative researchers understood, which meant that it could try to produce theoretical suppositions that were testable and verifiable (1967). In educational research, symbolic interactionism has been criticized for abstaining from macro-theory because of its focus on subjectivity (Troman, Jeffrey, & Beach, 2006). However, there are also researchers who argue that by monitoring how people attribute meanings to situations and processes, it is possible to identify certain patterns that exhibit the constraints of the macro on people (Woods, 1996).

Another major interpretive tradition is that of ethnomethodology, "which goes further than symbolic interactionism in examining how people understand and interpret the world around them" (Travers, 2001, p. 62). Ethnomethodology, founded by Harold Garfinkel, is based on the notion that everyday social interactions are made possible through people's use of a variety of skills, practices and assumptions, and it sees these interactions as an on-going process (Bailey, 1987). This makes observation, particularly participant observation, a major data gathering technique for ethnomethodology. This focus on social interactions as an on-going process leads ethnomethodologists to study the practical content of routine occupational tasks, which is the main difference between this tradition and symbolic interactionism. Ethnomethodology may be mentioned as the starting

point of the linguistic turn in organizational analysis. “Ethnomethodology focuses on the social conditions that have to be satisfied for certain actions to be perceived as signifying a recognizable and therefore sanctioned a ritual” (Iedema & Wodak, 1999, p. 8). This is why ethnomethodology is also sometimes regarded as a method of phenomenological sociology (Giddens, 2003). Phenomenology, founded by the philosopher Edmund Husserl, has been the impetus for another major research tradition within the realm of interpretive sociology with the same name, which will be further examined in the following section.

In sum, the interpretive paradigm stems from a concern to understand the world as it is, at the level of subjective experience; and it regards the social world as an emergent social process created by the individuals (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). In other words, this paradigm emphasizes social interaction as the basis of knowledge, which is considered to be constructed by mutual negotiation and be specific to the situation investigated (O’Donoghue, 2007). Hence, all theories constructed in the context of interpretive paradigm are anti-positivist and ideographic. The interpretivist approach to research is based upon a number of assumptions, as illustrated by Blackledge and Hunt: 1) everyday activity is the building block of society. For instance, what keeps the educational system together is the day-to-day activity of teachers, learners, or administrators. 2) everyday activity can never be fully imposed, as there are constraints on the way people act or they are influenced by their backgrounds. 3) everyday activity involves a person interacting with others, not acting in isolation, thus subsequent action depends on one’s interpretation of others’ actions. 4) everyday activity involves a process of negotiation of meaning, through which we modify our understandings, thus, meanings and interpretations are not static (1991, p. 326).

As well as the interpretive frame, critical theory is also worth mentioning here as a last frame since it has influenced a great deal of qualitative research conducted today especially in the field of cultural studies. According to this paradigm,

knowledge is problematic and capable of systematic distortion, so it can never be value free but always represents the interests of a certain group in the society. Knowledge, then, could only be either oppressive or emancipatory (O'Donoghue, 2007). Although critical theorists did not openly reject the quantitative methods, the most prominent works in this tradition have used qualitative methods, ethnography being the most common (Travers, 2001). Willis's (1977) *Learning to Labour* and Bourdieu et al.'s (2000) *The Weight of the World* are two examples in this line of works which used ethnographic data, according to Travers (2001), with an aim "to advance a political message by framing an account of what was observed in the field" (p. 121). Since Willis's work, critical ethnographic research has been popular in understanding and unmasking the ideologies that maintain the status quo in social and cultural processes in educational settings (Troman et al., 2006).

Patton (1990) suggests that phenomenology has been referred to as a philosophy, as a paradigm, and also a methodology, mostly equated with qualitative methods of research. To Burrell & Morgan (1979), as a philosophy, "phenomenology is based upon a fundamental questioning of the common sense, 'taken-for-granted' attitudes which characterize everyday life" (p. 233), in a way that emphasizes the 'subjective' in an extreme form. As a methodological approach also proposed by Husserl, its purpose is "to describe and understand the essence of lived experiences of individuals who have experienced a particular phenomenon" (Lichtman, 2010, p. 75). Lived experience is a term coined by Husserl (1970). When we consider what the essence of experience refers to, we need to move to a deeper level of understanding. Thus, what makes a study a phenomenology is the deeper level of interpretation of the data one has.

Although he never uses the terms 'data collection' or 'data analysis', Van Manen (1990) has been very influential for researchers intending to conduct phenomenological research as he identified ways of "investigating experience as

we live it”: 1) use personal experience as a starting point; 2) trace etymological sources; 3) obtain experiential descriptions from others; 4) ask participants to write down their experiences; 5) gather concrete experiential material through interviews; 6) become a participant and observe the life-worlds of people; 7) use experiential descriptions in literature; 8) use art as a source of lived experience; 9) consult the phenomenological literature (p. 53).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter includes information about the overall design of the study, a discussion of the foundations of research design, the research problem, participants, data collection and analysis procedures.

3.1 Overall Design of the Study

This study aims to investigate the manifestations of national curriculum change on the organizational culture of teachers through analyzing what meanings teachers attach to their experiences with the transition into constructivist curriculum. The research, then, will try to find out how meaning is remade following mandated curriculum change process among teachers in an educational organization with an interpretive perspective of culture, through the study of a single school. The interpretive approach stresses the centrality of meaning in social actions. Social reality is constructed through the words, symbols, and actions that people invoke (Putnam & Fairhurst, 2004). Language use, the meanings enacted from verbal and non-verbal messages, creates and sustains social reality.

Implementation of educational change at least in minimum requires shared understanding among participants regarding the implied presuppositions, values and assumptions which underlie a program. The central purpose of this study is to investigate the manifestations of curriculum change on school culture. As a

phenomenological study, it aims to examine culture as an organizational dynamic in the process of systemic curriculum change, and see how teachers make sense of the reflections of this change on their roles, values and beliefs. Qualitative methods are ideally suitable for the purpose of describing and understanding educational change and its implementation, and an effective way to do this is to collect detailed and descriptive data about the change in question (Patton, 1990).

The cultural view to science is concerned with the internal processes of the human mind. Although these processes are translated into more or less tangible manifestations such as art or organizational life, they could still be fully understood in relation to the minds which created them (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The manifestations of such inner experiences could only be appreciated through cultural phenomena. Adopting a cultural approach may take the form of two research methodologies in education, either ethnography or phenomenology. The purpose of educational ethnography is to provide rich and descriptive data about the contexts and activities of people in educational settings. Thus, it aims to represent educational processes as they occur, which means the observation of educational activity is the main data collection method for ethnography. From a phenomenological perspective, however, organizations are seen as social constructs. Teachers, for instance, in a school organization, operate in a social setting, which is a culture. They spend a major part of their day with students and other teachers for the purpose of teaching, and with teachers, to be a part of the same organization. Schools are unique culture from two dimensions. First, the culture of one school is different from the culture of any other one because each has a unique mix of individuals, setting and environment. Second, the mission of the public school is also unique in the overall fabric of social structure.

There are a number of reasons why this study is designed as a phenomenology. Phenomenologies can be applied to single cases or to deliberately selected samples. Through single case studies, we are able to illuminate or draw attention

to the presence of different situations and their effects in individual cases, which means qualitative validity is more significant for them than statistical validity. Another reason is the need for the 'depth' of data in such studies. A general principle for phenomenology is for studies to have minimum structure and maximum depth (Moustakas, 1994). To achieve depth in data collection, the establishment of good level of rapport and empathy is critical, which was possible in this particular study through spending a lot of time at one school and with one group of teachers. As the researcher was to describe teacher culture through the 'lived experience' of constructivist curriculum via phenomenology, her presence within the school needed to be as natural as possible (Van Manen, 1990). She had to make sure that her presence in the teachers' room was accepted and that it intimidated teachers as little as possible so that she would reach a 'depth' of meaning making through interviews.

The aim of phenomenology is the description of phenomena, not the explanation of them, which is its main distinction from ethnography. Phenomena could be anything that appears, such as emotions, thoughts, and physical objects (Ehrich, 2003). 'Description', which is one of the major qualities of phenomenological methodology, refers to describing things as one experiences them. Another quality is 'reduction', which is also referred to as 'bracketing'. Because lived experience is the focus, the presuppositions or taken-for-granted assumptions about certain phenomena are no longer significant; therefore, we need to reduce them from our analysis. Van Manen (1990) claims that the reason for reduction is to make sure that our theoretical prejudices do not distort the description of the experience. Finally, in phenomenology, 'intentionality', which refers to consciousness, is also an important concept. Intentionality is the total meaning of an object, which is always more than what is given to us as a perception of a single perspective (Ehrich, 2003). Based on these qualities, then, the purpose of phenomenological approach is gathering deep information and perceptions through inductive, qualitative methods such as interviews, discussions and observations, and

representing it from the perspective of the research participants, while bracketing assumptions that are taken for granted and usual ways of perceiving (Moustakas, 1994).

Formal generalization is only one of many ways by which people gain and accumulate knowledge. That knowledge cannot be formally generalized does not mean that it cannot enter into the collective process of knowledge accumulation in a given field or in a society. A purely descriptive, phenomenological case study without any attempt to generalize can certainly be of value in this process and has often helped cut a path toward scientific innovation (Flyvbjerg, 2006).

This study views the school organization as an ‘intersubjective’ entity, which is constructed, maintained, and transformed through the process of coordination of subjective understandings among members. In this framework of organizations, organizing is viewed as the emerging state of coordinating the personal (subjective) construction of reality. The personal (subjective) construction of reality is, then a good starting point to discuss the nature of organizing. Phenomenology is developed for the philosophy of the subjective construction of reality, which is why this study is designed as a phenomenological study. The philosophical ground in phenomenology leads to the assumption that the reality of workplaces is defined by the subjectivity of organizational members (Berger & Luckmann, 2008).

In this study, culture is perceived as a root metaphor for organizations rather than an independent variable that could be shaped in accordance with different managerial aims; and will be analyzed through a symbolic perspective in order to interpret the cultural identity of teachers in a school. The symbolic perspective treats cultures as systems of shared symbols and meanings. An organization is conceived of as a pattern of symbolic discourse that needs interpreting,

deciphering or reading in order to be understood. The focus of analysis is on how individuals interpret and understand their experience and how these interpretations and understandings relate to action.

This study, then, pursues an approach which conceptualizes organizations as cultures in order to examine the ways in which organization members engage in the creation of institutional reality, which is the new primary curriculum in our case. Such research generally takes organizational symbolism, the most clearly visible articulation of which is language (Mumby, 1988), as the means to reach organizational reality. “Culture cannot be studied directly; it has to be inferred” as elements of culture are subtle, unseen and so familiar to be members of an organization that they are considered self evident and in effect, invisible (Flint, 2000, p.9). “One of the particular strengths of qualitative research is its capacity to identify the unexpected and illuminate the odd.... Qualitative research can raise important, if uncomfortable, questions about the deepest assumptions and the most taken-for-granted purposes and perceptions in organizations.” (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 182).

3.2 Research Problem

The purpose of this study is to understand the manifestations of curriculum change on school culture. As a phenomenological study, it aims to examine culture as an organizational dynamic in the process of systemic curriculum change, and see how teachers make sense of the reflections of this change on their roles, values and beliefs. Data collection method is face-to-face semi-structured teacher interviews aiming to find out the meaning of curriculum change and its manifestations on teacher culture for them.

The research questions to be answered are:

- 1) What are the meanings made by teachers from their lived experiences of transition into constructivist curriculum?
- 2) How does the transition into constructivist curriculum manifest itself in the organizational culture of teachers?
- 3) What is the meaning of new roles and values attached to teachers and teaching by constructivism as perceived by the teachers?

This study tries to explore teachers' lived experiences of curriculum change through investigating its manifestations on teacher culture, by looking at what the language used by the teachers in a school reveal about its cultural identity. This study will seek to discover what common sets of symbols and understandings have emerged within the organization to give meaning to the process of curriculum change.

3.3 Participants, Instrument, Data Collection Procedure and Data Analysis

As Moustakas (1994) pointed out, the primary target of phenomenology is the understanding of meaningful concrete relations implicit in the original description of experience in the context of a particular situation. In order to reach this original description, interview is the main source of data. The researcher reduces data gathered as lengthy interviews which describe the shared experiences of several informants to a central meaning, or 'essence' of the experience (McCaslin & Scott, 2003). Thus, the researcher is actually the primary instrument for data collection and analysis, through which interview data are mediated (Merriam, 1998). Patton (2002) too noted that the credibility of a qualitative study depends on the skills, competence, and dedication of the person doing fieldwork.

For almost all studies, there exist multiple sites that one could visit to collect data. In the selection of which site/sites, random sampling does not make sense for

phenomenological, or in general, interpretive studies as we are not interested in ‘how much’ or ‘how often’ (Merriam, 1998). On the contrary, it is essential to select a sample from which the most could be learned, which is called purposive sampling. It is critical then, to select information-rich cases for an in-depth study (Patton, 2002).

3.3.1 The Study Site

Grand City Primary School (a pseudonym) is set in one of Ankara’s central trajectories, Çankaya, and is a typical crowded urban Turkish primary school which provides instruction in double shifts due to huge number of students and insufficient number of classrooms. Grades 5,6,7 and 8 attend school in the morning, from 8 am to 1 pm; whereas grades 1,2,3 and 4 attend school in the afternoon, from 1 pm to 6 pm. The total number of students enrolled in the school is 1060, and there are currently 60 teachers plus three administrators working at the school.

The school opened in 1989 upon the completion of the long construction period, which was possible only through the donation of a benefactor. Owing to this donation, the school was given the benefactor’s name. There are 19 classrooms plus three other work rooms used for teaching purposes. Moreover, the school building has a small library and two computer rooms with 42 computers in total. The mission of the school is stated in its website as training individuals who inquire and question, who are self-confident and happy, and who can create new ideas and communicate well.

It was the principal’s and one of the vice principal’s first years both in this school and in administration. They both had been Turkish teachers in two different primary schools in Ankara prior to being appointed to our school. The other vice

principal, who was the only female administrator in this school had been working at the school for 14 years, 9 of which as a class teacher and the rest as the vice principal responsible for the first level.

When the expected budget for the ongoing academic year is examined, it is seen that the income transferred from the general state budget comprises 42 percent, donations 37 percent, and income from private courses, social organizations and the canteen 21 percent of its total income.

3.3.2 Participants of the Study

Participants of this study were the teachers in a primary school of around 1060 students and 60 teachers. As for teachers, it is best for this kind of studies to choose who to interview during data collection phase among the volunteers or according to who the researcher finds likely to produce the discourse of interest most. Therefore, before starting with the interviews, the researcher spent some time at school only as an observer with an aim of meeting people and introducing herself and her purpose of being there. To ease her introduction, on her first week at school, she asked for and was granted permission to participate in three meetings where teachers grouped according to grades came together to discuss student related issues. The chairs of the meetings, which are the three administrators in the school, let the researcher speak up at the beginning of the meetings in order to introduce herself and announce that she would be approaching teachers to schedule an interview. Following this, the researcher felt that her presence in the staff room was more readily accepted.

Sample size is not usually of significant value in phenomenological studies since we are interested in the way language is used, and large variations of linguistic patterning can emerge from a small number of people (Potter & Wetherell, 1987).

For this study, 22 teachers were interviewed, with interviews ranging from a duration of 25 minutes at the minimum to a maximum of 97. A couple of interviews took shorter than the average (about 25-30 minutes) because of the difficulty in scheduling the interview with them due to their branches. When selecting participants for a phenomenological study like this, it is critical that all of them must experience the phenomenon (Creswell, 2009), which means criterion-referenced sampling technique was used to select participants who have experienced the phenomenon. Consequently, teachers with experiences ranging from 10 to 33 years were interviewed, which meant they were all actively teaching when the curriculum change process commenced, though two of them were teaching their first years at primary level at the time of initiation. Below is a table demonstrating the genders, branches and experiences of the teachers who were interviewed.

Table 1: Gender, branches and experiences of interviewees

Interviewee no	Gender	Branch	Experience
Interviewee 1	Male	Class teacher	30-35
Interviewee 2	Female	Turkish	15-20
Interviewee 3	Female	Technology and Design	20-25
Interviewee 4	Female	Class teacher	20-25
Interviewee 5	Female	Class teacher	30-35
Interviewee 6	Female	Class teacher	20-25
Interviewee 7	Female	Class teacher	20-25
Interviewee 8	Female	Class teacher	25-30
Interviewee 9	Female	Social Studies	10-15
Interviewee 10	Female	Class teacher	25-30
Interviewee 11	Male	Class teacher	10-15
Interviewee 12	Male	Class teacher	25-30
Interviewee 13	Female	Class teacher	20-25
Interviewee 14	Female	Class teacher	30-35
Interviewee 15	Female	Class teacher	20-25
Interviewee 16	Female	Class teacher	10-15
Interviewee 17	Female	Turkish	10-15
Interviewee 18	Female	Mathematics	15-20
Interviewee 19	Male	Science and Technology	15-20
Interviewee 20	Female	English	10-15
Interviewee 21	Female	English	10-15
Interviewee 22	Female	Science and Technology	20-25

3.3.3 Data Collection Instrument

The semi-structured interview protocol was prepared by the researcher, and reviewed by both an expert and a peer researcher for feedback. Upon this review, the questions in the protocol were grouped under themes from the literature. These themes are organisational structure, collaboration, support and trust, the relationship between school and its environment, integration and sense of belonging, professional orientation, and the quality of the learning/teaching environment. In this way, it was easier to detect the clashing and irrelevant items, which were removed at this stage. After necessary alterations were made, three pilot interviews were conducted with three primary school teachers who also had undergone the curriculum change process but in different settings. Based on the piloting process, most of the items were either retained or rephrased, though some were thought to be repetitive and thus removed. During the pilot interviews, the researcher realized that some items are too abstract and theoretical, which caused her to rephrase them into a more operational and practical version. No additions were made to the items. The final version of the interview protocol (Appendix A) was then used to apply for the permission of the Middle East Technical University Graduate School of Social Sciences Ethics Committee. After the permission was granted by the committee, the application process for the legal permission to have access to the research site from the Ministry of National Education started. The Ministry's permission was granted by Ankara Directory of National Education (Appendix B).

3.3.4 Data Collection Procedure

For a phenomenological analysis, data were collected during extended fieldwork at the school, and consist of taped individual interviews with 22 teachers.

In interviewing in qualitative research, encouraging participants to speak fully is a must, which means encouraging them to display variability (Wood & Kroger, 2000). Therefore, what is required is an active interview in which the interviewee and the interviewer are seen as the equal partners in constructing meaning, which means the interviewer is not expected to be neutral and uninvolved. The aim of the interviews is not to obtain consistency of response through participants, but rather encourage diversity of responses (Elliott, 1996). Thus, during the interviews for this study (see Appendix C for an example of coded interview transcript), lengthier and more detailed descriptions of thoughts and feelings were encouraged using extra questions and probes. Each interview in the study began with small talk both to help the interviewees become comfortable speaking into a recording device, and to gather some personal information about them that could be useful to the interviewer during the rest of the interview. This is also in line with the model of in-depth phenomenological interviewing offered by Seidman (1998), in which each interview had a first part aiming to establish the context of the participant's experiences and focused on their life history.

Although the administrator interviews were not part of the data collection designed for this study, to begin with, an interview was arranged with one of the vice principals and the principal, and a semi-structured interview protocol was prepared for these interviews (Appendix D). These interviews aimed not only to help the administrators but also the researcher to feel more secure about the presence of an outsider in the school. In addition, during these interviews the researcher asked the administrators for the names of the teachers who they think could be key informants of the curriculum change process in their schools, which provided the researcher with a place to start using the snowball purposeful sampling strategy. As it was the principal's first year in the school, he was not quite confident to provide the researcher with names, but he kindly accepted her presence in the teachers' room at all times. Following this, the researcher started spending time in the staff room during most of the school day observing and

chatting with the teachers; and had a chance to take some field notes, as well as scheduling interviews with individual teachers. As noted, trust and rapport are essential to conducting successful interviews with research participants (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). The practice of chatting with teachers was both critical for the rapport essential for interviews, and also for the purposive selection of teachers to approach in order to schedule an interview. As Van der Mescht (2004) demonstrates, in phenomenological studies, participants are selected both on the basis of their experience of the phenomenon under scrutiny, and also on their linguistic proficiency in the research language. As participants' language is the main source of data for the researcher, it was essential to choose participants who are verbally fluent, expressive, and willing to talk about their experiences.

The researcher stayed on site for approximately two months in the spring semester of 2010-2011 academic year, second semester, starting from 14th of February till 15th of April; and spent around 5-6 hours everyday at school, either taking notes, chatting, and helping teachers with their daily paperwork in the teachers' room, or interviewing. Even though the researcher felt welcomed from the first time that she met the teachers, she found their trust grew as her time with them continued.

Different scholars suggested that understanding of a social phenomenon increases the longer the researcher spends in the setting (e.g., Van Manen, 1990; Merriam, 1998). It was therefore decided that data collection in the field continue until 'conceptual saturation' occurred, which is the term used when no new information or concepts emerge from the data (Strauss, 1987). In line with this, when 22 teachers were interviewed, data collection was halted.

Even though a major component of the culture of a school is the students for whom the school exists, it was decided to include them in only indirect ways because the focus was on the activities of the adults who comprise the official school organization. This research strategy deliberately limited the student voice

in the findings about the culture of the school. However, to observe students in such a way would have involved a different scope of study. Although interviews were conducted with two of three administrators, they were excluded from data collection, too, because it was the first years of the two of the three administrators in this school, which would make it impossible for them to reflect on how teachers experienced the curriculum change process.

3.3.5 Data Analysis

Qualitative data are produced from social interactions, so they are constructions or interpretations. There are no 'raw' data, which are not influenced by human thought and action. Therefore, data analysis is the 'reconstruction of constructions' (Freeman, deMarrais, Preissle, Roulston, & St. Pierre, 2007).

Data analysis is the researcher's process of systematically searching and arranging interview transcripts, field notes and other materials to increase one's understanding of those data and to present the discoveries to others (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Strauss and Corbin (1998) add that analysis of the data represents the operations by which data are broken down, conceptualized, and put back together in new ways. The human instrument allows data to be collected and analyzed in an interactive process (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper & Allen, 1993). This technique mirrors the way that humans solve their daily problems. As soon as data are obtained, tentative meanings are applied to them. When new data are obtained, meaning is revised.

The interviews were recorded and transcribed for the purposes of data analysis. Because the researcher is actively involved in the data generation, the questions used in the interview become part of the text as they set some of the functional context for the answers. Therefore, the interviews were transcribed verbatim rather

than just the responses of the interviewee. All documents and the transcripts of all interviews were analyzed through content analysis, the steps of which are, initial reading, scaffolding, doing the interpretation, and identifying patterns within or across groups or within or across features.

The first step of the analysis was to separate the data into units, called “open coding” by Strauss and Corbin (1998). To Lincoln and Guba (1985), a unit must meet two criteria. First, it must reveal information that is relative to the study and stimulate the researcher to think beyond the particular bit of information. Second, the unit should be the “smallest piece of information about something that can stand by itself—that is, it must be interpretable in the absence of any additional information other than a broad understanding of the context in which the inquiry is carried out” (p. 345). The process began by reading the interview transcripts two times to familiarize with the data. The fact that transcription was done by the researcher had already enhanced familiarity. The researcher then read the transcripts a third time, bracketing sentences and paragraphs and placing code or “idea” words in the right margin. Following Strauss and Corbin (1998), during these readings, she asked questions to start identifying concepts and developing them in terms of their properties (traits or attributes that are characteristic or essential to a quality) and dimensions (the location of these properties on a continuum). During the fourth reading, she began to identify the units and put them into categories of ideas, using labels she devised for quick reference.

The units, their labels and the categories were displayed by the researcher on a table as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). Many of these labels were generated through reading and understanding of the literature or by words or phrases that the teachers repeated. She coded a unit for a provisional category by comparing it with previous units. If it “looked/felt like” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) a previously coded unit, it was put in that category. If not, a new category of ideas was started. In situations where the data could possibly fit into two categories, she

chose the category of idea that was more prominent. For reference purposes, the researcher also noted in the table in which interview and on which page the unit could be found so that she could quickly locate a unit if necessary. She also marked the quotation from the transcript if the particular unit contained a good quote on the table.

The same procedure was followed for meeting minutes and observational field notes, and what came out as a new unit was integrated into the existing table before the writing up stage began.

3.4 Trustworthiness

Validity is generally understood in qualitative educational research as the trustworthiness of inferences drawn from data, though what is acceptable and not acceptable may differ among epistemologies (Scheurich, 1997). Data collection in this study achieves internal validity in that there is triangulation in the multiple sources from which data were acquired: interviews, fieldnotes and meeting minutes. If themes are established when several source of data are converged, then this process could be claimed to add to the validity of the study (Creswell, 2009). A very important way to enhance validity, which was also used in this study to enable the readers to have a more realistic and richer feel of the experiences of teachers, is using rich and thick descriptions while discussing the findings. Another technique to further the internal validity of the study was peer reviewing of both the interview protocol prepared by the researcher, and the data analysis process as a whole, as well as consulting expert judgement. Peer reviewing is critical because it requires other people than the researcher to ask questions about the study so that the accuracy of the account is enhanced (Creswell, 2009).

In addition to being a procedure enhancing validity, peer reviewing was also used in this study in the form of ‘intercoder agreement’, for cross-checking of codes/themes in data analysis. This is one of the ways Gibbs (2007) suggests to ensure the reliability of the study. Another technique used to enhance reliability was to document the procedures of data collection and analysis in an as detailed as possible manner.

Although interview-based protocols are essential to qualitative studies that focus on meanings (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), interviewees may present idealized versions of themselves and their situations. To address this and other issues related to trustworthiness and reliability of the findings, an inductive-generative approach to data collection and analysis was used. Specifically, rapport and trust was developed with the participants, all interviews were audio-taped and transcribed, detailed responses were probed for, and finally, as a supplemental validation of the findings, comparisons with the existing literature were made. In addition, a written consent form (Appendix E) prepared by the researcher explaining to them the confidentiality of information they would provide was presented to the participants prior to the interviews; and they were made to read and sign it before proceeding into the interview.

3.5 Limitations of the Study

This study is susceptible to a number of limitations. First of all, the sample of this study is limited to the teachers of one primary school of the Ministry of National Education in the city of Ankara in Turkey. 22 of the 60 teachers were included in the interview part of the data collection, and the rest were only partially involved in the study through observations in the staff room and through minutes of the branch meetings. Therefore, this study is merely limited with the understandings of the sampled group and cannot be generalized to all primary education teachers.

Since the aim of the research design is not to make generalizations from a specific sample, though, this is not a real limitation as the results of the study could be used as perspective and insight for the educational issue in question.

Another limitation to the study is that the recorded interviews provided the researcher with the mere source of data. Because of this, data analysis had to depend on interview data, which is a limitation in terms of data triangulation. The observation data, which was intended to be included in the analysis at the beginning failed to present the researcher with adequate data regarding the experiences of teachers of the transition process, as meetings were either skipped or largely presented student related data, which is not a priority for the study. The observation data, then, is limited to the rather rare teaching and curriculum related talk in the staff room and the 5 meetings in which the focus was mainly students' emotional and psychological states, not their academic concerns as was expected. The minutes of branch meetings also turned out to be a limitation for data analysis, as the few number of those the teachers were willing to share with the researcher involved little discussion but only the final decisions, which demonstrated little in terms of teacher culture. Hence, observational notes and meeting minutes were not included in the final data analysis.

Next, honesty during interviews could have presented a limitation for the study. However, the researcher spent a certain amount of time at school observing meetings and the staff room and got acquainted with the teachers before she started scheduling interviews in order to develop rapport and trust with the teachers. Time constraints for the interviewees could be taken as another limitation regarding the interview as a data collection procedure. Because of the hectic schedules of some teachers, especially class teachers, some of the interviews took shorter than others. In order to overcome this limitation, the researcher used the time more efficiently for those interviews by adapting the

questions and checking with the teachers later on in case of missing key information.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the manifestations of national curriculum change on the organizational culture of schools through analyzing what the language used by the teachers in a school reveal about the cultural identity of the teachers at school as professionals. In this study, a phenomenological design was used to find out how meaning is remade following mandated curriculum change process among teachers in an educational organization with a semiological framework of language and an interpretive perspective of culture, through the study of a single school. In line with the research questions, three general themes emerged from the collation of interview, observation and document data, which are also used to organize this chapter. These themes, which were produced as a result of the coding and categorization processes, were worded as follows and demonstrated in a table with regards to the literature on teacher culture, educational change, teachers' work, and constructivist learning philosophy:

- A) Teachers' understandings of constructivist curriculum
- B) Constraints teachers experience to the implementation of changes
- C) Teachers' work beyond the classroom

Table 2: Themes and categories

Theme	Category
Teachers' understandings of constructivist curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - exchange of teacher and student roles - higher parental involvement in classroom environment - student-centered instruction - increased flexibility in classroom management - use of technology /audio-visual materials - real-life situations in class - simplicity/reduced load of content - student-centered assessment - group work
Constraints teacher face to the implementation of changes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - constraints related to physical limitations - teacher resistance - parent profile - student profile - systemic incongruities - constraints regarding the principal - cultural factors
Teacher's work beyond the classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - planning and preparation - teacher cooperation vs. isolation - paper work - teacher development - crisis in the sense of competence

Results from interviews provide a focused picture of the experiences of teachers at the school as they implemented a constructivist based curriculum, which will be elaborated on in three sections based on the themes extracted from the data.

4. 1. Changes Brought to Classroom Practices by Constructivist Curriculum

In this section, the results regarding the experiences teachers had in relation to changing their practice in the classroom as their school underwent systemic nation-wide curriculum change will be explained, under categories self-identified by teachers in the study in terms of changes in the predominant mode of instructional delivery in their classrooms. Findings indicated insightful change in nine aspects of classroom practices brought to life with constructivist curriculum.

4.1.1 Exchange of Teacher/Student Roles

During the interviews, teachers came up with an observation of an exchange in the roles of the teacher and students in class while discussing the new roles attached to teachers and students together with the constructivist curriculum. Higher rate of student activity came out as a critical outcome of change in their classroom practices. Teachers mostly felt that compared to past, now students are more active and dynamic in class time, which also resulted in higher rate of student productivity.

...yani çocuklar daha verimli, daha değişik, ne bileyim derse katılımları daha güzel, yani aktif öğreniyorlar, daha hareketli, etkinlikler falan bollaştı, yani eski müfredat, derse katılımı daha fazla, çocuk daha aktif derse katılıyor, eskiden biz anlatıyorduk, o dinleyici, basit oturuyordu(...) diğ erinde. (*Students are more productive, they participate more, they are more lively, through the activities... child participates in the lesson more*

actively, in the past we used to lecture and they simply used to listen.) - INT17-

...bizim eskisi gibi dersi anlatıp not tutturup geçtiğimiz bir ders değil artık, öğrenci öğreniyor ... içersinde konunun, etkinlikleri yapıyor işte kendisi bildiklerini anlatıyor, sohbet ediyoruz derste bu güzel bir şey. *(It is not a lesson we lecture and students take notes anymore, students learn ... within the subject by doing the activities and telling what he knows as we chat in class, which is nice.) -INT12-*

Teachers generally demonstrated positive attitudes towards increased student activity and participation in class, while some of them also emphasizing that participation has a whole-class nature with the new curriculum. This came out as a changed aspect of learning taking place in class, as most teachers focused on the whole-class participative nature of this curriculum in contrast to the participation of a few high achievers in the former.

... mümkün olduğunca çocukların hepsini bu işe dahil etmeye çalışıyoruz ya bir paragraf okuyor ya bir görüşünü söylüyor ya etkinliğin birini yapıyor öbür türlü problemi çözebilen çocuk kalkıyordu o da işte bir sınıfta beş altı kişiyi geçmez. ama burda herkes bir konuyla ilgili bir fikir ortaya koyabiliyor, görüşünü söyleyebiliyor hemen hemen herkesi konuşturmaya çalışıyorum aktif olsunlar diye. *(I try to involve all students as much as possible either through reading aloud or expressing an opinion or doing an activity.... In the past it was just the ones who were able to solve the problems who participated, which is not more than 5 or 6. But now I try to make almost all of them speak so that they can be active.) - INT12-*

...şimdi bu müfredatta da, bir konuda öğretmenin her öğrenciye ulaşabilmesi zaten istedikleri... *(That is what they want with this*

curriculum, the teacher reaching every single student on one subject.) – INT21-

Teachers' role also was stated to have changed together with this new and enhanced role that students undertake, worded as “the exchange of student and teacher roles” since the old passive listening conducted by students is now a teacher activity. Teachers pointed out the teacher as passive listeners, but they also emphasized that they are also doing a lot in the meantime in order to guide students to their new roles and facilitate their learning.

...Diğer türlü çocuk sınıfta şeydi. Neydi robot gibi oturur, öğretmen dersi anlatır. Sorular cevaplanır. Zil çaldı hadi güle güle. (*In the former child used to sit like a robot in class and teacher lecturing. Questions are answered, the bell goes and bye...*) –INT3-

Question and answer type of interaction in class is what was mentioned by most teachers as prior practice, as can be seen in both the previous and the next quotations from teacher interviews.

...Mesela soru cevap yöntemiyle giderken, şimdi biraz daha uygulamaya yönelik şeyler yapmaya başladık. Yani öğrencinin üretimine yönelik, çocuğun uygulamasına yönelik şeyler. (*While in the past we used to do question and answer type lessons, now we focus more on application, towards the production and application of the child.*) – INT1-

In relation to their new roles, teachers seem to have experienced a great deal of change, which transformed them into tools guiding the students as they learn by themselves, and ensuring that resources are available for students to use to support their learning, as in the case of constructivist classrooms. One teacher (INT2) expressed this role very well through her definition of the new teacher role as “to provide the students with the required infrastructure for learning by living and doing (yaparak yaşayarak öğrenme için gerekli altyapıyı materyallerle sağlamak)”. Other teachers supported the idea with the following statements:

...öğretmen şu konumda, zaten olması istenen de o...öğretmen danışman konumunda, öğretmen öğrenciyi yönlendiren, işte ona yol gösteren ..ee..

kişi konumunda olması gerektiği söylendi o konumda da. (*What is expected from the teacher is to be an advisor, to guide the student, to direct him...*) -INT 13-

...işte benim anladığım manayı söylüyorum öğrenciyi yönlendirebilen rehber olmasını istiyor o amaç yani öğrenci odaklı olsun siz onlara katkı verin ödevleri verin işte donanımınız hazır olsun onların kullanımına sunun. (*What I understand is teacher is expected to be a guide to direct the student. The purpose is to make it student centered, you contribute to them, assign them tasks, make resources available to them.*) -INT14-

This transformed role of teacher also means to teachers that they are no longer the only sources of knowledge available for students, which influences how students perceive the teacher, and makes them more independent in their learning, expressed as follows by a teacher:

Hani bu herşeyi bilen öğretmen...evet benim sınıfımda ben onu kaldırmaya uğraşıyorum ve az da olsa başarıımızda var bu konuda....öğrenciler beni her şeyi bilen, her şeyi yapan öğretmen tipi olarak değil de işte gerektiği yerde sıkıntıya düştüğü yerde devreye sokuyor beni. (*The teacher who knows everything... I try to abolish this in my class and I am more or less successful in it...Students do not see me as the teacher who knows and does everything but they make use of me when they need, when there is a problem.*) -INT8-

Although it looks like teachers are generally comfortable with this new role and have developed a positive attitude towards constructivist teacher in general, one teacher expressed the conflict she is experiencing inside due to this role, which could be named as ‘guilt’ for not being the sole source of knowledge:

...bugün bir adamı araştıracağınız araştırdınız mı araştırdık iyi tamam öğretmen masasına geçiyor isim listesi var artı eksi koyuyor bilmem ne,

ondan sonra çocuk tek tek kalkıyor sunumunu yapıyor he sen de hiçbir şey bilmiyorsun gibi, bunu kabullenemiyoruz. *(Today you were supposed to do research into this guy, have you done it, yes, OK, teacher is behind her table putting plusses and minuses to the student list while the children are presenting what they found on by one, and it is like you don't know anything at all, which is what we cannot accept.)* -INT 13-

4.1.2 Increased Involvement of Parents in the Classroom Environment

While some teachers emphasized the economic status of the parents as a critical part of their background, others mainly talked about low level of education that the parents have, which to them directly influences the readiness of the child to school and learning at school. One teacher expressed this as a concern of hers using the common 'scaffolding' metaphor of constructivism as follows:

...Siz burda çocuğa bi takım şeyleri öğretiyosunuz çocuğa da mantıklı gelebiliyor ama eve gittiği zaman herşey yıkılabiliyor ordan bi taş çekiliyor pat herşey yıkılıp başa dönüyorsunuz. *(You teach certain stuff here the child makes sense of it but when he goes home everything may be collapsed when a stone is pulled out of it, and you turn back to the beginning.)* - INT1-

As to the socio-economic status of parents, the following quotations depict what teachers think regarding the increased significance of the family background as they are more actively involved in the learning process:

...Velinin etkisinin çok büyük olduğunu düşünüyorum ben çünkü veli çocuğuna belli bir eğitimi veriyor okula gelmeden önce. Veli çok önemli. bazı şeyleri vermek zorunda. Vermediği zaman öğretmen çok zorlanıyo sınıfta. *(I think the parents' influence is very important as parents give a*

certain amount of education to their kids before school. When this lacks, teacher's job gets very difficult in class.) -INT2-

...aynı sınıfta aynı şartlarda aynı dersi veriyosun. Şartları daha iyi olan çocuklar şartları yani ailenin ekonomik düzeyi daha yüksek olan çocuklar aile düzeyi geri olan çocuklardan daha iyi oluyo. (You teach the same thing in the same class under the same conditions. Kids with better conditions I mean kids with higher family economic status are usually better than kids with lower ones) - INT3-

This increased involvement, which made the family backgrounds more significant, was said to be caused by both curriculum related factors like performance tasks and the increased need for parents' financial support due to technological requirements of the classrooms, and also by the pressure of central examinations for the next level of education. Firstly, higher parent involvement meant higher parent activity through performance tasks. The most common concern raised by teachers was owing to the confusion experienced especially during the first couple of years of implementation, both by teachers and parents. Teachers, due to insufficient training, had difficulty in realizing the actual aim of performance tasks, and expected very high of their students. This puts parents, who were even more confused with this new productive nature of homework, under pressure. As a result, they either indulged themselves too much in the completion of tasks, or felt insufficient because of not being able to do it. It took time for teachers first and then parents to realize that what is important is the process that the child goes through as he is "doing and reflecting, more doing and reflecting, and then more doing and reflecting" (Marlowe & Page, 1998). This process of teachers' confusion and how it was resolved was summarized by a teacher as follows:

...Bu program bize performans ve proje diye bir şey getirdi bir de aile görevi getirdi. biz performans ve proje ödevini biz öğretmenler kavrayamadık. kavrayamayınca ne yaptık..ailelere yüklendik.. aileler

gittiler mimarlara mühendislere maketleri yapturdular, evler köyler, çarşılar, okullar, getirdiler biz hala kavrayamadık, ayy ne güzel öğretmenler odasının masalarına dolaplarına koyduk...benim ne haddime kalmış ki öğrencilerin anasını babasını değerlendirmek. ama onlara not verirken onları değerlendirdim ... ve veliler büyük bir külfete girdiler hem maddi bir külfete girdiler hem de iş yükü olarak külfete girdiler ve buna tepkiler başladı ve bildiğim kadarıyla bu tepkiler de taa bakanlığa kadar da gitti...sonra biz zamanla olayı ağır ağır kavramaya başladık, hala kavramayanlar var...şimdi ne yapıyoruz...çocuğun sınıfta yapabileceği performans görevlerini seçiyorum. (*This program brought performance and project tasks which we could not understand at the beginning. So we put pressure on the parents and they had architects or engineers to do the models of houses, villages or schools. We still didn't understand and exhibited these in the teachers' room lockers and tables. We evaluated the parents as I was grading the students. Parents underwent a huge effort both financially and in terms of workload, which caused reactions to reach even to the ministry. In time we started to understand though there are still those who don't. What we do now is to assign tasks that the student can complete in class time.*) - INT8-

Some teachers pointed out that this overinvolvement of parents still continue due to parents being overambitious of their child's performance or grades, although teachers are now more aware and keep warning the parents of the real purpose.

...yani evet yapıyorlar ve yaptıklarını da öyle güzel dile getiriyorlar ki konuşurken onun çocuğununki şöyle olmuş öğretmen ona şu kadar vermiş benim çocuğuma biz şunu yaptık biz şunu yaptıkla başlıyorlar cümlenin sonu yaptım la bitiyor. (*Yes they do them and show that they do them very well as they talk about it as in "The teacher graded another student like this but we did better than that", they start the sentence with we did, but finish "I did".*) -INT13-

... Etkinlikleri tam olarak sınıf ortamında yapamıyoruz. Yani yapamadıklarımızı eve veriyoruz. Onlarda da çok başarılı olamıyorlar çünkü hani 3 kişinin yaptığı bir şey geliyo sizin karşınıza, ana baba ve çocuk. (*We cannot fully complete the activities in class time. We assign some of them home. But it does not work either because what is handed in is the work of three; mother, father and the child.*) –INT 6-

...dedim bu çocuğun, bırak eksik olsun yanlış olsun o yapsın onun elinden çıksın mükemmel olması önemli değil dedim. (*I told the parent that this is the child's task. It may be wrong or lacking, but what matters is that it should be his work. It does not have to be perfect, I said.*) -INT13-

Parents' "overambition", as identified so by many of the teachers, does not only stem from the new curriculum, but also from other factors such as the pressure of central exams and the changing family structures, which push them to be more active, to communicate more with the teachers, and follow student performance more closely.

...Valla velinin aktifliği biraz da bu işte bu sınavlardan dolayı. Yoksa veliler öyle bi aktif olacak durumları yok işte çocuklar SBS de ya da OKS de başarılı olsunlar diye. (*The activeness of parents is to some extent because of these exams. Otherwise there is no reason for parents to be more active, so that children succeed in SBS or OKS.*) - INT1-

As to family structures, while some teachers mentioned the low education level of parents as a reason for their overambition, while another teacher mentioned the guilt of the working mother:

...Yani benim sınıfımda var böyle bir iki tane aileler 3. sınıf müfredatını veriyorlar çocuğa. çok hevesliler çok istekliler. çocuk sıkılıyo ve bana sıkıldığını ifade ediyor, benim yapabileceğim bişey yok ki o konuda. Anne

baba okumamış, öyle hırslılar ki çocuğu kurban ediyolar. (*I have a few parents in my class who teach the next grade's curriculum to their kids as they are too enthusiastic. The child gets bored and expresses this to me but I have nothing to do about it. Parents are uneducated so they are so ambitious that they victimize the kid.*) –INT2-

...şimdiki çocuklar anne o çocuğun her dediğini yapmaya çalışıyor genelde şimdi çalışan anne baba çocuğundan uzak kalıyor vicdanını öyle rahatlatıyor. (*Today's mothers try to do everything that the child wants as she is working and thus away from her kid so she is trying to relieve her guilty conscience in this way.*) –INT13-

Parents are not only more active through performance tasks, but also as sources of input for students' local knowledge. One teacher mentioned interviewing as a common method of student research, which she assigns regularly to her students:

...veli tabi çok çalışıyor burda, bence çalışmalı da. yani tamamen yapmak değil de tabi. çocuğa fikir vermek anlamında. yine bugünkü ödevim mesela görüşme formu var orda o da ailesinden bir fertle görüşecek mesleğiyle ilgili onun görüşlerini alacak, işte severek mi yapıyor sevmeyerek mi yapıyor, burda nereye çıkacak sonuç, çocuk diyecek ki ben sevdiğim ilgi duyduğum işte yeteneğimin olduğu bir mesleğe ulaşayım. (*The parent works hard in this program, and I think they must, not meaning to do it completely but to provide the child with ideas. For example today I assigned them an interview form in which they have to ask their parents questions about their jobs, which would result in the student to think about jobs and what job he wants to do.*) –INT10-

In line with the emphasis on the use of computers in class by teachers and students with the purpose of making the content more visually attractive in the curriculum, teachers felt the need to have computers and projecting machines built in to their

classrooms. When talking about parent involvement, parents' financial support in making this possible came out as a very significant feature of their involvement, which indicates that the procedure of teachers collecting money from parents to enhance the technological facilities of their classrooms is very common at this school. While some teachers see this kind of support natural, there are also those who believe it is actually the responsibility of the state to provide the schools with the technologies that are required for the new curriculum.

... tabi burda velinin büyük katkısı var, bu okul için söyleyeyim. biz hala bir pc aldıramadık, ne yapıyoruz pc labaratuarı veya sınıfını kullanma durumunda kalıyoruz. (*Now the parent has great contribution. Speaking for this school, we still couldn't have parents buy a computer to our classroom. What we do is to use the computer lab.*) - INT14-

An anecdote shared by a 2nd grade teacher expressed very well how natural this support is perceived both by parents and also by this teacher:

...birinci sınıfı okuturken de ben ödevlerimi kendim hazırlıyordum. Kaymakam velim vardı dedi ki hocam dedi madem öyle bu yıl da siz hazırlayın. Dedim valla yazıcım bozuldu ne zaman alırsam o zaman hazırlamaya başlaycam. Dedi ki ben alıcam size yazıcı, yeter ki siz ödev hazırlamaya devam edin dedi mesela. (*When I was teaching 1st grade I used to prepare task sheets for students to do at home. I had a parent, a subgovernor, told me to prepare them this year too. I told him that my printer is broken I will start as soon as I get a new one. He said he will get me a new one so that I can prepare task sheets again.*) -INT2-

On the other hand, one teacher felt that this influenced their relationship with the parents and indirectly with the students in a negative way.

...veli velinimetimiz olmuş idarecilerimiz de aman veliyi kızdırmayalım veli okula parayı veren. (*The parent is our benefactor, administrators keep*

saying we should be careful not to make parents angry as they are those who pay.) - INT13-

...Yani aletlerin sınıfta olması...önemli... Tabi tabi sınıfta olmadığı için biraz bir projeksiyon istiyorduk, o zaman... şimdi sınıflarda var... Veliler alıyor, artık şimdi öyle. Onu da (parayı) biz topluyoruz, *(To have the devices in the classroom is important. We wanted a projector as we didn't have one in our classroom. Now we have it. Parents buy it... that is the usual practice now. We collect the money.) -INT19-*

This quotation both shows that from now on it is the teacher's responsibility to organize such a donation system through communicating with the parents and collecting the money, and also that this is something new, increased especially after the new curriculum. It is not difficult to imagine how this unwritten but perceived role by teachers creates inequality between classrooms, as some teachers do not accept this role as readily as others. Differences between teacher approaches might be caused by both different teacher approaches to collecting money and to technology. Either way, this would not be sole cause of inequality in itself as parent profile of each class may well be different from another even in the same school. The quotation below expresses inequality caused by different levels of importance given to education by different parent combinations in two different classes:

İşte dediğim gibi yani işin sürmesi açısından bu kaynakları devletin karşılaması lazım, benim velilerim eğitime önem veriyolar buna hazırlar ama... arkadaşımızın sınıfında yok üzülüyorum. *(The state should fulfill these resources so that the process could continue. My parents attach importance to education and are ready to help but my friend does not have them in his class. I feel sorry for him.) -INT2-*

Financial support from parents is not only crucial when it comes to buying computers or projectors, but it is an ongoing process due to the nature of activities assigned as homework.

... En basitinden bir etkinlik nerden baksan 3-5 lira gerektirir. Bant almak, kablo almak veya işte bilmem ne... Yani eğer materyallere veyahut yani onları birleştirmeye dayalı birşeyse, gerektiriyo yani para gerektiriyo. Maddi açıdan yetersiz olan öğrenciler var, ya da internetten gideceksin çıktı alıcaksın diyo. Bilgisayarı yok internete gidiyo para veriyo. *(Even the simplest activity requires the student to spend around 3-5 liras. He has to buy tape, cable, etc. I mean if the activity is based upon such materials or on combination of such materials, it requires money. There are students who are financially in need. Or we say get print out from the internet. He has no computer at home, so he goes to a cyber café and he pays for it and the printout.)* -INT7-

The increased significance of the family background and higher involvement of parents due to the requirements of the new curriculum both through increased activity in completing tasks assigned for students and through contributing financially to the system has inevitably changed the extent and nature of communication between teachers and parents. Teachers pointed out that all these enhanced their communication with parents, and led parents to be more actively involved in educational processes. One teacher explained this through the idea of “presence of the parent in the classroom”, which she felt is something undermining the teacher’s total sovereignty in the classroom:

...Mesela şimdi şu anda sınıfta veli var...velinin de sınıfı gözlemlemesini istiyor yeni program. Veliyi diyor alın sınıfa. Çocuğunuzu gözlesin, sunumlarını dinlesin... Sınıfın kapıları velilere açık. Eskiden öyle değildi, öğretmen sınıfta müdür bile öğretmenden sonra cumhurbaşkanı bile sonra gelirdi. şimdi öyle değil. *(For example now we have the parent in the classroom. The new program wants the parent to observe the class. It tells*

us to take the parent into the classroom so that they can observe their child and attend his presentations...Our doors are open to parents. This wasn't the case in the past, teacher was superior to all, the principal, even the president in her classroom. Now it is not the case.) -INT3-

...eski velilerimiz hani eti senin kemiği benim derlerdi. Her yıl biraz daha bu değişti. artık herşey onların. (laughter) bize bişi bırakmadılar. (In the past parents used to surrender their kids totally to us. This has gradually changed. Now it is all theirs. We have nothing left.) - INT12-

4. 1. 3 Student-centered Instruction

A constructivist curriculum is based on an epistemological view of learning rather than teaching. Thus, students' active participation in problem solving and critical thinking processes is fundamental for knowledge construction of the student. As new knowledge is constructed in integration with each student's previous intellectual constructs, learning should be planned in a way that is student-centered. Interaction in a constructivist classroom, then, is not limited between the teacher and the students, but instead takes place among all individuals' diverse cognitive abilities. When teachers do not take students' differing cognitive abilities as well as their interests and life experiences into account, they fail to build on local knowledge and therefore avoid their full participation (Windschitl, 2002).

From the talks with the teachers at this school, the following aspects of a student-centered instruction emerged as they were talking about changes brought to their classroom practices: learning by doing and living, independent learning, improvement of critical thinking skills, awareness of individual differences

between students, student research as primary source of knowledge, free expression of ideas, and increased student self-confidence.

Students' active participation in problem solving processes through hands-on activities was generally worded in the same way by teachers, as "learning by doing and living".

...bugüne kadarki sistem hep ezbere sistemdi biliyorsunuz, merkezde öğretmen vardı, ama şimdi daha farklı, yaparak, yaşayarak çocuklar dinamik...sürekli çocuklar...kendileri bildiği gibi yapıyor (*Up to now it was all based on memorization you know, teacher was the center. But now it is different, students learn by doing, living. They are dynamic, they do as they wish.*) -INT19-

...Eskiden daha bir ezberci sistemdi, veriyorduk mesela ...üçgenin iç açıları toplamı 180 derecedir, şimdi yeni müfredatta üçgen yapıp mesela etkinlikte köşelerini kesiyorsun, köşeleri birleştirip doğru açı yan yana koyup yapıştırdığında ...işte bir üçgenin iç açıları toplamı 180 derecedir... Ki bunu gene öğrenmiş oluyor öğrenci de mi? Üçgenin iç açıları 180'dir bilgisine sahip olmuş oluyor. Ama farklı bir yoldan, uygulayarak görerek öğrenmiş oluyor. (*In the past it was based on memorization. We gave the input that the sum of internal angles of a triangle is 180. Now in the new curriculum they cut the corners and bring and stick them together in the right angles they see that the sum is 180 degrees. They still learn, don't they? But in a different way, through application and seeing.*) -INT17-

...Yapılandırmacı derken daha çok öğrencinin aktif olması gerekiyo...eee ...Öğrencinin yaparak yaşayarak öğrenmesi gerekiyo. (*What I mean by constructivist is that student needs to be more active. He needs to learn by doing and living.*) -INT2-

Learning by doing does not only mean bringing together concrete material to visualize the input, but rather the input is to be provided by the student himself, as part of knowledge construction. Teachers argued that the primary source of knowledge in the classroom is no longer the teacher alone, but the input provided by research tasks realized by students.

...etkinlikler var mesela. burda hem... öğretmen bişeyler katıyor, öğrenci kendileri araştırıyor, hep birlikte yani katkısı oluyor. (*We have activities for example here... both the teacher contributes, the students do their own research, so it's the contribution of all.*) -INT17-

...Her kelimeyi öğretmenin ağzından dinleyeceğine, çocuk bu kadar teknoloji çağında araştırarak öğrenmeyi bilmesi gerekiyor biz de bunu teşvik etmeye çalışıyoruz. (*Instead of listening to every word out of teacher's mouth, the child needs to know how to learn by doing research, that is what we are trying to encourage.*) -INT6-

...yani orda biz daha yoruluyorduk ve daha fazla şey üretmek çıkarmak zorundaydık birşeyler yapmak zorundaydık burda öyle değil herşey hazır çocuğa yüklüyor çocuk yapsın çocuk performans yapsın çocuk deney yapsın çocuk etkinlik yapsın çocuk getirsin çocuk bulsun hep malzeme çocuktan yani. (*In the past we worked harder and we had to produce more it is not the case now everything is ready for the teacher. It is all on the student. The child is to do everything, the performance tasks, the experiments. The child is to find the material. It is all from the child.*) -INT12-

Although most teachers pointed out that making it more student-centered eased their work during class time as it is the students who do most of the talking and other productive tasks, this does not mean that teachers' job is easier, as they need to make sure all students with varying cognitive abilities, interests and life

experiences go through a self-learning process. This is expressed as an opportunity brought by the new curriculum by one teacher as follows:

...öğrencilerin biraz önce belirttiğim gibi bireysel farklılıklarını, sosyal farklılıklarını bir zenginliğe dönüştürebiliyorsun, her anı işte bilmem bazen yakından uzağa doğru çevreden toplulaştırmadan bunları birer ders haline dönüştürebiliyorsun. (*You may transform individual differences between students into a richness, by making use of every moment from close to larger environment to transform into a lesson.*) -INT8-

When student research or student material is the main source of knowledge in class, the student needs to learn how to be an independent learner. According to the teachers, accessing knowledge independently from the teacher is critical both for the successful implementation of the curriculum and is a very crucial life skill that needs to be practiced as early as possible in education.

...Yani çocuk zaten bilgi öğrenmeyi öğrendikten sonra bilgi sorun değil bana göre, nasıl olsa öğrenecek, ulaşır. Yeter ki nasıl öğreneceğini demi, öğrenmeyi öğrenmeli. (*As long as the child learns how to learn, knowledge is not an issue for me. He will somehow reach knowledge if he knows how to learn.*) -INT19-

Another aspect of student-centered instruction experienced by teachers was the improvement of critical thinking skills after the abandonment of rote memorization methods used in teaching earlier. One teacher explained the change as in the first quotation, while a few others referred to the same thing while explaining the primary goal of education in relation to the new curriculum:

...Bence daha yaratıcı oluyor çocuk daha düşünebiliyor, sorguluyor, önce biz ezberedydi her şeyi ezbere alıyoruz ben bir çok şeyi düşünemiyorum, bir bakıyorum benim hiç düşünmediğim şeyleri düşünüp sorabiliyo. (*I think the child is more creative, thinks more, questions. Earlier we learnt through memorization so I cannot think of many things myself. But now I*

see they can think of and question the things that I never thought of.) - INT19-

...sonra sorgulayan, düşünen yorumlayan öğrenciler yetiştirebilmek yani kendi kendi haklarını savunabilecek öğrenciler yetiştirebilmek okuldaki misyonumuz... da bu (*Our mission at the school is to train students who can ask, question, think and interpret so that they can defend their own rights.*) -INT1-

...bananeciliği kaldırmak. kendini birey hissetmek, düşünce geliştirebilmek, otoriteye gerektiğinde karşı durabilmek. Çünkü otorite kötü bi şeydir. (*To abolish self-centeredness, to make students feel as individuals who can develop their own thoughts and defend them against authority when necessary because authority is a bad thing.*) -INT5-

Free expression of students' ideas is another aspect directly related to improved critical thinking skills since the quality of interactions and the sharing of diverse point of views result in a more comfortable atmosphere for students to express their ideas and opinions. Teachers are no more talking people, but they are people who make others talk (INT6). Teachers emphasized that this was mainly caused by the open-ended questioning technique used in textbooks, which gives room to different and alternative answers of students rather than asking for a constant correct answer.

...eski tükçe parçalarında yani bir doğru vardı, şimdi herkes fikrini yazıyor, düşüncesini sana göre düşüncen nedir mesela, herkes kendisi yani ona göre... doğru olan neyse o...Tabi bu çok yönlü düşünmeye sevk ediyor, farklı düşünceler ortaya çıkıyor paylaşımlar artıyor. (*In earlier texts in the Turkish book there was one correct answer. Now everybody writes their own opinions as an answer according to whatever is right to*

him. This naturally leads students to think from multiple perspectives and results in differing thoughts.) -INT17-

...yani daha çok öğrenciye... kendini anlatması diyelim biz eskiden ev ödevi olarak kitapta şurayı araştır özetini yaz...gel diyorduk ama şimdi türkçeden bir parçayı okuyorsun direk orda şu soruları yap demiyor hep işte sen olsan ne yapardın diyelim bu konuda ne düşünüyorsun senin fikrin nedir hep çocuğa böyle vurgulayıcı kendini ifade edecek anlamda sorular yine öyle hep araştırma soruları var kendi fikirlerini kendi görüşlerini anlatsın diyor. *(It is based more on students' expressing themselves through personalization questions like what would you do in the same situation or other research type questions that the student would explain his own ideas.) -INT9-*

What came out very frequently in teacher interviews is the awareness they developed towards differences of ability, learning style, intelligence, and life experiences as a result of student-centered approach in the new curriculum:

...çok hareketli çocuklar var, geziyor konuşuyor ama aynı zamanda da öğreniyor, ben sorduğumda oğlum nerde kaldık dediğimde cevap veriyor, engel olmuyorum yani... *(There are children who are very active, who walk around, talk to others but learn at the same time. When I check his attention he shows me that he is following, so I don't stop him from moving.) -INT19-*

...üç-beş kişiyle ders yaptığım işte soruların onların çözdüğü öbür tarafta ne kadar çabalasanız bile 40 kişilik bir sınıf da herkes öğrendi mi diye yoklayamıyorsunuz, ama burda herkesi yoklayabiliyorsun, hani bugün bu çocuk bunu öğrenemedi farkında olabiliyorsun... her öğrenciye ulaşabiliyorsun, bugün hangisini kim öğrendi kim öğrenemedi farkedebiliyorsun, öbür türlü olmuyordu, yetiştirmem lazım o problemleri

çözmem lazım koymuşum cebime 5-6 problem çözücem, çözdüğüm gibi anladınız mı anlamadınız mı işte beş-altı kişi anladı...e işte vakit yok. kötüydü. gerçekten kötüydü. -INT12-

Multiple intelligences that the students have is also an awareness raised through the curriculum change in teachers, which was expressed by a teacher as a reason for having a student-centered learning environment, since students are not placed into classrooms grouped according to their strong intelligence types.

...Yapılması gereken çocuğun becerilerini ortaya koyabilme. Akademik yönden mesela her çocuğun farklı zeka yönleri var, sayısal zekası olan var, sözel zekası olan var, bu zeka şeyine göre yönlendirebilmeyi amaçlıyorum ben. (*What we need to do is to put forward the skills that the child has. Academically every kid has a tendency towards a different kind of intelligence and I aim to guide them based on their intelligences.*) - INT15-

The following teacher mentioned this awareness also as a very crucial characteristic of an ideal teacher:

...Bi kere eee, farklılıkları zenginlik olarak görücek...Çünkü 30 ayrı öğrencin varsa 30 ayrı dünya var. Kimse kimseyi benzeştirmiycek...her çocuğun bir ağaç olduğunu, dallarının farklı büyüdüğünü, farklı rengi olduğunu.. Bu çok önemli. (*He should see differences as richness, as 30 students mean you have 30 different worlds ahead of you. He mustn't try to make anybody alike. Every child is a different tree with different leaves growing in different shapes and colours.*) -INT5-

Increased student self-confidence is another aspect of change raised by teachers as part of student-centered instruction, naturally caused by increased talking time and hands-on activity time of the students as well as a more comfortable atmosphere in which the student feels free to express his ideas, regardless of ability.

...her çocuk önemli benim için, ha genelde yapılan hata şuydu, belli başlı bir iki çocuk mesela türkçe'de matematik'te başarılıysa o çocukları öne

alırdık...o çocuklar böyle göz önünde tutulur, diğer çocuklar susturulur, sınıfta altı saat boyunca beş saat boyunca sessiz sedasız otururlardı. (*Every child matters to me. What was wrong in the past was to depend on a couple of high achievers in Turkish and Maths and give priority to them. Others kids were made silent and used to sit silently in class for 5-6 hours.*)
-INT15-

4. 1. 4 Increased Flexibility in Classroom Management

If we were to observe the patterns of classroom management in classrooms, some of the most visible areas would probably be the arrangement of classroom furniture, the degree of physical movement students are allowed without asking the teacher, the ratio of teacher talk to student talk, and the level of noise in the classroom.

When they were asked about any possible changes that took place in their classroom management patterns or techniques that they use, while most teachers expressed there has been a fundamental shift from the use of teacher based classroom management to student based classroom management strategies, there were also some teachers who said that his/ her classroom management approach is already student based. What teachers understand by ‘student based’ classroom management is that they need to vary their classroom management strategies or communication skills from student to student, based on the individual differences between them. Most of them agreed that this made them more permissive, which is still hard to get used to. One teacher expressed the shift in her communication skills in the following words:

...Hani şey gibi yani sınıfa girdiğiniz zaman mesela öğrenciyle, tamam tabi ki birebir ilgileniyodunuz ama, şimdi her öğrencinin yeteneklerini bireysel olarak değerlendirmeniz ve ona göre bireysel olarak onla iletişime geçmeniz gerekiyo. O yüzden herkese göre ayrı bir iletişim becerisi

oluşturmanız gerekiyo. (*When you walk into the classroom, all right of course you used to take care of the students one by one, but now you need to evaluate the abilities of each student individually and communicate individually with him according to this evaluation. So you need to develop a different communication skill for each individual student.*) -INT1-

The degree of physical movement students are allowed in the classroom without asking the teacher was reported by teachers to have increased with the new curriculum. Students moving freely in classroom was both caused by the teachers' increased permissiveness due to taking learning style or intelligence and personality differences of students into account, and also by the changes in the instructional patterns used dominantly. For example, the use of group work as an interaction type resulted in increased mobility in the classroom as expressed as follows by a teacher:

... Artık dedim ya ben 5'i bitirdim bu programda, hele 3. sınıftan sonra hepsi ayaktalar bu çocukların. Aktifler tabi gidicek gelecek grup kuracak. (*I finished 5th grade with this program, especially with 3rd grade, all students are standing. They are certainly active as they get into groups.*) -INT3-

The shift in instructional patterns was also mentioned by some teachers in a more general way, such as the ratio of teacher talk to student talk as a result of student-centered instruction.

...ama sınıfta bir hareketlilik oluyor tabi. şimdi çok ağır bir konuyu burda anlatıyor olsam yazdırıyor olsam daha disiplinli daha düzgün bir sınıfla karşı karşıya olurum ama şimdi hareket var tabi. (*But surely there is movement in the classroom. Now if I were lecturing a very hard subject and make students write I would face a more disciplined, a more decent class, but now there is mobility.*) -INT12-

...çünkü sınıfa girdiğin zaman “otur, sağına bakma, solun bakma, etrafına bakma” gibi robot gibi öğrenci istenirdi. Şimdi deniyo ki mesela öğrenci isterse sınıfta istediği gibi dolanabilir. Buna bizim alışmamız daha zor oldu. Zor oldu çünkü orda o dolaşıyo belki kendi istediğini yapıyo onunun içgüdüsel şeyleri o şekilde, öyle rahat ediyo ama öbürünün de dikkati dağılıyo mesela o dolaşırken. (*When you entered the classroom in the past you would say: “Sit down, don’t look around” as you wanted students to be robot-like. Now they say that the student can freely move around the classroom. This was hard for us to get used to because one of them moves freely as he wants do intrinsically, as he is more comfortable like that but another one may be distracted by him.*) -INT1-

The change in instructional patterns such as the type of interaction also influenced the level of noise in the classrooms. Since with the new curriculum teachers are expected to encourage students to engage in dialogue with both their teachers and their peers (Brooks & Brooks, 1993), they arrange classroom activities in line with this.

...Şimdi eski programda sınıflardan tıp hiç ses çıkmazdı, ama şimdi gürültü oluyo bi anda baya bi. Grup çalışması yapıldığı zaman, ister istemez dışardan bakan birisi öğretmen sınıfta disiplini sağlayamamış gibi görebilir ama şöyle bir baktığın zaman zaten susuyo dinliyo seni sınıf. (*In the old program there would be no noise in the classroom, but now there is a lot. When it is group work time, an outsider may think that the teacher has lost control of the classroom but students get back to silence when you look at them.*) -INT2-

...önceden yani çocuklar sessiz olun, konuşmayın, konuşmayacak susacak hiçbir şekilde. Tabi şimdi daha bir farkındayız. (*Earlier we used to say:*

“Children! Be quiet, do not talk”. We expected them to be quiet at all times. Now we are more aware.) - INT19-

As expressed by this teacher, teachers are aware that together with the curriculum change, they need to revise their behavioural expectations from the students, while also having to make them adopt new habits for still keeping the classroom order under control. While some teachers mentioned that they needed to do some strategy training in class targeting the students, others said that they invented new techniques for themselves.

...Mesela grupta bağıırır çağırır falan bi gürültü oluşuyo sınıfta. Sen napıyosun? Çalışma yaparken arkadaşınla konuşabilirsin, ama onun işiteceği şekilde. Kapalı yerde bu kadar bağırlmaz gürültü yapılmaz demek zorundasın. *(A noise is created in group work. What do you do? You have to say: “you can talk with your friend as you work, but in a way that only he or she will hear. You cannot make so much noise in a closed space like this”.* -INT1-

...bu programla birlikte gürültü çoğaldı ... gruplara ayırırken bir gürültü gruplar çalışırken bir gürültü oldu...işte bazen şöyle işaret kullanıyoruz, işaret dili(...) bağırmıyorum da..el kaldırmak, susmak bilmem şu şudur bu budur işaret dili kullanıyoruz...çünkü...anlaşabilmek için, çünkü, şimdi bağırdığın zaman bir gruba, öbür grup sessiz onun dikkatini dağıtıyorsun, ama bir takım işaretleri kullandığımız zaman uzaktan o gruplara dokunmamış oluyoruz... *(Noise increased with this program. There is noise when putting students into groups, and when groups are working. Sometimes I use body language. I don’t shout. I raise my hands, or use other signs of body so that we could communicate the message. Because when I shout, I may distract other groups who are quiet.)* -INT8-

Apart from warning the students not to make so much noise in group work, some teachers also mentioned other skills that they wanted their students to adopt in line with the new curriculum. For instance, the significance of turn-taking strategies was mentioned to have increased as amount of student talking time increased. The second quotation is rather interesting in the sense that the teacher uses a different turn taking strategy with her students other than raising hands, which gives far more responsibility to the student in controlling the talk and interaction in class.

...Eğitim olarak şunu verdim çocuklara, şunu kavratmaya çalıştım. Söz hakkı almadan konuşmayalım, söz alanı sonuna kadar dinleyelim. (*I trained the students for this: “we mustn’t talk without receiving the right to take our turn. We must wait for our turn if somebody else is talking.*) - INT6-

...Bizim parolamız kimseden izin almak zorunda değiliz, sadece bir şartı var. Konuşmak isteyen bakar ayakta birisi konuşuyor mu diye. Konuşuyorsa onun sözünün bitmesini bekler, ondan sonra konuşur. O konuşurken başkası konuşamaz. Bunu verdim biz parmak kaldırmadan konuşabiliyoruz hiçbir disiplin problemi olmadan. (*Our motto is that we don’t have ask for anybody’s permission to talk, only in one condition. Anybody who wants to talk checks if someone is standing and talking. If yes, waits for him to finish, and then stands up and talks. Noone else can talk when he is talking. I trained them for this and now we can talk without raising hands and there are no discipline problems.*)-INT5-

4.1.5 Increased Use of Technology and Other Visual Aids

For students to create complex and rich knowledge structures, contextualized higher level activities are required. Various technologies may function as tools to support these classroom activities. Wilson (1996) argues that computer-based

virtual environments may alleviate the spur of knowledge construction, as long as they are used in an attempt to engage the students in complex and higher level activities.

Except for a few classrooms where the teacher was not supported enough financially by the group of parents, most classrooms are equipped with a laptop computer and a built in projector at this school. Some teachers also mentioned that they have a big screen TV set in their classrooms, again bought by parents. Teachers are generally positive about this aspect of the new curriculum, mostly mentioning the use of computers and other visuals as a benefit to their teaching and to students' learning. From the quotations below, it may be seen that teachers believe technology use is beneficial to the implementation of the new curriculum because of the visual support it provides them with, and also because it helps them to link content with real life. What came out really often in teacher interviews as an advantage of the use of visuals was that it helped the retention of what is learned.

...izlediğimiz en büyük değişiklik işte şey, teknolojik açıdan çocuk daha bir görerek öğretiyoruz şimdi bire bir, işitsel, hem görüyor hem işitiyor. *(The biggest change we have gone through is, well, we teach through technology more so that the students both see and hear.)* -INT19-

...bu yöntemle bir kere anlatılan her şeyi günlük hayatla ilişkilendirebilmek ve bunu hayal edebilmek... hayal edemiyor bazı çocuklar nasıl hayal edeceğini bilmiyor ama siz bunu görsel olarak sunduğunuz zaman ha o zaman çocuk bir şeyler aklında oluşmaya başlıyor ve anlamaya çalışıyor. *(this method... being able to link everything that is taught with daily life and being able to imagine it. They cannot imagine, some kids don't know how to imagine but when you present it visually to them then the kid starts to have an image in mind and he tries to understand.)* -INT16-

Although these two teachers mainly talked about the use of technology as a visual and audial support for students to see, hear and thus imagine the content more easily, there were others who mentioned technology and visuals as a tool to make students active participants in activities that use technology, rather than to make students passive watchers and listeners of videos. The quotations below show that visual aids are used with the participation of the students into game-like or interactive tasks used for revision of content, which is thought to have increased their achievement in tests taken afterwards.

...işte bir tane örnek verip daha çok görsellere onları katarak oyunlaştırarak bu şekilde işliyoruz. (*we give one example and then mostly teach through involving them into visuals in games.*) -INT17-

...konuları işlemiştik işlediğimiz konularla ilgili eee bir değerlendirme yapmak istedik Avea sınıfını kullandık çeşitli testler uyguladık ondan sonra gelen uzman arkadaşımız ...onları yapınca ... çocukların ... mesela önce konuları görselledik görselledikten sonra soruları sorduk soruları sorduğumuzda çocuklar zaten o görselleri aldığı zaman hemen şey eski bilgileri toparlamış oldular hemen akabinde yapılmış olan test sınavlarında çok keyifli cevaplar verdiler. (*we wanted to do a revision of content that we taught. We used the technology classroom together with the specialist to do some tests. First we visualized the content, which made them recall previously learned content, and then they gave very nice answers in the test that we did afterwards.*) -INT14-

Another teacher emphasized the active nature of students when visualization is used through a comparison of how multiplication table was taught in the past and how it is learned now:

... Biz demişiz iki iki daha dört eder. Evet çarpım taplosunu öyle ezberledik. Sadece kerat cetvelini, anlamını bilmeden. Ama şimdi iki tane

kiraz çiziyor, iki tane daha kiraz çiziyor, iki kiraz iki kiraz daha diyor. (*We said two plus two makes four. Yes that is how we memorized the multiplication table. Just the table, without the meaning. But now the student draws two cherries and two more, and says two cherries plus two more cherries make four cherries.*) -INT3-

Students are also made active through visuals in the book when teachers use the pictures in the book to make students talk, which means the use of authentic materials in order to inquire students' understanding of concepts:

Görsellik...ben kitapta o konuyu işlerken kitabın üzerindeki o tür resimleri inceleyiyorum, ... resimdeki ayrıntıları görmeye çalışıyorum... mesela GAP'la ilgili konumuz vardı, orada bir öğrencimizin yapmış olduğu gap'la ilgili bir resim vardı...orda ben gap şudur budur diye anlatmak yerine, resme bakın ve gap neler getirmiş şeklinde sordum, orda da çocuk resimdeki gördüğünü aktararak, işte fabrika getirmiş, iş alanı getirmiş, veya işte okul olmuş, efendim folklor oynuyorlar, bu sevinçlerini gösteriyor, şeklinde ne yaptığını ifade etti, ama onu düz bir şekilde anlatsaydım, gap kalıcı hale gelmeyebilirdi. (*Visualisation... I make the students examine the pictures on the book when teaching the book, try to see the details in the picture. For example, we had GAP (Southeastern Anatolia Project) in the book and a painting by a student in the region. Instead of telling them what GAP is, I asked them to look at the painting and tell me what it brought. They shared what they saw in the picture: factories, job opportunities, schools, and happiness brought by GAP. If I had only lectured about GAP, it would not be permanent knowledge.*) -INT10-

Retention, expressed as 'knowledge being more permanent' by this teacher, is a very significant advantage of using visuals for teachers.

...Çünkü eskiden çok daha ağırdı bizim konularımız matematik dersi olarak. Hani öğrenciye şimdi ...görsel olarak yaptığımız için akıllarında kalması daha fazla oluyor. (*In the past maths was far more loaded. Now we teach it visually to students, and they retain the content longer.*) -INT20-

...ama onu gördüğü zaman, görsellerle canlandırdığında, gördüğünde o öğrenme daha kalıcı oluyor. (*But when the student sees it, visualizes it, that learning is more permanent.*) -INT17-

...Hani sizin sözel olarak anlattığınız şeyleri görsel olarak de desteklediğinizde son derece kalıcı oluyo. (*When you support what you teach them verbally with visuals it is really makes it permanent.*) -INT6-

Despite all these positive comments teachers uttered during the interviews regarding their experiences with the increase of the use of visuals to aid their teaching, there was also some sort of questioning in their minds whether it really helped the teacher teach better or the student to learn better.

Technology was expressed to be a tool for teachers to increase the attention span of students, as it kept them occupied for a longer time, an occupation which is rather passive and receptive, though.

...Sınıfta televizyon var, çok zevkli ders işliyoruz. Müfettiş geldiği zaman baktı, sınıf ortamına. Hocam ikinci sınıf çocuğu hiç birinin çışı gelmedi gelmez mi dikkat ettim üç ders boyunca kimse tuvalete gitmedi dedi. (*There is a TV in the classroom, and we have enjoyable lessons. When the inspector visited us he said: These are 2nd grade kids but I am surprised that nobody asked to go to the loo for three hours.*) -INT2-

...bizim işimizi hem kolaylaştırıyo, hem çocukları yakalamamıza sebep oluyor bana göre bilgisayarlı eğitim. (*Computerised instruction both makes our job easier, and enables us to attract the students.*) -INT6-

...çünkü benim dersim sosyal bilimler dersi, görsellik gerektiren bir ders...yoksa tarih sıkıcı gelebilir sırf anlatmakla. (*because I teach social studies, a lesson that requires visualization. Otherwise history could be boring for students if I only lecture.*) -INT10-

Using computers in order to visualize the content certainly required teachers to adopt new qualities such as computer literacy and also the ability to use the computer to create new tasks and materials for the students. The following teacher mentioned computer literacy as the most significant teacher quality required by this curriculum:

...Birincisi, bilgisayar kullanma becerisi. Sadece bilgisayar değil tabi interneti de etkili kullanmalı. Bişeyler araştırmalı. (*First of all, computer literacy. Not the computer only but also the Internet should be used effectively by the teacher. The teacher should use it to do research.*) -INT7-

...Yapmak zorundasınız. Yani sürekli etkinlikler üretmek zorundasınız, konuyla ilgili değişik materyaller bulmak zorundasınız, bilgisayarı projeksiyonu kullanmak zorundasınız. (*You have to do it. You have to produce new tasks all the time and find new materials about the subject matter. You need to use the computer and the projector.*) -INT 1-

4.1.6 Use of Real Life Situations in Class

Contextualisation of content is one of the major elements of a constructivist learning environment. To contextualize, students may observe authentic artifacts anchored in authentic situations, or access background and contextual materials of all sorts to aid interpretation and argumentation (Black & McClintock, 1995). For this, students are put in real life situations in class and asked to think or act as apprentices of real life. This makes them easier to connect material with their personal knowledge and previous experiences, and then combine the information gathered with target knowledge, the aim of which is to have students apply this reconstructed knowledge to current issues in real life.

Having students apply the knowledge in their real lives was expressed to be the primary goal of education according to the constructivist curriculum by most teachers. They said that this very goal is the rationale behind all activities and tasks that they engage students in, such as dramatization, and using students' or teacher's lives as material, all aiming to "bring life into the class" (INT12).

...Yani bir şeyi neden öğreniyoruz, işte yeni müfredatta aslında bu sorgulama var, yapılan etkinliklerle, o etkinlikler çok güzel hazırlanmış, yapılan etkinliklerle biz onu günlük hayatta nasıl uygulayabiliriz, nereye taşıyabiliriz bunu öğreniyor çocuklar. (Why we teach certain stuff, this is questioned in the new curriculum through activities. *Those activities are very well prepared, children learn how to apply knowledge in daily life, where to transfer it through those activities.*) -INT20-

Not only the activities but also the texts in the books help the contextualization of knowledge in real life through themes from daily life, as in the following example:

... konular zaten. her konu demiyorum ama bazı konular zaten gerçek hayatla birebir ilgili. Mesela ne vardı ...Hayvanlara çip takılması bu sokak hayvanlarına çipli takip yöntemi denilen bi parça işledik geçen gün. O parçada işte...Öğretmenim işte biz nereye bildiricez? İşte orda belediyenin adresi falan vardı, buraya bildirebiliriz dedim. Bu birebir gerçek hayatla, yani parçadan hareketle gerçek hayata ulaştığımız bişey. (*It is all about the themes in the book. Not all but some themes in the book are directly related to real life. For example we had a text the other day about the chips placed on street animals to track them. Some students asked where they can report such animals and I told them we could report to the municipality, the book gave the address of it. This is something we reached in real life starting from a text.*) -INT18-

...Çünkü işlediğimiz konular zaten hayatın içinden kolay ulaşabileceğimiz materyaller. Onların temini de çok zor olmuyo. (*The subject matter is already from real life, stuff that we can easily reach, so the provision of materials from real life is not so difficult.*) -INT6-

Piaget's theory of constructivism is based on that the child's own actions in the world were important to cognitive development, which makes the social context crucial in this development process. His theory tried to explain the intellectual development in the individual as a form of adaptation to his environment, and focused on the social aspect of the learning process especially in his later writings (Fosnot, 1996). How teachers at this school made use the students' own lives and their environments to help their cognitive development is exemplified by them as follows:

..Ee özellikle alışverişlerde, mesela ben onlara ödev veriyorum marketlerdeki araştırmalar, fiyatlar, onların oranları, istatistik bilgilerinde özellikle, apartmanınızda mesela yaş grafikleri, yaş ortalaması, bunlarla ilgili hep etkinlikler veriyoruz. (*Especially in shopping, I assign them tasks*

about prices in the supermarkets, their proportions; when working on statistics for example, age graph of those living in your apartment building, averages, are kinds of activities we assign.) –INT 20-

...dün anlattım sekizlere anlattım elinizde hepinizin çaydanlık var değil mi? var. e peki çaydanlığı olmayan bir ev var mı yok çünkü bizim türk görenek göreneklerimiz için çay vazgeçilmez. türk kültüründe yeme adabında vazgeçilmez. hatta bazı evlerde iki tane üç tane misafir çaydanlığı yok bilmem ne çaydanlığı var. ama evde isterseniz beş tane çaydanlık olsun bana öyle bir çaydanlık üretin ki öyle bir çaydanlık hayal edin ki evde kaç tane çaydanlık olursa olsun annenin ben onu alabilmeliyim demeli parası olmasa bile mutfak masrafından kısıp onu alabilmeliyim demeli diyorum. *(I taught this to 8th grades just yesterday. I asked them whether they have a teapot in their houses. Every house has at least one teapot because tea is indispensable in our culture. But I wanted them to dream about and design a teapot every mother would want to have in their kitchen no matter how many teapots they already have.) -INT13-*

...sınıf içinde de ben çok anket yaparım mesela, nüfusu konuşuruz veya okuma yazma oranını konuşuruz, kaçınızın anneanesi babaanesi okuma yazma biliyor, kaçınızın annesi babası bilmiyor, işte şimdi bakın hepiniz okuldasınız napiyoruz, geçmişten günümüze doğru işte okuma yazma oranının nasıl arttığına neden arttığı sonucuna anketle ulaşmış oluyoruz. *(I usually use questionnaires in class for example; when we are talking about population, or literacy rate. I ask how many of their grandmothers know how to read and write, and how many of their parents know how to read and write. I tell them every kid is at school now and we compare the results in time and reach the conclusion how literacy rate increased.) - INT10-*

Although teachers used the words ‘drama’ and ‘dramatisation’ very frequently while talking about creating real life situations in class, most of the examples they gave to this concept did not really involve dramatization of a real life situation in class by students, but rather the verbal dramatization of an anecdote or hypothetical situation by the teacher himself, which does not engage the students in the learning process as actively as the former. It is still possible to engage the students in a productive dialogue as a result of making use of teachers’ own lives, as could be seen in the last quotation below:

...Herşeye başımdan geçmiş gibi bir hikaye uydurarak, hani inandırıcılığım artıyo tiyatrodan dolayı ama yalan söylemekten...Çocuklar büyüyünce fark ediyolar belki bu kadar da olmazmış diye, ama şimdilik inanıyolar. *(I tell them everything as if it really happened to me; because of the use of drama my credibility increases but I actually tell a lot of lies. Kids notice this maybe when they grow up but for now they believe in me.)*

-INT5-

...Bişey olduğu zaman ben hep öğrencilere kendi hayatımdan örnekler veririm. Çocuklar ben şöyle okudum.Okumamı hemen örnek veririm işte şu şartlarda büyüdüm benim şunum yoktu benim buyum yoktu diye örnekler veriyorum sınıfta. *(I always give examples from my own life. I tell them how I studied, under what conditions I grew up. I didn't have this and I didn't have that.)* -INT2-

...Mesela siz bir olayı karikatürize ettiğiniz zaman ve bir drama halinde oynadığınız zaman veya nasihati fıkravari verdiğiniz zaman ilginç şeyler çıkıyor. Öğretmenim diyor mesela bizim şöyle bir olayımız olmuştu diyor o da katılım veriyor. ee o zaman diğeri de her türlü olaya hazırlıklı olmak için ya araştırma yapıyor filan veya hatırlamaya çalışıyor geçmişinde neler var neler yok filan. o bakımdan hani birliktelik de sağlanıyor. *(Interesting things come out of students when you caricaturise an event, or dramatise*

it, or share an advice in an anecdotal tone. Students share interesting events that happened to them, so he participates too. The others start thinking about how they can participate and they do some research and try to remember his past. Thus a wholeness is created in class.) -INT14-

What was reported as a real example of using drama in class through an activity in which students take part is quoted below:

...mesela işte...eee... Selamlaşmak (...) Bi metin işliyoruz mesela büyükşehirlerde insanların birbirlerine çok iyi iletişim kurmadıkları, selam vermedikleri falan bunları konuşurken çocuk apartmanını anlatıyo evini anlatıyo. Soruyorum mesela sabah geldiğinde arkadaşına günaydın diyo musun? Öğretmenine günaydın diyo musun? Diyo ki bazıları diyorum ama cevap vermiyo diyo bunları anlatıyo. Sonra ...diyorum ki hadi bi dramatize delim diyorum. İki kişi üç kişi kalkıyolar. Kendini hayal et. Selam veriyosun almayan bi arkadaşın olabilir kendini nasıl hissediyosun onu sınıfa yansıtmaya çalış. ya da selam verdiğin zaman ne hissediyodun, bu şekilde dramatize ettiğimiz konular oluyor. (For example, greeting. There was a text about the decrease in greeting in big cities, and the children talk about their own building and the community. I ask them if they greet their friends and teachers in the morning when they arrive at the school. They respond that some greet them back but some don't. Then we start to dramatise this situation. Two or three students come to the board. They start imagining themselves in the same situation. You greet and don't get a response. Try to reflect how you would feel to class.) -INT1-

4.1.7 Simplicity and Reduced Load of Content

What was interesting was to find out that teachers thought the new curriculum is easier, or simpler for students' cognitive level than the former one, as it was not something encountered in the literature into the implementation of constructivist

curricula. This was reported to have been caused by both the reduced load of content in certain lessons and also the simplicity of what is expected from students in activities and tasks. While most teachers mentioned this as an advantage both for the student and the teacher, a significant number expressed that it is now more difficult for them to challenge students.

...tam tersine bize çok hafif geldi bu program, bütün arkadaşlarım aynı şeyi söylüyor ama, sonradan anladık ki çok güzel bir şey, öğrenciye... müfredat olarak biz şimdi öyle ağır bilgiler veriyorduk ki onların hepsi kaldırıldı. (*In contrast to the former one we think this one is very light, that is what all of my colleagues say. But later we realized this is very good for the student. We used to give so high level knowledge as content to the students. Now it's all abolished.*) -INT 11-

...Yani işte matematik programı az diyolar, yani ... basit, eskisine göre. (*I mean they say maths program is light, I mean... easier, compared to the earlier one.*) -INT4-

...Daha anlamlı bir değişiklik oldu, daha güzel oldu. hani gereksiz bir sürü formül bir sürü ağır problem çözme onların yükünden kurtuldu çocuk daha güncel hani kullanabileceği bilgiler ediniyor. (*It is a more meaningful change, to the better. Children got rid of the burden of learning a lot of unnecessary formulas and solving hard problems; they gain knowledge that they can use.*) -INT12-

...eski müfredatta çok yoğun bir konu vardı. Mesela 6. sınıflara çok yoğun bir bilgi birikimi yüklüyoduk...Ama şimdi öyle değil. Yani ne kadarını anlayabilirse o kadarını veriyoruz. Fazlasını vermeye gerek duymuyoruz. Ha bu çocuğu gereksiz bilgi birikiminden arındırıyo, çocuğu kurtarıyo. (*There was a load of subjects in the former curriculum. For example in the 6th grade, we used to load the students with a very intense program...But*

now it is not the case. We give the student as much as he could get. Not more than that. This relieves the child from unnecessary load of knowledge.) -INT18-

Despite the benefits reported above, some teachers expressed the discomfort they felt about the simplicity and reduced load of content in the new curriculum.

...Bu çocuklar düşünmeyi ve hayal etmeyi bıraktılar. Halbuki biz bu eğitimle yani öğrenci merkezli eğitimle bunu yapmayı amaçlarken çocuk mesela öyle basit etkinlikler filan kondu ki... *(These kids abandoned thinking and imagining. Although we were trying to do exactly that through student centered instruction, the activities brought are so simple that we could not...)* -INT1-

...diyorum ya verimsiz geçiyor gibi geliyor ders, tam uygulayamadığımdan, bişey öğrettiğimi hissedemiyorum...ödev veriyorsun performans görevi diyorsun çocuk yapacak uygulayacak sınıfta okulda yaptırım basit şey verin diyorlar basit şey veriyorsun ama kırk dakkada yetmiyor hadi diyelim iki ders, iki ders çocuk birşeyle uğraşır mı, uğraşmaz, mümkün değil. *(I feel as if my class is not efficient as I cannot fully implement, I cannot feel I am teaching anything...You assign a performance task for the kid to do and to apply. They say it should be something simple, something to be done in class but 40 minutes is not enough, sometimes 2 hours. But a kid cannot be busy with something for 2 hours, it is impossible.)* -INT9-

...daha önceki sistemde daha çok bilgi yükleniyordu çocuğa, birdenbire bir sürü etkinlik olunca, etkinlikler sanki bir şey öğretmiyormuş gibi oldu. *(In the former curriculum there was a bigger load of knowledge to the child. All of a sudden it is all activities now, and it feels as if activities do not teach anything.)* -INT19-

4.1.8 Student-centered Assessment

Constructivist assessment emphasizes process rather than the outcome, which makes the performance of the student significant as it shows evidence of how he constructs meaning. This was reported to be experienced as a change in assessment approaches by the teachers, although not as frequently as other aspects of change is assessment such as having to consider the individual differences between students while evaluating them, and the holistic evaluation of each student, which were said to have increased teacher workload through assessment oriented paper work.

In constructivist learning environments, performance assessment is favored over standardized tests as evaluation of quality is more important than that of quantity, which may result in problems of reliability. To ensure reliability, authenticity of assessment, or the student's ownership of a task is necessary. The effectiveness of authentic assessments depends on the clarity of the criteria set, which should be clearly stated to the students in advance through interaction and negotiation (Windschitl, 2002).

According to the teachers, the new curriculum brought to schools a new assessment approach that is more student-centered, which they expressed as considering the individual differences between students while evaluating, rather than comparing them to each other regardless of varying interest and ability levels, and intelligence and learner style types. This is possible through assessment not being solely dependent on standardized tests, and having to track each individual student separately through individualized criteria documents.

... öbür türlü...soru soruyorsunuz cevabı almak zorundasınız...ama burda gözlemleyebilmek, çocuğu tanıyabilmem daha mümkün...derse de işte katılmıyor kimisi ama sınavda yapabiliyor klasik sorular soruyorduk çekingen olabiliyor karakterleri farklı çocukların işte ona göre

değerlendirdiyorduk notla, kesin sınırlı notlar vardı, burda daha esnek davranabiliyorsun, biraz daha gevşeklik mi artık...sınıf içi performansı daha önemli. (*The other way, you ask a question and have to get the answer...but now it is possible to know the child and observe him more closely. We used to evaluate according to exam grades only, but some do not participate in class and succeed in the exam due to personality differences. Now you can be more flexible, as in-class performance is more important.*) -INT12-

While the above teacher mentioned different student personalities as the cause of varying performances, another teacher emphasized the impact of other outside factors related to the background of the student:

...Farklılıkları işte geçmiş yaşantılar... çünkü öğretmenin dışında çok etken var, günümüzde özellikle, arkadaş çevresi, aile, beslenme, ailevi sorunlar, o çocuğun geçmiş yaşantısı, öğrenci öğretmenleri yani hepsi, önceki okulu, hepsi birbirinin bir parçası. (*Differences are due to past experiences... because there are so many factors other than the teacher, nowadays especially peer group, family, nutrition, family problems, past experiences, past teachers and school, all are a part of each other.*) -INT10-

Holistic evaluation of the student, which included in-class performance in the activities and tasks, and also participation in extracurricular activities is another aspect of the new student assessment approach that the teachers experienced.

...Ama öğrenciyi bir bütün olarak değerlendirmek gerekiyor, sadece notla değil, sınıf içinde katılımı sunduğu etkinlikler, performansı bunları da göz önüne katarak bir bütün olarak, artık mesela ben şuna da çok önem veriyorum, o çocuğun sosyal faaliyetlere katılımı, o bile bence notunu etkiliyor. (*A student has to be evaluated holistically, not merely based on grades but activities that he presented in class, performance, by taking all*

these into consideration. Now I also give importance to participation of the kid in extracurricular activities, it influences the kid's grade.) -INT20-

...öbür türlü de işte o 5-6 öğrenciniz çok problem çözer, çok derse katılır onlar sınıfın gözdesidir, diğerleri de nedir bilmiyorum, yani onları nasıl değerlendiriyorduk. Onlar da işte lisede sosyalci olacak tipler gözüyle bakilir.... şimdi öyle düşünmüyoruz işte. çok yönlü görüyoruz çocukları. *(the other way 5-6 students you have solve a lot of problems, they are the favourites of the class, I don't know the others. The others were seen as students which will choose social studies not science in high school. Now we don't think that way. We see the students from multiple perspectives.) -INT12-*

The fact that assessment is more performance based with the new curriculum requires the follow-up of student performance in multiple steps for the teacher as it requires the commitment of student effort in a more extended period of time, rather than being limited to standardized test achievement. The teachers at this school shared their understandings of the new approach in the same way, focusing on the fact that process oriented evaluation rather than product is what they understand as a change brought to their assessment practices with the new curriculum.

...sürekli...süreç değerlendiriyoruz şimdi daha çok yani. Sonuçtan çok sürece bakıyoruz. Çocuğun bir iki yaptığıyla ettiğiyle öyle çocuğu değerlendiremiyorsun ki. *(Constantly...we evaluate the process more. We consider process rather than final product. You don't just evaluate the kid based on what he had done once or twice.) -INT19-*

...şimdi çocuğun genel manada sene içersindeki veya ay içersinde, hafta içersindeki değişimlerini gözlemleyerek küçük küçük notlar tutarım ben, bu notları eee değerlendirmeden sonra notlan değerlendirmenin çok da

yararlı olduğunu zannetmiyorum ben (*now I take little notes through the year, or month or week about my observations of the general changes in the child, and I use this for evaluation. I don't think when you do this, evaluating based on grade is that much beneficial.*) -INT14-

Some teachers also emphasized the comparison of the student not with others in class but with himself, in other words, according to the level of improvement he has gone through over time.

...Temel esas aldığım şey, yani illa da, o bilgiyi tamamen almış olmasına değil de, yani birşeyler gelişiyor mu, kimisinde çok gelişir, o kazanımla ilgili mesela. (*What I primarily look at is not whether the student has acquired the knowledge completely, but whether there is some improvement... some acquisitions improve better in some students for example.*) -INT11-

...Çocuğu kendisiyle yarıştırmama, yani çocuğun kesinlikle bir başkasıyla, sınıf içerisindeki başka biriyle yarıştırmadan, kendi kapasitesinde bir gelişme varsa, kendisiyle yarışta bir gelişme varsa, ben bunu baz alıyorum. (*Making the child compete with himself, absolutely not with someone else in the class, if there is improvement in the competition with himself, that is what I take into account.*) -INT6-

One of the characteristics of constructivist assessment is that it requires self-evaluation of the student, which came out as a problematic experience from the teachers, probably because of the lack of strategy training for this aspect both for the teachers and the students.

...Milli eğitimin bize gönderdiği ...kılavuzun arkasına koymuş öz değerlendirme kendimi değerlendiriyorum. Çocuk kendini değerlendirirken hiç doğru düzgün değerlendirmiyö büyük bi çoğunluğu. Hepsini biliyorum diyo. Çok da hiç de anlamlı olmadığını düşünüyorum. Yani 30 kişinin içerisinde en az 10 tanesi dürüst değil. Biliyorum yazıyor,

gülen yüz çizim diyorum öğrendiyse, çocuk hepsine gülen yüz çiziyö. Niye diyorum ekşi suratı sevmiyorum diyor. Kendini öyle görüyö hepsi kendini mükemmel görüyö çocukların. (*At the back of the guide books sent by the ministry we have self evaluation forms for students. The child does not do this properly, most of them. He says I know all of them. I don't think it is meaningful at all. At least 10 out of 30 students are not honest about it. He writes "I know", I tell them to draw a smiley if you have learned, and they put smileys to all of them. When I ask him he says I don't like sulky face. He sees himself that way, all kids think they are perfect.*) - INT3-

The lack or insufficiency of training for teachers so that they could feel more confident in adopting such critical changes in assessment approach was expressed very commonly by the teachers, the most striking one quoted below:

...Bizim evrağımız neydi günlük plan yıllık plan. Şimdi o matbuğ olarak geliyo sen istediğın oynamayı yapıyosun. Onun yerine daha öğrenci merkezli bir evrakçılık çıktı. Ama bu evrakçılığın hayatta bir karşılığı yok. Ben onları değerlendirecek donanıma sahip öğretmen görmüyorum... Bunun için ben napıcam, nereye gidicem, kimden nasıl yardım alıcam. Bu donanım olmayınca, bu sistem de olmayınca, onlar biraz yapılmış olmak için yapılyo. (*Our paperwork was daily and annual unit plans. Now we have it ready you can adopt it as you like. Instead now we have a more student-centered paperwork. But it does not have a point in real life. I don't see myself as a teacher equipped to evaluate those papers. What will I do for this, where will I go for help? When I don't have the training in the system, those are done for the sake of doing.*) -INT5-

...Performansı yapmak felan şimdi güzel de, bunun temel yaklaşımında, ölçme değerlendirme uzmanı olmak lazım şimdi. Ben, kendim yapamıyorum doğrusu. Yaptığım nedir, bi etkinlik yapıyorum. Kendimce

işte bi etkinliğe, bizde şimdi yazılı değerlendirme yok. işte sınıf içi etkinlik. Ama o günkü o etkinliği yapıyor çocuk da, ya bakıyodur ya şey yapıyodur ama az çok çocuğun ne bildiğini ne kadar bildiğini bilirsin yani. Sınıfta etkinlik yapıyo arkadaşına bakıyo, ondan yapıyo biliyorum napiim şimdi 100 mü veriim kalkıyım? *(It is nice to do the performance tasks, but you need to be an expert in measurement and evaluation. I can't do it myself. What do I do? I do an activity. WE don't have written evaluation any more, it is just in class performance. The child performs the activity of that day, but maybe he cheats but you know how much a child knows any way. He performs the task in class but cheats from his friend, and I know this. What should I do in such a case? Give him 100?)* -INT3-

The teachers both complained about not being trained enough to be able to assess the students individually through performance tasks, and also about the increase it brought to their workload, because of the paperwork that student-centered instruction requires. This paperwork was mentioned to consist of the creation of evaluation forms with individualized criteria on them and their filling in for each student, and the follow up of deadlines. This finding is parallel to what Kidd (1993, as cited in Littledyke, 1997) reported following the national curriculum change in Britain, where teachers were found to criticize the change excessively because of cumbersome assessment arrangements and the unrealistic workload as an inevitable consequence of it.

...bir sınıfta diyelim ki 27 kişi var...bir değerlendirme ölçeği her biri için... Artı projenin nasıl yapılacağına dair bir hazırlık, bunun aşamaları, artı işte nelerden ne kadar not kıracaksınız onların planlaması, her öğrenci için üç tane form doldurmanız gerekiyor, bunu veliye göndermeniz gerekiyor...mesela proje getirmeyenler oluyor tarihinde, ben not verilecek günün sonuna kadar onu bekliyoruz, çocuk onu vermediyse velisine imza bekliyoruz, oğlum imzalattın mı yok yok yok, yani telefon ediyoruz, buraya çağırıyoruz veliyi, yani sürekli takip etmek gerekiyor, bu

doldurduğunuz formlar biraz işinizi o zaman artirdi, proje açısından özellikle. *(Suppose you have 27 students in the class. An evaluation scale for each of them. Plus a preparation of how to do the project, the steps of it, plus the planning of the assessment criteria, three forms for each student. You need to send one to the parent. Sometimes they don't hand in the project on time, we wait till the end of the day, if he does not hand in, we ask for the signature of the parent. First we check with the student, if not signed yet, we telephone the parent. So you need to follow it constantly. These forms increased our workload, especially in terms of project tasks.)* - INT20-

...İnanamazsınız, müthiş hem de yani...öğretmen kitabında bu yapılacak bütün etkinlikler şunlar bunlar haricinde en son sayfada formlar vardır ekler vardır bakarsınız işte şeyler hariç performans görevleri ve gözlem onlar falan hariç, kontrol listeleri felan, dereceli puanlama anahtarlarından tutun mesela bazılarını bütün öğrencilere uygulamanız gerekiyor, bazılarını her konu için uygulamanız gerekiyor, şimdi bir öğretmenin yaklaşık ee 150 tane öğrencisi olduğunu düşünürseniz, öğretmenler için müthiş bir angarya bu yani. ha faydası, tabi yapıldıktan sonra, bunlar güzel bir analiz edilip de değerlendirilmeye alındıktan sonra bir sonuç çıkarılıp da ona göre bir uygulama yapılırsa hadi gene neyse... *(You wouldn't believe me. In the guidebook other than the activities we also have these forms as appendices at the back. Checklists, grading scales for performance tasks and observation forms, some of them for all students, some of them for all subjects, thinking that a teacher has around 150 students, it is horrible red tape for the teacher. It could be beneficial, but only in the event that all these forms and scales are analysed thoroughly and findings are used to update the implementation...)* -INT16-

Increased paperwork was generally expressed as a burden by the teachers, especially because of the inconfidence they feel.

...Daha çok kırtasiyenin çok olduğundan şikayetçi arkadaşlar. Yani gereksiz yere gerçekten kağıt harcadığımızı düşünüyorlar ben de buna katılıyorum. ...bu şeyle ilgili programla da ilgili, ölçme değerlendirme ile ilgili çok fazla. Her öğrenci için bir kağıt hazırlamanız gerekiyo. O da vaktinizi alıyor gereksiz gibi geliyor bana. Ölçme değerlendirmede çok fazla kağıt var... Bir de biz bunun eğitimini de almadık. Tam ne yapcağımızı da bilmiyoruz. (*My colleagues generally complain about having too much paperwork unnecessarily, and I agree with them on that. This is mainly about the program, about measurement and evaluation. You need to prepare a paper for each student. It takes your time and I feel it is useless. Too many papers in assessment. Plus we aren't trained to do it. We don't actually know what to do with them.*) -INT2-

4.1.9 Group Work

Group work, or cooperative work groups for problem solving and learning is seen as a facilitator of generative learning by constructivist learning theory. In groups, students can refine their knowledge through discussion and structured controversy, while trying to solve complex and authentic problems posed to them by the teacher with the support of others. Group work is a common instructional strategy used in constructivist classrooms as it creates an active learning context where students develop initiative and responsibility for their own learning, and take responsibility of the timing and monitoring of their work.

It was extremely surprising to find out that teachers mostly perceived group work as an alternative to individual project tasks assigned for the whole semester, rather than an in-class instructional strategy. Although there were some teachers who

also mentioned the use of group work for performance activities suggested to be done in class in the guidebook, all except one of them regarded group work as a time killer, which was the main reason why they said they do not implement it much. Nevertheless, teachers are still aware of certain benefits of using cooperative work in class or outside class such as increasing student motivation, teaching students to take responsibility, and increasing whole class participation of students.

Although the following quotations show that some teachers make use of group work to complete performance activities and tasks in the guidebook, it is understood that they do not allocate any class time for this, but rather students prepare the tasks at their leisure in groups and then present it in class. In the following quotation, it is clear that even though group work is assigned at least for outside class, cooperation is still quite low since students in groups are expected to share tasks among each other and do not really work together to solve a complex problem. Despite the benefits mentioned, it was quite interesting not to hear any teacher mentioning the benefits of group work for better learning through the application of knowledge in problem solving activities. Thus, it could be stated that teachers mainly perceive group work as a new technique for assigning homework to groups of students, rather than a classroom strategy used to save time and increase participation through the interaction of the students with an aim to make them solve complex problems through discussion.

...Şimdi ünite ünite bölüyorum, mesela ilk dönemki ilk üç ünite diyelim bu üç üniteyi sınıfta diyelim ki ...27 kişi var, 27 kişiye dağıtıyoruz, ondan sonra her ünitenin konuları var, konuları o öğrencilere dağıtıyoruz ve iki kişi ya da en fazla üç kişi olarak grup halinde o konuyu hazırlıyorlar biri mesela konuyla ilgili birinci etkinliği yapıyor diğeri ikinci etkinliği yapıyor kendi aralarında bölüşüyorlar hem kendi aralarındaki o yaklaşmayı arkadaşlığı hem onu kazanıyorlar hem de o konuyla ilgili bilgi sahibi

olmuş oluyorlar ve diğer öğrencilerin de dikkatini çok çekiyor, aralarında bir yarış oluyor, benim etkinliğim daha güzel olacak hayır öğretmenin benimki daha güzel olacak, oldu diye. Hem bu şekilde bir yarışmaya dönüşüyor, daha zevkli hale geldiğini düşünüyorum derslerin. (*I divide the units among students. Suppose I have 27 students, I distribute the subjects in each unit to students grouped in twos or threes, and they prepare that subject in their groups. One of them does the first task, the other does the second task. They share tasks among each other, which makes them closer and also they need to learn the subject to do the task. It also attracts the attention of other students; there is a competition, so it is more enjoyable.*)
-INT20-

...bi kere paylaşmayı öğreniyorlar...Birlikte hareket etmeyi, paylaşmayı öğreniyorlar. ...sorumluluk almayı biliyorlar, sorumluluklarını yerine getiriyorlar. Birbirleriyle anlaşarak onlar da kendi aralarında sorumluluk dağılımıyla bir sonuca ulaşmayı öğretiyö. (*they learn to share. To do something in cooperation and to share. They know they have to take responsibility. It teaches them to reach a conclusion through the distribution of responsibilities.*) -INT6-

One of the teachers who was rather new at the school expressed her discontentment regarding the branch decision not to assign project tasks as group work, which makes it clear that in some branches group work is not used for outside class tasks either, mostly because of parent related problems, as could be seen in other quotations explaining to what extent they use group work.

...Şimdi şöyle, önceki çalıştığım üç yılda, ben performans proje ödevlerini ben bu şekilde grup halinde veriyordum ve gerçekten başarılı olduklarını düşünüyordum fakat bu okula geldikten sonra eski dönem ödevi sistemi gibi verildiğini... gördüm...herkese bireysel ödevler veriyorlar, o şekilde, birinci dönem ben de o şekilde uyguladım, fakat işte bunun ben hoşuma

gitmedi benim uyguladığım sistem çok daha iyiydi, bir de performans ödevlerinde mesela sunum yapılmıyor dendi, hadi yaptırmadım oysa ben yaptırıyordum önceki okulumda...ama burda genel yaptırmıyor, ben de genele uyuyim diye yaptırmadım ama performans proje ödevlerinin sunumları çok güzel oluyor...sunumlar aslında gerekli, olması gerekiyor ve güzel oluyor ve grup halinde çalışırlarsa güzel oluyor. *(In my former school I used to assign project tasks to groups and I think it really works well but at this school I realized teachers assign old style individual term paper like projects. That is what I did too first semester. But I don't like it, the system I used to apply was better. They also told me they don't have presentations for performance tasks. I did the same not to be an exception, but those presentations work very well too. Presentations work really well, when they work in groups.)* -INT 10-

While explaining why they choose not to assign performance or project homework to groups, teachers mostly complain about the fact that it is difficult for students to come together after school hours due to their homes being distant from each other, not having the space to stay and work in the school, differences between family structures, or overinvolvement of some parents.

...Tabii ...şöyle bir sorun var bizde. Genelde servisle geliyorlar, her biri ayrı semtten geliyor, grup çalışmasını da genelde evde hazırlamaları gerektiği zaman aileler arasında bir şey yok, Yok, o sağlanamaz da.. çok farklı,kültürleri çok çok farklı.*(The problem is, they usually take the service buses from various neighbourhoods. When they need to work together at homes, there is no... between the families. It is impossible to build. They have so different cultures from each other.)* -INT15-

...Grup çalışmalarında şöyle, yani gruplarda çocuklar hani, ailece görüştükleri veya birbirlerine yakın hissettikleri çocuklarla birlikte

paylaşıyorlar, genellikle grupları. (*in group work, students usually choose kids whose family his family knows or feels closer.*) -INT14-

...eve verdiğimiz zaman da işte şikayetler geldi birinin evine toplanıyorlar orda anne memnun kalmıyor diyorlar ki işte bize geliyorlar şöyle oluyor böyle oluyor şikayet yani veya evde yapıp burda birleştirin diyoruz orda aksaklıklar oluyor. yapamadık. grup çalışması için sanıyorum okulların tam gün olması gerekiyor (*parents complained when we assigned group work as homework, so I think for group work school should be whole day*) -INT12-

As for the reasons for not being able to allocate class time to group work activities, teachers generally talked about time, the physical insufficiencies of the classroom atmosphere such as the lack of space, the increase in the noise level, and some assessment related issues as well.

...Uygulayamıyoruz, bir de şu var, yani biz bu programı uygularken ...hadi bugün sınıfta bu performans etkinliğini her grup kendisi çalışsın ortaya bir ürün çıkarsın diyemiyoruz, çünkü zamanımız buna uygun olmuyor veya sınıf koşulları uygun olmuyor küçük bir sınıfta böyle grup masaları oluşturamıyorsunuz, ortamları yok...bir kargaşa bir curcuna rahatsızlık veriyor ortaya bişi de çıkmıyor biz bunu yapamadık. evet yapamıyoruz yani. (*We cannot implement it. When we are implementing this curriculum, we cannot say let's do this performance task in class in groups to produce an outcome because our time is not available, or classroom conditions are not suitable. In a small classroom we cannot move the desks... chaos and noise disturbs so we cannot do it.*) -INT12-

...Sınıfların daha böyle konforlu olması gerekiyo...Grup çalışması yapacağı alanın daha geniş olması gerekiyo...Sınıfta olmuyo işte gruplaşamıyo da. Elimizden geldiği kadar yapmaya çalışıyoruz mecburen.

(Classrooms need to be more comfortable. The space should be larger for group work. The students cannot get into groups in classroom. We try to do as much as we can, though.) -INT4-

The following quotation emphasizes the problems related to the assessment of performance tasks assigned in groups, at the same time indicating that group work is not used by this teacher as an in class activity that is not assessed at all.

...Şimdi geçen sene ben bu grup çalışmalarında başarı sağlayamadım. Neden sağlayamadım, biri yaptı biri yapmadı. Biri onunla aynı notu almak istemedi. İşte bunu ben yazdım o yazmadı, hep böyle şikayet sorun oldu. Değerlendirmesinden kaynaklı, birbirleri arasında anlaşamadılar. Çalışan, çalışmayan... olmadı. Yapamadılar ama bireysel görevlerde daha başarılı oldular. *(Last year I was not able to successfully implement group work because one student did all the work the other did not. They did not want to receive the same grade so they complained about their grades. So it's assessment related. The active and the inactive... It didn't work. They were more successful with individual tasks.) -INT18-*

The last two quotations were intentionally put one after another as they indicate how two different teachers understand group work differently from each other, one as a time saver, and the other as a time killer.

... mesela eskiden yetişmiyo bu tek tek bütün öğrencileri kontrol et anlattır olmuyo 45 lik sınıfta diyoduk. Bu grup çalışmalarının bir sürü yöntemi var, onunla mesela 40 dakikalık dersin yarısında halledebiliyosun, diğer türlü tek tek 3 dersin yetmediği zamanlar için. mesela bu gibi şu an aklıma gelmiyo ama bu tarz faydaları oldu...Şimdi gruplara ayırdım 5 gruba ayırdım, 1,2,3,4 5 saydım işte birler buraya ikiler buraya ayırdım. her konuyu herkes yaptı tartıştı, daha sonra bu yaptıkları çalışmaları astık. Şimdi her gruptan, beş grup var ya beş grubun birleri bir yere geldi. İkileri bir yere geldi. Üçleri bir yere geldi. Her birinin önüne o çalışma kiminse o

anlattı ve herkes öğrenmiş oldu. Çünkü hepsini de gezdiğiniz zaman hepsi birbirinden haberdar olmuş oluyo. *(In the past we used to complain about not having enough time to check all students' learning in a class of 45 students. Group work has a lot of variations, through that you can handle checking in 20 minutes of a 40 min. lesson, otherwise you would spend three hours to do the same thing. For example I divide them into 5 groups as 1s, 2s, 3s, 4s and 5s. I bring 1stogether, 2s together, and so on. Every group discusses and does the task, and then we display all outcomes. Next, all 1s in different groups and 2s and 3s come together to share their original group work with others in the new group so everybody learns each group's subject.)* -INT5-

...İkinci kademedede, daha çok uygulanıyo, mesela bu sene daha hiç grup çalışması yapamadık. belki yılın bu zamanından sonra yapabiliriz vakit kalırsa. *(It is implemented more in grades 6,7 and 8. For example this year we haven't been able to do group work yet. Maybe if we can find the time after this time of the year.)* -INT3-

4.2 Constraints to the Implementation of Constructivist Curriculum

Teachers notice the changes brought to their classroom practices by the new curriculum either through in-service training at the initiation phase or in time through the experience of the curriculum implementation. However, this does not come to mean that they can fully implement those changes, because of many factors that were found to be perceived by teachers, and will be elaborated in this section: physical insufficiencies of the school, teacher resistance, parent profile of the school, insufficient training of teachers, cultural factors, poor participation of teachers in the design and initiation processes, principal's insufficient knowledge of the curriculum, systemic incongruities, and the student profile.

4.2.1 Physical Limitations of the School Environment

As Fullan (2001) argues, educational change depends on what teachers do. In this sense, what teachers do may be dependent on what they think about whether change is possible in reference to their own school conditions. Thus, it is not sufficient on its own to expect curriculum change to happen when teachers' views and beliefs are changed, though these are to be seriously considered. The working conditions and contexts where curriculum change is to be implemented need to be altered, too. In Turkey, Ekiz's (2001) work demonstrated that teachers have inadequate resources and overcrowded classrooms, which would have even more serious implications for the implementation of a constructivist curriculum.

Çalışkan and Tabancalı (2009) state that the new curriculum requires a learning environment that is supported by technological infrastructure and various other learning materials. Although most of the classrooms at this school are now equipped with that technological infrastructure necessitated by the curriculum thanks to parent support, some teachers still expressed the lack of it as an obstacle to their implementation. It was not just the computers and projectors that teachers mentioned as physical insufficiency, though. They also complained about the lack of specialized classrooms for teachers, class sizes, classroom space, and double-shift education.

...eğer mesela bir dil öğretmeni dil sınıfını kullanabilme şansına sahip olsa...bir müzik öğretmeni müzik sınıfında sınıfa girmesi daha güzel etkinliklere çocukları davet edebilir. (*if a language teacher had the chance to use a language classroom... a music teacher taught in a music classroom, they could better motivate the students.*) -INT14-

...Öğretmenlerin sınıfı olması lazım. Üniversitedeki gibi ya da yabancı okullardaki gibi. Yani Türkçe sınıfı olacak öğrenci oraya gelecek benim

bütün malzemelerim elimim altında olacak...Ben istiyorum ki böyle dolaplarım olsun bilgisayarım projektörüm kendime ait bir sınıfım olsun. Ben o sınıfta hakimiyeti koruyum, bütün malzemelerimi koyuyum oraya. Çocuk geldiği zaman oraya neyi nerde bulacağını bilsin Türkçe sınıfına geldiği zaman dille ilgili bi şeyler yapacağını bilsin. (*Teachers need their own classrooms like at universities or foreign schools. I mean there should be Turkish classroom for students to come to the Turkish class, all my stuff should be there. I want lockers, computer and a projector in that class. I want to have sovereignty of that class. The kids should know when they come there they will be doing stuff about language.*) -INT1-

Although class sizes are rather low compared to Ankara and Turkey average at this school, teachers still expressed their discontent with crowded classes in relation to the problems it creates regarding the implementation of a constructivist curriculum. The suggested ideal class size for this program range from 8 to 15, as mentioned below:

...ama tabii öğrenci merkezli olması çok güzel bir şey. buna rağmen tam uygulayamıyoruz, o da neden, sınıf sayısının çokluğundan...Tamam, biz diğer okullara göre çok çok avantajlıyız, 26-27 kişi ne demek, çok güzel, ama bu bir, 15 kişi olsa ideal olur süper olur. (*student-centered instruction is very good, but we cannot fully implement it, why, because of the class size. OK, we are better than many other schools with 26-27 students in average, but 15 students would be great.*)-INT 11-

...Aslında bu programda 8-9-10 öğrenci olursa daha güzel işlenir. Çünkü herkesten bi ses çıkınca çok kalabalık sınıflarda başarı oranı düşüyor. (*In fact this curriculum could better be implemented with 8-9-10 students per class. Because when there is a cacophony in crowded classes, success rate decreases.*) -INT4-

Classroom space came out as a constraint to full implementation in terms of three issues, the first one being the lack of student lockers, which was found critical by one of the teachers for the continuity of student production.

... etkinlik yapamaz sınıfta bir etkinliğe başlıyorsun dolabı yok çocuk eve götürüyor ne oluyor yaptığı etkinlik ya bozuluyor rastgele eve gidip tekrar baştan alıyor baştan alınca hadi döküntü yapıyor diye annesi veya velisi yardımcı oluyor kendi fikri gene ne oluyor çocuğun orada bölünüyor. (*We start an activity in class, students don't have lockers so they take their work home. What happens is either the work is spoiled and he has to redo it, or the parent does not think it is good enough and helps, so the child's own idea is disrupted.*) -INT9-

Double-shift education is a very commonly expressed constraint to the implementation of the curriculum, as it gives students no time and place to come together with peers after school hours.

...yani bu yarım günlük dönemde olmuyor, okulların tam gün olması de öğleden sonra bir saat bu çalışmalar için hergün bir ders için bir zaman ayrılması gerekir ki çocuk okulda kalsın bizim gözetimimizde bişiy yapsın,.. bu program için tam gün okul daha uygun gibi geliyor bana. (*It is not easy with a half day schedule. Schools should be full day, and an hour for each lesson should be allocated in the afternoon for extra work so that the student could stay at school and work under the monitoring of the teachers.*) - INT12-

4.2.2 Teacher Resistance to Constructivist Curriculum

Curriculum implementation literature generally accepts resistance as a natural habit for people and organizations, and focuses on ways to overcome or prevent resistance to change. However, there are others who have attempted to think

resistance in the light of teacher identity (Carson, 2008), which is structured through the discursive practices of the curriculum commonplaces. In our case, too, teachers' identities have been formed in time through the discursive practices of the former curriculum, which are to be 'unlearned' now. Britzman (1998, p. 118) points out that "learning is a psychic event, charged with resistance to knowledge", and forming a new curriculum identity is actually a process of both learning and unlearning. According to this perspective, resistance is not a wrong to overcome, but a precondition for learning and structuring a new identity. In this section, teacher resistance will be discussed as it was what teachers came up with as one of the most influential constraints to the implementation of change. Teachers actually discussed resistance with reference to certain factors such as experience of the teacher, lack of teachers' inclination to self-development, conservativeness, low level of involvement of teachers in the design and presentation processes of the curriculum, insufficient training, and strong teacher individuality. All these factors, according to the teachers, made it difficult for them to 'unlearn' the discourses of the old curriculum, and work through the new knowledge required for the new one.

First of all, it was not surprising to find out that teachers' experience, or old age, came out as a reason for teacher resistance. This is because in the worldwide debate about schools and teachers, the issue of 'reform resistant' teachers against 'progressive' teachers is mostly understood as a question of 'old' versus 'young' teachers (Beck & Hansen, 2009). Teachers at this school, too, expressed experience both as an obstacle they witnessed to have influenced teachers at the initiation process, and a phenomenon that still influences their responses to the implementation.

...ben çok kolay uyum sağladım ama... ilk öğretmenlik yaptığım senelerde benim yaşımdan fazla öğretmenlik yapmış zümrelerim oldu...çatışma demiyim ama, ben fikrimi söylediğimde kesinlikle kabul edilmediği oldu. Ben bunu uyguluycam, anlayan anlar mantığı, eskide ısrar vardı. (*I adapted*

very easily but in my first teaching years I had colleagues in the same teaching branch whose experience was more than my age. I don't want to say 'conflict'but when I shared my opinion, there were times it was definitely rejected. There was an insistence in the old, as in: I will do this regardless of student comprehension.) -INT18-

...bence yeni nesil öğretmenler bunda daha başarılı olabilir, şimdi bir kaç program uygulamış öğretmenler kolay kolay değişmiyor biliyor musunuz, nasıl alışmışsa öyle gidiyor. (I think new generation of teachers could be more successful in this. You know teachers who have implemented a couple of other programs cannot change easily, they do as they are used to doing.) -INT16-

...çok kıdemli olan arkadaşlarımın eski düzende gittiğini görüyorum. yani çok az kişi bu yeni programa tam anlamıyla uyuyo. bazı arkadaşlar daha önceden kazanmış oldukları bi takım şeyler var onları alıp götürüyorlar. çok fazla bu programa uyan yok açıkçası. (I see that very experienced teachers so as they used to do in the old system. I mean very few go with this system. There are not a lot of teachers sticking to this system.) -INT2-

What the teachers quoted above mean by 'do as they are used to doing in the old system' was elaborated very well by one of the teachers as follows:

...bu şimdiki öğretim sisteminin, çocuğu güya araştırmaya sevkettiği söyleniyo ama iş gene öğretmende bitiyo. Kitabı anlatan öğretmen. Ben şunu görüyorum: eski sınıf öğretmenlerinin eski alışkanlıklarını devam ettirdiğini. Yani projeksiyon cihazını kullanmıyo, ne biliim interneti fazla kullanmıyo. gene klasik defter kitap yazı çizi olayında. Eğer şu andaki müfredata uyuyor isek, bunu daha genç öğretmenler üstleniyo. (This curriculum is said to guide the students towards researching knowledge, but it is still down to the teacher. The teacher who teaches the book. What I

see is: old classroom teachers continue their old habits. I mean they don't use the projector, or the Internet. It goes on in the same old way of notebook book taking notes. If we are following the new curriculum now, it is the younger teachers who do so.) -INT7-

Retirement of those teachers who resist because of their age and experience was recommended as a solution by some teachers, based on their hopes and beliefs in the new generation of teachers who they think are better equipped for the profession and for this curriculum. This makes us think about the quality issues related to in-service training, just like these teachers who believe pre-service training is the only way to have open-minded teachers. In addition, it shows us that teachers feel the work they are expected to do now was not the job they had trained for or entered teaching to do (Troman & Woods, 2000). Thus, they choose retirement as an alternative for themselves and for others instead of adaptation, possibly because they want to avoid the stress of adaptation, or they are hopeless that a new identity formation or self-actualisation is likely to occur for experienced teachers in the current system.

...Ben şöyle çok absurd bir düşüncem var: 20 yılını dolduran herkesi bir kenara ayırmak gerektiğini düşünüyorum. yeni gelişen öğretmenlerden çok umutluyum. Onlar daha geniş bir perspektifle geliyolar, onlar drama alarak geliyolar, onlar yaratıcı yönlerini kendilerini geliştirmiş olarak geliyolar. Yani okudukları sistemde buna zorlanıyolar. Bu sistemde hala 8 ay kurs görüp öğretmen olan var. Yani sistem içinde kendini geliştirmiş şudur budur, artık bunları bir kenara atıp, yenilere yol açmak lazım. *(I have an absurd idea like this: We need to put aside every teacher over 20 years of experience. I am hopeful of the newly trained teachers. They have a wider perspective, they have been trained for drama, they have developed themselves and their creativity in the system they study. We still have teachers who have been certificated at the end of an 8- month training.*

They say they have improved during their service in the system but, we need to get rid of them and make place for the new teachers.) -INT5-

... yani kafalarımızı deęiřtirmek çok zaman alacak ben onun için bizim emekli olmamız gerektięini düşünüyorum ve gençler o kadar güzel ki geçen sene ben hayran kaldım... eminim çok daha başarılı olacaklar, yani yapamayanın çevrilmesi gerekiyor, mutlaka gençler gelmeli, program gençlere hitap ediyor, teknolojiyi çok güzel kullanıyorlar. *(It wil take too much time to change our heads so I think we need to retire. Young ones are so good that I admired them last year... I am sure they will be more successful. I mean if you cannot do it, you should leave. The program is for the young teachers, who can use technology very well.) -INT12-*

Although teachers are aware that adaptation to change involves some kind of self-development of the teacher, they think it is lacking in most teachers, which to them is a constraint to the implementation of change.

...ama bu programa uygulamakta direnen öğretmenler de var. kendini geliřtirmeyen öğretmenler de var. bakış açısını deęiřtirmeyen öğretmenler de var. *(But there are teachers who resist implementing this curriculum, who don't develop themselves, who don't change their perspectives.) -INT16-*

...yani burda öğretmenlerin çıkmazı yöntem bilememek, bulamamak, yöntem aramaya meraklı olmamak. *(I mean here the handicap of teachers is not to have knowledge of method, not to be able to find it as they are not curious about new methods.) -INT10-*

...Sen bişeyler yapmazsan, sistem senden daha fazla bişeyler istemiyo. ben çocuklara kitap okuma alışkanlığını edinemiyolar, neden? Çünkü öğretmen okumuyo. Şimdi çocuklar kitap okumalısınız, okumazsanız şöyle olur

böyle olmaz cümlesini kurarken bile çocuk bu öğretmenin kitap okuyup okumadığını, çantasını karıştırırken o çantayı çocuklar görmüştür çantasında kitap taşıyıp taşımadığını, ya da tenefüslerde okuyup okumadığını. (*the system does not ask you to do anything anyway if you are unwilling to do anything. Children cannot acquire the habit of reading. Why is that? Because the teacher does not read. When the teacher lectures : You should read, if you don't read, this and that happens, the child knows whether the teacher reads, whether she has a book in her bag, whether she reads her book in the breaks.*) -INT5-

Teachers' lack of interest in development opportunities was observed in meetings of teachers teaching the same level as well. In these meetings chaired by either the principal or the vice principal, two training courses, in computer skills and communication, were announced for those who are interested; however, no teacher registered on the list in a total of five meetings observed by the researcher, due to the so-claimed impracticality of waiting for the course to start for two hours after the classes finish. Some teachers also mentioned the expected low quality of the training especially for the computer skills course as an excuse for their lack of interest.

Similar to lack of an inclination in teachers to self-development, another teacher related constraint was worded as the conservativeness of teachers, shortly worded by a teacher as "what you say teachers is a law-like structure" (*öğretmenler dediğin kanun gibi yapı*). Conservativeness was mostly mentioned in relation to resistance to change classroom practices, but it was also expressed as a constraint to other less direct changes brought by the new curriculum, such as collecting money from parents for the required infrastructure, as could be seen in the last quotation below. Going back to what Britzman (1998) said about resistance, it is possible to say that what teachers identified as 'conservativeness' is actually

related to the fact that unlearning of the practices of the old curriculum has not taken place yet for those teachers.

...bir de biz çok sabit görüşlüyüz, toplum olarak böyleyiz, yeniliklere çok açık değiliz... zümre arkadaşlarımdan hala tebeşir elinde ders anlatıp, hala deftere yazdırıp hala eski usül uygulama yapan arkadaşlarım var. olmuyor diyor, öyle olur mu diyor. toparlayamıyor, hani sınıfı aktif hale getiremiyor, dinlemezler o zaman diyor, mutlaka yazdırmamız gerekir diyor. (*and we are too fixed minded as a society, not open to developments. There are colleagues from my teaching branch who still lecture with a chalk at hand, making students copy to their notebooks in the old style. He resists because he cannot control the class or make it active. He says they don't listen that way if we don't make them copy the board.*) -INT12-

...gelenekçi olan bir kesim var...ne verirsem o kadar ne kadar susturursam o kadar kar. bu zihniyetten öğretmen arkadaşların vazgeçmesi, anlatmak istediğim. (*There is a group of traditionalist teachers. They think the more I give to students and the more I keep them silent, the better it is. What I want to say is teachers need to give up on this understanding.*) -INT8-

...mesela geçen gün bir toplantı yapılıyor diyor ki ...katkı sunalım biz de gelelim veli toplantılarına bütün sınıflarda görsele uygun olarak işte peler alınsın, sistem kurulsun, onun üzerinden yapılsın falan, ee şimdi herkes burun kıyırdı. e bunu idare arzu ediyor talep ediyor e öğretmen işte ya para toplamak yasaldı yasal değildi. devlet işte parasız okul öneriyor biz niye toplayalım biz paracı mıyız, para toplamamak lazım filan. doğru oldukları yönler de var ama devlet hepsini karşılamıyor karşılayamıyor dolayısıyla okulu ee işler hale getirebilmek için daha aktif hale getirebilmek için bizim de bir takım çabalar sarfetmemiz gerektiğine inanıyorum...bu adamcağız yenilikçi yani açık da bir insan. (*In a meeting the other day the principal suggested that he go to parent teacher meetings to ask for financial*

support for pcs to classrooms so that teachers could use. Everybody rejected as teachers think collecting money is not legal and it is not their job. They say the state is responsible for free education but the state cannot meet all needs so we need to pay some effort too in order to make the school working. This poor man is innovative and open minded.) - INT14-

Low involvement of teachers in design and presentation stages of the new curriculum was a major factor leading to teacher resistance according to findings. Some teachers even expressed the shock they experienced at the first year as a ‘trauma’, although time made things better for them later on.

...yani o kadar travmaydı ki bizim için duvara toslamıştık hani bizim sesimiz de kesildi de eskisi gibi değil kabullendik olayı...ilk yıllarda hani teneffüslerde başka konu yoktu o zaman gelseydiniz de bir görseydiniz, ama sesler azaldı. yok artık yani. süreç içinde insanlar alışıyor. (It was such a trauma for us that we thought we crashed a wall. Now our voices are gone as we have come to accept. In the first years there was no other talk in the breaks, you should have come and see then. But now we are silent. People get used to everything in time.) -INT13-

This trauma obviously would have been avoided if teachers had been more actively involved in the design process, or at least if they had been presented with the change and its philosophy in a better way at the initiation process.

...uygulayan kişileri toplayıp ona göre yazılması lazım, bu işin içinde, hayatında öğretmenlik yapmamış bir yere gitmeyim diye oturmuş orda adamı var kitap yazıyor olmaz böyle uygulama. (Textbooks must be written by implementers of the curriculum. It was people who had never taught in their lives but working there just to stay in Ankara because he has contacts to keep him in that position.) -INT15-

...soruldu mu sorulmadı. yani her öğretmene sorulmayabilir...her öğretmene de sorulabilir sayfa açın herkes görüşünü paylaşsın bir ön hazırlığı olsun alacakları cevabı bildikleri için hiçbir öğretmen bunu kabul etmez. (*We were not asked to express our opinions. They needn't ask everybody. They can do it, though, through the web. Open a page where all teachers can share their reactions for you to use in the planning. But they know what reaction they will get, no teacher will accept this in that case.*) - INT 13-

... Alışmak zor oldu...haklı olarak ilk zamanlar anlamadığımız için tam anlamıyla. Biz direk girdik. Herhangi bir ön çalışma, bir hazırlık yaşamadan direk sistemin içine girdik. (*It was hard to get used to. Clearly because we didn't fully understand it at the beginning. It was very direct. We entered a new phase with no preparation, no pre- examination, just like that.*) -INT6-

In his study of the relationship between teacher professionalism and curriculum change, Ekiz (2004) found out that there cannot be curriculum implementation in any way if it is designed without teacher development. Although in our case it is not designed as such, the insufficiency of the training makes it a constraint to implementation, since it leads to teacher resistance.

...biz öğretmenler de böyle kısa bir birer aylık seminerlerle böyle bir sisteme başladık...biz de onlarla birlikte öğrendik gerçeği söylemek gerekirse, değil mi, bizim de yarım yamalak bilgimiz vardı bu sistemle/programla ilgili. (*we the teachers started implementing the system through short trainings of one month. We learnt together with students as a matter of fact. We had insufficient knowledge when we started.*) -INT9-

Insufficiency was expressed by teachers with reference to being short, not continuous, not given in an appealing atmosphere to teachers, and most importantly, not being given by competent trainers in an inspiring way.

...bir de ben bunların da pek yararlı olduğuna inanmıyorum...kursları veren insanların...sığ olması, verim olmaması yorum gücünün az olması, bilgi gücünün daha az olması, kendinin bile kavramamış olması, yani verilen görev gibi...*(I don't believe trainings are useful.... when trainers are not well equipped, when they don't have the ability to interpret, and when they don't know much but just do it as a duty to perform...)* -INT8-

...5 günlük bir iş değildi. Valla öğretmenlerin hoşlanacağı bir ortamda, zevk alacağı bir ortamda, öğretmenlere öğrenci gibi hissettiren. Eski yöntemle yapıldı zaten, otur dinle bakiim. Ne hissediyosun, çocuk da aynı şeyi hissediyo işte. *(It was not a 5-day job. If it were in an appealing atmosphere for teachers, where they would feel as students. It was delivered through the old system anyway. Sit down and listen. How do you feel? That is exactly how the student feels.)* -INT5-

...dediğim gibi bu sistemi bize çok iyi tanıtmadılar, tanıtamadılar. İşte 33-35 kırk yıllık müfettişleri bize seminer vermesi için gönderdiler. Onlar da bizim gibiydi halbuki. bu sistemi tam olarak öğrenmemişlerdi. *(They could not present the system well to us. They sent inspectors with 33-35 years of experience as trainers. They were just like us. They had not learned the system themselves yet.)* -INT2-

4.2.3 Parent Profile

It was already discussed in earlier sections of this chapter that for teachers the new curriculum meant higher involvement of parents in educational processes. This change, according to teachers, apparently created discrepancies among schools

and classes in the same school, as well as among student performances in the same class. The discrepancies are said to have been caused by the variations between socio-economic statuses of parents, including both income and education level, and related to this, the variations between the levels of support provided by the parents not only for their children but also for the school's facilities in general. When asked to talk about expectations from parents, one teacher illustrated how this overdependence on technology makes parent financial support a more critical element leading to inequality among different schools in different neighbourhoods, whereas when we look at what another teacher shares, the inequality among classes of the same school emerges:

...Şimdi bu okuldan okula farkediyö. mesela maddi olarak çok zayıf bir okulda hiçbirşey bekleyemem. Ama bu ilköğretimde mesela herşeyi isteyebileceğimi düşünüyorum. ne biliyim projeksiyon var zaten, ne isteyebilirim bilgisayar isteyebilirim. Okuldan okula deęiştiiğini düşünüyorum maddi olanakları açısından. (*Well, that changes from school to school. In a school financially weak I cannot expect anything. But in this school I think I can ask for anything. We already have a projector but I may ask for a computer. I think this changes from school to school.*) - INT18-

...tabi burda velinin büyük katkısı var, bu okul için söyleyeyim. biz hala bir bilgisayar aldıramadık, ne yapıyoruz bilgisayar laboratuvarı veya sınıfını kullanma durumunda kalıyoruz. (*parents' contribution is definitely high in this, at least for this school. We school could not make them buy a computer. What we do is we have to use the computer lab or class.*) - INT14-

Elsewhere teachers also commented on more direct effects of the insufficiency of the parents' financial support due to low SES level of the parent profile of a certain class on the implementation of the activities in the course book:

...Materyal eksikliği yaşıyoruz. Okullarımızda hiçbirşey yok dediğim gibi herşeyi biz velilere aldırıyoruz. o yüzden olmadığı zaman da onları yaptırıyoruz çocuklara eksik kalıyo o etkinlikler. (*We experience lack of materials. We have nothing at our schools, we make parents buy everything, so when we don't have them, we cannot do the activities in class.*) -INT2-

Even if the parents' economic status is well enough to provide the classrooms with the required technology and other materials for the implementation of the curriculum, parents' socio-economic status is still crucial for teachers as the involvement of parents is not expected only for classrooms but also in terms of the cultural capital they provide their kids with, which is a factor influencing variations in individual student performance according to teachers.

...şimdi bilgisayarı olan çocuk internette araştırıyor ediyor ya da anne baba destekli olan yapıyor ediyor getiriyor mükemmeli yapıyor öbür çocuğun ana baba okumamış evde bilgisayar yok zaten ekonomik durum kötü o çocuk arada harcanıyor öbürleri çoştukça çoşuyor o çocuk da arada harcanıyor. (*now the kid who has a computer does his research on the Internet or his parents support him to do it so he does a perfect job. The other kid's parents haven't gone to school there is no computer at home and economic condition is bad so that kid is wasted. The others always outperform themselves but this one is wasted along.*) -INT13-

...öğretmen anlatmıyor hep çocuğa yükleniliyor...çevre okul aile maddi sorunlar hepsi birbirinin içinde olduğu için tek olaraktan bu sistem çok iyi ama az önce çocuklara internette mesela bir şey veriyorsun araştırma

görevi vermiş çocuğun evde interneti yok ailesinde okur yazar yok şimdi bu çocuktan ne beklersin. *(The teacher does not lecture but puts the burden on the child. The environment, the school, the family, economic problems all are entangled in this system, which is very good individually. But just today you assign a research task to the child from the Internet and if they have no Internet at home and parents are illiterate what would you expect from this child.)* -INT9-

The issue of poor presentation of the philosophy of the new curriculum and what it entails, which was already mentioned as a constraint for teachers also refers to parents. Teachers think that parents, who constitute one of the major stakeholders of the change, were not included in the initiation process. Since the participation of the stakeholders is significant for the success of a change process, this seems to have exacerbated the problem of low level of conversation and participation of stakeholders in the change process.

...Evet onlar da bilgisizdi. Onların da eğitimden geçmesi gerekiyo. Hatta bana göre öğretmenlerden önce velilerin seminerlerden geçmeleri lazımdı, hazırlanmaları lazımdı. Birdenbire bizi bu sistemin içine atıverdiler. *(Yes they were ignorant too. They were supposed to be trained as well. I even think parents needed to have been trained before teachers. They should have been prepared for this. They threw all of us into this system all of a sudden.)* -INT2-

4.2.4 Student Profile

One of the constraints that teachers saw to their implementation of the new curriculum emerged as the changes in the student profile over years of their teaching life. While some teachers tied this to the new curriculum, there were others who argued that low motivation, lack of responsibility or poor creativity

and imagination are problems of the whole new generation, caused by having too many distractors around such as TV, the Internet, and the computer. Either way, it has certain drawbacks in terms of teachers' implementation as student responsibility is now as critical as it has never been before.

...son beş senede altı senede çok büyük bozukluk oldu, gerek davranış bakımından gerek de ders bakımından, yani zorla şey yapıyoruz, zorla yapıyoruz, hep bizim çabamızla. sadece en fazla beş kişi var,sınıflarda, yani teyp götürüyorum şey yapıyorum, hani her konu da eğlenceli olmuyor ki, mesela diyorlar ki hiç eğlenceli değil. *(there has been great change to the worse in both behavior and performance in the last 5 or 6 years. I force them, it is all our effort. It is 5 students at most who are interested. I take a tape recorder and everything, but they say it is not enjoyable at all. But not everything can be enjoyable.)* -INT22-

fakat ... öğrenci profili de değişti...bu yöntemde, yetişme tarzı mıdır artık nedir bu nesilde böyle fazla böyle, işi ciddiye almak sorumluluk sahibi olmak, bunda tabi bir çok etken var, tv, internet falan. bunlar çocukları bu tür şeylerden uzaklaştırdı... öğrencilerin çoğu isteksiz sorumsuz olduğu için tabi onlarda bir fayda sağlayamıyoruz. *(But ...the student profile has also changed. It is either this method or parents' bringing up but this generation does not have the notion of taking things seriously and being responsible. There are so many factors leading to this such as TV and the Internet. These things took students away from them... Because most of them are not motivated and responsible, we cannot help them.)* -INT16-

...Ama nedendir bilmiyorum hakikaten söylüyorum ... bu yeni gelen nesil hayal etmeyi bilmiyo. Bu şeyden kaynaklanıyo sadece bu yapılandırmacı eğitimden değil. Bu teknoloji ve bizim bazı kültürel unsurlarımızın ortadan kalkmasından kaynaklandığını düşünüyorum. Çocuklara da söylüyorum. Çocuklar sokakta oynanıyo. Çocuklar arkadaşlarla gruplarla oyun

oynamayı unuttu. Çocuk bilgisayarın başında hayalden uzak mekanik bir şekilde. Birbirleriyle iletişim bile kuramıyo bu çocuklar. (...*I don't know why but this new generation does not know how to dream. This is not only because of this constructivist education but of technology and the loss of certain cultural aspects. Kids don't play out in the streets with friends in groups. The kid is in front of the computer screen, all mechanically, far from imagining. They can't even communicate with each other.*) -INT1-

4.2.5 Systemic Incongruities

Two aspects of the central education system turned out to have constituted a constraint on teachers' implementation of the new curriculum, which are the student assessment regulation issued by the ministry, and the pressure of central exams that students have to take at the second stage of primary education. The problem created by the assessment regulation is that teachers are not entitled to fail any student either in case of poor achievement or in case of not completion of performance or project tasks. This regulation was so central to the issue of evaluation that it was read out loud by the vice principals at the beginning of each meeting held to discuss student related issues observed by the researcher.

...tabi zayıf veremiyorsunuz, mesela öğrenci getirmiyor, velisine on kere telefon açıyorsunuz zorla getirtiyorsunuz, en ufak saçma sapan bir şey de yazsa kırkbeş veriyorsunuz, çünkü zayıf verseniz olmuyor, yönetmelik ee şey oluyor yani. (*Of course you can't fail a student upon incomletion. When the student fails to hand in the assignment, you phone the parents ten times to make him hand it in, and even if it is nonsensical or too short, you give him 45, because you can't fail him due to the regulation.*) -INT22-
...8. sınıftaki öğrencilerin profiline baktığımız zaman, bence 8. sınıfta da olmaması gereken çocuklar var ama ne yapıyorsunuz bunu böyle kabullenmişsiniz, ee geçsin mezun olsun biz kurtulalım, ne olursa olsun

şeklinde bir mantık var. (*When you look at the student profile in 8th grade, there are students who are not supposed to be at 8th grade, but what you do is to accept them as they are. The logic behind this is to let the student graduate in any way no matter he is doing satisfactory or not, and get rid of him.*) -INT16-

Formal public examinations have a significant backwash effect on all aspects of the curriculum, especially on styles of teaching and learning (Zembylas, 2010, p.45), as they have on the curriculum change process in our case. Teachers are forced at times to choose between allocating class time to preparation for central examinations and focusing more on student production and active learning; and usually the latter is sacrificed for the former on account of the pressure created on them by parents, administrators, students, and other teachers.

...konuyla ilgili performans ödevlerini verip çocuklardan bunları toplayıp bunları koridorda sergiler mesela ben mesela bunu yapmıyorum... onu yapacak zamanım yok, yani onu o şekilde yapmaktansa derste o konu üzerinde ...bir kaç tane daha fazla soru çözmeyi tercih ederim, çünkü çocuklar sınava girecek, bir merkezi sınava. (*He assigns performans tasks on a particular subject and collects them from students and exhibits their work on the walls. I don't do this. I don't have the time. I mean instead of it I prefer to solve a couple of tests in class time, since kids are taking an exam, a central exam.*) -INT16-

Even though standardized multiple choice type testing, which does not permit students to reflect their own construction of learning, is not compatible at all with constructivism, the existence of a formal central examination for access to next level of education influences assessment strategies as well as classroom practices. Instead of individualized performance based assessment or even essay type exams, teachers are forced to design multiple choice tests or use the ready made ones offered to schools by publishers. This is strongly enforced to schools by the policy

makers as well, as they are highly concerned about the comparability of school performances.

...bir de şu var bir de eskilerde yazılı sınavlar klasik sınavlar oluyordu şimdi eğitim sisteminde yok artık. yok değil ama..test sınavları var ya sınavla alınacak ne kadar sürede ne kadar soru çözeceği çok önemli ya çocuklar duygu ve düşüncelerini kağıda dökmekten acizler. *(one more thing, in the past we used to have essay type exams now we don't have them in this system. We have tests as students go to next level through an exam so it matters how fast they are. Kids are unable to reflect their feelings and opinions on the paper.)* -INT13-

The following quotation is worth sharing as it reflects the dilemma the teachers are facing very well:

çocuğun sorumluluğu arttı. çocuk yapa ede öğrenecek, öğretmen biraz daha dışardan seyrediyor, yol gösteriyor...ee işte arkasından gelen sınavlar çocuklarda bunun yapılmasını zorlaştırıyor...programı uyguluyorsunuz çok güzel. çocuğun da bir şeyleri gerçekten öğrendiğini hissediyorsunuz sınıfta öğreniyor ama böyle ağır ağır testler çözmüyorsunuz artık bu programda, ee, daha sınırlı oluyor, onu yapmam gerektiğini de düşünüyorum, bu program onu da yapmamı gerektirmiyor, çocuk bunu hayatın içinden uygulayabiliyor, yapabiliyor ama karşısına öyle testler koyuyorum ki. sınav olmasa çok güzel öğrenecek. bildiğini hayata uygulayabilecek ama önüne öyle sorular koyuyorum ki ay çocuk afallıyor yani ne yapacağını bilemiyor...o zaman bir yerde bir eksiklik var... sınav olmaması gerekiyor. *(the responsibility of the child has increased. He will learn by doing as the teacher is watching and guiding...but the exams that follow this practice makes it difficult. You implement the curriculum well, and feel that students are actually learning. You don't solve hard tests in this program, it is more limited. And I think I should not do it anyway as the child can apply his learning in real life. But then I put him through*

such exams that he is misguided. Then there is a problem. There should not be a central exam.) -INT12-

The extent of the pressure put on the teachers' shoulders pervades teacher talk in the staff room as well, as they are forced to compare students, classes and naturally in a way themselves with others based on the results of the common exams administered to students. Common exams are also a top priority agenda item in all meetings where teachers come together, either student related or branch meetings. The administrators used these meetings as an opportunity to remind teachers of invigilation procedures and have them sign the documents related to these exams.

...bizim en büyük problemimiz çocukların yaptığımız deneme sınavlarındaki başarısızlıkları oluyor en çok onu konuşuyoruz çünkü bizi de ona göre değerlendiriyorlar yani sen dersi sevdirmişsin bu çocuk gerçekten bişiler öğrenmiş hayatın içinde uygulayabiliyor hayata geçirebiliyor o önemli değil artık, o testteki sorulara bakılıyor, işte ne kadar başarılı olmuş, fende kaç soru yapmış, kaç tane yapamamışlar, bizim bir araya geldiğimiz zaman programla ilgili değil de daha çok bununla ilgili problemlerimiz var, yani niye başarısız oluyorlar. (*our biggest problem is the failure of students in common mock exams we administer to them. That is what we most talk about because they evaluate us based on that too. I mean it does not matter whether you motivated the child or he really learned something that he can apply to real life. The test results matter, how well the student performed in science. This is what we generally talk about when we come together.*) -INT12-

4.2.6 Constraints Regarding the Principal's Role

The shift to constructivist curriculum has brought changes to the role definitions of school administrators as well, in a way that extends their responsibilities to include instructional leadership qualities. Hallinger (2003) defines instructional leadership qualities as the role of school administrators in coordinating, supervising and evaluating curriculum to enhance students' learning at school. Coordinating entails that principals have a profound knowledge of the curriculum both in terms of the paradigm underlying it and its interpretation for implementation; and being a model for the teachers at the school. These are also among the roles redefined and enumerated by the Ministry of National Education in 2005 in order to meet the requirements of the new program. Despite this redefinition issued by the Ministry, it appears that not much has been done for principals to be able to realize these roles and responsibilities in the system. The principal at this school was not reported to have sufficient knowledge of the curriculum, which made it impossible for him to share his expertise with the teachers. Interestingly, or rather expectedly, teachers did not talk about this as a disappointment or dissatisfaction, as instructional leadership was not among their expectations from the administrators at all. Regarding the curriculum change process, all they expected from the principal especially during the first few years was to help the supplience of the materials required to implement the program.

okul müdürleri bilmiyor...kesinlikle bilmiyor, yine burda bu yapılandırmacı eğitim sistemi bilinmediği gibi bir de diğer olan şey kırtasiyeciliği çok ve okul müdürleri aynen bunu açık söylüyorum, okul müdürleri içerikten çok kırtasiyeye hizmet ediyorlar...yani gelen müfettiş şunları şunları görsün çocuğun bilgisi, davranışı düşüncesi, olmuş olmamış önemli değil. (*Principals don't know it. They definitely don't know. Besides this they serve paperwork more than its content. I mean they are*

worried about the papers that the inspector will want to check, not about the learning or behavior of the child.) -INT2-

4.2.7 Cultural Factors

Curriculum change projects have usually ignored the larger national culture in which the curriculum is embedded, which defines the constructions of both the implementers of the curriculum and the students as the target group of the project (Tobin & Dawson, 1992). Teachers in our study shared the same concern regarding the curriculum change, especially emphasizing its borrowed nature. According to teachers, the fact that the change is based on a borrowed policy makes the teachers' job more challenging as they are expected to adapt it to our culture in practice.

...Ben yenilik olarak görmeyeceğim o işi, yani yapılan müfredat değişiklikleri felan nedense başka ülkelerden alıntı, yani bizim ülkemizin insanına ne kadar uydurulabilir, tamamen yük yine öğretmene düşüyor. (I don't see it as an innovation, I mean the curriculum change. It is taken from other countries, so to what extent could it be adapted to our country's people? It is all a burden on the teacher again.) -INT15-

...ama bunlar biraz da A ülkesinden biraz ordan biraz burdan alınıp monte edilmiş bir hali, küçük amerika olma hali herhalde.... Evet tüketimi pohpohlamak, kazancını harcamak, tüketilmişleri pohpohlamak, bunlarla yani düşünce bazında daha az daha böyle yurtseverlik filan daha az. (but these all taken from country A a bit and the other another bit and mantled to each other with an aim to become little America...Yes to encourage consumption, to spend your income, to create a less thinking and less patriotic society.) -INT 8-

...eđitim sistemimizin bir ok Őeyi yurtdıŐından karma olarak alınmıŐ bize uygulanmaya alıŐılıyo. Ama orda ocuk sınıfta sokakta nasıl yapıcađını yapmazsa hangi tőr yaptırımlarla karŐılaŐıcađını biliyo. Tamam bu yaŐta ocuđa ceza verilmez diyosun ama bi Őekilde yaptıđı Őeyin bi karŐılıđı olacađını bilmeli. (*A lot of the things in our education system are borrowed from abroad in a mixed way. But there the child knows what sanction he will face if he does not do what he is supposed to do in class and on the street. It is OK not to punish a kid at this age but he should know that he won't get away with what he does.*) -INT1-

In this section, based on mainly interview and also observation data, the obstacles that teachers face when they are trying to realize the changes that the new curriculum entails in their classroom lives were discussed. These obstacles emerged as quite intertwined and overlapping at times; therefore, they were analysed in seven main categories as separate as possible from each other, which were: physical insufficiencies of the school, teacher resistance, parent profile of the school, insufficient training of the teachers, student profile, systemic incongruities, and cultural factors.

4. 3 Teacher's Work Beyond the Classroom

The working lives of teachers, which does not only consist of time spent in the classroom, have been going through dramatic changes as a result of the demands of the curriculum change on working times or teacher roles (Klette, 2000). Grimmett (1996) argues that the time teachers spend outside the classroom is even more significant at times of curriculum change; since teachers need to be engaged in an experience that involves rich conversation about pedagogical issues with other teachers or trainers, which is not possible in the classroom. In line with this, the focus of educational research into curriculum change has started to expand in a way to include teachers' professional lives as well as their teaching practices.

Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) concur that teachers' experiences outside the classroom play a critical role in the change process, arguing:

For teachers, what goes on inside the classroom is closely related to what goes on outside it. The quality, range and flexibility of teachers' classroom work are closely tied up with their professional growth—with the way that they develop as people and as professionals. (p. ix)

The analysis of the data for this study takes up a similar emphasis at this point as it gets out of the classroom and the meaning of classroom experience for teachers; and focuses on the aspects of the teachers' work beyond the classroom, such as planning and preparation, teacher cooperation versus teacher isolation, paper work, and teacher development. Some points might have already been mentioned in two earlier sections of this chapter due to the difficulty of separating experiences that are so entangled to each other at times; however, they will be elaborated in a more focused way here.

4.3.1 Planning and Preparation

While discussing how teachers' work beyond the classroom was transformed by the new curriculum, lesson planning and preparation for class time emerged as the most significant aspect of teachers' professional lives. Almost all of the teachers interviewed mentioned as a new experience the teacher guidebooks, which is a brand new component of teaching for them introduced by the new curriculum. Guidebooks include ready-made lesson plans for teachers for the student book and the workbook, as well as tips and checklists for student based assessment of performance tasks and project assignments. The standardization of the teaching practice, which had already started with the widespread use of computers and the Internet with an aim to copy ready made annual and unit plans, is now legitimized by the Ministry, who aims to help teachers with the confusion and inconfidence

they have been faced with due to curriculum change. Besides standardization, teachers also mentioned guidebooks as a time saver for their preparation, a handy material providing them with ideas, activities, and new techniques, and finally as a teacher training book especially for novice teachers.

In general, teachers agreed that guidebooks eased their jobs both in terms of time and labour saving.

...bunları tek tek ellen yazıyorduk şu anda öğretmen kılavuzu çıktı, zaten seni yönlendiriyor ne yapman gerektiğini söylüyor siz sadece ordan işte mesela konuyu aldığınız zaman kılavuz kitabınız size diyor ki öğrencilerin eee ön bilgilerini harekete geçirebilmek için şu şu şu soruları sorun diyor... o arkada sana neler yapman gerektiğini madde madde zaten iletiyor. daha önce ben yapıyordum, kaç ders var, altı ders var, altı ders yapıyorum, onun işlenişini yapıyorum, işlenişini zaten mevcut kılavuz kitapta gördüğünüz için yapıyorsunuz, siz boş vakit sahip oluyorsunuz, yazmadan kurtuluyorsunuz, tek yapacağınız şey ee derse girmeden önce, gireceğiniz ders öncesi o kılavuz kitaptaki o metinleri okumak.... Dolayısıyla çok kolaylaştı tabi. (*We used to write all these at hand but now we have the guidebook. It guides you, and tells you what you need to do, what questions to ask in order to activate students' schemata... At the back it tells you what to do step by step. Before this, I used to prepare the plan for the six lessons, but now you have the plan ready, so you have free time and you don't have to write. You only have to read those texts in the guidebook before you go into class. Thus, it has become much easier.*) -INT14-

...Hazır elimizde oluyor, önceden kendim gece yarısına kadar hazırlardım mesela, şimdi öyle bir sorunum yok. Kendiniz etkinlik yaratmak zorundaydınız. Sürekli, sürekli. şimdi çok daha rahat. şimdi öğretmen olanlar bu konuda şanslı, gerçekten daha şanslı. (*Now we have it ready. In the past I used to prepare plans until midnight, now it is not a*

problem. You had to create activities of your own. All the time. Now it is easier. Teachers of today are lucky, they are really lucky.) -INT15-

...bizi de çok rahatlattı. çünkü her sene aynı şeyin günlük planını yapıyorduk, aynı şeyi anlatacaksınız tekrar yazıyorsunuz, o yükten bir kere kurtulduk, öğretmen kılavuz kitaplarımız çok güzel, çok güzel yönlendiriyor işte etkinlikleri var, bazı soruların cevapları var, hani tereddüte düşebiliriz, her konuyu çok iyi bilmeyebiliriz, orda bizi aydınlatan bilgiler var, hani kılavuz kitaplarımız felan çok güzel, işimize yarıyor. Çok çok kolaylaştırdı. *(It eased us too. Because we used to prepare plans for the same thing every year, we used to write down the same thing, now we are freed of that burden. Guidebooks are very nice, they guide us very well. They have activities, and answers to certain questions, which is helpful as we cannot know the answer for everything. There is knowledge that the teacher needs, so we make use of them.) -INT12-*

Standardization of the teaching practice was both perceived positively by the teachers with regard to inequality of opportunities that teachers in different regions experience, and negatively as it might be limiting teachers' creativity.

...Yani öğretmene yol gösteriyor, hemen hemen Türkiye'deki bütün çocuklar aynı sistemle, aynı bilgiyle, yani fark olmadığını düşünüyorum, ya çok da faydalı görüyorum, daha önce eskiden öğretmene bağlıydı, biliyorsunuz plan yapardınız, plan yapar sonra uygulardı, her öğretmende farklı tabi, farklı kişiliği vardı farklı şeyi vardı, ama şimdi hepimizin elinde kılavuz kitap yani o doğrultuda, belirli standart oldu. *(I mean it leads the teacher, almost all students in Turkey go through the same system, same knowledge, so I think there is no variation between them and this is useful. Earlier it was dependent on the teacher, you know you used to plan and*

then implement. Every teacher had a different personality, but now we all have guidebooks at hand, so there is a certain standard.) -INT19-

...planın nasıl yapılacağını gösteren hiç kimsenin olmaması, köydü çünkü çalıştığım yer, sonra zaten planlar kalktı, sonra elle yazdık bir ara gerçi, ondan sonra internet çıktı falan derken, hep o zamanlar içimden derdim ki keşke şu hazır olsa ve Türkiye'de herkes bu hazır olsa metinden ortak kullansak yapsak derdim, nitekim 12., 13. yılımda böyle bir sisteme geçildi. *(when I was teaching at a village school, there was nobody to show me how to write plans, later on writing plans was abolished, everybody copied from the Internet. At those times I used to wish it were available ready for the use of all teachers in Turkey so that we could all do it commonly from the same text.) -INT10-*

...Yani aslında bazı konularda, kolaylık olarak bakabiliriz, kolaylık, ben size ne diyebilirim ki, ama bazı açıdan da sınırlayabilir öğretmenin yapacaklarını. *(I mean, in fact we could see it as an ease, what can I say, but in certain aspects it might limit what the teacher will do.) -INT19-*

Guidebooks were a novice teacher's dream, as mentioned in one of the quotations above. The fact that it provides you with practical ideas, activities to involve students, and other techniques that might be of use in class as well as clues on the subject matter knowledge is an advantage according to teachers especially for the inexperienced teacher.

...yani ilk yıllarımıza göre düşününce mesleği öğretiyor yönlendiriyor çok güzel bir şekilde rahat rahat öğretmenlik herkes yapabilir yani isterse. *(I mean when compared to our novice years it teaches you the job, everybody can very easily teach now if they want.) -INT12-*

Despite the common opinion that teacher guidebooks are beneficial for them in terms of saving teachers' time and labour; and also for overcoming inequalities between classrooms resulting from differences in teacher habits, teachers' preparation time and planning habits are still to a large extent dependent on their personal choices. Thus, it is difficult to say that the new curriculum has resulted in a standard teacher profile with regards to planning and preparation. Most teachers accept that during the initiation process, preparation took more time of theirs due to confusion, ambiguity, and perhaps inconfidence created by the new curriculum.

...İlk zamanlar çok tedirgin oluyordum acaba ben doğru anlamış mıyım. Evdeki hazırlık çalışmalarını tabi ki etkiledi bu yüzden. Ne hazırlamam lazım nasıl gitmem lazım, ne şekilde bunu işlemem lazım diye oldu. ama sonra tabi ki tecrübenizin verdiği kolaylıkla da aştık. (*At first days I was very uncomfortable about being on the right track. So it naturally affected preparation work at home. What do I need to prepare? How should I prepare? How should I teach it type of concerns. But later we overcame these with our experience.*) -INT6-

On the other hand, as teachers got used to teaching the new curriculum and started feeling more confident and comfortable with it, how teachers experienced preparation all came down to be dependent on their personalities and habits.

...alternatif öneriler alıştırmalar var konuyla ilgili. başka bir etkinlikler yaptırabilirsiniz diye başka etkinlik örnekleri de var. kendiniz başka etkinlikler hazırlayabilirsiniz diye de var, ama bunların hepsi zaman gerektiriyor işte. Ya ikisinde de aynı bende, öbüründe de hazırlarsan öbüründe de hazırlıyordun, hazırlamasan burda da yok yani.İhtiyaç hissetmeye bağlı. (*There are alternative suggestions or exercises about the topic. It says you can do these alternative tasks or even prepare your own task, but all these require time. So it is the same with both (curricula) for me. If you felt the need, you used to supplement in the former, if you don't*

feel like it, you don't supplement here either. It depends on whether you feel the need.) -INT9-

...O tamamen benden kaynaklanıyor. bunu öğretmen isterse yapar istemezse yapmaz. *(It is all because of me. This the teacher does if she wants, she does not do it if she does not want.) -INT13-*

...hani eğer gerçekten hakkıyla bu yeni sistemi uygulamaya kalkarsanız yükü de geliyor yani geliyor ama bu iş sevmek meselesi onunla ilgili bu da kişilik meselesiyle ilgili. bunun bir genellemesi olmaz gibi geliyor bana. *(if you truly try to implement this system it has burdens too. But it is all about dedication. It is all about personality. There is no generalization to this.) -INT13-*

What teachers might spend extra time of theirs if they are motivated to do so is preparing daily supplementary task sheets for students to revise daily content at home. However, this also depends on teachers' personal choices. While some accept that they make parents buy supplementary resource books for extra homework, others are in the habit of preparing their own sheets as they do not see outside resource books as to the point as the ones tailored by them for specific class needs. The following quotation makes the significance of the uniqueness of each classroom case explicit while discussing supplementary resource books recommended by teachers.

...ben şimdiye kadar hiç kaynak kitap kullanmadım 25 yıllık meslek hayatımda...Eski programda da mesela planlarımı kendim yapardım asla dergilerin şunların bunların verdiği planları kullanmazdım. Çünkü sınıfın bir seviyesi var. O seviyeye göre plan program hazırlamak zorundasınız. O kaynak kitapları var şimdi de var zümreden kullanan arkadaşlarım. Ama ben her akşam kendi ödevimi evde hazırlıyorum o gün ne vereceksem çocuklarıma. Çok zamanımı alıyo ama yapıyorum. Ben o kaynak kitapların

yararına da inanmıyorum. Gerçekten çocuğa müfredatın dışında başka şeyler de veriyö. Bu sefer veli diyo ki kitaptan şurayı yapamadı burayı yapamadı başka sorunlarla karşılaşıyo veren arkadaşlar. (*I have never used a resource book in my 25 year- experience in teaching. I used to write my own plans too I never used the plans provided by journals or other persons. Because the class has a certain level which you need to consider while planning. There are colleagues in my branch who use those books. But I prepare my own task sheet at home every night, although it takes too much time. I don't believe in the benefit of those books. They deal with stuff outside the curriculum. And then the parent complains that the child could not do this part or that part. They face other problems like this.*)

INT2

4.3.2 Teacher Cooperation vs. Isolation

This section covers the analysis of results on the complex and multifaceted nature of collegiality and collaboration in teachers' lives as part of their experiences of the curriculum change. Goffman (1959) argues that teachers spend considerable amount of time in the back regions, which are areas where teachers can relax; and when they are backstage, unwinding or fraternizing with their peers. In addition to relaxation, this time spent at the backstage is also significant for their onstage performance. A sharing and caring atmosphere in which teachers cooperate with each other frees the teacher from feelings of uncertainty especially in environments where there is no regular evaluation of their work. All teachers agree on that teacher cooperation is a must for the new curriculum, and the major ground for it is the branch meetings where teachers teaching the same subject matter to the same level are supposed to come together to discuss curricular issues. On the other hand, some teachers pointed out that apart from branch meetings, which are very rare and formal, the real cooperation should be what takes place on

a more daily basis and informally in break times or after class. When we look at how teachers experienced collegiality and cooperation at our school, we see that they mainly mentioned branch meetings as the ground for teachers to share teaching ideas, evaluate the curriculum needs of their classes, and to make common decisions or come up with solutions targeting those needs. It would be wrong to assume that there exists no other cooperation or collaboration other than during these formal meetings; however, what teachers mentioned as shared work or shared responsibility in decision making only takes place in a couple of issues such as school trips, and the preparation of student based assessment criteria and common examinations, rather than regarding day-to-day teaching practice.

First of all, while some teachers experienced an increase in cooperation as a result of the new curriculum starting in the initiation process due to confusion and continuing to the present day, others reported that there would be no cooperation at all if teachers did not have to come together in groups to organize school trips or to prepare common exams for students.

...Biraz müfredat dayattı bunu. Hani denetleyiciler de hep bunun böyle olması gerektiğinin altını çizdiler. Etkinlikleri ortaklaştırmaya çalışıyoruz, değerlendirme ölçütlerini ortaklaştırıyoruz. Geziye gözleme dayalı faaliyetleri ortaklaştırıyoruz. (*this is partly the enforcement of the curriculum. Inspectors too emphasized that this should be the case. We are trying to make performance activities, assessment criteria, and trips common.*) -INT5-

Daha fazla birbirimizden fikir alma, daha yakınlaşma zümre öğretmenleri arasında daha bir birliktelik sağladı. sürekli konuşuyoduk şöyle mi yapsak böyle mi yapsak, anlayamadığımız için sürekli birbirimize acaba bunu mu demek istiyo, ben doğru mu anlamışım gibi birbirimize yaklaştırdı yani ilişkileri güçlendirdi. (*It caused us to exchange ideas among each other, and made us closer and more unified among branch teachers. We would*

always talk about what to do and how to do it as we could not understand. We would always ask each other what the curriculum meant, so it brought us closer, made our bonds tighter.) -INT6-

...Yok yok, birlikte fazla çalışmıyoruz, sadece zümrelerde birlikte oluyoruz, zümrelerde ortak karar alıyoruz.. Grup çalışması işte ...gezilerde oluyor, şimdi, ben diyorum ki filan yere bir geziye gidecem diyorum, arkadaşım diyor ki ben de geleyim, tamam diyoruz. (*No no, we don't work together much, only in branch meetings shared decisions are made. Other than that group work is only about trips. I say I am going to x place for a trip, and my colleague says let me come with you, I say OK.) -INT8-*

The following quotation depicts that teachers use backstage time largely for relaxation, not for cooperative work targeting the curriculum needs except for discussion of school trips and common exams.

...ah bir araya gelseler de konuşsalar, öyle bir şeyimiz yok ki. yok yani. Ha görüş farklılıkları illa ki var, yani ee, sistemin, tabi tabi yani sistemin anlamsız olduğunu, ya eski sistem daha iyiydi filan, bazıları diyor ki yok ya biz bu kadar eleştiriyoruz ama bu sistem iyidir diyen bir grup var tabi. ama şundan dolayı şudur, bundan dolayı budur diye özel olarak bir sohbet malesef öğretmenler arasında zaten bu sohbeti bulma şansımız yok. (*I wish teachers came together and talked. We don't have that kind of thing. Of course there are conflicts between teachers. Some say this system is meaningless and the former was better, and some say that despite all this criticism this system is better. But there is discussion of why it is better or why the former is better. We have no chance of finding that talk among teachers.) -INT14-*

Just as it was the case with the influence of teacher motivation on the preparation of daily task sheets discussed in the previous section, cooperation was also

mentioned by the following teacher as being dependent on teachers' choices rather than being a requisite of the new curriculum.

...burda zümre çalışmaları tam yapılıyor mu diyeceksiniz.. tam bir birliktelik sağlandı desem bence yani...ya öğretmenlerin yapısıyla ilgili diyelim. yoksa sistem sistemdir, kanun herkese kanundur yani. ama onu uygulama arzusu paylaşım arzusu kişilere kalmış bir olay yani. (*If you ask me whether teacher branches work properly here, I would hesitate to say there is complete unity. It is related with the teacher structure. It is actually a must in the system, but the desire to implement it and share is up to the people.*) -INT20-

Another point that seemed to have changed with the new curriculum with regards to teacher cooperation is the decrease in a sense of competition between teachers, especially class teachers. While some teachers pointed out that this was caused by the increase in the tendency of teachers to work together or share ideas with each other owing to the new curriculum, others mentioned the abolition of the central examination which used to be at 5th grade as another factor declining the level of competition between teachers. Competition, in Nias's (1989) study was found to be a manifestation of unresolved historical rivalries among teachers stemming from internal promotion or appointments, whereas in this study we see it mainly is caused by too much ownership of the caring mother-like class teacher of her class. The system of class teaching is seen as a factor leading to mother-like intense attachments and too much dedication in primary schools all over the world, possibly caused by spending long hours with their children in isolation from other adults in an intimate atmosphere (Acker, 1999).

...Eskiden ne vardı 5. sınıfta Anadolu Lisesi sınavları vardır. Öğretmenler benim çocuğum kazansın diye ister istemez paylaşımından kaçıyorlardı. Şimdi paylaşım daha çok.Program etkili olmuştur, yani daha çok program etkili. Mecburen paylaşmak zorunda kaldılar öğretmenler. (*we used to have Anatolian High School entrance exams at 5th grade. Teachers avoided*

sharing so that only their students would pass the exam. Now there is more sharing. The curriculum is a factor too, more effective factor. Teachers were forced to share.) -INT3-

Daha iyi... Daha çok birbirimize, eskiden öyle bişey yoktu. mesela ben öyle arkadaşlar tanıyorum ki 1. sınıfta yaptığı fiş verirdi, öbür öğretmen görmesin diye silerdi. Rekabet vardı heralde. Ben çok mutluyum böyle olmasından yani. *(It is better now. We are closer to each other, this was not the case in the past. For example I know such friends who would clean his work from the classroom so that the other teacher wouldn't see it. I think there was competition. I am very happy with the way it is now.) - INT4-*

What also appeared as a reason for the decrease in the sense of competition between teachers is the common examinations administered to students in order to prepare them to the central exam. The pressure of increased accountability as a global trend in education seems to have had a rather positive implication in our school, though it is not possible to comment on the reflections of the degree of cooperation due to common exams on either student performance or better implementation of the curriculum, as neither of these are among the focal points of this study. However, it is quite interesting to find out that teachers experienced a relief from the pressure of competition among themselves because of the increase in the competition among students and classes, created by the significance of accountability and comparability trends that were brought about by formal exams for access to next level of education.

...bunu herkes yapmıyor bu sistemle daha da az yapılıyor, çünkü öbüründe benim çocuğum daha başarılı, şimdi fen bilgisi öğretmeni giriyor ortak sınavlar oluyor işte öğretmenler ingilizce öğretmeni giriyor, ortak sınavlar oluyor, sen ne kadar, çocuğum iyidir desen de üçlük çocuğa beş versen de ortak sınavlarda, çocuğun durumu ortaya çıkıyor, işte sen sorunu ona göre

versen de ortaya çıkıyor. (*Not everybody is doing it. It is less in this system, because in the other one they said my kid is more successful. Now branch teachers are also teaching the class such as science teacher, English teacher, and there are common exams. No matter how much you give 5 to a student who deserves 3, the real success of the student is clear in the common exams.*) -INT13-

In general, teachers appeared to be unaware of the importance of their relationships with their colleagues in the staff room on their development as a teacher, and other teachers are only visible to them at the backstage as ‘friends’ to chat and relax, not as mentors or professional coaches from whom they can always ask help and learn things. Actually, most teachers referred to other teachers as negative role models, who were more resistant to change than themselves and continued the habits that the new curriculum expects them to eschew. However, this sense of ‘the teacher that I am not’ is largely based on only partial inferences that they could make from staffroom behaviours or talks, as classroom doors are tightly closed to other teachers.

4.3.3 Paper Work

Apart from time spent on planning and preparation and on collaborating with other teachers, what takes up most of teachers’ time after the introduction of the new curriculum is what they refer to as paper work. It is noteworthy that teachers mostly called it ‘paper work’, ‘stationary work’ and ‘red tape’, none of which reminds us of teaching or student related work, inspite of the highly teaching and classroom related content of the work they are talking about. This might be because teachers have not been able to internalize the meaning of student based assessment and its implications for classroom teaching yet, or simply because they

are culturally not accustomed to the extent of filing and documentation required for student based assessment.

...Bu proje ödevlerinin uygulanması, özellikle performans ödevleri onlar dediğim gibi yükümüzü.... bunlar için bir değerlendirme ölçeği her biri için, her bir öğrenci için. Artı projenin nasıl yapılacağına dair bir hazırlık, bunun aşamaları, artı işte nelerden ne kadar not kıracaksınız onların planlaması, her öğrenci için üç tane form doldurmanız gerekiyor, ...yani sürekli takip etmek gerekiyor, bu doldurduğunuz formlar biraz işimizi o zaman artırdı, proje açısından özellikle. *(The application of project assignments, especially performance tasks increased our... an assessment scale for each task, and for each student. Plus a preparation of how to conduct the task, the steps, the planning of how to grade students, three forms to fill in for each student. So you need to follow it up all the time. Those forms increased our work, especially in project assignments.)* - INT20-

...İnanamazsınız, müthiş hem de yani...mesela bazılarını bütün öğrencilere uygulamanız gerekiyor, bazılarını her konu için uygulamanız gerekiyor, şimdi bir öğretmenin yaklaşık ee 150 tane öğrencisi olduğunu düşünürseniz, öğretmenler için müthiş bir angarya bu yani. *(You wouldn't believe; it is incredible. For example some of them you apply to each student, some you apply to all subjects, thinking that a teacher has 150 students, it is a terrific time killer for the teachers.)* -INT16-

...Bürokratik işlemleri çok çoğaldı. Kağıt işleri...Bizden şimdi öğrenciyle ilgili bir sürü bilgi isteniyo. Şey yapıyosun performansla ilgili kriterler oluşturuyosun her öğrenci için ayrı kriterler yazıyosun performans ödevi için her proje için ayrı kriterler yapıyosun bir sürü kağıtlar şunlar bunlar. Dinleme için ayrılmış çizelgen var okuma için ayrı yazma için ayrı konuşma için ayrı. *(The bureaucratic type of work has increased. We are*

asked to hand in a lot of information about the student. You form criteria about performance tasks. You write a scale for each student separately for each performance assignment and each project work, a pile of papers and so on. You have a different scale for listening, reading, writing and speaking.) -INT1-

As a result of this kind of increase in teacher work, referred to as ‘technocratic forms of curricula’, especially when they are not trained enough to operate it meaningfully, teachers are becoming deskilled (Apple & Weiss, 1983). In our case, too, they are not equipped well enough to engage in the conception required by this new type of work they are expected to execute, which brings us to the discussion of the quality and extent of teacher development opportunities.

4.3.4 Teacher Development

As mentioned before in the earlier sections of this chapter, many teachers did not have the know-how or the self-motivation to learn how to implement the changes successfully. Moreover, many teachers resented the central administration’s disregard for their professional knowledge and insight. Fullan (2001) concurs that the difficulty of learning new skills and behavior and unlearning old ones is underestimated and that changes in beliefs, practice, and methods represent profound changes that affect teachers’ professional self-esteem. This study found out that teachers do not necessarily become more certain and confident through implementation, as they still shared a great need for training. They were aware that without training to assist them in understanding the initiative and to guide them throughout the implementation, successful implementation would never be completely realized.

Instructional improvement of teachers, as Grimmett et. al (2008) argue, must be transformed into an experience of rich conversation about pedagogical possibilities aiming to address the questions and dilemmas inherent in daily teaching practice. However, by our teachers improvement is rather seen as a personal experience highly dependent on outside short term in-service training activities, with which most of them are dissatisfied. Thus, what was named as teacher isolation in the previous section to refer to lack of cooperation between teachers is also apparent when it comes to teacher development, as this isolation is an obstacle for teachers to learn from each other on a daily basis. The lack or insufficiency of teacher development opportunities both on a compact and continuous basis definitely constitutes a constraint on teachers to implement the curriculum, and to operate their teaching roles as professionals. Limited professional learning and development opportunities that were experienced by the teachers at this school is parallel to what Ekiz (2001) found out in his case study on Turkish teachers, who he claims are ‘constrained professionals’. What constrained our teachers in terms of teacher development came out as the insufficient quality of inservice training due to poor knowledge of trainers and poor delivery and organization of trainings, and the lack of adequate focus on especially student based assessment and computer assisted learning.

...Şimdi baştan öğretmenleri kurstan geçirmeleri gerek biliyorsunuz, o da bazı kurslar verildi ama tam anlamıyla yeretli olmadı bu kurslar. ben ona inanıyorum. Yoksa eskiden de bu arkadaşlarım çok başarılıydı. hala başarılılar ama. dediğim gibi bu sistemi bize çok iyi tanıtmadılar, tanıtamadılar. İşte 33- 35 kırk yıllık müfettişleri bize seminer vermesi için gönderdiler. Onlar da bizim gibiydi halbuki. bu sistemi tam olarak öğrenmemişlerdi. *(Now you know the teachers needed to be trained from scratch, for that some courses were delivered. But they were fully satisfactory, that is what I believe. These friends were very successful teachers in the past, they are still successful; but as I told you before they did not or couldn't present this system well to us. They sent inspectors*

with 33-35 years of experience to train us. They were like us, though, not having learnt the system properly yet.) -INT2-

...Performansı yapmak felan şimdi güzel de, bunun temel yaklaşımında, ölçme değerlendirme uzmanı olmak lazım şimdi. Ben, kendim yapamıyorum doğrusu. *(It is nice and that to do the performance tasks, but you need to be an expert of measurement and evaluation now. To tell the truth I cannot do it myself.) -INT3-*

...Bazı şeyler hani, hizmet içi kurs dediğin 5 gün. 5 günde dediğim gibi alışkanlık zor edinilir, zor terkedilir bizim topraklarımızda. 5 günlük bir iş değildi. *(Some things you know, in-service training takes 5 days. Habits are hard to abandon in 5 days, especially in this country. It wasn't a five-day job.) -INT5-*

...fakat bu yapılandırmacı eğitimin hala bizim okullarımızda uygulandığını sanmıyorum. neden? nedeni şu: öğretmenler bilmiyor. diyeceksiniz bir sürü hizmet içi kurslar açıldı filan. bu hizmet içi açılan kurslara en çok devam edenlerden biri benim. ama şimdi bu hizmet içi kurslarda şuna şahit oldum. Kurslara gelen kişiler vakıf değil. müfettişleri şunları bunları vakıf değil...ben şu ana kadar devam ettiğim kurslardan birinden fayda gördüm, bir hafta gittiğim, aktif öğrenme metodları kursunda ben bunun özünü anladım orda. *(but I still don't think this constructivist education is being implemented in our schools. Why? Because teachers don't know how to. You could say a lot of courses were offered. I am one of those who participated in these courses most. But I saw that trainers are not well trained themselves, the inspectors and so on. I only benefited from one of various courses I attended, that was an active learning course which took a week. There I understood the core of this stuff.) -INT8-*

...iřin gerçeęi ok detaylı bir bilgiye sahip olamıyoruz malum, ee, ben bunlan ilgili řunları syledim. bu konuları bize aktarabilmeniz iin seminer dnemlerinde yani 15 gn okul ncesi 15 gn okul sonrası denen řeyde, detaylı bir řekilde bunların tartiřılmasını istiyoruz, fakat yok. yani sizden bir laf duyuyoruz ordan bir laf duyuyoruz, veya iřte kitaplardaki ęretmen kılavuzlarından bir takım řeyler gryoruz. (*The truth is we don't have a very detailed knowledge of it. We want a thorough discussion of these issues during 15 day school seminars at the beginning and end of the year, but it does not happen. I mean we hear something from you, another thing from somebody else, or see certain things in the guidebook.*) -INT14-

4.3.5 Crisis in the Sense of Competence

This section is dedicated to the changes in the reality of teaching and 'being a teacher' as experienced by the teachers at this school along with the changes they have been experiencing as a result of the national mandated curriculum change. Actually, Nias (1989) argued that primary school teaching is largely self-referential in the ways in which teachers conceptualise and carry out their jobs (p. 25).

First of all, teachers at the school were found to have developed feelings of incompetence in their professional lives, which was reflected as a crisis in their sense of competence and certainty, and as guilt caused by this. Lortie (1975, p. 136) writes: "The teacher's craft is masked by the absence of unclear models for emulation, unclear lines of influence, multiple and controversial criteria, ambiguity about assessment timing, and instability in the product." Rosenholtz (1991) agrees, describing uncertainty as the lack of unclear agreement, common definition, or collective confidence in shared teaching technologies.

Hargreaves (1994) discusses teacher emotions as matters of personal disposition and commitment for teachers, as well as phenomena that shapes how teachers construct their professional identity. One of the emotions central to our data was found to be teacher guilt, which emerged as a result of the incompetence that teachers felt. Hargreaves (2005) discusses guilt under two categories. The first derives from doing something that is forbidden by an external authority or failing to do something that is mandated by others. In teaching, this kind of guilt comes from accountability demands and bureaucratic controls, which in our case appears to be the pressure of common exams where achievement of classes are compared. The expected outcome as teacher behavior was experienced as teachers' believing they must cover the required content for common exams such as doing multiple choice test practice instead of creating more stimulating or active lessons. The second occurs in situations where individuals feel they have ignored or betrayed the people or values that they represent. Teachers in our study felt this guilt when they did not believe they were meeting the needs of their students, and thus were emotionally forced to give up doing what the curriculum change requires for the sake of doing what the common exams require. The teacher in the following quotation, for instance, shared the pressure she faced both from the principal and other teachers as if she had been guilty of the low achievement of her class:

...beni de baskı altında tutan şeyler var. mesela hiçbir zaman ben, bu listeleri almamıştım. Ama o kadar çok baskı oldu ki. Niye baskı oldu işte 7-E sınıfı çok başarısız çok başarısız neden böyle? İdareden tüm öğretmenlere kadar herkes bunu sorgulayınca, ... tabi o idari ve öğretmen baskısını üzerimde hissettim. *(There are things that put me under pressure too. I had never received those lists. But there was so much pressure. Why, because class 7-E is a big failure, and why is it the case? When all including the administration and all teachers questioned their failure, I certainly felt the administrative and peer pressure on me.)* -INT18-

...daha önceki sistemde daha çok bilgi yükleniyordu çocuğa, birden bire bir sürü etkinlik olunca, etkinlikler sanki bir şey öğretmiyormuş gibi. Biraz daha soyut kalıyor demi...gerek kalmıyor aslında, yan sınıfta ben o kitabı kullanıyorum niye ben eksik kalıyorum, çocuklarım geri kalmasın diye, işte ortamın hırsından kaynaklanıyor, ben burda sınıf aldığımda kaynak kitap almadım. Bizim müdürümüz karşıydı, tamam mı? Ama diğer zümre öğretmeni arkadaşlarım almış kullanıyorlarmış gizli gizli. Ortak sınav yapıldı benim çocuklar döküldü. Allahım kafama dank etti. Tamam mı. Niye benim çocuklarım başarısız oldu. Sonra bir baktım ki ben karara uydum, çocukları bunaltmadan sırf müfredat doğrultusunda birebir ders yaptım, öyle işledim, kaynak kitap kullanmadım. *(there was more loading of knowledge to the child in the former system. Suddenly we have a lot activities, and it feels as if activities do not teach anything to the child. They are a bit more abstract, aren't they? There is actually no need for resource books, but why should I be behind others? I use it so that my children are not left behind, because of the ambition in the environment. When I first had a class here I did not have the students buy resource books, the principal was against it too. But it turned out that other teachers in my branch were using it secretly. There was a common exam and my children failed badly. Then I realized it is because I stucked with the decision and did what the curriculum required without using the resource book.)* -INT19-

Apart from the guilt and incompetence triggered by the failure of students in common exams, teachers also felt guilty and incompetent because of the new roles attached to them with the constructivist curriculum, and also because of not being able to fully realize these roles.

...ben bu geçişi daha kolay atlattım gibi ki ben de sancılarımı yaşadım ilk iki sene aldığımız parayı bile hak etmediğinizi düşünüyorsunuz size yapılmış bir hakaret kabul ediyorsunuz hizmet içi eğitim kurslarında da

diğer öğretmen arkadaşlar da aynı şeyi düşünüyordu kime sorsanız aynı cevabı alırsınız zamanla oturuyor siz de alışılıyorsunuz siz de öğreniyorsunuz o süreci atlatılıyorsunuz. (*I went through this transition more smoothly, but even I faced some pain. The first two years you feel you don't even deserve the money you earn, you feel insulted. Other teachers I met in in-service training courses felt the same thing, you would hear the same response no matter who you ask. It gets better in time, you learn and get accustomed, so you overcome that feeling.*) -INT13-

...kadın giyinmiş süslenmiş boyanmış oturuyor ondan sonra eee çocuklar naptınız peki sunun bakalım sunuyor arada müdahale etmesi gereken bir şey varsa ediyor işte oğlum dinle, şunu unuttunuz unutmayın gibi peki zil çalıyor gidiyoruz, biz gidiyoruz başkası geliyor, bu kadar, oturduğum yerden para kazanıyorum gibi hissediyorum, yani ille bişi vericen yani. (*There is a woman dressed up, wearing make up and all, and she asks the students what they have done, and children present what they have done. The woman interferes if necessary, she reminds things that students forgot. It is the bell and we leave, another woman comes, that is it. I feel I earn as I sit, as I don't give them anything*)-INT13-

...diyorum ya verimsiz geçiyor gibi geliyor ders, tam uygulayamadığımdan, bişey öğrettiğimi hissedemiyorum. (*As I said, I feel the lesson is inefficient for the students, because I cannot fully implement it, I feel I cannot teach them anything.*) -INT9-

This study aimed to investigate the manifestations of mandated curriculum change on teacher culture. The findings manifested themselves in three general themes. First of all, teachers experienced significant change in nine different aspects of

classroom practices together with the constructivist curriculum, the most prominent being the exchange of teacher and student roles and the increased use of visual aids. Second, findings indicated that teachers experience a number of constraints to the implementation of changes such as the physical limitations of the school and teacher resistance. Finally, findings demonstrated how teachers' work beyond the classroom is shaped after the curriculum change in terms of aspects such as planning and preparation and teacher development.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter includes conclusions drawn from the three general themes that have emerged from the data as an answer to the research questions, the implications of these conclusions both for practice and for further research.

5.1 Changes in the Meanings Regarding Classroom Practices

In order to look at how the practice of changing an instructional delivery method is experienced by the teachers, what is required for the purposes of this study is to examine the teachers' underlying assumptions about their practice as a teacher, not to examine their behaviours while they are in the classroom. First of all, data revealed a change in teacher and student roles in the perceptions of teachers compared to past. While discussing the new roles attached to teachers and students together with the constructivist curriculum, teachers largely mentioned higher rate of student activity and productivity, towards which they generally demonstrated positive attitudes; and more listening and guiding time for the teacher. Regarding their new roles, teachers seem to have experienced a great deal of change, which transformed their views about themselves into facilitators guiding the students as they learn by themselves and ensuring that resources are available for students to use to support their learning. In constructivist classes, teacher is responsible for providing learning environments in which students take

responsibility of their own learning through guiding, focusing, suggesting, facilitating and evaluating the process (Marlowe & Page, 1998).

The teacher as controller of students is a myth that pervades classrooms, which has led to highly controlled learning environments in many classrooms (Tobin & Dawson, 1992). The alternative myth, brought by the new curriculum is that students should have control of their own learning. This myth appears to have been echoed by the teachers at this school at least at the discursive level. As was the case with the Rosenholtz (1991) study, teachers primarily judged their work on the immediate reactions of the students and from a perspective of their interaction with them. The teachers mainly discussed this change in relation to the care and concern the teachers have for their students and their future needs for the changing context of employment markets, which depicts them as Fullan's "moral change agents" aiming to make a difference in the lives of their students (2001). This is also in line with the findings of Littley's (1997) study into educational change in a primary school, where teachers largely depicted sensitivity both to the future needs of the children and the society.

Another aspect of change worded by teachers was the increased involvement of parents in educational processes, which enhanced the significance of the influence of the socioeconomic backgrounds of families on the learning process. According to the Vygotskian perspective, knowledge is not merely constructed within the individual's mind, but rather within the interactions that learners are engaged in while sharing, constructing and reconstructing their ideas and beliefs (Jadallah, 2000). This knowledge construction is based on building on previous knowledge experiences, which makes previous intellectual constructs very significant in teaching. Windschitl (2002) argues that this is the reason why teachers need to be aware of students' life experiences and their local knowledge. Constructivism, then, binds together teachers, students, and parents as it involves phenomena distributed across multiple contexts of learning (Windschitl, 2002). Not only

teachers are aware of the increased involvement of parents in their classroom practices, they also think the significance of the family background on the learning of the students has boosted. This increased involvement was reported by teachers to be caused by both curricular factors such as performance tasks and the financial support of the parents for technological maintenance of the classrooms; and also by the pressure of central examinations. In addition to the obvious inequality the enforced financial support of families brings to educational standards both in class and outside class even among two different classrooms of the same school, this also puts the pressure of having to organize such a donation system through communicating with the parents upon the teachers, with which most of them are discontented. Aslanargun (2007) pointed out the importance of building a cooperative relationship between the school and the parents especially regarding school activities and the solution of educational problems; however, he added that collecting donations as part of this cooperation adversely influenced the integration of parents with the school.

Besides, teachers also experienced a change in the extent and nature of their communication with parents, which they expressed as the presence of the parent in the classroom. This presence, teachers felt, is one of the many factors brought by constructivism undermining their total sovereignty in the classroom and leading to anxiety. While, prior to the curriculum change, teachers used to complain about the indifference of parents about the educational processes (Karakuş, 2002), now this seems to have partly started to change to the better, though teachers are still confused about the implications of this for their practices.

Another factor undermining this sovereignty of the teachers in the classroom is student centered instruction, which was mostly worded by the teachers as “learning by doing and living”. Teachers discussed learning by doing not only as bringing together concrete material to visualize input, but also as a way of input provision by the students themselves. Teachers argued that the primary source of

knowledge in the learning is no longer the teacher alone, but also the input provided by research tasks realized by students. Despite the partial dissatisfaction with this loss of sovereignty and authority in class, teachers were seen to have developed awareness towards differences of ability, learning style, intelligence, and life experiences as a result of student-centered approach in the new curriculum at the discursive level. However, similar to the findings of Acker's (1990) study into teacher culture in two primary schools, teachers are also faced with the complexity and overload of absorbing detailed and restricted guidelines for every subject and assessing dozens of achievement targets for each child. Thus, teachers are worried about not finding the time and spontaneity for a student-centered focus.

As to classroom management, teachers' perceptions revealed a fundamental shift in their classroom management patterns from teacher based to student based, which they thought made them more permissive and tolerant. The increase in student talking time through the shift in instructional patterns and the increased physical mobility of the students in the classroom resulted in a need for teachers to revise their behavioural expectations from the students, while also having to make them adopt new habits for still keeping the classroom order under control.

One of the most satisfying aspects of the new curriculum for teachers turned out to be the increased use of technology and other visual aids despite the insufficiencies experienced. Teachers believe that technology use is beneficial to the implementation of the new curriculum because of the visual support it provides them with, and also it helps them to link content with real life, as well as helping student retention. Technology was also expressed to be a tool for teachers to increase the attention span of students as it kept them occupied for a longer time. Most teachers mentioned this rather passive and receptive occupation of the child as an advantage of technology and visuals, though this is not supposed to be the actual benefit of visuals according to constructivist learning philosophy. Using

computers in order to visualize the content certainly requires teachers to acquire new qualifications such as computer literacy and more importantly the ability and knowledge to use the computer and the projector to create new tasks and materials to challenge the students. This was what boasted the feeling of insecurity and incompetence in teaching especially for more experienced teachers.

Contextualisation of content is one of the major elements of a constructivist learning environment. To contextualize, students may observe authentic artifacts anchored in authentic situations, or access background and contextual materials of all sorts to aid interpretation and argumentation (Black & McClintock, 1995). For this, students are put in real life situations in class and asked to think or act as apprentices of real life. This makes them easier to connect material with their personal knowledge and previous experiences, and then combine the information gathered with target knowledge, the aim of which is to have students apply this reconstructed knowledge to current issues in real life. Making students apply the knowledge in their real lives was expressed as the primary goal of education according to the constructivism curriculum by most teachers. Although teachers used the concepts 'drama' and 'dramatisation' very frequently while talking about creating real life situations in class, most of the examples they gave to this concept did not really involve dramatization of a real life situation in class by the students, but rather the verbal dramatization of an anecdote or a hypothetical situation by the teacher himself, which does not engage the students in the learning process as actively as the former.

Teachers generally thought the new curriculum to be easier or simpler for students' cognitive level than the former one, which was mostly expressed as a concern rather than an advantage, since it is more difficult now for them to challenge the students. Besides, in an atmosphere which is getting more and more competitive each day due to the pressure of central exams, this has created a sense of guilt and incompetence for the part of teachers.

In constructivist learning environments, performance assessment is favored over standardized tests as evaluation of quality is more important than that of quantity, which may result in problems of reliability. To ensure reliability, authenticity of assessment, or the student's ownership of a task is necessary. The effectiveness of authentic assessments depends on the clarity of the criteria set, which should be clearly stated to the students in advance through interaction and negotiation (Windschitl, 2002). The new curriculum brought to schools a new assessment approach that is more student-centered, which they expressed as considering the individual differences between students while evaluating, rather than comparing them to each other regardless of varying interest and ability levels, and intelligence types and learner styles. This is a rather process oriented and individualized approach towards the assessment of student learning, as a result of which teachers are torn within the conflict of process oriented learning and assessment and the product oriented expectations and pressures of the national tests. Apart from this, there is also an issue of not being prepared enough to implement such an assessment approach. This whole new experience of comparing the student with himself or herself, self-evaluation of the student, assessment of in-class or outside class performance turned out to be a problematic process for the teachers because of the lack of strategy training provided to them by the ministry. Teachers both complained highly about not being trained enough to be able to assess the students individually through performance tasks, and also about the increase it brought to their workload because of the paperwork that student-centered instruction requires. This increased paperwork was expressed as a burden by the teachers, especially because of the inconfidence they feel towards the task. This finding is parallel to what Kidd (1993, as cited in Littledyke, 1997) reported following the national curriculum change in Britain, where teachers were found to criticize the change excessively because of cumbersome assessment arrangements and the unrealistic workload as an inevitable consequence of it.

It was extremely surprising to find out that teachers mostly perceived group work as a new technique for assigning homework to groups of students, rather than a classroom strategy used to save time and increase participation through the interaction of students with an aim to make them solve complex problems through discussion. As for the reasons for not implementing group work in class, teachers generally mentioned time and the physical insufficiencies of the classroom atmosphere such as lack of space and the increase in the noise level, and some assessment related issues as well. Apart from very few teachers who understand group work as a time saver, most of them see it as a time killer, which reminds us of what the teachers mentioned regarding the insufficiency of their training for the new curriculum.

All in all, the findings grouped under this theme reveal that although teachers perceived the change as a ‘threat’ at the beginning, they generally express approval of the discourses of the curriculum change and state that they have embraced the beliefs and values pertaining to it. However, as will be elaborated in the next section, when it comes to issues requiring some effort on the part of the teachers, they constantly indicate a constraint to their implementation as an excuse. This might be claimed to be stemming from “one’s experiencing lack of choice” (Burke, 2011, p. 109); in other words, the reason they constantly come up with excuses for implementing change might be the imposed nature of change.

5.2 Constraints Experienced to the Implementation of Changes

Following the discussion of what teachers noticed to be the changes brought to their classroom practices, it is time now to talk about the constraints that teachers experience to the implementation of these changes. The most commonly shared constraint is the physical insufficiencies of the classrooms, mainly those of computers and projectors, as well as lack of specialized classrooms for teachers,

class sizes, classroom space and double-shift education. Lack of computers and projectors built in classrooms turned out to be a very popular ‘excuse’ for not being able to implement the curricular changes for teachers who do not have access to these facilities, whereas for others class sizes, classroom space and double-shift education came out as constraints to their full implementation. This finding is similar to that of Çınar, Teyfur and Teyfur’s (2006) study, as they also found the physical insufficiencies of schools being the biggest obstacle for successful implementation. What is noteworthy is that teachers always define outside factors as constraints, and hardly ever go through a questioning of either their qualifications or the legitimacy of the change effort. Besides, the lack of computers and projectors built in every classroom does not seem to constitute a real constraint; as the school has a computer classroom where all students can have access to a computer, which is even better in terms of the level of participation of students. However, according to the researcher’s observation in the staff room, the room was almost never used by teachers, due to another outside constraint defined by teachers as hectic schedules of instruction.

Since most teachers valued constructivist curriculum in a highly positive way and developed an ownership of its implementation, they largely mentioned these constraints as reasons for other teachers not to implement it, excluding themselves from the non-implementing group of teachers. Thus, what came out as the actual constraint on the non-implementation of ‘other’ teachers was teacher resistance, which was discussed by teachers with reference to certain factors such as the experience of the teacher, lack of one’s inclination to self-development, conservativeness, low-level of involvement of teachers in the design and presentation processes of the curriculum, insufficient training, and strong teacher individuality. All these factors, from the perspective of the teachers, made it almost impossible for them to ‘unlearn’ the discourses of the former curriculum and work through the new knowledge required for the new one. Firstly, teachers expressed experience as an obstacle they witnessed to have influenced teachers at

the initiation process, and a phenomenon that still influences their responses to the implementation, though again in a way that is excluding themselves from those who resisted because of old age or experience. Despite this general tendency, there were also teachers who choose retirement as an alternative for themselves and for others as they feel that the work they are expected to do is not the job they had trained for and entered teaching to do. This might be because they want to avoid the stress of adaptation, or they are hopeless that a new identity formation or self actualization is likely to occur for experienced teachers in the current system. Although teachers are aware that adaptation to change involves some kind of self development of the teacher, they think an intrinsic motivation to do so is lacking in most teachers, which to them is a constraint to the implementation of change. Similar to this lack of inclination in teachers to self-development, the conservativeness of the professional teacher culture is also a factor leading to teacher resistance. Low involvement of teachers in the design and presentation stages of the new curriculum was a major factor leading to teacher resistance according to findings, which even caused some teachers to call their first year as a ‘traumatic’ experience. This trauma would have partly been avoided if teachers had been more actively involved in the design process, or at least if they had been presented with the change and its philosophy in a better way at the initiation process. Teacher involvement in the conceptual and development stages of the reforms was also worded by teachers as a must for the success of the reform in another study by Bantwini (2010), who looked at how teachers perceive the new curriculum reform.

In our case, then, the insufficiency of the training for teachers turns out to be a constraint to implementation since it led to teacher resistance. Moreover, the fact that change is based on a borrowed policy makes their job more challenging as they think they are expected to adapt it to the national culture in practice. Finally, it would not be wrong to claim that teachers are talking about resistance of other teachers, but when it comes to their own practice, they do not label themselves as

resistant. This clashes with the findings of TIMMS video surveys where almost no association was found between what teachers report doing and actually do in class (2006). This is why it is hard to explain teachers' non-implementation as 'teacher resistance' in our case, as teachers' perceptions reveal an acceptance rather than resistance.

Two aspects of the central education system turned out to have constituted a constraint on teachers' implementation of the new curriculum, which are the student assessment regulation issued by the ministry, and the pressure of central exams that students have to take at the second stage of primary education. Teachers are forced at times to choose between allocating class time to preparation for central exams and focusing more on student production, a dilemma which usually results is the sacrifice of the latter due to the pressure created on them by parents, administrators, students, and other teachers. This sacrifice is enforced to schools by higher level administrators as well, as they are highly concerned about the comparability of school performances. The extent of the pressure put on teachers pervades teacher talk in the staff room as well, as they compare student and class performances and in a way themselves with others based on the results of common exams administered to students.

Administrator related issues came out as a constraint but not because of the expected instructional leadership role of the principal. Hallinger (2003) defines instructional leadership qualities as the role of school administrators in coordinating, supervising and evaluating curriculum to enhance students' learning at school. Coordinating entails that principals have a profound knowledge of the curriculum both in terms of the paradigm underlying it and its interpretation for implementation; and being a model for the teachers at the school. These are also among the roles redefined and enumerated by the Ministry of National Education in 2005 in order to meet the requirements of the new program. Despite this redefinition issued by the Ministry, it appears that not much has been done for

principals to be able to realize these roles and responsibilities in the system. The principal's lacking curriculum expertise and guidance did not appear to be a matter of disappointment or dissatisfaction for teachers, which revealed that they did not have such an expectation from the administrators in general. The principal was seen more as a financial executor responsible for creating funds and resources than a model or mentoring teacher, or a change agent. This finding shows major contrast to what Çalışkan and Tabancalı found in their case study aiming to find out how principals perform their new roles and responsibilities defined by the new curriculum (2009), as teachers in their study expected principals to have in-depth knowledge of the curriculum and to guide teachers through its implementation.

5.3 Teachers' Work Beyond the Classroom

As for the third and the final of the three themes emerged from the data, the working lives of teachers was analysed with a special focus on what goes on outside classroom. The working lives of teachers, which does not only consist of time spent in the classroom, have been going through dramatic changes as a result of the demands of the curriculum change on working times or teacher roles (Klette, 2000). Grimmett et. al (2008) argues that the time teachers spend outside the classroom is even more significant at times of curriculum change; since teachers need to be engaged in an experience that involves rich conversation about pedagogical issues with other teachers or trainers, which is not possible in the classroom. In line with this, the focus of educational research into curriculum change has started to expand in a way to include teachers' professional lives as well as their teaching practices. Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) concur that teachers' experiences outside the classroom play a critical role in the change process.

Teachers' work beyond the classroom manifested change in aspects like planning and preparation, teacher cooperation versus teacher isolation, paper work and teacher development. To begin with, teachers' perceptions on lesson planning and preparation habits and practices of teachers were transformed significantly by the new curriculum. The standardization of the teaching preparation and planning had already started with the widespread use of computers and the Internet as teachers used these media to copy ready made annual and unit plans. Although it is difficult to say content-wise these copy plans were actually used by teachers in a meaningful way to prepare for a lesson, this practice had already triggered the realization of a teacher-proof curriculum to a certain extent. However, the standardization of the teaching practice is now legitimized by the ministry itself through guidebooks, who in fact aims to help teachers with the confusion and inconfidence that have been faced with due to curriculum change and poor teacher training opportunities. This has partially caused what is referred to as teacher intensification in the literature as teachers are deprived of the trust of the policy makers, and the ability to use their expertise in class because of a highly prescribed program and very explicitly and minutely predetermined mode of instruction. The feelings of guilt and incompetence created by this intensification is in a way compromised by teachers through certain advantages of the guidebook such as being a time saver, a handy material providing them with ideas and activities, and finally a self training tool especially for novice teachers. Standardization of teaching practice was also perceived positively by some teachers with regards to inequality of opportunities that teachers in different regions of the country experience. However, it is a question mark whether this would be a solution to the huge problem of inequality central to the education system.

What is interesting regarding the issue of standardization is that the curriculum change initiative did not actually aim at standard practices but a destandardization and increased flexibility in teaching; however, through supplementing teachers

with guidebooks which prescribe every moment and every action of teachers, the opposite was realized.

Still, it would not be wrong to say that teacher intensification and standardization have occurred only partially as teachers' preparation time and planning habits are still manifested to be largely varying and dependent on their personal choices. The reason for this contrast to what relevant literature says regarding teacher intensification in other contexts might be taken as the lack of a decent inspection and control system, and the inefficiency of the principals' curriculum/instructional leadership roles. Teachers might have believed that the innovations would be discontinued since no one was monitoring or assessing the implementation. All in all, despite efforts of the guidebook, teachers reported that they are still highly autonomous professionally especially behind classroom doors.

To what extent a collegial and cooperative culture is manifested in teachers' professional lives is the second aspect of their professional cultures under scrutiny. It seems that teachers share the opinion that teacher cooperation is a must for the new curriculum, and the major ground for this is the branch meetings; however, the real cooperation takes place on a more daily basis and informally during break times or after class; as these meetings are held only to pay lip service but not for genuine communication and cooperation. The problem is not the time or formality of the cooperation but the content of it. What teachers understand by cooperation is not a real and voluntary exchange of teaching ideas or discussion and solution of curricular issues. Instead, job-related teacher talk in the staff room is pervaded by daily assessment chores such as preparation and evaluation of common exams. Teachers admitted that cooperation increased especially at the initiation process due to the confusion regarding the new curriculum although it is quite limited at the moment. Teachers use backstage time largely for relaxation, not for cooperative work targeting the curriculum needs except for the discussion of stuff like school trips and common exams, which are bound to be cooperatively dealt

because of their nature. Thus, cooperation is not something naturally and voluntarily occurring in the school. Despite limited cooperation, a decrease in the sense of competition between teachers was manifested in teachers' discourses, which they think has been caused by the pressure of common examinations. Competition, in Nias's (1989) study was found to be a manifestation of unresolved historical rivalries among teachers stemming from internal promotion or appointments, whereas in this study we see it mainly is caused by too much ownership of the caring mother-like class teacher of her class. The system of class teaching is seen as a factor leading to mother-like intense attachments and too much dedication in primary schools all over the world, possibly caused by spending long hours with their children in isolation from other adults in an intimate atmosphere (Acker, 1999). Teachers experienced a relief from the pressures of competition among themselves because of the increase in the competition among students and classes, created by the significance of accountability and comparability trends that were brought about by formal central exams.

In general, teachers' discourses did not manifest an awareness of the importance of their relationships in the staff room on their development as a teacher. Other teachers are only visible to them at the backstage as 'friends' to chat and relax, not as mentors or professional coaches from who they can learn. It was interesting that most teachers referred to other teachers as negative role models, who were more resistant to change than themselves. However, their sense of 'the teacher that I am not' is largely based on only staff room behaviours and talk since teachers' classroom doors are tightly closed to other teachers. The fact that teachers do not manifest a collective know-how regarding their roles and professional identities was what Caria (2007) too found in her ethnographic study of the professional culture of the primary school teacher in Portugal.

Paper work is what teachers referred to as taking up most of their time after the introduction of the new curriculum. Teachers mostly call it ‘paper work’, or ‘red tape’, either of which reminds us of teaching and student related work, despite the highly teaching related content of the work they are talking about, that is of student based assessment. The main reason for teachers’ intense complaints about student based assessment related load of paper work mainly stems from their inconfidence in fulfilling this responsibility due to the so-reported low quality of training of teachers to operate the new curriculum meaningfully, which results in an increase in teacher work.

This study revealed that teachers resented the central administration’s disregard for their professional knowledge and insight. They believe teacher improvement is highly dependent on short term in service training activities that generally take place outside school; however, they are not satisfied with the quality of those activities, which lowered their professional self-esteem. What the ministry assumed was that successful implementation would be realized in time as teachers practice the changes. However, this study found out that teachers do not necessarily become more certain and confident through implementation, as they still shared a great need for training. They were aware that without training to assist them in understanding the initiative and to guide them throughout the implementation, successful implementation would never be completely realized. The lack or insufficiency of teacher development opportunities both on a compact and continuous basis constitutes a constraint on teachers to implement the curriculum, and to operate their teaching roles as professionals, and makes them ‘constrained professionals’. Teacher professionalism was also found to be constrained by outside pressures, time limitations, scarce resources and limited professional learning opportunities in the Turkish schools by Ekiz (2001).

All these constraints and teachers’ reactions to them have caused teachers to develop feelings of incompetence in their professional lives. This is reflected as a

crisis in their sense of competence and certainty, and as guilt caused by this. This guilt was also revealed in teachers' word choices while mentioning classroom practices. It was observed that teachers generally use the verbs "vermek", "aktarmak", or "anlatmak" (translated as "to give", "to transfer" and "to tell" respectively), which have a rather one-directional connotation in terms of communication and remind passivity on the part of the student. Nevertheless, some teachers corrected themselves as soon as they realized the conflict between the connotations these words carry and the content of the talk during the interviews. In other words, they were aware of the need for a change in their vocabulary, and felt guilty when they accidentally stuck to the wording of the former curriculum.

Guilt was a central emotion that emerged from the data, which stemmed partly from the pressure of common exams where achievement of classes are compared, and partly because of the feeling of failure to meet the needs of their students. In both cases, teachers were emotionally forced to give up doing what the new curriculum requires as they were overwhelmed with the conflict between burden of new roles attached to them with the constructivist curriculum and the pressure of central exams.

Overall, it would not be wrong to conclude based on the findings that the curriculum change initiative failed to produce a congruent and integrated transformation in teachers' professional cultures. Instead, teachers go along with new ideas and new ways of doing things without fully understanding or supporting the underlying principles, which makes their compliance rather superficial. In this case, it is nearly inevitable that over time the teachers will gravitate back to the old ways simply because those are closer to the basic assumptions they hold in their minds. This is even more likely to occur thinking of the low level of communication among teachers. The professional orientation of the content of inter-teacher communication is quite low in this school; and it is structured,

through branch meetings, in a way that obstructs open exchange of ideas. In other words, teachers rarely spoke about instructional matters, and there was no format or guidance on which to build strong professional exchanges between them.

5.4 Implications for Practice

The central conclusion of this study is that for a change initiative to make a difference in the success of schooling practices, the beliefs and actions of the people who actually implement it need to be taken into consideration as all the programs, policies, plans, and procedural prescriptions are filtered through their cultural lenses. Therefore, while it is vitally significant to have sound policy suggestions and good research based training programs prior to their implementation; the importance of the human element in executing these should not be overlooked. Thus, especially considering the need for such a dramatic change did not stem from teachers, the necessity to build a commitment in them to collectively change their beliefs and values becomes even more significant. The implication of this for policy makers is that teacher education and more active involvement of them in curriculum development and evaluation processes are an essential component of curriculum reform.

Time is a vital element for the recognition of the teacher factor in realizing educational change. Therefore, the change initiative should allocate adequate time for meaningful cultural change to take place inside schools, which is to be used for collective and individual professional development, for discussion and meaningful exchanges of the instructional staff, for teacher experimentation and reflection, time to receive feedback from others, for informal and formal decision making at the individual and collective level, and finally, time for program evaluation.

The role of a curriculum leader based in every school setting gains importance especially to make this time and opportunity available for teachers. Unfortunately, the administrators in our school did not have such a responsibility given to them by the authorities to help these points be realized, and thus teachers did not have such an expectation from them. Thus, what needs to be done is to transform the roles and responsibilities of the school administrators from solely being chief executive officers to being instructional/curriculum leaders at the same time.

This study demonstrated that teachers do not necessarily become more certain about what they are doing through implementation. Instead, without leaders to assist teachers in understanding an initiative and to guide them throughout the implementation, teachers' uncertainty might even boost in time. This greater uncertainty may occur from not seeing desired results, which was mentioned as guilt in our findings too, and not feeling more comfortable as they progress in the implementation. It is in the critical stage of implementation, then, that teachers will decide individually if they will continue their efforts in the restructuring endeavor. Their frustration may cause them to abandon the initiative in the case of continuing uncertainty. When the administration fails to evaluate the success of the initiative, thus the success of the teachers who struggle to implement it, the feeling of uncertainty pervades the ones who would be deemed successful by any evaluation effort. Clearly it is unreasonable to evaluate teachers' competence on the basis of knowledge and skills that they are just beginning to learn. To do so in a case such as this where little technical support is provided would be immoral. However, teachers still need to be able to hear that they are doing fine with it, at least from an in-school curriculum leader, which would be the principal in an ideal change context.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

Future research may be fruitful if other types of symbolic data are used such as metaphors, which have great potential to be studied, and has not received much interest in educational change literature yet.

For this study, the focus was the culture of teachers in a school, but for others other members of the school community could be taken as the direction such as students, administrators, parents or alumni, in a way that explores their culture, and how educational change is reflected in those cultures.

This study focused on the culture of the actual practitioners of the educational change. Since the extent of implementation is shaped through the confrontation between two cultures, the culture of teachers, the actual practice, and that of policy makers, it might be another direction for further research to investigate the culture of policy makers as well.

This study was conducted 6 years after the time change was first implemented, but it would be really interesting to see how teachers experience a change effort from the very first moment of initiation. To do this, not a curriculum change but a related innovation to be started this year at schools, the Fatih Project, could be taken as the focus of other studies, to study the actual initial reactions of teachers before uncertainty, guilt and feelings of incompetence pervade all teacher talk and culture.

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Appendix A: Interview Protocol for Teachers

Öğretmenler için Görüşme Soruları:

- 1) Okulunuzdaki hayatı bir benzetme ile ifade etmenizi istesem onu neye benzetirsiniz?
- 2) Öğretmenlerin rutin bir günü nasıl geçer?
- 3) Öğretmen olarak eğitim felsefenizi kısaca tanımlar mısınız?
 - a. Eğitimden anladığınız nedir?
 - b. Öğretmenin rolü nedir?
 - c. Okulun genel amacı ne olmalıdır?
 - d. Öğrencinin rolü nedir?
- 4) Yapılandırmacı eğitim felsefesi deyince ne anlıyorsunuz?
- 5) Sizce ilköğretimde öğretilmesi gerekli olan nedir? Temel bilgi mi? Hayat becerileri mi?
 - a) Hangisinin daha önemli ve öncelikli olması gerektiğini düşünüyorsunuz?
 - b) Yeni program hangisini hedefliyor sizce?
 - c) Bu temel farklılık sizin yaptığınız işin doğasını ya da içeriğini nasıl etkiledi?
- 6) Öğrenci merkezli eğitim ile ilgili ne hissediyorsunuz?
 - a) Öğrenci merkezli mi öğretmen merkezli eğitim mi akademik başarıya daha çok ulaştırır sizce?
 - b) Yeni program başarıyı ya da öğrenmeyi hangisi yoluyla gerçekleştirmeyi hedefliyor?
 - c) Öğrencinin öğretmene daha az bağımlı olması sizin mesleğinize olan bakışınızı nasıl etkiledi?
- 7) Bir öğretmen için hangi beceri ve yetenekler sizce daha değerlidir? Neden?
 - a. Daha önceki müfredatla karşılaştırdığımızda hangisi öğretmenlerin kendilerini bu açıdan geliştirmelerine daha fazla yardımcı oluyor?
 - b. Yeni müfredat öğretmenlerin sahip olması gereken beceri ve yetenekleri değiştirdi mi? Nasıl?
 - c. Siz bir öğretmen olarak alan bilgisinde uzmanlığın/ iyi olmanın ne kadar önemli olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
 - d. Alan bilgisi uzmanlığı ya da eksikliğinin sizin öğretmenlik tarzınıza nasıl yansıdığını düşünüyorsunuz?
 - e. Öğretmenlik alışkanlıklarınız yeni programdan nasıl etkilendi?
 - f. Programın uygulayıcısı olarak deneyimlerinizden yola çıkarak, bu program nasıl bir öğretmen istiyor sizce?
- 8) Sizce öğretim materyallerinin etkili ve iyi çalışması için gerekli olan özellikler nelerdir?



- a. Daha önceki müfredatla karşılaştığımızda hangisi öğretmenin etkili öğretim materyali geliştirmesine daha fazla yardımcı oluyordu?
- 9) Sınıfınızda izlediğiniz öğretim yöntemiyle ilgili birkaç sorum olacak:
- a. Öğrencinin hata yapmasını nasıl karşılırsınız? Hatalarla nasıl başa çıkarsınız?
- b. Derse katılımın önemi nedir sizce? Yeni program öğrencilerin derse katılımını nasıl etkiledi?
- c. Daha önceki müfredatla karşılaştığımızda, yeni müfredat izlediğiniz öğretim yöntemini genel olarak ne yönde etkiledi/değiştirdi?
- 10) Sınıfta gerçek hayatı yansıtan ortamlar yaratılması hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?
- a. Siz bu ortamları ne ölçüde yaratıyorsunuz?
- 11) Sizce etkin bir sınıf yönetimi yaklaşımının özellikleri nelerdir?
- a. Daha önceki müfredatla karşılaştığımızda, yeni müfredat sınıf yönetimi uygulamalarınızda ne gibi değişikliklere yol açtı?
- 12) Yeni müfredat öğrenci değerlendirme yaklaşımınızı nasıl etkiledi?
- a. Değerlendirmenizde temel yaklaşım nedir?
- b. Yeni müfredatla birlikte temel yaklaşımınız ne yönde değişmiştir?
- 13) Öğrencilerin işbirliği içinde birlikte tek bir amaç için çalıştığı etkinlikler hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz? Ne ölçüde uyguluyorsunuz?
- 14) Müfredat bir öğretmen olarak sizin farklı uygulamalarınıza ya da yorumlarınıza nasıl yaklaşıyor sizce?
- a. Eğitim öğretim etkinlikleri konusunda esnekliğe ne ölçüde yer var?
- b. Amaçlarla ya da uygulamayla ilgili bir sorun yaşadığımızda kiminle paylaşırsınız?
- 15) Öğretmenlerin bir araya geldiklerinde programla ilgili konuştukları konular genellikle nelerdir?
- a. Hangi problemler daha sık paylaşılıyor?
- b. Sizce müfredatın etkinliği/uygulanabilirliği hakkında öğretmenler arasında görüş farklılıkları var mı?
- c. Öğretmenler arasında hangi konularda fikir ayrılıkları gözlemlediniz?
- 16) Bu müfredat öğretmenler arasındaki iletişimi nasıl etkiledi?
- a. Yeni müfredatla birlikte öğretmenlerin birlikte çalıştığı durumlar oluyor mu? Örneğin hangi konularda diğer öğretmenlerle grup olarak çalışıyorsunuz?
- b. Öğretmenlerin ortak çalışması konusunda ne hissediyorsunuz?
- 17) Yeni programla birlikte bir öğretmen olarak okul dışındaki günlük yaşamınızda ne gibi değişiklikler oldu?



- a. Yeni müfredatın iş yükünüze nasıl bir etkisi oldu?
b. Zaman yönetiminizi nasıl etkiledi?
- 18) Kendinizi bir öğretmen olarak işinizle ilgili en özgür hissettiğiniz anlar nelerdir? İşin hangi kısmında kendi kararlarınızı uygulayabiliyorsunuz?
a. Kendi kararlarınızı uygulamanızın önüne geçen durumlara örnek verebilir misiniz?
- 19) Velilerle olan ilişkiniz yeni programla birlikte nasıl değişti?
- 20) Öğrencilerle olan ilişkiniz yeni programla birlikte nasıl değişti?
- 21) Yeni program okul müdürünüzden olan beklentilerinizi ne yönde etkiledi?
a. Okul müdürünün bu değişim sürecinde öğretmen olarak size desteği yeterli miydi?
b. Sizce yeni müfredatın yönetim anlayışıyla ne tür bir ilgisi var?
- 22) Öğrencilerin okula ve sınıfa taşıdıkları problemler neler olabilir? Bunlar sizi nasıl etkiliyor? Bunlarla başa çıkmada okulun ve öğretmenin rolü ne olmalıdır sizce ve bu konuda ne kadar etkili olduğunuzu düşünüyorsunuz?
- 23) Bu okulun geçmişinden paylaşılarak gelmiş hikâyeler duydunuz mu hiç?
a. Sizin hatırladığınız biri var mı örneğin parlak bir "iyi öğretmen" örneği?
b. Bir öğrenci ile ilgili hatırladığınız büyük bir başarı hikâyesi var mı?
- 24) Okulda önemli addedilen ve alışkanlık haline gelmiş bazı öğretmen uygulamaları var mı? Öğretmenlerce sürdürülen bir geleneğe örnek verebilir misiniz?
- 25) Ekleme istediğiniz bir görüş var mı?



Appendix B: Permission Granted by Ministry of National Education

T.C.
ANKARA VALİLİĞİ
Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

BÖLÜM : İstatistik Bölümü
SAYI : B.08.4.MEM.0.06.22.00-60399/13169
KONU : Araştırma izni
Asu ŞAHİN

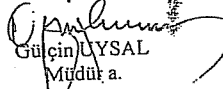
21/02/2011

ÇANKAYA İLÇE MİLLİ EĞİTİM MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

- İlgi: a) M.E.B. Bağlı Okul ve Kurumlarda Yapılacak Araştırma ve Araştırma Desteğine Yönelik İzin ve Uygulama Yönergesi.
b) MEB EARGED' in araştırma izinlerine ilişkin 11/04/2007 tarih ve 1950 sayılı yazısı.
c) 02/09/2009 tarih ve 74835 sayılı Valilik Onayı.
d) 05/11/2009 tarih ve 98610 sayılı Valilik Onayı.
e) Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesinin 15/02/2011 tarih ve 1830 sayılı yazısı.

ODTÜ Eğitim Yönetimi ve Planlaması Anabilim Dalı doktora öğrencisi Asu ŞAHİN' in "Müfredat değişikliğinin okul kültürüne yansımaları" konulu tezi ile ilgili anketin, ek listedeki ilçeniz okullarında 01.03.2011 tarihinden itibaren uygulanması Müdürlüğümüz Değerlendirme Komisyonunca uygun görülmüştür.

Mühürlü anket örnekleri (5 sayfadan oluşan) araştırmacıya ulaştırılmış olup, uygulama yapılacak sayıda araştırmacı tarafından çoğaltılarak, araştırmanın ilgi (a) yönerge çerçevesinde gönüllülük esasına göre uygulanmasını rica ederim.


Gülçin UYSAL
Müdür a.
Müdür Yardımcısı

EKLER :
1-Okul Listesi (1 Sayfa)

İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü-Beşevler
İstatistik Bölümü
Bilgi İçin:Nermin ÇELENK

Tel : 223 75 22
Fax: 223 75 22
istatistik06@meb.gov.tr

Appendix C: Example Coded Interview Transcript

Reflective Remarks	Transcript of Interview 2	Marginal Notes
	<p>Hocam şimdi önce bir iki genel soruyla sizin kişisel hikayenizi öğrenmek istiyorum. Neden ve nasıl öğretmen oldunuz?</p> <p>(Laughter)... Kendimi burda bulmadım gerçekten isteyerek oldum ben. Aile şartlarıyla ilgili biraz da. Babam kız çocuğu okumaz dedi beni okula göndermedi. İlkokuldan sonra bir yıl ara verdim. Ama o arada ben kendim yatılı okul sınavlarına çalıştım kazandım. Ben söyleyemedim babama işte (. ee...) kahve ortamında öğretmenim söylemiş, o şekilde öğretmen lisesine başladım baştan. Ortaokulu liseyi yatılı okudum. daha sonra babam işte yine kız çocuğu okumaz dedi. işte sadece iki yıllık eğitim yüksek okuluna izin verdi başka okulda okutamam seni dedi. madem orta liseyi okudun. bir hak tanıdı. ben de sadece eğitim yüksek okulunu yazdım ilk ve tercihimdi ama isteyerek gerçekten öğretmenliğe girdim. Severek de yapıyorum 25 yıldan beri.</p> <p>Anladım. Peki bu 25 yılda eminim bir sürü sistemsel değişiklikler eklemeler olmuştur, görevinizde doğasında değişiklikler olmuştur. BUnlardan hangisi en çok sizi etkiledi? En kritik değişiklik olarak hatırladığınız ne var?</p> <p>Şimdi eski programda da beğendiğim yönler vardı. Yeni programda da beğendiğim yönler var. Yani ikisini de ben olumlu yönlerini sürekli zaten aldım kendime uyarladım.</p> <p>Ama sizin için ciddi bir değişiklik oluşturdu mu bu yeni program?</p> <p>Tabi ki oluşturdu. Oluşturdu. yeni programda çok fazla değişiklik var. hele kırtasiye anlamında çok fazla değişiklik var. Ama onun dışında diğer yönleri olumlu.</p> <p>Peki bu okuldaki hayatı sizin için bi şeye benzetmenizi istesem neye benzetirsiniz?</p> <p>Benim en mutlu olduğum anlar. Yani buraya geldiğim zaman, arkadaşlarım bile diyo 6. saate gelmişiz ne çabuk geçti zaman diyorum benimle dalga geçiyolar. Sen diyolar 7. dersi de yap. Gerçekten bir keresinde de birkaç defa oldu, son dersten çıkmışız daha doğrusu ben çocukları teneffüse gönderiyorum arkadaşlarım girmiş aşağıya sıra olmuşlar. Dediler yani geröekten biraz şimdi şey olcak ama yuh sana dediler. Biz son saatleri ipe çekiyoruz diyolar geröekten mesleğimi severek yapıyorum benim en mutlu olduğum anlar okuldaki zamanlarım.</p> <p>Anladım, mutluluk yani sizin için.</p> <p>Evet benim için mutluluk.</p>	<p>teaching as the first career choice</p> <p>[most critical change in nature of teaching]</p> <p>new curriculum as a significant change</p> <p>teaching style readapted after curr. change through combining positive sides of former & new curr.</p> <p>most significant negative change by new curr: → increased paperwork.</p> <p>[metaphor for life at school]</p> <p>"happiness"</p>

<p>parent is a more critical component for class teachers</p>	<p>Evet peki sınıf dışındaki rutininizde başka neler var okulda? Onun dışında düzenli olarak şunu da yapıyoruz dediğiniz neler var?</p> <p>Öğretmen arkadaşlarla düzenli olarak görüşüyoruz. Burdaki ortam çok güzel. Onu beğeniyorum arkadaş ortamını. Yani dışarda görüştüğüm arkadaşlarım (... eee...) olmasa da burdaki ortamı çok beğeniyorum ben.</p> <p>Peki bi öğretmen olarak eğitim felsefesini kısaca nasıl tanımlarsınız? Yani eğitimden anladığınız nedir?</p> <p>Eveeeet...</p> <p>belki biraz genel olmasın diye: öğretmenin rolü nedir eğitimde?</p> <p>Öğretmenin rolü yönlendirir eğitimde. yani öğretmen sadece yönlendirme yapar velilerle öğrenciler buna ister uyarlar ister uymazlar. Sadece yönlendirir öğretmen.</p> <p>Öğrencinin rolü?</p> <p>Yani... eee...</p> <p>Yani bir eğitim öğretim faaliyetinin başarılı olması için öğrenci ne yaparsa sizin yönlendirmenizi kolaylaştırır?</p> <p>Planlı çalışması lazım ilk başta. ve düzenli çalışması lazım. Dediğim gibi öğretmen öğrenci ve veli işbirliği içinde birlikte hareket edecekler. Başka türlü başarıya ulaşamaz.</p> <p>Velinin etkisi nasıl... yani... üçünün işbirliği önemli diyosunuz biraz daha açabilir misiniz veli nasıl yardımcı olur bu sürece?</p> <p>Evet.. velinin etkisinin çok büyük olduğunu düşünüyorum ben çünkü veli çocuğuna belli bir eğitimi veriyokula gelmeden önce. veli çok önemli. bazı şeyleri vermek zorunda. Vermediği zaman öğretmen çok zorlanıyo sınıfta. yani velinin vermesi gerekeni de vermeye kalkıyo işi çok zorlaşıyo.</p> <p>Yani davranışlardan mı bahsediyosunuz?</p> <p>Tabi davranış olarak da var velinin çocuğunu okula hazırlaması lazım. ondan sonra (...) yine öğretmenle birlikte hareket etmesi lazım öğrencinin başarılı olabilmesi için.</p> <p>Peki yapılandırmacı eğitim felsefesi diyolar ya bu yeni programın felsefesine. Ondan ne anlıyorsunuz? Yapılandırmacı ile ne kastediyolar sizce?</p> <p>Yapılandırmacı derken daha çok öğrencinin aktif olması gerekiyo.</p>	<p>[a typical work day of teacher]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> socialising with other teachers <p>[educational philosophy]</p> <p>[teacher's role]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> guiding the sts (parents) <p>[student's role]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> regular studying cooperation btw. teacher, student & parent is essential. <p>[parent's role]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> significance of training before school teacher's job more difficult when this lacks. <p>[Training means:]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> preparation of child to school behavioural training <p>[constructivist education] philosophy</p>
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(eee ...) Öğrencinin yaparak yaşayarak öğrenmesi gerekiyo. O da kalıcı eğitim oluyo.

Kalıcı olması için mi bu yöntemi uyguluyoruz?

Tabii ki...

Peki ilköğretimde hangi bilgi önemlidir? mesela temel bilgi okuma yazma mı yoksa yaşam becerileri mi hangisi daha önemlidir sizce?

İkisi birlikte gitmesi gerekir bence. Yani sadece bilgi önemli değildir. Beceri de verilmesi lazım çocuğu hayata hazırlamak gerekir.

Peki bu program hangisine hazırlıyo daha çok sizce? Ya da hangisini vurguluyo?

Benim anladığım kadarıyla ikisini birlikte götürmek gerekiyo.

O zaman ne ölçüde gerçekleştirdiğinizi düşünüyorsunuz bunu? Yani sadece siz değil. ama genel olarak bu programın uygulandığı açısından ikisi birlikte gerçekten kazanabiliyo mu öğrenciler ya da ne ölçüde kazanabiliyorlar?

Şimdi (... eee...) baktığım zaman (... eee...) çok kıdemli olan arkadaşlarımın eski düzende gittiğini görüyorum. yani çok az kişi bu yeni programa tam anlamıyla uyuyo. bazı arkadaşlar daha önceden kazanmış oldukları bir takım şeyler var onları alıp götürüyorlar. çok fazla bu programa uyan yok açıkçası. yani biz öğretmenlerin de ikisini değiştirmesi gerekiyo. yapılan yeniliklerde olsun, eeee(...)

Ne oldu peki ne oldu da bu dönüşüm tam olarak gerçekleşemedi sizce eski ya da daha deneyimli öğretmenlerde?

Şimdi baştan öğretmenleri kurstan geçirmeleri gerek biliyorsunuz, o da bazı kurslar verildi ama tam anlamıyla yeterli olmadı bu kurslar. ben ona inanıyorum. Yoksa eskiden de bu arkadaşlarım çok başarılıydı. hala başarılılar ama. dediğim gibi bu sistemi bize çok iyi tanıtmadılar, tanıtamadılar. İşte 33- 35 kırk yıllık müfettişleri bize seminer vermesi için gönderdiler. Onlar da bizim gibiydi halbuki. bu sistemi tam olarak öğrenmemişlerdi. Onlar da bi bocalama devresi geçiriyoruz ama bu yıllarda yavaş yavaş oturacak gibi görünüyo bana bu sistem.

Yani o zaman yaşadıkça problemleri kendiniz deneyimleyip çözmeye mi çalışıyorsunuz?

Deneyerek çözüyoruz aynen öyle. Bize bunun seminerini

• learning by doing and living.
• longlasting/permanent? education

[what is knowledge in primary education]

• basic knowledge and skills go together

[the focus of new curriculum]

• combination of basic knowledge & life skills

[the extent this curr realizes both aims]

• depends on teaching styles
• most teachers still cling to old habits, are reluctant to change

[the reason for resistance of teachers]

• inadequacy of inserts

• poor presentation of curr. at the beginning

• poor quality of trainers → very experienced inspectors with poor knowledge of curr.

• problems solved through trial and error method.

vermediler. Birdenbire girdik işin içine. ne olduğunu anlayamadık. herkes kendi becerisine göre bazı şeyleri yapmaya çalıştı. Yavaş yavaş oturuyo tabi Ama işte herkes aynı noktada değil.

Peki Öğrenci Merkezli eğitimle ilgili ne hissediyosunuz? Önemli noktalarından birisi olduğu için yapılandırmacı eğitimin?

Şimdi ÖM olması güzel fakat buna aileler de hazır değil. Veliler bize katkı sağlayamıyorlar. Yani dediğim gibi bu programı biz açıkça velilerden dolayı da oturtamadık.

Aslında veliler için de yeni kavramlar bunlar değil mi?

Evet onlar da bilgisizdi. Onların da eğitimden geçmesi gerekiyo. Hatta bana göre öğretmenlerden önce velilerin seminerlerden geçmeleri lazımdı, hazırlamaları lazımdı. Birdenbire bizi bu sistemin içine atıverdiler.

Peki bu program öğrenci merkezli eğitimi mi hedefliyo sizce?

Tabi Öğrenci Merkezli eğitimi hedefliyo.

Sizin yaptığınız işi nasıl etkiledi? Artık sınıfta farklı bir öğretmen mi oldunuz? ÖM olması o anlama mı geliyo? Nasıl bir fark var?

Şimdi eskiden konuyu hep öğretmen anlatırdı. Çocuklar merak ettikleri şeyleri sorarlardı. Şimdi ise biz çocuklara hissettirmeye çalışıyoruz. Onlar araştırmacı oluyolar. (ee..) Konuyu onlar soru cevap şeklinde işliyorlar. İşte yapamadıkları zaman öğretmene soruyorlar. Sınıfta hep şey yapıyoruz yani çocuklar kitaplardan açıp bakıp bulmaya çalışıyorlar. Yapamadıkları yerlerde de biz yönlendiriyoruz.

Yani öğretmen eksiklikleri giderme rolünü mü yerine getiriyo sınıfta?

Aynen o şekilde oldu sınıfta. Eskiden durmadan biz konuşuyoduk öğrenci oturduğu yerden dinlerdi. çok sıkıcıydı gerçekten. İşte böyle çok becerikli olan öğretmenler zevkli işte öğrenciyi de katarak ders işliyolar. şimdi daha da güzel oldu.

Peki bunu yaparken öğrenmeyi nasıl etkiledi? yani şimdi artık daha çok akademik başarının geldiğini söyleyebilir misiniz?

Daha kalıcı olduğuna inanıyorum çünkü öğrenci kendisi ulaşıyo kendisi başarıyo o yüzden daha kalıcı olduğuna inanıyorum. Eskiden sadece dinliyodu. Dinlediklerinin biri gider biri kalır. Tenefüste zaten hepsi uçup gidiyodu. Yüzde 70 i belki de. 30 da belki bir hafta sonra çok az bişey kalıyodu.

Peki öğrenci artık öğretmene daha az bağımlı hale geldi di mi bilgi

• implementation started abruptly and unprepared.

• differing levels of implementation among teachers due to differing abilities.

• not enough parent support for cur. to be fully student centered

• lack of training for parents

• being thrown into the system suddenly

[meaning of student centered instruction]

• comparison to former curriculum.

- teacher lecturing, sts asking questions in the former, listen.

- teachers' role → make sts' feel

→ students' role → investigate & answer, find the answers themselves.

- teacher's role → fill the gaps, guide sts.

[effect of new cur. on learning & aca. performance]

• long-lasting/permanent learning due to not being passive.

<p>((Constructivism has made what I was already doing the standard procedure))</p>	<p>açısından da bilgi kaynağı sadece öğretmen olmadığı için. Bu sizi nasıl etkiledi?</p> <p>Bilgi zaten istendiği zaman her taraftan ulaşılabilir. Önemli olan beceridir, onu oturtmaktır. Burda öğretmene gene büyük rol düşüyo burda. Yani öğretmenin (...) nasıl diyim...</p> <p>Bilgini kaynağı değil ama ona ulaştıracak araç mı oldu?</p> <p>Evet evet .</p> <p>Peki başka hangi yetenekleri önemlidir? Mesela biraz önce renkli öğretmenler vardı onlar farklı işliyoları dediniz...</p> <p>Evet evet...Şey olacak mesela öğretmen öğrencileri sıkmadan ders anlatacak. Ara sıra onlara baktığı zaman sınıfa çocuklar hareketlendiği zaman ya da ilgileri dağıldı mı zaman onlara bir bilmece sorarak ya da şarkı söyleterek ya da kendi söyleyerek dersi daha ilginç hale getirebilir öğretmen isterse.</p> <p>Yani dağılan ilgiyi toplamak mı önemli bir beceri sizce?</p> <p>O çok önemli zaten.</p> <p>Başka ne olabilir? mesela konusunu iyi bilmek mi öğretmenliği iyi bilmek mi sizce daha önemlidir?</p> <p>Tabi ki iyi bilmesi önemli ama çocukların seviyesine inemezse bildiği kendisine kalır. Bildiğini aktarmak çok önemli. Onların seviyesine inip onlarla birlikte eğlenceli bir şekilde ders anlatmak en önemli beceri.</p> <p>Peki öğretmenlik alışkanlıklarınız nasıl etkilendi yeni programdan?</p> <p>Şimdi söyle söyleyim...</p> <p>Eskiden yapmadığınız ama artık yaptığınız şeyler var mı mesela sınıfta ya da sınıf dışında alışkanlık haline gelen?</p> <p>Yapmadığım(...) Dediğim gibi daha önce sürekli ders anlatmak zorundaydım. Şimdi o yük üzerimden kalktı, daha aktif hale geldi öğrenciler. Sürekli konuşmaktan yoruluyodunuz. O daha sıkıcıydı şimdi daha iyi ama, yani ben zaten karışık zaten uyguluyodum eskiden de şimdi de.</p> <p>Sizin kendi tarzınız var onu devam ettiriyosunuz.</p> <p>Evet onla devam ediyorum ben.</p> <p>Anladım. Şimdi yeni bir alışkanlık olarak kazanmadınız onu zaten</p>	<p>[effect of change in teacher's role as source of knowledge]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • increase in importance of teacher's role as skills are more critical for knowledge. <p>[teacher qualities most valued]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ability to attract st. attention • adding variety to class time to retain st. interest <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reduction of knowledge to sts' level • entertaining while teaching <p>[effect on teaching habits (of new curr.)]</p> <p>[new habits]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • less teacher talk <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teaching style combination of former & new curr, thus ⇒ not many new habits.
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<p>keyword: Visual</p>	<p>vardı sizde.</p> <p>Evet vardı.</p> <p>Peki ...</p> <p>Mesela ben ders programına uymam. Beden eğitim dersi dün yoktu çocuklara yaptırıldı. Çünkü baktım çocuklar sıkıldılar. Dünkü program baktım biraz şey oldu. Yüklü oldu (...) Hemen dedim hadi şeye siz hakettiniz siz dedim derste dinlediniz hadi bi ders beden yapalım dedim. Yani ben o ders programına uymuyorum yok salı günü müzikmiş yok efendim cuma günü serbset etkinlikmiş, çocukların o anki durumuna göre hareket ediyorum. eskiden de öyle yapardım şimdi de öyle yapıyorum çocukları sıkmadan. İstedikleri zaman.</p> <p>Buna imkan var o halde bu programda da. Bu konuda özgürlüğünüzü kısıtlayan herhangi bi şey yok?</p> <p>Yok hayır. [Niye bedene çıkartın diyen yok zaten. Çocukların ihtiyacına göre hareket ediyorum. Yani ayrıyeten bir müzik dersi yapmam mesela ben. hadi bakalım çocuklar çıkartın müzik defterlerinizi bu ders müzik yapıcaz demem. Ne zaman sıkılırlar o zaman müzik yapıyorum.] → quote.</p> <p>Peki bu programla birlikte kullanmaya başladığınız kitapları ya da diğer materyalleri düşünürsek, bunların ne kadar etkili olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz? Yapmayı amaçladığı şeyi yapıyo mu?</p> <p>Yapıyo ama yine kişi üzerinde kitap üzerinde bazı şeyler kalıyo. Örneğin ben sınıfıma televizyon aldırmasaydım, bilgisayar aldırmasaydım yani eski bir programın bi anlamı kalmıycağı.</p> <p>Görsellik çok önemli bu eğitimde. Yeni sistemde. O yüzden görsele ağırlık verilmeli diğer sınıflarda. Daha kalıcı olur çünkü. Çünkü sınıfta çeşit çeşit zeka türünden çocuklarımız var. Aynı zeka türünden çocukları bir araya getirmiyorlar O yüzden o zeka türlerine uygun yöntem ve tekniklerin kullanılması gerekiyo. İşte bi projeksiyon makinasının televizyonun kullanılması lazım. Değişik araç ve gereçlerin sınıfta mutlaka olması lazım bu programda.</p> <p>Peki bunların eksikliği durumunda bi seçenek bırakıyo mu? Yani mesela televizyonunuz yoksa bunu şekilde yapabilirsiniz gibi öneriler getirio mu?</p> <p>Yok programda yok öyle şeyler. Öğretmene bırakıyo veliye de bırakıyo. veli olumlu bakarsa bu şeylere. Şimdi devlet almıyo o şeyleri karşılamıyo biliyorsunuz. Velisine söz geçiren ya da velisinin eğitime ne kadar değer verdiği ile ilgili bazı şeyler. (ee...) ben sınıfıma herşeyi aldırardım diğer sınıf aldıramadı istemedi velileri. Öğretmen arkadaşımız o da isterdi öyle bi sınıfta ders</p>	<p>flexibility in adapting the timetable according to st. needs.</p> <p>[instructional materials] (how efficient?)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • dependent on teaching abilities/styles • dependent on availability of technology • technology critical due to sts' multiple intelligences <p>Availability of alternative options in case of lack of technology</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no alternatives offered • successful implementation depends on parents' financial support.
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<p>anlatsın.</p> <p>Dolayısıyla otomatikman uygulamada da farklılıklar oluşuyo.</p> <p>Tabi ki oluşuyo.</p> <p>Ama bunların telafisi için yöntemler önerilmiyo diyosunuz.</p> <p>Yok hı hı yok.</p> <p>Peki siz gene de sıkıştığınız durumlar oluyo mu bi şeyi nasıl anlatacağınızı bi problemi nasıl çözeceğinizi bilemediğiniz durumlarda napiyosunuz?</p> <p>Materyal eksikliği yaşıyoruz. Okullarımızda hiçbirşey yok dediğim gibi herşeyi biz velilere aldırıyoruz. o yüzden olmadığı zaman da onları yaptırıyoruz çocuklara eksik kalıyo o etkinlikler.</p> <p>Peki gene sınıfla ilgili bi şeyler sorucam: Öğrencilerin yaptığı hatalarla nasıl başa çıkarsınız? Hatayı nasıl karşılırsınız?</p> <p>Hoşgörüyü karşılamaya çalışıyorum benim sınıfımda da var problemli öğrenciler. Öğretmenin elinden bişey gelmiyo hoş karşılanmanın dışında. Rehberlikle görüştürmeye ailesine ulaşmaya çalışınız.</p> <p>Peki biraz daha bilgi hatası davranış değil de olduğunda?</p> <p>Yani bu ailenin verdiği mi diyosunuz? Yani benim sınıfımda var böyle bir iki tane aileler 3. sınıf müfredatını veriyolar çocuğa. çok hevesliler çok istekliler. çocuk sıkılıyo ve bana sıkıldığını ifade ediyolar benim yapabileceğim bişey yok ki o konuda. Anne baba okumamış, öyle hırslılar ki çocuğu kurban ediyolar ama ne kadar söylersen söyle dinletemiyosun bazı şeyleri mecburen elin kolun bağlı olmuş oluyo.</p> <p>O bayağı farklı bir durummuş. Gerçek hayatı yansıtan ortamlar yaratılması ile ilgili ne düşünüyorsunuz sınıfta? ne ölçüde yaratabiliyorsunuz? gerçek hayattan örnekler olabilir ya da dramatisasyon olabilir...</p> <p>Bişey olduğu zaman ben hep öğrencilere kendi hayatımdan örnekler veririm. Çocuklar ben şöyle okudum. Okumamı hemen örnek veririm işte şu şartlarda büyüdüm benim şunum yoktu benim buyum yoktu diye örnekler veriyorum sınıfta. Doğru mu anladım soruyu?</p> <p>Evet evet.</p> <p>Çünkü onlar öğretmen kendi hayatından bişey ya da öğrencilik hayatından bişey anlattığı zaman etkileniyolar öğretmenin</p>	<p>. variations in implementation among classes of same school due to variation of parent support</p> <p>[ways to make up for] [lack of technology]</p> <p>. teachers without options other than skipping certain tasks.</p> <p>[approach towards] [student errors]</p> <p>. tolerance due to low ability of sts</p> <p>. teacher seeking support from counselling teacher and parent.</p> <p>in some cases, too much parent ambition is the cause.</p> <p>[real-life situations] [in class]</p> <p>. examples from teachers' own life</p>
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başından şu geçmiş diye ailelerine de anlatıyorlar. Hocam diyo aileler sen söyle seninki daha etkili oluyo. Siz söyleyin bizi dinlemiyö falan o tür şeyler

Halbuki anne baba da anlatıyodur ama...

İşte öğretmenim verdiği örnekler daha etkili oluyo.

Sınıf yönetimi ile ilgili biraz konuşmak istiyorum. Sizce etkin bir sınıf yönetimi yaklaşımı nasıl olmalıdır? Yani disiplin problemleriyle baş etmek biraz önce sizin söylediğiniz şey..şimdi asıl ona gelebiliriz. Yani...

Şimdi çocuk ne kadar öğretmenini severse o kadar da koyduğumuz kurallara da uyuyo. İlk önce öğrenciye kendinizi sevdirmeniz gerekiyo. Bi de daha çok duygularına hitap etmeye çalışıyorum. İşte diyorum ki bak şunu yaptınız ben çok üzuldüm.

Parçalanıyorlar mı biraz?

Birbirlerine şey yapıyorlar biraz öğretmenimizi üzdünüz diye sen yaptın bu yaptı. Diyorum tamam artık onu kapatın bi daha yapmayın diyorum. Çocuklar öğretmeni üzmemek için kendilerine engel olmaya çalışıyorlar. ama oluyo tabi gene de oluyo.

Peki yeni programla birlikte farklı disiplin problemleri ortaya çıktı mı? Sizin farklı yöntemler uygulamanızı gerektirdiğini hissettirdiğiniz oldu mu hiç?

Şimdi eski programda sınıflardan tıp hiç ses çıkmazdı, ama şimdi gürültü oluyo bi anda baya bi. Grup çalışması yapıldığı zaman, ister istemez dışardan bakan birisi öğretmeni sınıfta disiplini sağlayamamış gibi görebilir ama şöyle bir baktığın zaman zaten susuyo dinliyo seni sınıf.

Ama aslında grup çalışması olduğunda farklı bir sınıf var ama fazla bir yeni problem yok mu diyosunuz o halde?

Hayır yok.

Anladım tamam. Ee bu grup çalışması değişken aslında bundan da bahsedebiliriz. Ne düşünüyorsunuz öğrencilerin bir amaç için beraber bişeyler yaparak öğrenmesi etkili oldu mu sizce?

Güzel bi çalışma bence. Eskiden de biz buna küme çalışması diyoduk aslında vardı. bazı şeylerin sadece adı değişti gibi geliyo bana. Çocuklar birlikte arkadaşlığı öğreniyorlar paylaşmayı öğreniyorlar dayanışmayı öğreniyorlar. Güzel bi çalışma. Sık sık sınıfta yaptırmaya çalışıyoruz. Ama işte şehir ortamında

• anecdotes from teacher more influential than those of parents' lives

[effect of new cur. on classroom man. approach]

• love of teacher
• addressing sts' feelings

• new cur.:
• increased noise level esp. in group work

[group work]

• nothing new, just a new name.

• good for sts. to learn friendship & sharing

• only in class

birbirlerinin evlerine gitme durumu olmuyo. Sadece sınıfta yaptırabiliyorsunuz. Dışarıda bi ödev verdiğiniz zaman çocuklar bir araya gelemiyö. Birisi bi yerde birisi bi yerde oturuyo. Çok arada mesafeler oluyo sadece sınıf ortamında güzel bir çalışma oluyo. Çocuklar evde sadece bireysel hazırlığını yapıyolar sınıfta işte bağıra çağıra bu şekilde gazete çıkarttık mesela 3 tane. Sınıfı üç gruba ayırdım ben, bayağı bi gürültülü bi ortam oldu sınıfta ama en sonda çok güzel bi çalışma çıktı ortaya ve panomuza astık.

Müfredat sizin farklı yorumlamalarınıza farklı uygulamalarınıza izin veriyö diye biraz önce söyledik. Peki kitaplarla ilgili ya da diğer materyallerin içeriği ile ilgili esnekliğe ne ölçüde yer var bu programda? Yani uygulayan uyguluyo uygulamayan uygulamıyo dediniz ya biraz önce.. Yani o esneklikte bi sınırlama yok mu?

Şimdi ilk önce program şunu söylüyö: ilk önce diyo.. ders kitabı olarak işte MB nin verdiği ders kitabı ve çalışma kitabı olucak diyo. Kaynak kitaba gelince ben şimdiye kadar hiç kaynak kitap kullanmadım 25 yıllık meslek hayatımda. Hiç önermedim. Siz dedim istiyosanız alıp yaptırabilirsiniz eğer çocuğunuzun seviyesine göreyse. Yani boş kalıyosa evde ben onu bilmiyorum çünkü. Siz diyorum yaptırabilirsiniz ya da herhangi bir kursa şuraya buraya istiyosanız gönderebilirsiniz ama ben sınıfta ödev olarak da kaynak kitaptan vermedim bu güne kadar. Eski programda da mesela planlarımı kendim yapardım asla dergilerin şunların bunların verdiği planları kullanmazdım. Çünkü sınıfın bir seviyesi var. O seviyeye göre plan program hazırlamak zorundasınız. O kaynak kitapları var şimdi de var zümreden kullanan arkadaşlarım. Ama ben her akşam kendi ödevimi evde hazırlıyorum o gün ne vereceksem çocuklarıma. Çok zamanımı alıyo ama yapıyorum. Ben o kaynak kitapların yararına da inanmıyorum. Gerçekten çocuğa müfredatın dışında başka şeyler de veriyö. Bu sefer veli diyo ki kitaptan şurayı yapamadı burayı yapamadı başka sorunlarla karşılaşıyo veren arkadaşlar. Sağolsun birinci sınıfı okuturken de ben ödevlerimi kendim hazırlıyodum. alıyo mu kayıt?

Tabi alıyo ama siz söyleyebilirsiniz ben dinliycem onu başka kimse dinlemiycek.

Kaymakam velim vardı dedi ki hocam dedi madem öyle bu yıl da siz hazırlayın. Dedim valla yazıcım bozuldu ne zaman alırsam o zaman hazırlamaya başlaycam. Dedi ki ben alıcam size yazıcı, yeter ki siz ödev hazırlamaya devam edin dedi mesela. velilerim de bana karşı bu şekilde oluyo tabi ödev hazırladığım için. Sınıfta televizyon var, çok zevkli ders işliyoruz. Müfettiş geldiği zaman baktı, sınıf ortamına. Hocam ikinci sınıf çocuğu hiç birininin çışı

• individual preparation at home, production in class due to distant homes of sts.

[flexibility in exploiting materials/curriculum]

• no replacement in SB.
• some teachers use outside resource books
• outside material should be based on class needs, so self-prepared by the teacher on a daily basis.

[anecdote on significance of parent support]

• parents buying a new printer when teacher stopped preparing task sheets due to printing problem.

<p>gelmedi gelmez mi dikkat ettim üç ders boyunca kimse tuvalete gitmedi dedi.</p> <p><i>Sıkılmadı çünkü.</i></p> <p>Evet sıkılmadılar bir de yani biz çarpma yapıyoduk. Bakın ben dedim ya bi şekilde bi şeyleri uyarlıyorum diye. Aslında çarpma bu üniteden sonra var ama ben sene başından beri verdim onu çocuklar öünkü onu zevkle çözüyorlar problemleri. Sıralamayı değiştiriyorum çünkü programda sene başında toplama var sonra çıkarma var sene sonunda çarpma bölmeyi almış. aslında bana göre dört işlem birbirleriyle bağlantılıdır değil mi?</p> <p><i>Sizin söylemediğiniz ne kaldı ben ona bakıim çünkü bazılarının zaten üstünden geçmiş oluyoruz. Öğretmenlerden biraz bahsedelim. Öğretmenler biraraya geldiklerinde programla ilgili ne tarz problemler konuşuyorlar?</i></p> <p>Daha çok kırtasiyenin çok olduğundan şikayetçi arkadaşlar. Yani gereksiz yere gerçekten kağıt harcadığımızı düşünüyorlar ben de buna katılıyorum.</p> <p><i>Kırtasiye derken sınıfta kullandığımız materyal anlamında mı yoksa idari işlerle ilgili mi?</i></p> <p>Hayır bu şeyle ilgili programla da ilgili, ölçme değerlendirme ile ilgili çok fazla. Her öğrenci için bi kağıt hazırlamanız gerekiyo. O da vaktinizi alıyo gereksiz gibi geliyo bana. Ölçme değerlendirmede çok fazla kağıt var.</p> <p><i>Peki bu her öğrenciye ayrı ayrı kriter hazırladığınız için mi böyle oluyo?</i></p> <p>Tabi ki.</p> <p><i>Peki bunun olumlu bi yanı da var mı?</i></p> <p>Ölçme değerlendirme açısından var tabi ki ama bizim diyorum ya öğretmenin çok fazla zamanını alıyo. O yüzden işte öğretmenin de çok fazla zaman ayırması lazım. Zamanı da yok öğretmenin. O yüzden, hem zaman hem de uğraştırma açısından. Bi de biz bunun eğitimini de almadık. Tam ne yapcağımızı da bilmiyoruz.</p> <p><i>Kafa karışıklığı mı var bu konuda hala?</i></p> <p>Biraz var. Hı hı.</p> <p><i>Yani kazanım yazıyosunuz gördüğüm kadarıyla. Ya da performansına göre değerlendiriyosunuz. Bu kağıtlarda tam olarak nasıl değerlendiriyosunuz?</i></p>	<p>retained st. interest dependent on TV and projector in class, which is "parent support".</p> <p>flexibility in adapting the timetable acc. to student needs</p> <p>curricular issues shared by teachers in common</p> <p>paper work due to new student assessment approach</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Student based assessment too time-consuming</p> <p>no training of teachers about new assessment approach → confusion as a result.</p>
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<p>less competition among class teachers due to: - curriculum? - no longer central exam in grade 5?</p>	<p>Ee çocuğun işte performansına göre değerlendirme yapıyoruz ama çok ayrıntılı bir şekilde hazırlanmış işte sizi şeye indirebilirsiniz diyolar ama yine onu yapmak için hem zaman hem de (eee ...) şey... gerekiyo onun için. girdi lazım ölçme değerlendirme ile ilgili.</p> <p><i>Peki fikir ayrılıkları gözlemlediniz mi zümrenizde ya da genel olarak öğretmenler arasında müfredatın uygulanabilirliği ile ilgili?</i></p> <p>Tabi. baştan şey yaptı bazı arkadaşlarımız ben bunu kullanmam dediler. Sonra içine girdikçe olumlu yönlerinin çok olduğunu gördüler. Dediğim gibi yavaş yavaş...</p> <p><i>İlk başta bi direnç oluyo galiba di mi her yeni şeye olduğu gibi?</i></p> <p>Bilmediğimiz için bazı şeyleri.</p> <p><i>Şimdi ne ölçüde alışıldı sizce bi değişim gerçekleşti mi?</i></p> <p>İsterseniz yüzde 80 onu biz çözdük diyelim. Onu biz uyguluyoruz o ölçüde ama işte çözemediğimiz sorunlar var ölçme değerlendirme ile ilgili.</p> <p><i>Öğretmenler arasındaki iletişimi çalışma biçimini değiştirdi mi? Daha çok birlikte çalışmanızı gerektiren durumlar oldu mu?</i></p> <p>Oldu tabi. Paylaşmadan bişey yapamıyosunuz. Zümre çalışmalarına ağırlık verdik. Dediğim gibi daha önce herkes kendi yeteneği ölçüsünde hareket ediyodu bu da başarıyı bence engelliyodu. Şimdiki çalışmalar zümre çalışmaları olduğu için herkes birbirinin yeteneğinden tecrübesinden yararlandığı için daha başarılı oluyo çocuklar. Benim sınıfım duygusu yavaş yavaş kalkıyo.</p> <p><i>Onu soracaktım ben de, bu ayrım biraz azaldı mı acaba? Bunu olumlu bişey olarak mı görüyorsunuz?</i></p> <p>Azaldı bi miktar. Bence olumlu çünkü sizin çok güzel bildiğiniz bişey var ama ben onu bilmiyorum ve sınıfıma uygulayamıyorum benim sınıfımdakiler o zaman geri kalıyo. Yani biz niçin varız. Öğrencilerimiz için varız değil mi?</p> <p><i>Peki sınıfta heralde kendinizi özgür hissediyosunuz,</i></p> <p>Tabi</p> <p><i>Hiç bunun önüne geçen durumlar oldu mu?</i></p> <p>Şimdi tabiki öğretmenleri denetleyen insanlar var biliyorsunuz. Müdürler ve müfettişler. Benim bugüne kadar öyle bir eleştirilme durumum olmadı ama arkadaşlarımız yaşıyorlar etkileniyorlar ister</p>	<p>• teachers' knowledge and skills not sufficient for st. assessment</p> <p>[reactions from teachers to the change]</p> <p>• resistance to use at the beginning. • slow adoption due to lack of knowledge.</p> <p>• most problematic part of full implementation: student assessment.</p> <p>[change in relations among teachers]</p> <p>• more sharing in branches • undermined competition among teachers due to too much ownership of class.</p> <p>[most free moment/place as a teacher]</p> <p>• class</p> <p>[constraints on freedom of teacher]</p> <p>• inspection → constructive criticism</p>
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<p>"support" is automatically perceived as financial by the teacher.</p>	<p>istemez sınıfa girdikleri zaman çocuklara ters davranabiliyorlar yani. Çok önemli. Müdürün de şey yapması lazım tabi daha arkadaşları onore edici çalışmalar yapması lazım adil davranması lazım değil mi öğretmenler arasında ki sınıf ta bundan olumlu olarak etkilensin.</p> <p>Yani sınıfta bir denetleyici olduğu zaman mı kendinizi daha az özgür hissediyosunuz sadece? onun dışında bir özgürlüğünüze aykırı bir durum yok.</p> <p>Tabi tabi yok.</p> <p>Biraz bahsettiniz ama velilerle olan ilişkiniz nasıl değişti nasıl etkilendi bu programdan?</p> <p>Yani eskiden de velilerle ilişkim çok iyiydi, şimdi de öyle değişen bi şey yok.</p> <p>Öğrenciler peki, öğrencilerle olan ilişki açısından bi değişiklik var mı?</p> <p>Ya öğrencilerle daha fazla iletişim içindeyiz içindeyiz şu an. Eskiden değildik o kadar. Şimdi daha fazla iletişim içindeyiz. şimdi daha iyi oldu.</p> <p>Yönetimden beklentilerinizi okul müdüründen beklentilerinizi değiştirmiş olabilir mi bu program? Yani televizyon projektör gibi şeylerden bahsettiniz mesela. Bu konularda yönetimden ne tür bir destek aldınız?</p> <p>Destek hiç alamadım çünkü okulun bütçesi sınırlı o da doğalgaz su gibi şeylere gidiyo. Onlar bizden destek istiyolar tam tersine.</p> <p>Programla ilgili o açılardan bi destekleri olmadı yani?</p> <p>Olmadı. Çünkü dediğim gibi herşeyi veliler alıyo.</p> <p>Bu bi eksiklik mi sizce?</p> <p>Bence bi eksiklik çünkü devletin karşılaması gerekiyo veliler değil de.</p> <p>Benim sorularım aşağı yukarı bu kadar. Sizin eklemek istedikleriniz varsa duymak isterim, yoksa...</p> <p>İşte dediğim gibi yani işin sürmesi açısından bu kaynakları devletin karşılaması lazım, benim velilerim eğitime önem veriyolar buna hazırlar ama İlhami Beyin arkadaşımızın sınıfında yok üzülüyorum. Zaman zaman onları sınıfımıza davet ediyoruz iki</p>	<p>principal → unfair treatment to teachers → demotivating teachers</p> <p>[relationship with parents]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> no change with new curriculum <p>[relationship with sts]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> closer communication <p>[expectations of support from admin.]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> no support due to budget issues. replaced by parents' financial support. <p>↓</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> lack of budget from state causes inequality b/w classes.
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	<p>sınıf sıkıştıkça ders yapıyoruz yani ama başka yapabileceğimiz bir şey yok.</p> <p><i>Çok teşekkür ederim.</i></p> <p>Bir şey değil.</p>	
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Appendix D: Interview Protocol for Administrators

Okul Yöneticileri için Görüşme Soruları:

- 1) Okulunuzdaki hayatı bir benzetme ile ifade etmeniz gerekse onu neye benzetirdiniz?
- 2) Yöneticinin rutin bir günü nasıl geçer?
- 3) Bir okul yöneticisi olarak eğitim felsefenizi kısaca tanımlar mısınız?
 - a. Eğitimden anladığımız nedir?
 - b. Öğretmenin rolü nedir?
 - c. Okulun genel amacı ne olmalıdır?
 - d. Yöneticinin rolü nedir?
 - e. Öğrencinin rolü nedir?
- 4) Yapılandırmacı eğitim felsefesi deyince ne anlıyorsunuz?
- 5) Sizce ilköğretimde öğretilmesi gerekli olan nedir? Temel bilgi mi? Hayat becerileri mi?
 - a) Hangisinin daha önemli ve öncelikli olması gerektiğini düşünüyorsunuz?
 - b) Yeni program hangisini hedefliyor sizce?
 - c) Bu temel farklılık sizin yaptığımız işin doğasını ya da içeriğini nasıl etkiledi?
- 6) Öğrenci merkezli eğitim ile ilgili ne hissediyorsunuz?
 - a) Öğrenci merkezli mi öğretmen merkezli eğitim mi akademik başarıya daha çok ulaştırır sizce?
 - b) Yeni program başarıyı ya da öğrenmeyi hangisi yoluyla gerçekleştirmeyi hedefliyor?
- 7) Bir öğretmenin hangi beceri ve yetenekleri sizce daha değerlidir? Neden?
 - a. Daha önceki müfredatla karşılaştığımızda hangisi öğretmenlerin kendilerini bu açıdan geliştirmelerine daha fazla yardımcı oluyor?
 - b. Yeni müfredat öğretmenlerin sahip olması gereken beceri ve yetenekleri değiştirdi mi? Nasıl?
 - c. Siz bir öğretmen için alan bilgisinde uzmanlığın/ iyi olmanın ne kadar önemli olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
 - d. Bu program nasıl bir öğretmen istiyor sizce?
- 8) Müfredat öğretmenlerin farklı uygulamalarına ya da yorumlarına nasıl yaklaşıyor sizce?
 - a. Eğitim öğretim etkinlikleri konusunda esnekliğe ne ölçüde yer var?



- b. Bir öğretmenin farklı bir uygulamasıyla karşılaştığınızda nasıl tepki verirsiniz?
- 9) Öğretmenler sizinle hangi konularda konuşurlar?
a. Hangi problemler daha sık paylaşılıyor?
b. Sizce müfredatın etkinliği/uygulanabilirliği hakkında öğretmenler arasında görüş farklılıkları var mı?
c. Öğretmenler arasında hangi konularda fikir ayrılıkları gözlemlediniz?
- 10) Bu müfredat öğretmenler arasındaki iletişimi nasıl etkiledi?
a. Yeni müfredatla birlikte öğretmenlerin birlikte çalıştığı durumlar oluyor mu? Örneğin hangi konularda öğretmenler grup olarak çalışıyor?
b. Öğretmenlerin ortak çalışması konusunda ne hissediyorsunuz?
- 11) Yeni program sizce öğretmenlerin okul yöneticisinden beklentilerini ne yönde etkiledi?
a. Öğretmenlere bu değişim sürecinde yönetici olarak ne tür bir destek sağlamanız bekleniyordu?
b. Yöneticinin bu süreçte rolü nedir?
c. Sizce yeni müfredatın yönetim anlayışıyla ne tür bir ilgisi var?
- 12) Sizin yönetici olarak merkezden beklentilerinizi ne yönde etkiledi?
a. En çok ne tür ve hangi konuda desteğe ihtiyaç duydunuz?
- 13) Bu okulun geçmişinden paylaşılarak gelmiş hikayeler duydunuz mu hiç?
b. Sizin hatırladığınız biri var mı örneğin parlak bir "iyi öğretmen" örneği?
c. Bir öğrenci ile ilgili hatırladığımız büyük bir başarı hikayesi var mı?
d. Yöneticilik alanında üstün hizmetleri olan biri var mı okulun tarihinde?
- 14) Okulda önemli addedilen ve alışkanlık haline gelmiş bazı yönetim uygulamaları var mı? Tüm kadronun birlikte sürdürdüğü bir geleneğe örnek verebilir misiniz?
- 15) Sizin bu konuyla ilgili eklemek istedikleriniz varsa duymak isterim.



Appendix E: Consent Form

GÖRÜŞME İZİN BELGESİ

Merhaba,

Ben Asu Altunoğlu. Türkiye ve Orta Doğu Amme İdaresi'nde öğretim elemanıyım. Aynı zamanda Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü doktora öğrencisiyim. Şu anda ulusal müfredat değişikliğinin okul ve öğretmen kültürüne nasıl yansıdığı üzerine bir araştırma yapmaktayım.

Bu görüşme, zorunlu katılım gerektiren bir süreç değildir. Bu görüşmeye katılmak bulunduğunuz konum açısından ne riskli, ne de yararlıdır. Eğer bu görüşme için gönüllü olursanız kimliğiniz ve bize sağladığımız analiz edilmemiş bilgi okulunuz, öğrencileriniz ya da diğer hiçbir kuruluş ya da kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır. Gönüllü olarak bu görüşmeye katıldığınız sırada görüşme mekanında üçüncü bir kişi olmayacaktır. Bu görüşme, katılanlara zarar getirebilecek herhangi bir psikolojik ya da fiziksel bir iş içermemektedir. Görüşmenin, katılanların kendi bakış açıları ve meslekleri hakkındaki düşünceleri ile ilgili bir eğitim araştırmasına katılmış olmaları dışında onlara sağladığı bir yarar yoktur. Fakat sonuçlarının çalışmakta oldukları alanda ileride karar verilecek olan ve çalışmaya katılan ve katılmayan bütün öğretmenleri içine alan uygulamalara yararlı bir etki yapması beklenmektedir.

Çalışma kapsamında yer alan görüşme 15 ana sorudan oluşmakta ve yaklaşık olarak bir buçuk saatlik bir zaman alacağı varsayılmaktadır. Görüşmeler bire-bir ortamda gerçekleşecek şekilde planlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın herhangi bir anında sorularınızı sorabilirsiniz. Eğer gönüllü olmaya karar vermeden önce öğrenmek istedikleriniz varsa lütfen sormaktan çekinmeyin. Bu çalışmada yer almamak, yer aldığınız halde herhangi bir anda yarım bırakmak ve cevaplamaktan rahatsız olduğunuz soruları atlamak hakkına her zaman sahipsiniz. Eğer bu görüşmeye katılmak için gönüllü olursanız, kişisel bilgileriniz mümkün olan en gizli şekilde korunacaktır. İsminiz kayıtlarımızda tutulacak, ancak herhangi bir başka kişiye ya da kuruluşa verilmeyecektir. Sadece araştırma ekibinin bu bilgilere erişebilme hakkı vardır. Sağladığımız bilgiler diğer kişilerin ulaşamayacağı güvenli bir yerde saklanacaktır.

Bu form biri sizin kendinize ait kayıtlarınız için, diğeri de araştırma için olmak üzere iki adet hazırlanmıştır. Adınız ve imzanız, size gönüllü olmak isteyip istemediğinizi sorduğumuz için, yalnızca bu iki kopya formun üzerinde yer alacaktır. Bir kopyası ileride sizinle bağlantı kurabilmemiz için araştırma ekibine ait olup, diğer kopyası ise size aittir ve o kopyayı sizden istemeyeceğim. Araştırmaya sağladığımız bilgiler beş yıl saklanacak ve beş yıl sonunda yokedileceklerdir.

Eğer ileride bu çalışma hakkında daha çok soru sormak isterseniz lütfen aşağıdaki iletişim yollarından birini kullanarak araştırma yürütücüsüne ulaşınız (tercihinize bağlı olarak isim belirtmeyebilirsiniz):

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Eğer bu çalışma için gönüllü olmak istiyorsanız lütfen aşağıda verilen yere adınızı, soyadınızı ve tarihi yazıp imzalayınız.

Katkılarınız ve ayırdığınız zaman için çok teşekkür ederim.

Ad, Soyad: _____

İmza : _____

Tarih : _____

Tercih ettiğiniz iletişim yolu bilgisi:

Tlf: _____ (Ofis) _____ (Cep)

Elektronik posta: _____

Appendix F

TURKISH SUMMARY

Bu araştırma, program değişikliğinin, bir ilköğretim okulunun örgütsel kültürü üzerindeki göstergelerini, öğretmen algıları çerçevesinde incelemeyi amaçlamıştır.

Türkiye'de son on yılda ilk ve orta öğretimde bir program değişikliğine gidilmesine karar verilmiş ve ilk olarak ilköğretim programının içeriği oluşturmaya bir bakış açısıyla yeniden şekillendirilmiştir. Eğitimde program değişikliği, doğrudan öğretmen rollerini ve yükümlülüklerini değiştirmeyi amaçladığından, eğitimin tüm bileşenleri arasında en çok öğretmenleri etkilemiştir. Bunun gibi temel felsefeyi yıkıp yeniden inşa etmeyi gerektiren bir eğitim reformu girişiminin, öğretmenlerin önemli bir ögesi olduğu örgütsel kültüre büyük ölçüde yansımaması düşünülemez. Öğretmenlerin önce yeni yaklaşımın nasıl bir birey yetiştirmeyi amaçladığını ve bunu nasıl yapmaya çalıştığını anlamaları, daha sonra da pratiklerini bu yeni yaklaşımla uyumlaştırmaları beklenir. Onların yeni bir programa nasıl baktıkları, mesleki yaşamlarının değişen doğası ve yapısına ne gibi anlamlar yükledikleri, bir okul örgütünde birlikte çalışan öğretmenleri bir kültür olarak gören bir yaklaşımla incelenebilir.

Kültürün pek çok tanımından bu çalışmaya en uygun düşeni Geertz (1973) tarafından şöyle yapılmıştır: kültür insanların deneyimlerini yorumlamak ve eylemlerine rehberlik etmek için yarattıkları anlamlardır. Burada anlam bir şeyin bir kimse tarafından öznel bir biçimde nasıl yorumlandığına işaret eder. Kültür dediğimizde ise, bu bireysel anlamlardan çok bir grup içindeki üyelerin paylaştıkları ortak bir anlama biçiminden bahsedebiliriz. Bu anlama biçimi ortak

değerler, roller, inançlar, semboller ve varsayımlar gibi boyutlar altında tartışılmalıdır. Kültür insan eylemlerini görünür ve ayırt edici kılan bir güç ise (Inglis, 2004), bu boyutlar da hem eylemi gerçekleştiren insanın hem de eylemi izleyenini onu anlamlandırmasına yarayan işaretlerdir.

Kültürün örgütsel analizde kullanılması da bu ortak boyutların bir iş örgütünü tanımlarken ya da iyileştirmeye çalışırken yararlı olabileceğinin anlaşılmasıyla başlamıştır (Ouchi, 1981). Toplumsal kültür gibi örgütsel kültürün de örgütü bir arada tutan normatif bir yapı olduğu öne sürülmüş, bu yapının hem örgüte yeni katılanların toplumsallaşmasında hem de örgütü daha istikrarlı bir yapı kılmada önemi tartışılmıştır. Geleneksel örgüt kuramının bir hayli nesnel olmasından şikayet eden örgüt araştırmacıları ise kültür kavramını örgütlere ilişkin daha derin, daha zengin ve daha gerçekçi bir bakış açısı kazanmalarını sağladığı için heyecanla karşılamışlardır. Örgütsel kültürün bir ilgi alanı haline gelmesi genellikle karmaşık ve kaotik olan örgütsel yaşamın dinamiklerini daha iyi anlamamızı sağlamıştır.

Örgütsel kültür çalışmaları kültürü ele alış biçimleri ile iki ana akım şeklinde karşımıza çıkar. İlki, kültürü bir değişken olarak görür ve kültürün nicel olarak hesaplanıp örgütsel amaçlar doğrultusunda tasarlanıp uygulanabileceğini öne sürer. Buna göre, örgütsel kültür bir yönetim ya da liderlik aracı ve örgütün gelişmesi ya da değişmesinde kritik bir stratejik değişken olarak amaçlar doğrultusunda şekillendirilebilir. Bu araçsal bakış açısı doğal olarak bazı örgüt kültürlerini diğerlerinden daha güçlü olarak kabul eder ve güçlü bir kültüre sahip olmak için lidere yapması gerekenler konusunda öneriler getirir. Kültürü ele alan ikinci bakış açısı ise örgütlerin güçlü ya da zayıf bir kültüre sahip olmadıklarını, fakat her birinin benzersiz bir kültür olduğunu öne sürer. Örgütsel kültür örgüt yapısında bir parça değil, yapının kendisidir (Putnam & Fairhurst, 2004).

Kültür belli yönetsel amaçlar için şekillendirilebilecek nicel bir değişken değil, anlamayı geliştirmeye yönelik bir kavramsal araç olarak kabul edilir.

Kültüre ilişkin bu iki yaklaşımdan ilki, kültürü okullarda daha iyi öğrenme düzeyleri elde etmek için yararlanabileceğimiz bir mekanizma olarak gören 'etkili okul' kavramını etkilemiştir. Etkili okullar elde edebilmek için okul kültürünün yöneticiler tarafından değişikliğe uğratılması fikri üzerinden süren bu etkileşim, eğitimde değişim, başarılı değişim yönetimi gibi kavramların da önem kazanmasına yol açmıştır.

Okul örgütünün bu değişim çabalarından en çok etkileneni olarak öğretmenler de bir aradalıklarından dolayı bir 'öğretmen kültürü' oluştururlar. Bu olgu hem evrensel hem de ulusal düzeylerde öğretmenler arasında ortak değer, varsayım, ya da inançlar olmasından yola çıksa da, yerel çevresel şartlar ve sistemsel farklılıklar nedeniyle öğretmen ya da öğretmenlik meslek kültürünün akışkan, çoğulcu ve değişken bir yapıya sahip olduğu iddia edilmiştir (Cherryholmes, 1987). Bu çalışmada, örgüt kültürü öğretmenlerin bakış açıları ve anlamlandırmaları üzerinden ele alınırken, her okulun kendine özgü bir kültür olduğu ve politika yapıcılarının değişim taleplerine verilen tepkilerde bu kültürün belirleyici olduğu varsayımından yola çıkılmıştır.

Türkiye'de 2004 yılında başlatılan program reformu girişimi, 2005 yılında ilköğretim programlarının temel felsefesinde ve öğretim metotlarında büyük değişim öngören bir şekilde oluşturmacı programlara geçilmesiyle gerçekleşmiştir. Bir öğretme değil öğrenme kuramı olan oluşturmacılık (Brooks & Brooks, 1993), öğrencinin sınıf içinde ya da dışında öğrenme sürecine etkin katılımını gerektirir. Bu katılım, öğrenirken geçmişteki deneyim ve bilgilerin karşılıklı konuşma ve yansıtma yoluyla paylaşılarak yeni bilgilerin yapılandırılmasını sağlar. Bilgi, görelî, öznel, sınırlı ve uyumsal olarak kabul

edilir; öğrencinin bilgiye ulaşması bir sonuç değil yeni bilgi için kaynaktır. Bu da öğrenmede sonuç yerine süreç odaklı bir yaklaşım getirir.

Oluşturmacı sınıf ortamını yaratacak olan öğretmene de yeni roller yüklenmiştir. Öğretmen öğrencinin bilgiye ulaşması için ona kaynak ve imkan sağlayan, rehberlik eden, öğrenciyle birlikte öğrenen ve araştırandır. Bu rollerin öğretmenler tarafından yerine getirilmesi yeni programın başarıyla uygulanıyor olmasının anahtarıdır. Fakat değişim yalnızca kağıt üstünde öğretmenin rolüne ilişkin tüm gerçeklikleri değiştirerek değil, bu rollerin gerçekleşeceği yapı, öğretmen ve kültür arasındaki etkileşimle gerçekleşir (Helsby, 2000). Bu etkileşim, ancak öğretmenlerin de etkin olarak katıldığı bir dönüşüm sürecinde, onların yeni değerleri ve rolleri anlamalarına, onlar üzerinde düşünmelerine ve birbirleriyle ve politika yapıcılarla diyalog halinde olmalarına imkan yaratıldığında mümkün olabilir.

Türkiye'de oluşturmacı programların uygulanmaya başlamasıyla birlikte sayısız çalışma yapılmış olmasına karşın, öğretmenlerin bu değişimi nasıl anlamlandırdıkları, bir örgütsel kültür bakış açısıyla ele alınmamıştır. Bu bakış açısı değişim girişiminin uygulamada başarıya ulaştığını görebilmemiz için bir okuldaki öğretmenlerin kültüründe de dönüşüm yaşanması gerektiğinden yola çıkar. Bu çalışma aşağıdaki araştırma soruları kapsamında yürütülmüştür:

- 1) Öğretmenlerin oluşturmacı programa geçişe ilişkin deneyimlerinden elde ettikleri anlamlar nelerdir?
- 2) Oluşturmacı programa geçiş öğretmenlerin kültüründe nasıl kendini göstermektedir?
- 3) Öğretmenler oluşturmacılığın öğretmenliğe ve öğretmenlere yüklediği yeni rol ve değerleri nasıl algılamaktadırlar?

Araştırmanın yöntemi

Bu çalışmanın amacı oluşturmacı eğitim felsefesine geçişin örgüt ve öğretmen kültürü üzerindeki göstergelerini ortaya çıkarmaktır. Araştırmada, nitel araştırma yöntemlerinden olgubilimsel desen kullanılmıştır. Veri toplamak için araştırmacının kendisinin hazırladığı yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme formu vasıtasıyla öğretmenlerle yüz yüze görüşme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Görüşmeler kayıt altına alınıp aynı şekilde deşifre edilmiş ve daha sonra araştırmacı tarafından yazın ve araştırma soruları açısından anlamlı birimler halinde kodlanmıştır. Elde edilen birimler içerik analizi tekniğiyle önce temalara sonra da kategorilere ayrılmış ve bunlardan yola çıkarak oluşturmacı programın öğretmenlerin kültüründe ne gibi yansımaları olduğu sorusu cevaplanmaya çalışılmıştır.

Araştırmanın katılımcıları

Araştırmaya Ankara ili Çankaya ilçesinde bir ilköğretim okulunda çalışan altmış öğretmeninden 22'sine ulaşılmış ve bunlarla bire bir görüşme yapılmıştır. Katılımcıların seçiminde program değişikliğine geçiş sürecini yaşamış deneyimde olmalarına dikkat edilmiş ve önce okul yöneticisinden alınan isimlere, daha sonra da kartopu yöntemiyle diğer öğretmenlere ulaşılmıştır. Görüşülen öğretmenlerden dördü erkek on sekizi kadın, dokuzu branş on üçü sınıf öğretmeni olup, deneyimleri on ile otuz üç yıl arasında değişmektedir. Araştırmacının kendisi tarafından 25 ile 100 dakika arasında değişen sürelerde tamamlanan görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Bulgu ve sonuçlar

İlk olarak, bulgular yeni programla birlikte öğretmenlere göre öğrenci ve öğretmen rollerinin değiş tokuş edildiğini göstermiştir. Öğretmenlerin bu rol değişimi dolayısıyla yaşadıkları olgular öğrencilerin artık daha aktif ve üretken olması, kendi öğrenmelerinin sorumluluğunu almalarının gerekliliği,

öğretmenlerin dinleyen ve rehberlik eden konumuna geçmesi, öğrencilere kaynak sağlamaktan sorumlu olmaları olmuştur. Öğretmenlere göre velinin de rolü oldukça değişmiş, eğitim süreçlerine katılımı ve dolayısıyla önemi artmıştır. Bu durum, Türkiye'de eğitimdeki eşitsizliklerin mevcut kaynaklarından biri olan ailelerin sosyo-ekonomik düzeylerinin eğitime etkisini daha da önemli kılmıştır. Öğretmenler bu artan önemin hem programın gerektirdiği finansal katkı hem de öğrencilerin toplumsal sermayelerinin düzeyi açısından ciddi bir eşitsizlik yarattığını dile getirmişlerdir.

Velilerin katılımının daha kritik hale gelmesi öğretmenlerle onlar arasındaki ilişkinin doğasını da etkilemiş, öğretmenler artık velinin solğunu sınıfta hissettiklerini paylaşmışlardır. Bu da, öğrencilerin yeni rolleriyle birlikte öğretmenlerin sınıftaki eski mutlak hakimiyetlerini sarsan başka bir unsur olmuştur. Öğretmenin artık yegane ve mutlak doğru bilgi kaynağı olmaması öğretmenlerin kısmi memnuniyetsizliğine yol açmış olsa da, öğretmenler bundan çok yeni rollerini yerine getirmeleri için gerekli kaynakların, zamanın ve birikimlerinin olmamasından şikayet etmişlerdir.

Özellikle programın teknolojik donanım, imkan ve bilgiye ne ölçüde dayalı olduğu düşünüldüğünde kaynak eksikliğinin öğretmen rollerini yerine getirmedeki olumsuz etkisi anlamlıdır. Buna karşın, öğretmenler yeni programla ilgili en çok hoşlarına giden değişiklik olarak teknoloji kullanımının ve görsel malzemeye dayalı öğretimin artmasını işaret etmişlerdir. Bu özellikle daha deneyimli öğretmenlerde güvensizlik ve yetersizlik duygusunu da beraberinde getirmiştir.

Öğretmenlerin yaşayıp yeni anlamlar yükledikleri diğer önemli değişiklikler de daha öğrenci merkezli bir sınıf yönetimi anlayışı, ödevlerde grup çalışması, içeriğin gerçek hayattan malzemelerle sunulması, değerlendirmenin performans

esaslı ve süreç odaklı olması ve son olarak genelde programın eskisine oranla daha az dolu ve basit algılanması olmuştur.

Bulguların ortaya çıkardığına göre, öğretmenlerin çoğunlukla oluşturmacı programı başlangıçta bir tehdit olarak algılayıp, sonradan ona uygun değerler ve inançlar edinmiş olduklarını görebiliriz. Fakat uygulamayla ilgili anlam ve algılarına bakıldığında, uygulamanın önündeki engellerin bu değer ve inançlardan daha belirleyici olduğu ifade edilebilir.

Öğretmenler oluşturmacı programı uygulamaları sırasında karşılaştıkları sorunların programın tam olarak uygulanmasına engel teşkil ettiğini ifade etmişler, bunların en başında da fiziki şartların yetersizliğini göstermişlerdir. Fiziki şartlarla kastedilen, en başta sınıflarda bilgisayar ve projektör gibi elektronik donanımın eksik olması, sınıf boyutlarının küçük olması ve mobilyanın esnekliğe uygun olmaması, branş öğretmenleri için özel sınıflar olmaması ve ikili öğretim yapılmasından dolayı sınıfların paylaşılıyor olması olmuştur. Araştırma yapılan okulun merkezi konumu düşünüldüğünde, oluşturmacı programı ailelerin sosyo-ekonomik düzeylerinin daha düşük ve genel fiziksel şartların çok daha yetersiz olduğu kırsal bölge okullarında ya da kentlerin çeperlerindeki okullarda uygulamaya çalışan öğretmenlerin daha sorunlu bir dönüşüm sürecinden geçtikleri tahmin edilebilir.

Uygulamanın önündeki engeller olarak karşımıza çıkan diğer olgular deneyim, değişimin batı kaynaklı ödünç bir politika olması, okul yöneticilerinin yönlendirme ve bilgi eksikliği, öğretmenlerin değişim kararı sürecine yetersiz katılımları ve konuyla ilgili yetersiz eğitilmeleri olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Tüm bu engeller, öğretmenlerin eski programın söylemlerini yenileriyle değiştirebilmelerine rağmen, başarılı uygulamadan alacakları tatmin duygusunu

eksik yaşamlarına, suçluluk ve yetersizlik duygularına kapılmalarına ve sınıf içi yaşamlarıyla ilgili daha da içe kapanmalarına neden olmuştur.

Okuldan kaynaklanmayan ama uygulamanın önündeki en ciddi engellerden biri olarak öğretmenlerin karşısına çıkan olgu merkezi sınavlar olmuştur. Bir sonraki öğretim aşamasına geçiş için yapılan bu sınavların öğretmenler, öğrenciler, veliler ve hatta yöneticiler üzerinde oluşturduğu baskı, öğretmenlerin oluşturmacı programı uygularken yaptıkları seçimleri ciddi bir biçimde etkilemekte, zamanın öğrenci etkinliği ve üretiminden çok sınav hazırlığına ayrılmasına neden olmaktadır. Bu öğretmenler arası diyalogda da başlıca konu haline gelmiş, sınıf karşılaştırmaları yöneticiler tarafından vurgulandıkça öğretmenler programın gerektiği ölçüde etkin uygulanmasından uzaklaşmışlardır.

Son olarak, öğretmenlerin ders planlama ve hazırlığı, diğer öğretmenlerle kurdukları işbirliği, evrak işleri ve öğretmen gelişimi konularında da oluşturmacı programla birlikte değişim yaşadıkları ve bu değişimin onların mesleki yaşamlarına da etki ettiği ortaya çıkmıştır. Kılavuz kitaplarla birlikte, ders hazırlığı olgusu büyük ölçüde standartlaşmış, öğretmenler ise hem zamandan kazandırdığı hem de yeni fikirlerle dolu olduğu için kılavuzu benimsemişlerdir. Yine de hala ders planlama ve hazırlığı olgusunun öğretmenlerimiz için programdan ve kültürden bağımsız bir şekilde, ağırlıkla kişisel tercihlere ve adanmışlık düzeyine bağlı olarak değişkenlik gösterdiği söylenebilir. Meslek yaşamı açısından önemli olan diğer bir konu ise öğretmenler arası işbirliğidir. Öğretmenlerin işbirliği düzeylerinin oldukça düşük olduğu ve öğretmenler arasında özellikle sınıf içi süreçlerle ilgili mesleki paylaşım, fikir alışverişi ya da yardımlaşmanın çok az olduğu ve öğretmenlerin bunların önemine ilişkin bir algı geliştirmedikleri ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu da oluşturmacı felsefenin ruhuna aykırı bir durumdur.

Öneriler

Bu araştırma, öğretmenlerin program değişikliği gibi kritik bir reform sürecinde, hem yeni programın geliştirilmesi, denenmesi ve değerlendirilmesi süreçlerinde daha etkin rol almadan ve uygulama konusunda etkili bir şekilde eğitilmeden yeni programın ne bir parçası ne de uygulayıcısı olabileceklerini ortaya koymuştur. Bir program reformu girişiminin başarıya ulaşması için öğretmenlerin içinde bulunduğu kültürün ve bu kültürü oluşturan değer ve inançların göz önünde bulundurulması gerekmektedir. Öğretmenlerin şartları uygun bile olsa yeniliği ne ölçüde uygulayacaklarının denetimi düzgün yapılmadığından, yeniliğe yönelik bir bağlılık geliştirmeleri mecburidir. Bu nedenle, böylesi program değişikliklerinde, bu bağlılığın gelişip öğretmen kültürünün bir parçası haline gelebilmesi için öğretmenlerin daha çok dinlenmesi, katılımlarının sağlanması ve desteklenmesi gerekmektedir. Bu nedenle, okul yöneticisinin de rollerinde de bir dönüşüm gerçekleşmeli ve müdürler yalnızca kaynak aramak ve fiziki şartları güçlendirmek gibi mali ve idari konularda değil, programla ve öğretimle ilgili de daha fazla inisiyatif alacak bilgiyle ve sorumlulukla yüklenmelidir.

Appendix G

VITA

Asu Şahin was born in 1978 in Akşehir. She received a B.A in Foreign Language Education from Middle East Technical University in 2000 and started teaching English as an instructor at Bilkent University School of English Language. She earned a Cambridge University Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English (COTE) in 2001. She received a Master of Science degree in Educational Administration and Planning from Middle East Technical University in 2005. Since 2008 she has been working as an instructor of English at Public Administration Institute for Turkey and the Middle East (TODAİE). She is married with one child.

ENSTİTÜ

- Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü
- Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
- Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü
- Eğformatik Enstitüsü
- Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü

YAZARIN

Soyadı :

Adı :

Bölümü :

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) :

.....

.....

.....

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamı dünya çapında erişime açılsın ve kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla tezimin bir kısmı veya tamamının fotokopisi alınsın.
2. Tezimin tamamı yalnızca Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi kullanıcılarının erişimine açılsın. (Bu seçenekle tezinizin fotokopisi ya da elektronik kopyası Kütüphane aracılığı ile ODTÜ dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.)
3. Tezim bir (1) yıl süreyle erişime kapalı olsun. (Bu seçenekle tezinizin fotokopisi ya da elektronik kopyası Kütüphane aracılığı ile ODTÜ dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.)

Yazarın imzası Tarih